

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
SCHOOL FOR ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS

MASTER THESIS

CONSUMER-BRAND RELATIONSHIP: BRAND HATE

AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

The undersigned SABINA IVANOV, a student at the University of Ljubljana, School of Economics and Business, (hereafter: SEB LU), author of this written final work of studies with the title CONSUMER-BRAND RELATIONSHIP: BRAND HATE, prepared under supervision of red. prof. dr. Maja Konečnik Ruzzier.

DECLARE

1. this written final work of studies to be based on the results of my own research;
2. the printed form of this written final work of studies to be identical to its electronic form;
3. the text of this written final work of studies to be language-edited and technically in adherence with the SEB LU's Technical Guidelines for Written Works, which means that I cited and / or quoted works and opinions of other authors in this written final work of studies in accordance with the SEB LU's Technical Guidelines for Written Works;
4. to be aware of the fact that plagiarism (in written or graphical form) is a criminal offence and can be prosecuted in accordance with the Criminal Code of the Republic of Slovenia;
5. to be aware of the consequences a proven plagiarism charge based on the this written final work could have for my status at the SEB LU in accordance with the relevant SEB LU Rules;
6. to have obtained all the necessary permits to use the data and works of other authors which are (in written or graphical form) referred to in this written final work of studies and to have clearly marked them;
7. to have acted in accordance with ethical principles during the preparation of this written final work of studies and to have, where necessary, obtained permission of the Ethics Committee;
8. my consent to use the electronic form of this written final work of studies for the detection of content similarity with other written works, using similarity detection software that is connected with the SEB LU Study Information System;
9. to transfer to the University of Ljubljana free of charge, non-exclusively, geographically and time-wise unlimited the right of saving this written final work of studies in the electronic form, the right of its reproduction, as well as the right of making this written final work of studies available to the public on the World Wide Web via the Repository of the University of Ljubljana;
10. my consent to publication of my personal data that are included in this written final work of studies and in this declaration, when this written final work of studies is published.

Date of oral defence: 24.6.2020

Ljubljana, _____

Author's signature: _____

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
1 CONSUMER-BRAND RELATIONSHIP.....	3
1.1 Brands	3
1.2 Consumer-brand relationship	5
1.3 The role of social media in consumer-brand relationship.....	6
2 EMOTIONS TOWARDS BRANDS	8
2.1 Positive emotions.....	9
2.1.1 Brand loyalty	11
2.1.2 Brand love	12
2.2 Negative emotions	13
3 BRAND HATE.....	16
3.1 Concept of brand hate	17
3.2 Antecedents of brand hate	20
3.2.1 Customer dissatisfaction.....	20
3.2.2 Self-concept incongruity.....	22
3.2.3 Ideological incompatibility.....	24
3.3 Outcomes of brand hate	27
3.3.1 Brand avoidance	28
3.3.2 Negative word-of-mouth	30
3.3.3 Brand revenge.....	33
4 RESEARCH ON BRAND HATE	34
4.1 Purpose of the study	34
4.2 Research hypotheses and conceptual model.....	35
4.3 Methodology	37
5 RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH.....	38
5.1 Sample characteristics	38
5.2 Analysis of results	40
5.2.1 Results of general questions	40
5.2.2 Results of the questions linked to brand hate	41
5.2.3 Results of the questions linked to determinants of brand hate	42

5.2.4	Results of the questions linked to outcomes of brand hate	43
5.3	Hypotheses testing	45
5.3.1	Validity and reliability test	45
5.3.2	Measurement and structural model	47
5.4	Discussion	48
5.4.1	Theoretical discussion	48
5.4.2	Managerial implications	51
5.4.3	Limitations and future research opportunity	53
CONCLUSION.....		54
REFERENCES		55
APPENDICES		1

TABLE OF FIGURES

Figure 1:Scale of negative emotions towards brands.....	15
Figure 2: The conceptual model of brand hate.....	18
Figure 3: Brand hate hierarchy.....	19
Figure 4: Consumer perceived ethicality - Domains of origin.....	26
Figure 5: Types of brand avoidance	28
Figure 6: Conceptual model of antecedents and outcomes of brand hate	37
Figure 7: Structural model with standardized path coefficients.....	47

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Socio-demographic data of respondents	39
Table 2: Distribution of most hated brands that were mentioned at least three times	40
Table 3: Usage of brands in the past and in the present.....	41
Table 4: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about brand hate	41
Table 5: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about customer dissatisfaction	42
Table 6: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about self-concept incongruity	42
Table 7: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about ideological ncompatibility.....	43
Table 8: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about brand avoidance.....	43
Table 9: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about negative word-of-mouth.....	44

Table 10: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about electronic negative word-of-mouth	44
Table 11: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about brand revenge.....	45
Table 12: Cronbach's alpha, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) for all constructs	46
Table 13: VIF values for all constructs	46
Table 14: Confirmation of hypotheses	48

INTRODUCTION

A countless number of products on the marketplace give the customer numerous options to choose from (Broniarczyk & Griffin, 2014) and the brands are used by marketers in order to distinguish goods from one producer to another. For over two decades now, the topic of consumer-brand relationship has been evolving significantly (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015), as brand is one of the company's most valuable assets (Pan, Sheng, & Xie, 2012). Marketers are usually more focused on researching positive attitudes towards brands (Zarantonello, Romani, Grappi, & Bagozzi, 2016) and are ignoring the importance of consumers' negative feelings and attitudes towards brands. Since consumers tend to process negative feelings and events more thoroughly than positive ones (Baumsteier & Finkernauer, 2001), more focus should be given to the negative emotions that consumers have towards brands.

In their research of determinants and outcomes of brand love, Carroll & Ahuvia (2006) suggest that brand hate should also be a topic of research, as they got several respondents expressing the feeling of hate in their survey. Another argument for the necessity of further research of brand hate are numerous online hate group, where consumers gather to focus on negative feelings about brands and possibly even take measures against the target of their hate (Krishnamurthy & Kucuk, 2009). Therefore, brand hate, that is possibly the most negative emotion a consumer can feel towards a brand, has been introduced by marketing academics.

It has been noted that there are several reasons for hating a brand, including corporate wrongdoings, unmet expectations, negative perception of the brand (Zarantonello et al., 2016), country of origin (Bryson, Atwal, & Hulten, 2013) and symbolic incongruity (Hegner, Fetscherin, & Denzel, 2017). Different outcomes might arise from the consumers' hate, including negative word-of-mouth, complaining (Zarantonello et al., 2016), brand avoidance, brand retaliation (Hegner et al., 2017) and willingness to make financial sacrifices in order to hurt the brand (Fetscherin, 2019). Since the impact of brand hate can be harmful to the brands, it is important for brand managers to understand the concept of brand hate.

The purpose of this master thesis is to conduct an empirical research in order to identify the key determinants and outcomes of brand hate. Since no studies have been done so far of how Slovenians express their negative feelings towards brands, the purpose is to find out what is the attitude of Slovenian consumers towards brand hate. The next purpose of the thesis is to find out whether electronic negative word-of-mouth is one of the outcomes of brand hate, for there is no other study researching brand hate being spread online.

The aim of the thesis is to remind brand managers how important is the understanding of strong negative emotions consumers feel towards brands. It has been noted that brands and their managers do not give enough attention to brand haters. The damage consumers can do

to the brand is enormous and can have an extremely bad impact on the brand, including loss of customers, trustworthiness, reputation and revenue. The results of the thesis are going to help managers understand why people even start hating a brand and what are the outcomes of their hatred. With improved knowledge of the problem, managers would be able to understand the importance of finding brand haters, react accordingly, resolve the issues, and possibly even prevent brand hate.

This master thesis consists of a theoretical and an empirical part. The theoretical part consists of the review of secondary sources, that are mainly focused on academic articles as well as books and different web page sources. In the chapter “consumer-brand relationship” the concept of brand and its development through time is presented. Later, the thesis explains the importance of social media in the consumer-brand relationship. The second chapter is dedicated to emotions towards brands – positive, as well as negative. The importance of understanding both sides of emotions is highlighted. The third chapter is entirely focused on the concept of brand hate. The concept, including its determinants and outcomes, will be broadly researched. The next chapter of the thesis is devoted to the research of brand hate, where the seven hypotheses are developed. They are either connected to antecedents or to outcomes of brand hate.

- Hypothesis 1: Customer dissatisfaction leads to brand hate.
- Hypothesis 2: Self-concept incongruity leads to brand hate.
- Hypothesis 3: Ideological incompatibility leads to brand hate.
- Hypothesis 4: Brand hate leads to brand avoidance.
- Hypothesis 5: Brand hate leads to negative word-of-mouth.
- Hypothesis 6: Brand hate leads to electronic negative word-of-mouth.
- Hypothesis 7: Brand hate leads to brand revenge.

In the empirical part of the master thesis the quantitative method of data collection is used. For this intention, a questionnaire, based on the previous literature review on the topic, is created on the Qualtrics platform and is distributed online. With the questionnaire, the insight of the attitude of Slovenian consumers towards brand hate is measured, together with the reasons for brand hate and its outcomes. The survey took place from 3rd November to 6th December 2019. In the end, 235 entirely completed responses were included into the research.

After enough responses are collected, the received data is analysed with SPSS software and is later imported to AMOS, where a structural equation model is conducted. The results are presented in the next part of the thesis, followed by the discussion of the results, theoretical discussion, limitations and future research opportunities. Appendices can be found at the end of the thesis, along with the Slovene summary in Appendix 1.

1 CONSUMER-BRAND RELATIONSHIP

1.1 Brands

Brands are strongly present in a consumer's everyday life (Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2008) and accordingly, the word 'brand' is widely used in people's daily vocabulary and in the academic world. There are different explanations of what the brand is. According to Kotler & Keller (2012, p. 241), American marketing association defines 'brand' as "A name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers", meaning that marketers use brands to distinguish goods from one producer to another. This is a widely accepted definition of the term 'brand' in the academic world, as well as the most general and traditional one. A more profound insight of what the brand is can be found in contemporary definitions. There is a noticeable shift from brands being acknowledged only as visual elements to a more integrated view, including emotional, functional and psychosocial values (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998).

De Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley (1998) define 'brand' as a complex multidimensional construct with which brand managers enhance the value of products or services. This process of enhancement helps consumers assuredly recognize and appreciate the added values that a brand offers. Marketers should monitor and evaluate consumers' feedback and their needs, and use this data to increase the possibility of continuous purchases. Based on the previous literature review authors split 'brand' into twelve themes. These themes are "(1) legal instrument, (2) logo, (3) company, (4) shorthand, (5) risk reducer, (6) identity system, (7) image in consumers' minds, (8) value system, (9) personality, (10) relationship, (11) adding value and (12) evolving entity" (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998, p. 418). The authors conclude that the brand is co-produced by customers and companies.

Furthermore, Ruzzier & Ruzzier (2015) suggest that brands should be considered from a balanced perspective that includes different stakeholders' points of view. The internal perspective is intended for brand builders and should be focused on building brand identity, including invisible parts of brands, namely brand personality, vision, values, cultural attributions and benefits, as well as visual elements, namely slogan and logo. Altogether the visual and invisible elements should create a story. The external perspective focuses on how the brand is perceived and evaluated from the consumers' points of view, therefore external perspective falls under brand equity and its elements – brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality of a brand and brand loyalty. Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozi (2012) conceptualize 'brand' as a whole of feelings and perceptions that consumers have towards any of the visual or invisible elements of the brand, its performance, familiarity and trust. De Chernatony, McDonald, & Wallace (2011) state that a successful brand is the one that creates value for consumers and satisfies their emotional and functional needs in order to persuade them to make a purchase.

A countless number of brands on today's competitive and dynamic marketplace give the customer numerous options to choose from (Broniarczyk & Griffin, 2014). Consequently, the opportunities to switch to another brand, rather than be committed to only one, are great as well (Shukla, Banerjee, & Singh, 2016). Hence, one of the brand's highest priorities is to achieve consumers' brand commitment (Das, Agarwal, Malhotra, & Varshneya, 2019).

Consumers choose brands not only for their usefulness, they also choose them for the symbolic benefits brands provide (Albert & Merunka, 2013). They value psychological benefits of brands, since brands help them build their own identity, express themselves and achieve their self-identity objectives. Brands add to the way consumers see themselves (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). The way consumers are using the brand adds to their meaning on an individual level and it is of greater importance than the brand managers' view of the brand's identity (Fournier, 1998). Hence, the consumer-brand relationships must involve consumers' concept of self, to make the attachment to the brand stronger. Consumers therefore connect to the brand because it represents who they are or because it is meaningful to them on the level of their life goals and concerns (Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010). However, Kotler & Keller (2012) point out that people often choose brands in line with how they would like to see themselves (ideal self-concept) or how they think others see them (social self-concept) instead of how they actually see themselves (actual self-concept). This differs from person to person. For example, if someone is sensitive to opinions from others, they are more likely to choose a brand that is widely consumed, as they do not want to take the risk of others not accepting them because of "poor" choice of brand.

Brand choice is also based on previous experience with brands (Das et al., 2019). Subjective behavioural responses, feelings and cognitions that are conjured by brand-related stimuli are conceptualized as brand experience (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009). Brand-related stimuli can be encouraged either by marketers or other sources. Non-marketer sources are, for example, word of mouth, subjective personal experience and anti-brand websites (Romani, Grappi, & Dall'Aglio, 2012), while sources from the marketers include communication, packaging and brand identity (Brakus et al., 2009). Consumers experience brands while they search, shop and consume their products or services or whenever they directly or indirectly interact with a brand. One of the possible positive outcomes of brand experience developed over time is emotional connection to a brand (Brakus et al., 2009).

Another possible factor to consider when choosing a brand is brand ethicality. It has been shown that brand ethicality plays an important role in a consumer's decision-making process (Palihawadana, Oghazi, & Liu, 2016), as the ethical characteristics of the brand reflect the values of the consumer (Grohmann & Bodur, 2015). Perception of brand's ethics and its misconduct can have a negative impact on brand's evaluation, as well as on the consumer-brand relationship from the consumers' point of view and therefore steers purchase behaviour (Brunk & Blümelhuber, 2011).

1.2 Consumer-brand relationship

Relationship is a co-created entity in a brand as well as in an interpersonal context (Fournier & Alvarez, 2012). Research on consumer-brand relationship is complex and involves several different constructs such as self-brand connection, brand attachment, brand commitment, brand love and others (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015).

Every thought, image, perception, feeling and belief consumers have about brands, are formed into brand associations (Kotler & Keller, 2012). Based on these associations, consumers use brands that are congruent with their concept of self. When brand associations are used to communicate or shape the “self”, the linkage between the brand and the consumer is formed (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). It has been proved that people can relate to brands just like they relate to other people (Fournier, 1998).

An important part of the consumer-brand relationship conceptualisation is brand attachment, which represents the strength of the bond between the brand and the consumer’s concept of self (Park et al., 2010). The consumer’s concept of self is a very significant part of the brand attachment, and if the brand has the ability to reflect the concept of self on the consumer, the bond between them tends to strengthen (Park et al., 2010; Fournier, 1998). Bhattacharya & Sen (2003) also point out that the relationship between consumers and brands is strong when consumers identify with those brands and the brands satisfy at least one self-definitional need of the consumer. The study of Papista & Dimitriadis shows that satisfaction is an important element of consumer-brand relationship (2012).

Building and maintaining a strong relationship with consumers delivers various advantages to a brand (Fournier, Breazeale, & Fetscherin, 2012), including positive word-of-mouth, continuous purchase intention, resistance to negative information about the brand (Batra et al., 2012), diminished switching intentions (Brocato, Baker, & Voorhees, 2015) and brand loyalty (Fournier et al., 2012). Another positive consequence of strong relationships between consumers and brands is willingness to pay a premium price (Giovanis & Athanasopoulou, 2018; Fournier, 1998). Smit, Bronner & Tolboom (2007) propose that relationships with stronger bonds lead to customers, who are more likely to sacrifice their privacy protection in order to share their personal information with the brand and therefore the business behind it. They also recommend investing in customers who are continuous brand users and are potentially more loyal. Moreover, if the brand treats their customers nicely, it will result in active brand followers, who are investing in the relationship and who love to be in contact with the brand. Nowadays companies tend to focus on strengthening the relationship and retaining their existing customers, rather than investing vast quantities of money in order to acquire new customers (Smit et al., 2007). Loyal and satisfied existing customers can become active brand advocates and convince other consumers to start using the brand (Trump, 2014).

Nevertheless, some authors propose that not only positive behaviours result from consumer-brand relationships (Japutra, Ekinci, & Simkin, 2018). Strong and positive bonds between brands and consumers are not as frequent as assumed. Although a positive relationship bears many advantages, it also poses a risk for brands as well as consumers (Alvarez & Fournier, 2016). If the brand lets down the consumer, who is strongly connected to that brand, the consumer is bound to feel betrayed. This may lead to negative behavioural outcomes such as revenge and brand avoidance (Gregoire, Tripp, & Legoux, 2009). The linkage between the self and the brand is rather emotional and includes several feelings connected to the brand, e.g. sadness, anxiety from separation, happiness and pride when on display with the brand (Park et al., 2010).

It is presupposed that in the consumer-brand relationship the brand is personified in the eyes of consumers, so it can be treated as a relationship partner (Fournier, 1998). One of the aspects of personification involves brand personality. Brand personality is formed when a brand gets assigned human characteristics and that brings out consumers' different emotional responses (Alvarez & Fournier, 2016). Kotler & Keller (2012) explain that personality is a set of defining human psychological characteristics that lead to different responses to everyday environmental stimuli. People are more likely to choose the brand whose personality matches their own.

Brand anthropomorphism goes one step further. It creates additional value to the brand (Portal, Abratt, & Bendixen, 2018). Anthropomorphism is attributing real human behaviour with humanlike characteristics, emotions or intentions to nonhuman things (Epley, Waytz, & Cacioppo, 2007). Portal et al. (2018) portray that the brand should be consistent, has to have integrity, and be humane, in order to be perceived as human. Kim & McGill (2011) define two types of anthropomorphism. The first type leans on behaviour of a nonhuman brand. For example, if the brand is exceeding the expectations it is considered trustworthy, which makes it seem more human, since trustworthiness is a human characteristic (Portal et al., 2018). The other type persuades consumers that the brand is actually human, as the brand tends to have a humanlike mental state (Kim & McGill, 2011) with emotions, goals, will, mentality, senses, and temper (Fournier & Alvarez, 2012). Puzakova, Kwak, & Rocereto (2009, pp. 413-414) focus explicitly on the anthropomorphised brand and describe it as a "brand perceived by consumers as an actual human being with various emotional states, mind, soul, and conscious behaviours that can act as a prominent member of social ties". Portal et al. (2018) claim that a human brand, as identified by the authors, results in an improved consumer-brand relationship. They argue that the more human the brand seems, the bigger its reputation.

1.3 The role of social media in consumer-brand relationship

Over the last two decades, the way consumers gather and share information has changed completely. With the increase of digital communication channels such as websites and social

media, consumers got the ability to actively provide information of products and services to others (Hennig-Thurau, et al., 2010). An important aspect in the past decade are also social networks. Social networks are online communities that empower consumers to post and share photos, videos, thoughts and beliefs with others (Alkiviadou, 2019). They have also become a crucial advertising channel (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). Brands are present on social networks for two reasons: they want to be where their consumer are, and where their competition is (Coelho, Rita, & Santos, 2018).

With the rise of digital media consumer behaviour is changing and mobile devices are one of the main reasons for it (Van Belleghem, 2016). Consumers attained access to an endless number of information. People are connected through their mobile devices at all times and they have the power of creating the content online for everyone in the world to see (Knittel, Beurer, & Berndt, 2016; Labrecque, Esche, Mathwick, Novak, & Hofacker, 2013). Another novelty nowadays is that modern consumers want to be considered as individuals and have products personalized to their own needs. They demand simplicity, so their time is not wasted. Despite the fact that people are now moving into the digital world, human contact is more valuable than ever before (Van Belleghem, 2016). As a consequence, online consumers are more approachable, can provide valuable information to the company and are more active and discerning (Brown, Broderick, & Lee, 2007).

To strengthen the consumer-brand relationship, consumers should become more attached to brands and brands should be aware of their consumers' needs to increase customer loyalty and consequently even profitability. This could be achieved with greater connection and interaction amongst the two parties. Social networks are a way to do so (Hudson, Huang, Roth, & Madden, 2016).

Companies that want to achieve a stronger consumer-brand relationship are well aware of the importance of brand communities (Hennig-Thurau, et al., 2010). In recent years, brand communities have been built on online social networks such as Facebook and Instagram through brands' pages and have become a main channel for interaction between brands and consumers (Tsai & Men, 2013). A brand community is a structure of relationships in which customers are positioned. In these communities the main relationships are the ones among consumers and the brand as well as between associate consumers (McAlexander, Schouten, & Koenig, 2002). Brand communities bring social, informational, hedonic and economic benefits to consumers. Customers can have a social interaction with one another, they can obtain reliable information about the brand, perceive enjoyment from the content and get promotional deals in the community (Park & Kim, 2014). Brown et al. (2007) suggest that a consumer-brand relationship can easily be extended to the relationship towards the brand community, as the brand and its community share the same (or very similar) personalities and characteristics. Furthermore, consumers who interact with brands on social media develop stronger consumer-brand relationships than the consumers who do not (Hudson et al., 2016). The consumer, who interacts with a brand on social networks, increases their knowledge about the brand and they experience less unexpected actions of the brand when

engaging with the brand inside its community (Ba, 2001). Therefore, companies should invest in informational emotional interaction with the brand community (Kaufmann, Loureiro, & Basile, 2012).

In order for the consumer-brand relationship to be worthwhile and meaningful to consumers, the brand should provide long-term benefits for consumers on their social network. The online social presence of the brand is one of the essential criteria in determining the brand's relationship effort, as seen from consumers' point of view. They might be disappointed if their beloved brand is absent from social networks, the content is not relevant to them, or if the brand's social community is managed badly. The brand's social network is crucial in the emotional attachment and attraction of consumers to the brand. This is the essential aspect of social media in the consumer-brand relationship (Park & Kim, 2014). The benefits that brands get from managing a good social network page are brand awareness and brand trust (Coelho et al., 2018). Furthermore, a brand relationship is believed to improve when consumers engage with their beloved brand through social media (Hudson et al., 2016) and the emotional connection to the brand tends to get stronger, which results in higher brand loyalty (Coelho et al., 2018; Casaló, Flavián, & Guinalú, 2010).

Nevertheless, even though social networks are useful for spreading consumers' ideas (Alkiviadou, 2019), with mobile devices as the tool used for an immediate access to social media, one can as easily create and/or consume the content based on hatred towards the brand (Chetty & Alathur, 2019). Social networks are not only used by individuals, but also by organized groups in order to promote different interests and beliefs (Alkiviadou, 2019). It has been proved that hate sites bring together different people who build a bond with each other that is based on hatred towards a brand they do not support, while members' support for other brands rises just to oppose the hated brand (Popp, Garmedmann, & Jung, 2016). For the purpose of this thesis I am only going to focus on the negative beliefs that are being spread on social networks. Social networks are a highly effective and inexpensive tool for spreading hateful ideas, bringing together groups of people with the common interest of hate and providing them with a space where they can have a discussion of their hated topic with a vast number of like-minded people (Timofeeva, 2003).

2 EMOTIONS TOWARDS BRANDS

Consumers may develop emotional feelings towards objects of consumption, which also includes brands (Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005). According to Kotler & Keller (2012) emotions are one of the greatest assets a brand can have, as they help connect the brand to a customer and create a distinction of that brand among various competitors. A consumer can form an emotional attachment to only a few out of a vast number of brands, that they interact with on a daily basis (Thomson et al., 2005).

Nowadays, when brands compete to be unique and distinctive from one another, positive emotions arising on consumers' end tend to be the solution to establish a long-lasting consumer-brand connection and strong brand attachment (Akgün, Koçoğlu, & İmamoğlu, 2013; Yoo & MacInnis, 2005). Emotions present a crucial part in a consumer-brand relationship (Fournier, 1998). In marketing literature there are several different definitions of emotions. Richins (1997, p. 127) defines an emotion as "valenced affective reaction to perceptions of situations". Here, valence indicates either positivity or negativity of emotions (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2006). Bagozzi & Mahesh Gopinath (1999, p. 184) define emotions as "mental states of readiness that arise from appraisals of events or one's own thoughts". Morrison & Crane (2007, p. 410) define emotional branding as "engaging the consumer on the level of senses and emotions" and therefore forging a long-lasting, deep emotional connection to the brand. Authors continue, that holistic experience needs to be provided in order to fulfil the customer emotionally and therefore create the consumer-brand connection. This leads to the customer feeling that the brand is worthy of their trust.

Emotions are able to disrupt ongoing behaviour (Dick & Basu, 1994) such as decision-making process or satisfaction and other post-purchase behaviours (Watson & Spence, 2007). Ou & Verhoef (2017) show that emotions have a direct effect on satisfaction and consequently even loyalty, as customers' recent experience with the brand influences loyalty intentions. Emotions are the cause for affected behaviour, but Kotler & Keller (2012) suggest that consumer responses can also be rather emotional. Watson & Spence (2007) established four key antecedents for consumers' emotions: Outcome desirability (appraisal of the fact whether the situation outcome is positive or negative and is concerning personal welfare), agency (the person or thing that had the control over the situation; appraiser themselves, somebody else or circumstance), fairness (how morally appropriate the situation is) and certainty (perceived likelihood of events).

Emotions can be either positive or negative. If emotional experience is pleasant, the approach-behaviour towards the brand occurs. On the other hand, unpleasant emotional experience leads towards avoidance-behaviour (Zablocki, Makri, & Houston, 2019). Positive emotions develop satisfaction or utility, and negative emotions establish dissatisfaction or disutility. Emotions are important in the decision-making process, as they have the motivational function that directs the consumers' future actions (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2006). Brand managers need to ensure a positive experience before, during and after the purchase in order to provide a positive emotional connection to a brand. If done in the right way, this could also lead to continuous purchases and strong brand loyalty (Morrison & Crane, 2007).

2.1 Positive emotions

As there are so many positive effects that a strong consumer-brand relationship bears, many studies focus on positive emotions toward brands, ranging from customer loyalty (Han,

Kwortnik Jr., & Wang, 2008), liking a brand, brand passion (Das et al., 2019) and all the way to brand love (Batra et al., 2012; Albert & Merunka, 2013; Huber, Meyer & Schmid, 2015).

Consumers can have several positive emotions towards brands. Thomson et al. (2005) divide them into three groups; namely affection, passion and connection. Various emotional items are categorised into those groups. Affection, friendliness, loving and peacefulness fit into the group of affection, while passion, delightfulness and captivation fit into the passion category and lastly connection, bond and attachment fit into the connection group.

Emotional attachment to various objects (including brands) varies in its strength but the more emotional and stronger the feeling of connection, passion or love is, the stronger the attachment. Furthermore, if the separation from the object someone has positive emotions towards occurs, the consumer can feel distress. Emotional attachment to a brand predicts a certain amount of commitment (namely brand loyalty) to and investment (namely willingness to maintain the relationship) into the brand (Thomson et al., 2005).

It has been stated that the consumer, who feels emotionally connected to a brand, is more likely to be satisfied with it and build a favourable attitude towards that brand (Thomson et al., 2005). Furthermore, the positive attitudes can be developed, if the consumer is engaging with the brand on its social media's community (Coelho et al., 2018). Psychological bonds with brands or emotional connections to brands are resulting in higher profits for companies and greater competitive advantage (Akgün et al., 2013), customer satisfaction (Bagozzi & Mahesh Gopinath, 1999), and increased commitment, resulting in higher repurchase rate (Grisaffe & Nguyen, 2011).

One of the consumers' widely researched positive emotion towards brands is brand passion. Brand passion, as defined by Swimberghe, Astakhova, & Wooldridge (2014, p. 2659) is "a strong emotional connection to a brand that people value, find important, desire to own or use, incorporate into their identity, and invest resources over a period of time". Later on, the authors distinguish amongst obsessive brand passion and harmonious brand passion. Obsessive brand passion occurs after a controlled internalisation of the brand into the consumer's own identity, meaning that the consumer finds the brand important and the brand is seen as worthy of their resources. However, this is based on social or internal pressures. Harmonious brand passion emerges from a consumer's autonomous internalisation of the brand into their own identity. The consumer likes the brand and finds it important without any external influence. The relationship with the brand is in harmony with other aspects of the consumer's life. Brand passion invokes powerful emotions that further strengthen the consumer-brand relationship and give meaning to it. Das et al. (2019) found out that brand ethicality influences brand passion, as consumers are inclined to trust and identify with the ethical brands. Carroll & Ahuvia (2006) noted that the antecedent of brand passion is positive brand experience, and its outcome is higher brand commitment.

2.1.1 Brand loyalty

By creating and maintaining loyal customers, an emotional consumer-brand relationship becomes long lasting and one of the company's most valuable assets (Pan et al., 2012). Oliver (2010, p. 433) defines loyalty as "a deeply held commitment to rebuy a preferred product or service in the future despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour". Definition of Carroll & Ahuvia (2006, p. 82) is broader, as they define brand loyalty as "the degree to which the consumer is committed to repurchase of the brand". This happens in spite of competitors' attempts to take over the customers and regardless of external environment (Lazarevic, 2012). Furthermore, Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001) distinguish between 'purchase loyalty' that is defined as the willingness to purchase the brand and 'attitudinal loyalty' defined as the level of commitment towards the brand. Due to brand loyalty, customers are willing to overcome obstacles to purchase, such as a higher price. Albert & Merunka (2013) argue that satisfaction is the vital reason for consumer loyalty towards a brand. Hess & Story (2005) add that an antecedent of satisfaction is trust. As already mentioned in the previous chapters, engaging with a brand on its social media page can result in brand loyalty (Coelho et al., 2018).

Kotler & Keller (2012) recognize four different loyalty status: (1) Hard-core loyalty when consumers only buy one brand, (2) split loyalty when consumers buy two to three different brands, (3) shifting loyalty when consumers are shifting among various brands and (4) switchers – buyers that do not show any loyalty. The difference between loyalty for durable and non-durable products was acknowledged by Pan et al. (2012), who disclose that loyalty for products that are purchased on a more regular basis is not as high as loyalty for durable goods. A lower level of a purchase cycle allows the customer to test a new product from another brand, as it can easily be replaced by another product if it does not fit the customer's needs and expectations. The opposite goes for the products that are not being purchased as frequently, since the consequences would be more prominent. In hopes of avoiding choosing the wrong product consumers are more likely to buy a product of the brand, that they have already tried and were satisfied with.

According to Han et al. (2008), antecedents of brand loyalty are divided into two groups: (1) evaluative factors, including product or service quality, fairness, and customer satisfaction, and (2) relational factors, including trust, commitment and commercial friendship. Furthermore, other identified antecedents are loyalty programs memberships, psychological commitment, perceived values, switching cost and brand reputation (Pan et al., 2012). Attitudinal loyalty increases the relative price of the brand and purchase loyalty increases the market share (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Brand loyalty results from positive emotional reactions to a brand's actions and a deep consumer-brand bond (Morrison & Crane, 2007).

Strong loyalty means reduced marketing costs and higher customer retention (Morrison & Crane, 2007). It costs 5-10 times more to acquire new customers than to retain the existing ones (Saleh, 2014). Moreover, customers turn into advocates for the brand's products and services (Morrison & Crane, 2007). Dick & Basu (1994) additionally identified, that another outcome of brand loyalty is resistance to counter-persuasion attempts from competition.

2.1.2 Brand love

Consumers can evolve a feeling of love towards certain brands (Albert et al., 2008), which is perhaps one of the strongest positive feelings someone can have towards a brand (Zarantonello et al., 2016). Loving a brand differs from liking a brand, as the loved brands are the ones that give consumers meaning, help them define their own identity and further develop personal values (Batra et al., 2012). Liking a brand is a weaker emotional state than loving a brand, as the latter is believed to be more passionate. Brand purchase and recommendations are believed to be nearly doubled for consumers that love the brand, in relation to those that only like the brand (Rossiter, 2012).

Love has no universal definition in the literature. Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson (1991, p. 26) describe love as “the constellation of behaviours, cognitions and emotions associated with the desire to enter and maintain a close relationship with a specific other person”. However, love does not have to apply only to the romantic partner, but friends, family members and others as well (Albert et al., 2008). Batra et al. (2012) argue that brand love includes multiple emotions and behaviours, which includes brand attachment and self-brand connection. Contrary to previous research, the authors state that brand love is not the same as interpersonal love. Shimp & Madden (1988) explored the consumer-object relationship and argue that consumers are able to form love to the object of consumption, including brands. Carroll & Ahuvia (2006, p. 81) state brand love is “the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name”, and includes brand passion, brand attachment, positive brand evaluation and emotion responses towards a brand as well as willingness to declare love to a brand. People, as well as the goods we love, strongly impact the sense of who we are and our self-concept (Ahuvia, 2005), therefore Carroll & Ahuvia (2006) state that consumers feel greater love towards brands, that add to shaping the consumer's identity. Huber et al. (2015) unveil that with a longer duration of the consumer-brand relationship, the concept of self becomes more important for brand love. Authors go on to say, that a positive feeling towards a brand first appears when the brand is reflecting the consumer's identity, and only if the brand is capable of increasing a concept of self within one's social environment.

Albert et al. (2008) discovered 11 dimensions of love towards a brand, namely (1) passion towards a brand, (2) duration of the relationship, that should be long lasting in order to have the time to get to know the brand in-depth, (3) self-congruity, (4) consumer dreams, (5) evoked memories, (6) provided pleasure, (7) attraction consumer feel towards a brand, (8)

brand uniqueness in means of the relationship, (9) beauty of the brand, (10) trust and (11) declaration of affect. Batra et al. (2012) claim that a prototype of brand love is composed of seven elements, namely (1) passion-driven behaviours, that show desires to use a brand and invest money, energy and time into it, as well as having the history of using the brand, (2) integration with the concept of self (actual as well as desired identity), (3) positive emotional connection including attachment, (4) separation distress, (5) long term relationship, (6) positive attitude valence and (7) mindset, held to higher certainty and confidence.

The consumer-brand relationship, just as an interpersonal relationship, matures over time, meaning that brand love is a dynamic construct that changes over time and is an instable configuration. Feelings of love may change and a passionate brand relationship grows into a more rational one, however, not less important (Huber et al., 2015).

The determinants of brand love are brand identification, brand trust (Albert & Merunka, 2013) and an achieved perception about the outstanding quality of the product or service (Batra et al., 2012). Outcomes of brand love are positive word-of-mouth, lower price sensitivity (Albert & Merunka, 2013), brand loyalty, resistance towards received negative information about the brand (Batra et al., 2012) and avoidance of negative feelings towards brands, such as hate and disliking (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Carroll & Ahuvia (2006) also state that a satisfied consumer, who loves a brand, is somehow expected to spread a positive word-of-mouth among friends and be more devoted to repurchase the brand's product. The authors disclose that self-expressive brands are easier to be identified with and therefore have higher possibilities of being involved in positive word-of-mouth, as consumers have a higher tendency to love the brand that is congruent with their concept of self.

2.2 Negative emotions

Compared to research on positive attitudes toward brands, research on negative emotions is scarce and insufficient (Romani et al., 2012; Wilk, 1997). This comes as no surprise, as the marketers and brands themselves are much more interested in implicating positive forms of knowledge (Zarantonello et al., 2016; Dalli, Romani, & Gistri, 2006). However, marketers should put more focus on the negative perceptions of consumers, as people tend to process negative feelings and events more thoroughly than positive ones. Studies show that people are much more likely to talk about a negative experience or share a negative review rather than a positive one (Baumsteier & Finkernauer, 2001). This is due to consumers with negative feelings being more prone to engage in dissatisfaction responses (Mattila & Ro, 2008). Romani et al. (2012) continue, that consumers are more likely to spread negative word-of-mouth or switch to competition, rather than look up a complaint form and file it to a brand or its parent company. Brands should be aware of this occurrence, as nowadays anyone can post their opinion on the internet or social media (Gregoire et al., 2009), meaning anyone can find negative information online with ease. It is crucial to understand the impact of consumer negativity and hatred on brand value. This can not only affect the intangible

assets of consumer-based brand equity, but can as easily do a lot of damage to the brand value (Kucuk, 2018). Therefore, negative emotions are crucial in consumer-brand relationship (Romani et al., 2012). Dalli et al. (2006) affirm that negative experience and emotions are of great importance in developing the concept of self.

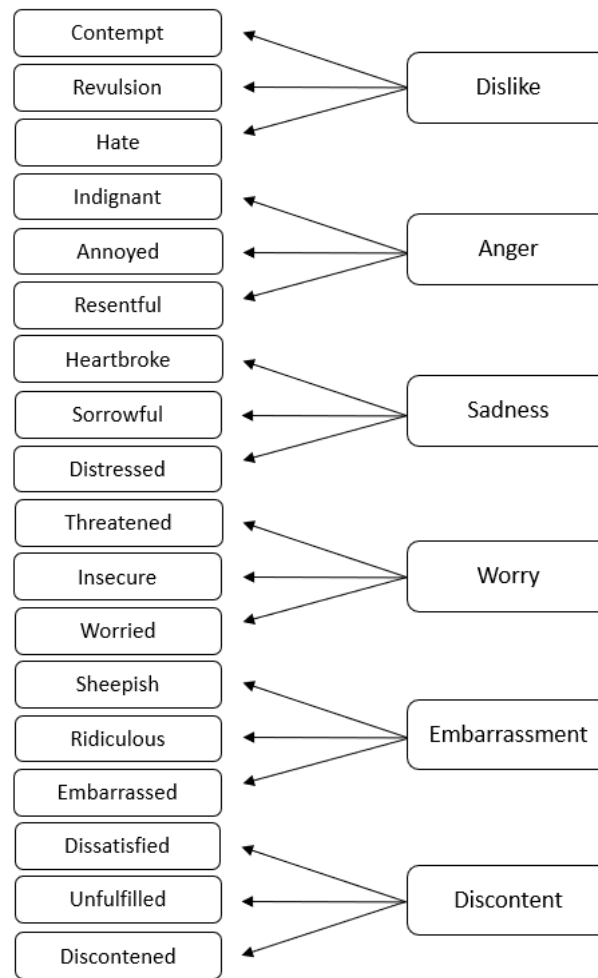
Previous research on negative emotions towards brands is linked to brand avoidance (Knittel et al., 2016; Rindel, Strandvik, & Wilen, 2013), brand dislike (Dalli et al., 2006) and most recently to brand hate (Kucuk, 2018; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016), which is possibly the most negative feeling towards a brand a consumer can have.

Romani et al. (2012, p. 56) conceptualise negative emotions towards brands as “consumer’s negative emotional reactions evoked by the appraisal of brand-related stimuli”. Authors continue that these stimuli can emerge either from sources created by marketers as well as other sources outside the company. But why do negative emotions towards brands even occur? Consumers’ negative experience with the brand, together with the contact of brand users, can elicit negative emotions towards the brand (Romani et al., 2012). Consumers can feel annoyed by a brand’s slogan (Rosengren & Dahlen, 2006), a brand’s advertising (Romani et al., 2012; Dalli et al., 2006) or feel distaste with a brand’s image and its symbolic meaning (Hogg & Banister, 2001). Therefore Romani et al. (2012) suggest that negative emotional reactions are not necessarily related to the product or its functionality as expected from consumers. They continue that consumers can have negative emotions towards a certain brand that they are aware of, although they have never used it before, meaning that the emotions towards brands could be indirect.

Romani et al. (2012) established a scale that displays a range of 18 most frequent negative emotion descriptors consumers experience towards brands, divided into six negative emotions, namely dislike, anger, sadness, worry, embarrassment and discontent as seen in the Figure 1.

Behavioural outcomes, that may arise from negative emotions towards brands, are switching to a competitor’s brand, aversion, complaining (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003) and even remedial actions to avoid embarrassment (Romani et al., 2012). Romani et al. (2012) state that consumers who express anger towards a certain brand are very likely to file a complaint or cooperate in a campaign against the brand’s parent company. Furthermore, if consumers experience fear, they may become averse to trying the brand’s product or even stop using it. Dislike can trigger both - negative word of mouth and switching to a competitor’s brand.

Figure 1: Scale of negative emotions towards brands



Source: Romani et al. (2012, p. 61)

Since dislike is one of the most negative emotions that consumers can feel towards a brand, the concept of brand dislike is going to be presented further in this chapter. In the research of Romani et al. (2012), dislike is amongst the most cited negative emotions towards brands. Consumers experience dislike (and anger) more often than any other negative emotion, such as disappointment and fear, towards brands (Romani, Sadeh, & Dalli, 2009). Wilk (1997) argues that dislike provides an important way for consumers to express themselves, their identity, the concept of self and their social time. Brand dislike is a negative judgement towards a brand, indicated by the consumer (Dalli et al., 2006). Romani et al. (2009, p. 496) explain dislike emotions as “typical, affective and aesthetic reactions to brands,” based on an individual’s appraisal of attractiveness. They continue that this set of emotions is defined by diverse intensity levels (from dislike to hate). Three levels of brand dislike are proposed by Dalli et al. (2006). Disliking the brand may occur when one is dissatisfied with the product’s performance. This is dislike on a product brand level. User brand level may arise when a negative stereotype is the reason someone does not want to be involved with the brand. And lastly, the corporate brand level is when allegedly unfair corporate behaviour is

the reason one does not want to use the brand. Furthermore, brand dislike can be either individualistic or collective, in which case it addresses social or ethical issues (Dalli et al., 2006). A possible antecedent of brand dislike can therefore be a product's physical appearance and its functionality or the changing needs of consumers because of their development and growth (Romani et al., 2009). Brand dislike causes different behavioural outcomes, such as negative word of mouth and increased brand switching intentions, since consumers want to be distanced from the brand and thus indicate their disapproval of the product's performance or other previously mentioned antecedents (Romani et al., 2012). When customers dislike a brand, they prefer to decrease interaction (Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994) and often avoid confronting the brand (Romani et al., 2009).

Wilk (1997) states that when it comes to observing others, likes are much easier to communicate and to identify than dislikes, especially in a mass society. This can only be done when interacting with others frequently, in order to carefully monitor their behaviour. He continues that if person A is consuming the product or service that person B does not like, person A can easily be excluded from person B's social group.

In Romani et al. (2009) research, one respondent went a step further and clearly expressed the hate she felt towards one brand: "I literally hate Clinique products," which proves that consumers are capable of feeling hate towards brands. In their research of determinants and outcomes of brand love, Carroll & Ahuvia (2006) suggest that brand hate should also be a topic of research, as they got several respondents expressing the feeling of hate in their survey.

3 BRAND HATE

Psychologists are not consistent on whether hate is a single emotion or if it consists of several emotions (Fetscherin, 2019). To understand hate in the marketing perspective, Zarantonello et al. (2016, p. 13) overviewed the literature on hate as an emotion. Their conclusion was that psychologists view hate as a "complex emotion, consisting of several primary and/or secondary emotions", without common opinion on what these emotions are. The most prevalent antecedent of hate, however, are moral violations and misfit between the person and the targeted object. In terms of behavioural outcomes consumers apply three different strategies; attack strategies, avoidance strategies and approach strategies.

Until recently, the concept of brand hate has been ignored by marketing scholars (Zarantonello et al., 2016), even though psychology and neuroscience show that people tend to remember negative experience more intensely than positive ones (Hegner et al., 2017). A strong argument for the necessity of further research of brand hate are numerous online hate groups, where consumers gather to focus on negative feelings about brands and possibly even take measures against the target of their hate (Krishnamurthy & Kucuk, 2009). Hegner et al. (2017) determine that brand hate is distinct from product hate, because the consumer's

negative experience related to one specific product of a brand can generalise to all other products that the brand offers and the negative emotion is therefore firmly connected to a brand's name.

An interesting case was pointed out by Kucuk (2008) about the “negative double jeopardy,” meaning that the brands who have the most supporters are usually also the ones that are hated the most. The study of five types of brand hate (Fetscherin, 2019) confirms this, as the most frequently mentioned hated brands in this research were Apple, Walmart and Nike.

3.1 Concept of brand hate

In the last few years, several conceptualisations of brand hate arose, as it has become a real phenomenon and it clearly bears the potential to influence consumer choices in a highly competitive market (Kucuk, 2019). Romani et al. (2012) see brand hate as one of the descriptors of negative emotions towards brands and as an extreme form of brand dislike. Bryson et al. (2013, p. 395) define brand hate as “intense negative emotional affect towards the brand”. Zarantonello et al. (2016, p. 11) conceptualize brand hate as a “constellation of negative emotions which is significantly associated with different negative behavioural outcomes”. Kucuk (2016, p. 29) defines brand hate as “consumer detachment and aversion from a brand and its value systems as a result of constantly happening brand injustices that leads to intense and deeply held negative consumer emotions,” and continues that brand hate is composed of various negative emotions rather than it is only one emotion. Brand hate is a durable phenomenon that can be harmful for brands and their reputation (Bryson & Atwal, 2018).

Zarantonello et al. (2016) were the first ones to build the conceptual model of brand hate, where they distinguished between active and passive brand hate. Active brand hate is divided into anger and contempt/disgust. Anger and contempt/disgust are further broken down into seven different active emotions. Passive brand hate is divided into fear, disappointment, shame and dehumanization, composed of eleven emotions that psychologists typically define as passive. The conceptual model of brand hate proposed by Zarantonello et al. (2016) is visually presented below in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The conceptual model of brand hate

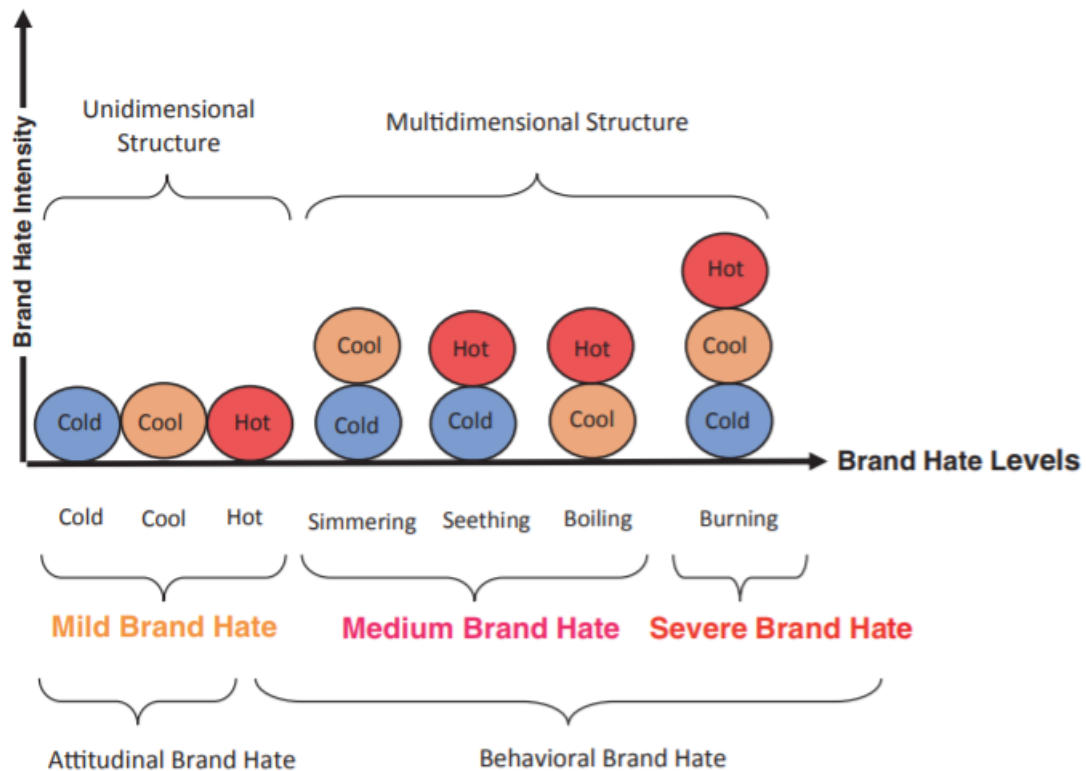


Source: Zarantonello et al. (2016, p. 18)

It has been noted that not all consumers feel hate towards brands on the same level (Bryson & Atwal, 2018). Based on the Sternberg (2003) triangular theory of hate, we recognise seven types of interpersonal hate, namely cool hate, cold hate, hot hate, simmering hate, boiling hate, seething hate and burning hate. Kucuk (2016) designed a hierarchy of brand hate, where he defines brand hate with three unidimensional components, namely cold brand hate, cool brand hate and hot brand hate. Cold brand hate means that consumers terminate the relationship with the brand, distance themselves from it, since they see it as worthless. Cool brand hate includes emotions such as revolt, resentment, disgust and repulsion. Consumers are feeling a total dissatisfaction. Their feelings go beyond distancing themselves from the hated target. Finally, hot brand hate includes extreme feelings of anger and anxiety, triggering aggressive responses towards the hated brand. The author has also explored Sternberg's dual hate model and came to a conclusion that the combination of cold and cool brand hate develop into simmering brand hate, cold and hot hate into seething brand hate, cool and hot hate into boiling brand hate, and lastly all three constructs of hate turn into burning brand hate, which is the highest possible level of hate. Furthermore, the author distinguishes between attitudinal and behavioural brand hate. Cold and cool brand hate fall into the first category, while other five types fall into the second category. In the case of attitudinal hate consumers tend to share negative feelings with their close social group or even keep it to themselves, while in the case of behavioural brand hate consumers express their feelings loudly in public. The hierarchy is presented in Figure 3. In opposition to Kucuk

(2016), Bryson & Atwal (2018) categorised brand hate into three types, namely (1) cold brand hate, resulting from market structure and cultural dominance (to maintain values and traditions of a country), (2) warm brand hate, resulting from negative stereotypes and symbolic identity, and (3) hot brand hate, resulting from company's irresponsible behaviour.

Figure 3: Brand hate hierarchy



Source: Kucuk (2016, p. 34)

Fetscherin (2019) conceptualises brand hate as a multi-dimensional construct based on three components, namely emotion of disgust, emotion of contempt and emotion of anger. Different combinations of these emotions result in five types of brand hate leading to diverse behavioural outcomes. The five types of brand hate are built on the aforementioned Sternberg's (2003) triangular theory of hate, which defines seven types of interpersonal hate. Fetscherin (2019) demonstrates all the same types of hate in the branding aspect, with the exceptions of cold hate and seething hate. He finds that disgust results in cool hate, anger results in hot hate, disgust and contempt result in simmering hate, disgust, contempt and anger result in burning hate and lastly disgust and anger result in boiling hate. Furthermore, he identifies that each of the five types leads to one specific outcome. Cool hate leads to switching to the competitor's brand, hot hate leads to willingness to make financial sacrifices in order to hurt the brand, simmering hate leads to private complaining, boiling hate leads to brand retaliation and burning hate leads to public complaining and brand revenge.

Kucuk (2019) was the first to distinguish between different types of brand haters. In his research he defines two types of brand haters: regular haters and true haters, depending on the intensity of hate they feel towards brands. Unlike true haters, regular haters are not expected to show severe hate and devote their life hating a specific brand. He states that true haters were easier to detect via social networks' hate sites, while regular haters were harder to find and needed financial initiative. The results show that regular brand haters feel seething hate, while true brand haters feel boiling hate. That means that the most intense level of hate – burning brand hate – cannot be identified in any of the haters group.

3.2 Antecedents of brand hate

Zarantonello et al. (2016) have studied what outcomes are linked to which of the three most common reasons for brand hate – (1) corporate wrongdoings, consisting of brand's actions, that consumers considered immoral, (2) violation of expectations, consisting of unmet expectations about the product or brand, and (3) consumers' negative perception of the brand. Bryson et al. (2013) found three different antecedents of brand hate, namely country of origin, customer dissatisfaction and negative stereotypes assembled by other consumers. Contrary to other studies, they found out that the brand's social responsibility is not a strong source of brand hate, although the brand is expected to act responsibly. The reason behind this deviation might be that the Bryson et al. (2013) research only included luxury brands as the object of research.

Hegner et al. (2017) study determinants and outcomes of brand hate using empirical research. The determinants of brand hate can be either consumer-related, contextual-related or product-related. They established three main determinants, which are negative past experience, symbolic incongruity and ideological incompatibility. The findings show that ideological incompatibility is the strongest reason for brand hate. Fetscherin's (2019) study introduced a new antecedent of brand hate - willingness to make financial sacrifices in order to hurt the brand. Consumers are capable of intentionally punishing brands even if the reason for the punishment is not product-related (Duman & Ozgen, 2018). The three most commonly mentioned antecedents of brand hate are going to be further explored in this chapter.

3.2.1 Customer dissatisfaction

Dissatisfaction is identified as one of the main antecedents of brand hate (Kucuk, 2018; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016; Bryson et al., 2013). Consumer satisfaction is an emotional reaction to an experience caused by a product or service used (Spreng, MacKenzie, & Olshavsky, 1996). It is a consumer's own judgement of whether the product itself or its feature is providing a satisfactory level of consumption-related fulfilment (Oliver, 2010). If a consumer's expectations are met, their confidence increases (Dall'Olmo Riley & de Chernatony, 2003) and their repurchase intention is encouraged (Chen, Huang, Huang,

& Sung, 2009). Satisfaction consist of expectation and perception of disconfirmations, or simply evaluation of those expectations (Oliver, 1980). Therefore, satisfaction refers to a customer's response to the divergence between their prior expectation and later performance of the product (Otieno, Harrow, & Lea-Greenwood, 2005).

Consumers' expectations are their own desires and wants (Priporas, Stylos, & Fotiadis, 2017). There are plenty of reasons for a consumer to form expectations about the brand's performance. One of them are the brand's promises, set by companies for the consumers, and later on the companies' attempt to keep those promises. A promise, as such, is an affirmation that something will happen or not and therefore the reason for consumer expectations, that can be either explicit or implicit (Gronroos, 2006). Consumers also form expectations based on their own past experience, based on the reputation of the brand, based on the opinions from others or based on reviews they read online (Yamada, 2019).

Brand experience is divided into five dimensions that are evoked by brand-related stimuli, namely (1) sensory dimension, that corresponds to sensory qualities appealing to senses and to aesthetic, (2) affective dimension, that includes emotions, (3) intellectual dimension, that stimulates imaginative and analytical thinking, (4) behavioural dimension, that corresponds to actions, and (5) social dimension, that creates a feeling of belonging to different social groups (Brakus et al., 2009). Positive brand experience, encouraged by different brand-related stimuli, tends to satisfy one's self-relevant needs, which motivates the consumer to connect the brand to the self. Pleasurable brand experience leads to repeated purchase behaviour, brand attachment and brand loyalty (Das et al., 2019). Schmitt (2013) states that all of the aforementioned brand experience are key determinants to either a negative or a positive consumer-brand relationship.

Otieno et al. (2005) divide satisfaction (or possibly dissatisfaction) into three stages, namely the pre-sales stage, the sales stage and the after-sales stage. In the pre-sales stage, the consumers have expectations about the product or service, the availability, price and benefits that the product provides. In the sales stage, the consumer is experiencing the product, delivery, quality of the product and the environment of the store. In the last stage, the consumer expects a quality customer support and help for possible repairs, replacements or refunds.

Satisfaction strongly impacts brand commitment (Park et al., 2010) and brand loyalty, which leads to higher future revenues and profits (Tu, Wang, & Chang, 2012). Thomson et al. (2005) state that a consumer, who has a strong emotional connection to a brand, is more likely to feel satisfaction after they experience the brand. The authors continue that even though satisfaction arises immediately after consumption, emotional connection usually develops only after several interactions with the brand.

After purchase, however, consumers may feel dissatisfied with the product or provided service from a certain brand either because of impolite employees, waiting,

unresponsiveness, or core services failure (Bougie et al., 2003), as the displeasure of underfulfilment arises (Oliver, 2010). Because performance was lower than expected, negative disconfirmation occurred (Oliver, 2010). Bougie et al. (2003, p. 382) define dissatisfaction as a “customer’s general valenced reaction to a negative event”.

Different behavioural outcomes of dissatisfaction are negative word-of-mouth, complaining, subterfuges, third-party actions related to other organizations, decreased tendency to repurchase (Oliver, 2010), brand avoidance (Lee, Conroy, & Motion, 2009a), brand switching (Bougie et al., 2003), and brand hate (Hegner et al., 2017). Zeelenberg & Pieters (2004) introduce a new behavioural outcome of dissatisfaction, called inertia, which means that the customer does nothing after a failed service encounter. Authors further explain, that after the level of dissatisfactions rises, consumers may suddenly switch to a competitor’s brand. If a consumer has negative feelings towards a brand, resulting from poor product or service performance, they are more likely to terminate the relationship with the brand (DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008). Disappointment occurs after the first failure and with any further potential failure it leads to dissatisfaction. Later on, the intention to repurchase lowers and at the highest level of dissatisfaction, consumers switch to a competitor’s brand. Only a small number of failures are required for an ordinary consumer to stop using the brand and for the loyalty to end (Oliver, 2010).

3.2.2 Self-concept incongruity

People use consumption to manage their identity and concept of self (Ahuvia, 2005). They subconsciously make decisions about the level of recognized similarities or dissimilarities amongst their own self-concept and perceived brand image. Since a brand’s values derive from the brand’s symbolic meaning, consumers are actually comparing their personal values to values carried by the one particular brand they feel congruent or incongruent with (Puzakova et al., 2009). When values are similar, identification with brand tends to be stronger (Tuškej, Golob, & Podnar, 2013). When consumers purchase a brand, they want to incorporate the brand’s characteristics into their own identity and communicate it to others. Therefore, brands help consumers build their personal identity. Brands can either serve as a self-expression tool as well as a differentiation tool for the consumer to be distinguished from other members of their society. This means that brands help define consumers’ inner or true self by forming their personal identity, as well as the consumer’s outer or social self by forming their social identity (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). The consumer feels a high level of comfort when they discover a specific brand that fits their personality or their social self-image (Huber et al., 2015). Consequently, the consumer has a tendency to purchase the brands that give additional meaning to their life (Khan & Lee, 2014). One’s self-concept can possibly be strengthened by owning certain brands that present symbolic meaning to the consumer and are congruent with their already established self-concept (Tuškej et al., 2013; Puzakova et al., 2009). On the contrary, a brand, the identity of which is incongruent with

the consumer's self-concept, will be the target of rejection behaviour, as the consumer does not want to be seen using it.

The concept of self is a multidimensional construct, consisting of multiple selves, namely (1) actual-self, the image that the consumers has of themselves and refers to the private self and their identity, (2) ideal-self, which shows how people would like to see themselves and is also a part of personal identity, (3) actual social-self, explaining how people believe others see them and is part of the public self, and (4) ideal social-self, which defines how consumers would like others to see them and is also a part of the public self (Sirgy, Grewal, & Mangleburg, 2000).

Self-congruity is the matching of the consumer's concept of self with the identity of the brand, created by the brand manager, and the consumer's perceived image of that brand. Based on aforementioned multidimensional sub-construct of the self, there are four sub-constructs of self-congruity, namely (1) actual self-congruity, (2) ideal self-congruity, (3) social self-congruity and, lastly, (4) ideal social self-congruity. Actual self-congruity defines how consumers see themselves in comparison to brand identity. They feel obligated to protect their own identities and therefore feel uncomfortable in situations related to brands that are not consistent with their actual-self (e.g. higher-class shopper being in a discount store). Actual self-congruity is motivated by self-consistency. Ideal self-congruity defines how the consumer would like to see themselves (who they desire to be) in comparison to brand identity (Sirgy et al., 2000). The ideal self of a common consumer consists of reasonable goals that motivate behaviour and realised aspirations. It is mostly composed of good images of oneself, such as being a perfect parent. A brand can help the consumer reach that goal. For example, a consumer may use a certain brand to boost their self-esteem. Nevertheless, people strive to achieve the ideal self, despite argument that it can never be achieved (Ogilvie, 1987). Ideal self-congruity is motivated by self-esteem.

Social self-congruity defines how a consumer imagines to be seen by others in relation to the brand identity. It is not necessary that the social self is consistent with the actual or ideal self-image. Social self-congruity is motivated by social consistency. Consumers feel uncomfortable if they act the opposite way of how they believe people see them and are therefore motivated to maintain the behaviour that expresses their actual social self. Ideal social self-congruity defines how a consumer would like to be seen by other people in comparison to brand identity. Consumers adjust their behaviour to be consistent with their desire of how they would like to be seen and strive to get their approval from others. Inconsistent actions would mean disapproval of their social group; they then strive to get positive reactions in order to earn their ideal social self-image. Ideal social self-congruity is motivated by social approval (Sirgy et al., 2000). Brands can help achieve all of the consumer's above-mentioned sub-constructs of self-congruity, either by having the consumers purchase and use those specific brands, or by rejecting them.

Self-congruity tends to affect a consumer's purchase behaviour (Sirgy et al., 2000) and if the brand is capable of reflecting a consumer's personality or enhancing a consumer's social self, the emotional connection towards the brand is likely to be formed (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Just as people show their identities by using certain brands, they build their identities by deliberately not purchasing or using brands they are not congruent with, which is a determinant of brand avoidance (Khan & Lee, 2014; Hogg & Banister, 2001). Refusal of consuming certain brands has the exact same ability as the consumption of brands to represent a consumer's personal as well as social identity. It is noted that consumers have less trouble expressing their dislikes, than they do expressing their likes. Consumers are defining themselves by disliking tastes of others and therefore gain distinction by disliking something that others like. This idea of disliking and rejection is linked to the undesired self (Hogg & Banister, 2001).

The concept of undesired self was introduced by Ogilvie (1987) and is referred to as an opposite of the ideal self – an un-ideal self. It consists of undesired personal characteristics and experienced embarrassment, undesired emotions and dreaded past experience. Thus, contrary to the ideal self, which is based on desires, the undesired self is based on past experience. The undesired self is a tool for judging one's level of self-welfare. Hegner et al. (2017) state that a brand might be a representative of such an undesired image because it is incongruent with the consumer's personality. Furthermore, consumers are clear with expressing negative feelings towards groups they do not want to be associated with. Those feelings most likely arise from stereotypes about those groups (Banister & Hogg, 2004). Consumers choose not to buy products, whose ownership would identify them with social groups they would like to avoid. Consumers also reject to send out negative messages with their choice of consumption to the public (Hogg & Banister, 2001). If a brand is perceived as representing values incongruent with the consumer's own values, the chances of avoiding the brand are high (Lee, Motion, & Conroy, 2009b).

Self-concept incongruity is recognized as an antecedent of brand hate by several authors (Bryson & Atwal, 2018; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2016). Zarantonello et al. (2016) also identified negative stereotypes as a possible antecedent of brand hate. Stereotypes are highly connected to distinction of one's social identity from other social groups.

3.2.3 Ideological incompatibility

Nowadays, an increasing number of ethical consumers and a vast quantity of ethical products can be found on the market place (Sudbury-Riley & Kohlbacher, 2016). People are more aware of the social and environmental issues than ever before and are therefore buying and consuming more sustainable products. They consume organic, vegetarian and vegan products, buy more products that can be re-usable, consume green electricity, ethical clothing and so on (Ethical consumer markets report, 2018). Brands are under supervision of consumers, who have developed a strong ethical ideology, which strongly impacts their

purchase decision process and brand choice. It has been noted that consumers feel more valued if the brand they are using participates in ethical activities (Das et al., 2019). Brands that act responsibly and ethically have a positive influence on the consumer-brand identification and other positive attitudes towards brands (Kucuk, 2018), such as customer satisfaction (Garcia-Madariaga & Rodriguez-Rivera, 2017).

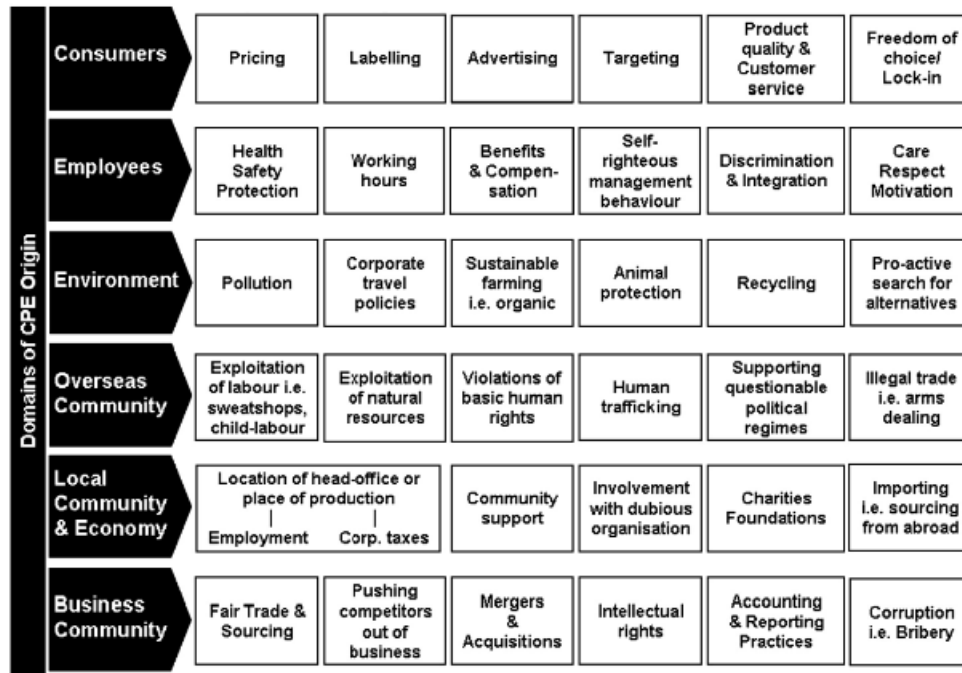
Corporate social responsibility is defined as a “firm’s commitment to maximize long-term economic, social and environmental well-being, through business practices, policies, and resources,” and can also be extended to brand level (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2011, p. 1528). Typically, research on corporate social responsibility is only attached to the whole company, not on the independent brands under the patronage of the company. This is specifically important for the house-of-brands strategy, because every brand can have its own strategy related to social responsibility and consumers do not necessarily connect the brand with its parental company. One of the first studies on the topic of brand social responsibility defines it as a “consumer’s perceptions of the extent to which a brand reflects the human values related to social responsibility” (Grohmann & Bodur, 2015, p. 377). The perception of the brand through consumers’ eyes is of great importance. Singh, Iglesias, & Batista-Foguet (2012, p. 543) define a consumer’s perceived brand ethicality as “perception of the brand as being honest, responsible and accountable towards various stakeholders”. Highly anthropomorphised brands with well refined brand identity are easier to be perceived as socially responsible, as they reflect human characteristics and values which match the consumers’ personal values. Brands whose level of perceived social responsibility is high, positively affect the consumer’s attitude towards them and people are willing to reward those brands (Grohmann & Bodur, 2015).

It has been noted that consumers are motivated to purchase a product from socially responsible brands because of pride, empathy, guilt, gratitude (Sen, Du, & Bhattacharya, 2016), awe and elevation (Xie, Bagozzi, & Grønhaug, 2019). Two types of consumer ethical ideology are identified in literature: egoism and idealism. While egoism refers to one’s own pleasure at the expenses of community welfare, idealism refers to one’s concern for the well-being of others. Egoists usually only support a company’s ethical actions if they have a direct benefit from it, while idealists are making judgements based on universal morals and have less tolerance for unethical behaviours (Palihawadana et al., 2016). Companies promote their socially responsible activities in order to boost their reputation and brand image. Consumer behaviour that results from the company’s positive actions is brand advocacy (Xie et al., 2019).

If the consumers’ beliefs are ideologically incompatible with those of the brands that act irresponsibly, the consumers might reject those brands (Hegner et al., 2017), as this kind of brand behaviour can be seen as a moral transgression (Grappi, Romani, & Bagozzi, 2013). If consumers perceive moral, social and/or legal corporate wrongdoings, negative emotions towards a brand may arise (Hegner et al., 2017). When harm is done to consumers or workers, consumers perceive it as a moral and ethical transgression, while social

transgression is seen as harm being done to a community or the environment (Grappi et al., 2013). Brunk (2010) defines six domains of consumer-perceived ethicality that may induce the consumers' ethical or unethical perceptions, namely (1) consumers, (2) employees, (3) environment, (4) overseas community, (5) local community and economy and (6) business community. These domains are divided into 36 sub-domains that are presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Consumer perceived ethicality - Domains of origin



Source: Brunk (2010, p. 258)

Irresponsible corporate behaviour results in consumers' negative emotions and even aversion behaviour (Grappi et al., 2013), that can be based either on egoistic or altruistic motives (Sen et al., 2016). One of consumer responses is negative word-of-mouth that is divided into three forms, namely (1) recommending against purchasing, (2) saying negative information to others and (3) discrediting the brand. Another negative response to social irresponsibility is protest behaviour when consumers act against the brand's wrongdoings. In that case, consumers might resort to picketing, complaining, boycotting and trying to stop the brand from selling goods (Grappi et al., 2013). With such behaviour, consumers are trying to remind brands of their responsibilities. Consumers feel like they have a moral duty to avoid unethical brands. This can also be explained as "ideological dissatisfaction," as consumers believe the brand's immoral actions are intolerable and disappointing (Kucuk, 2018). While some of these activities, like rejecting to purchase the brand's products, are personal, others are more public and take place in a social environment and possibly even involve third parties or organizations (Grappi et al., 2013).

If a brand is believed to act irresponsibly, the consumers' behaviour eventually includes anger and contempt, which possibly lead to brand hate (Kucuk, 2018). Recent studies recognise the ideological incompatibility as an antecedent of brand hate (Bryson & Atwal, 2018; Kucuk, 2018; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016). Symbolic incongruence, that is related to values contributing to the consumer's self-concept, as well as functional incongruence, that is related to performance of the product, lead to brand hate (Islam, Attiq, Hameed, Khokhar, & Sheik, 2018). Such behaviours can lead to bad reputation of a brand, bad brand image and even decrease sales (Grappi et al., 2013).

3.3 Outcomes of brand hate

Zarantonello et al. (2016) study shows four different behavioural outcomes of brand hate, which can be classified into two different coping strategies: "attack-like" strategy, including negative word-of-mouth, complaining and protest, and "avoidance-like" strategy, resulting in patronage reduction/cessation. Their results reveal that corporate wrongdoings lead to all four recognised behavioural outcomes, which are negative word-of-mouth, complaining, patronage reduction/cessation and protest. Violation of expectations results in complaining, negative word-of-mouth and patronage reduction/cessation, while consumers' negative perception of the brand results only in patronage reduction/cessation.

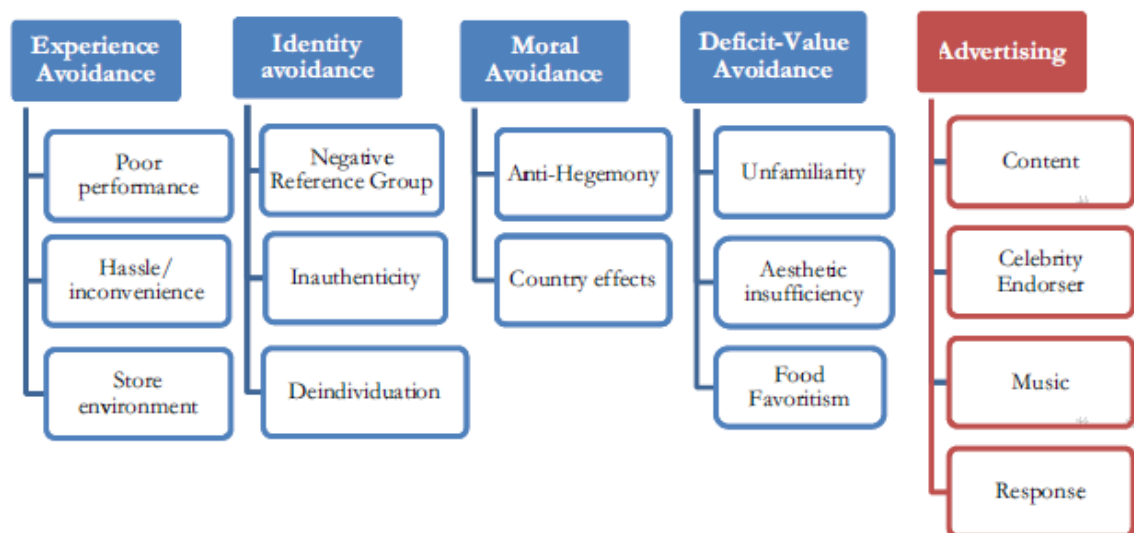
Bryson et al. (2013, p. 395) observe, that a possible outcome of brand hate is the "purposeful and deliberate intention to avoid or reject a brand or even to act out behaviours that demonstrate this rejection," including expressing negative emotions through private and public word-of-mouth, public protesting, or boycotting the brand. Each of the determinants identified in Hegner et al. (2017) research lead to one or more outcomes, including brand avoidance, negative word-of-mouth or brand retaliation. Furthermore, the results indicate that symbolic incongruity leads mainly to brand avoidance, negative past experience most commonly leads to brand retaliation and that the negative word-of-mouth is an outcome of all three determinants. In the recent study, Fetscherin (2019) points out additional outcomes, namely brand switching and willingness to make financial sacrifices in order to hurt the brand.

Bryson & Atwal (2018) distinguish between two groups of reactions resulting from brand hate: soft brand hate reactions and hard brand hate reactions. In the former group, the avoidance and negative word-of-mouth are the main outcomes. In the latter group, more intense and proactive reactions are triggered, that tend to punish the brand. They further group cold and warm brand hate into soft brand hate, while hot brand hate is categorised in hard brand hate.

3.3.1 Brand avoidance

While marketers try to persuade consumers to like their brands, they are not paying enough attention to the fact that some people actively avoid specific brands (Lee et al., 2009a). Brand avoidance is a form of anti-consumption, defined as an incident that drives consumers to the conclusion to purposely reject a brand (Lee et al., 2009b). Gregoire et al. (2009, p. 19) define desire of avoidance as a “customer’s need to withdraw themselves from any interactions with the firm” and furthermore validate that the desire for avoidance increases over time. A construct of brand avoidance is important for brand managers, since consumers’ behaviour can affect a company’s reputation and profitability (Knittel et al., 2016). Lee et al. (2009a) construe four types of brand avoidance, namely (1) experiential avoidance, (2) deficit-value avoidance, (3) identity avoidance and (4) moral avoidance. In the later research Knittel et al. (2016) identify another type of brand avoidance – (5) advertising avoidance. The Figure 5 displays the types of brand avoidance.

Figure 5: Types of brand avoidance



Source: Knittel et al. (2016, p. 37)

If the brand’s promises about the products are delivered and customer expectations are met, the repurchase behaviour may occur and the relationship between the brand and the consumer may begin to form or deepen itself. On the contrary, undelivered promises often result in dissatisfaction (Bougie et al., 2003). It should be noted that the promises are not the ones that should be fulfilled, but rather the consumer personal expectations based on those promises (Gronroos, 2006). However, undelivered promises are the reason for experiential brand avoidance, which is bound to the perceptions associated with the use of a brand’s product. It occurs if the consumer experience does not meet expectations, either because the

performance of the product or service was poor, if there was a factor of hassle involved in the process of purchase or because of the unpleasant store environment (Lee et al., 2009a), which is a non-interpersonal factor in the purchasing experience (Arnold, Reynolds, Ponder, & Lueg, 2005).

If the promises are unappealing, identity brand avoidance occurs. It results from perceived inauthenticity or associations with a negative reference group (Lee et al., 2009a). Some people may also avoid brands because of the brand's mainstreamness and the impossibility of creating their own self-identity (Lee et al., 2009b). These brands have the potential to change consumers to their undesired self, as they are incongruent with their concept of self. Consumption of these brands leads to a weakened individuality that results in loss of identity (Lee et al., 2009a).

The reason for moral brand avoidance is linked to ideological incompatibility arising from either corporate irresponsibility, impersonalisation, animosity, financial patriotism or anti-hegemony that arises when a consumer avoids a brand to prevent its monopoly over other brands. This type of brand avoidance is the only one that is regarding the consumer's concerns about wider society instead of a consumer themselves. Furthermore, this is the type of brand avoidance that is motivated by the consumers' perception that their beliefs are the correct ones and that the brand is doing something wrong (Lee et al., 2009a). These findings confirm Thompson & Arsel's (2004) remark that large corporations are more often the object of the consumer critiques, since they are not authentic, are more commercialised and are destroying local competition. In their study Rindel et al. (2013, p. 484) expose active ethical consumers' brand avoidance, as ethical consumerism has been gaining importance in the past few years. They define ethical consumers as "active in non-governmental ethical organisations related to the well-being of animals, the environment or humans".

The deficit-value brand avoidance occurs when consumers believe that the brand is presenting an unacceptable cost to benefit trade-off. It originates from unfamiliarity, aesthetic insufficiency or food favouritism and is based on functionally inadequate promises (Lee et al., 2009a). This kind of avoidance can be seen as similar to the experiential brand avoidance, since the expectations are not met. Nevertheless, when talking of deficit-value brand avoidance, personal experience is not necessarily included, as the examined relationship is the one amongst value and cost (Knittel et al., 2016).

Advertising is the reason for brand avoidance either because of its content, the music that is used in the advertisement, a celebrity endorser or influencer that is not perceived as congruent with the brand's personality, or subjective response to the advertisement (Knittel et al., 2016).

Consumers cannot always avoid brands even if they would prefer to. This is recognised as avoidance barriers consisting of lack of alternatives, cost of switching, influence of others and low product involvement. If a consumer overcomes these barriers there are avoidance

antidotes, marketers use in order to allay brand avoidance. For example, genuine adaptation of a brand coming from the entire company can alleviate brand avoidance caused by corporate irresponsibility. Value argumentation can alleviate brand avoidance that arose from performance failures, by either augmenting the brand's perceived quality or debilitating its perceived costs. The company can also lower brand avoidance by creating a sub-brand or forming a network with other companies or brands that are unable to be separated from it. The network's reputation is another reason to re-select a brand. Another form of avoidance antidote is sampling, which gives consumers a new contact with a brand. Positive word-of-mouth is an additional ability of the company to alleviate brand avoidance. In spite of all that, there are some cases where avoidance antidotes are not successful, meaning that the brand avoidance is incurable (Lee et al., 2009b). Rindel et al. (2013) suggest that brand avoidance as a consequence of unethical behaviour is persistent, stable and cannot be disrupted.

Brand switching is another way of the consumers' rejection of using a specific brand. While brand avoidance is a concept of deliberate rejections of specific brands, brand switching is a change in behaviour when the consumer switches from one brand to another (Lee et al., 2009b). The reasons for brand switching are (1) pricing, (2) inconvenience, (3) core service failure, (4) employees' failure, (5) response to the failure, (6) competitors' appeal, (7) ethical problems and (8) involuntary switching in case of provider's termination of service or moving of a customer (Keaveney, 1995). For the purpose of this study, brand switching is incorporated in brand avoidance.

3.3.2 Negative word-of-mouth

Brown et al. (2007, p. 4) define word-of-mouth as "a consumer-dominated channel of marketing communication where the sender is independent of the market". The most common form of word-of-mouth is communicating positive or negative experience with brands with other members of their social (family and friends) and professional network (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). As it is not initiated by the company itself, consumers perceive this source of communication as more trustworthy and credible (Allsop, Bassett, & Hoskins, 2007), which makes it a strong source of influence on consumer behaviour (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006). Word-of-mouth has always been a powerful source of marketing communication but has gained its importance in the last decade with the rise of smart phones and informal communication channels, that make sharing information effortless (Allsop et al., 2007). Antecedents of positive word-of-mouth are satisfaction, loyalty, quality, commitment, trust and perceived value (Matos & Rossi, 2008). The more the product is personally important to consumers, the more likely they are to pass along the information about it to others (Allsop et al., 2007).

Word-of-mouth in terms of recommendations from friends and family tends to be the most useful when buying fast moving consumer goods, such as food and cosmetics, while the

online product reviews from experts followed by word-of-mouth are the most reliable in terms of buying technical goods, such as computers (Allsop et al., 2007).

Negative word-of-mouth is defined as “a consumer’s effort to share negative or unfavourable feedback or opinion with friends, family and others” (Balaji, Khong, & Chong, 2016, p. 529). It arises from dissatisfaction, safety issues or other scandal (Allsop et al., 2007), perceived price unfairness (Pizzutti dos Santos & Basso, 2012), anger, frustration, disappointment (Matos & Rossi, 2008) or from betrayal and broken trust (Ward & Ostrom, 2006). And since negative word-of-mouth is based on emotions, the consumer’s reaction is immediate (Matos & Rossi, 2008).

Consumers can feel either regret or a sense of responsibility for the bad choice of a brand they made (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). People are trying to warn others from recreating their bad decisions. Hence, brands need to listen to the negative word-of-mouth to be able to act accordingly and try to diminish it and prevent harm that may affect their sales, revenues and reputation (Allsop et al., 2007).

The literature on the topic divides word-of-mouth into two groups: private, where negative word-of-mouth is oriented to family, friends and people close to us, and public, oriented to a larger audience where the reach of one’s words is beyond their own social group and may include third parties or the target company (Fetscherin, 2019). For the purpose of this study, public word-of-mouth is focused mainly on online environment.

3.3.2.1 Private negative word-of-mouth

Private negative word-of-mouth is driven from negative emotions consumers feel after their experience with a brand. Consumers that complain privately to their friends and family are trying to vent their negative feelings or alleviate negative emotions (Pizzutti dos Santos & Basso, 2012) and possibly get themselves some sympathy from others (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Private word-of-mouth mostly happens face-to-face and a great part of this contact is non-verbal communication, such as posture and voice intonation, which gives the co-speaker additional cues related to the topic (Balaji et al., 2016). With negative word-of-mouth consumers want to protect their family and friends from having a bad experience with a brand (Fetscherin, 2019) or warn them of the brand’s unjust actions (Funches, Markle, & Davis, 2009).

Private complaining transpires much more frequently than public complaining (Gregoire et al., 2009). Furthermore, private negative word-of-mouth occurs if dissatisfaction is not critical, while consumers tend to go public if they feel greatly dissatisfied and their hate towards a brand is more severe. Private negative word-of-mouth influences only the people close to the person who spreads it. Even if some behavioural outcomes appear from the influenced group, they are not as broad and severe as they would be, if the negative word-of-mouth was public, where its influence would reach more people. People spreading

negative thoughts about the brand only to their close social group usually do not intend on boycotting the brand, but rather to vent their feelings about their recent experience with the brand (Kucuk, 2016). Companies do not usually get the chance to repair their reputation in the case of private word-of-mouth, as it is usually taking place behind the company's back, giving it no possibility to retain customers (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015).

3.3.2.2 Public negative word-of-mouth

An extensive part of interaction among consumers within online communities is word-of-mouth (Brown et al., 2007). As it takes part in the online environment where it is on display for everyone to see, it is conceptualised as public electronic word-of-mouth. Transmitting negative word-of-mouth is a social activity, as messages are spread amongst other members of the social network, who involve themselves in the discussion (Balaji et al., 2016). In the last ten years, negative online reviews are increasing (Ribeiro, Butori, & Nagard, 2018). Companies have a greater focus on the online word-of-mouth as it is easier to track (Kotler & Keller, 2012).

It is easy for consumers to complain on the internet, the most commonly accessible mass media (Ward & Ostrom, 2006). Most consumers are not limited to one social network but rather use several different ones. Therefore, the audience of each network tends to differ from the others. As consumers normally use different networks for different topics, they are found in the role of advice seeker as well as advice provider. It is not necessary that one consumer only takes part in one role, as the social networks help us gather information from others and then incorporate it into our own opinion that we can pass along to others (Allsop et al., 2007). People who complain publicly are mostly looking to ruin a brand's reputation as well as alleviate the negative emotions that arose from their experience with the brand (Pizzutti dos Santos & Basso, 2012).

Another important form of public electronic word-of-mouth is online reviews. Online reviews are the way consumers share their personal experience, personal evaluation and satisfaction of the product they have purchased (Ren & Hong, 2019) and can also contain emotions, reasons for purchasing a specific product and figurative wording (Zablocki et al., 2019). Online product reviews published on different platforms represent an important source of information for consumers in the decision-making process (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006) and as consumers demand to find product or service information fast and with ease, it is essential they have the access to the online reviews (Ren & Hong, 2019). A lot of platforms are created with the sole purpose of informing others about the experience with products, services, places or other entities. Reviews posted on these sites can be visible for thousands of people, which gives the reviewer the satisfaction and feeling of power over the brand (Ward & Ostrom, 2006). A highly positive review is not as efficient in increasing sales, as the highly negative review is in decreasing sales (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006). Negative information tends to spread faster than positive information, which is especially true for

social networks. Electronic word-of-mouth is public word-of-mouth, since it is taking place on digital media (Balaji et al., 2016). According to The Nielsen Company (2015), online consumer reviews are the third most trustworthy advertisement and two thirds of people trust reviews posted online. If the reviews are posted on the site that is managed by the brand, the managers can decide whether they will react to the negative review. They can either erase or hide the review, comment on it politely, or choose not to respond to it at all (Marticotte, Arcand, & Baudry, 2016).

Another possible act of public word-of-mouth is complaining to a brand's representative or to third parties which occurs after a bad performance of a product or service (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015). Customer complaints should not be taken as a threat, as they grant the brand an opportunity to retain customers and build a relationship with them based on the quality of the feedback provided. If failure of the product or service has occurred, a complaint is a customer's pursuit to give the brand a chance to make a correction and preserve the relationship (DeWitt et al., 2008).

Several authors recognise negative word-of-mouth as a possible outcome of brand hate (Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2016; Zarantonello et al., 2016), but not everyone distinguishes between private word-of-mouth and word-of-mouth that takes place in an online environment.

3.3.3 Brand revenge

If consumers feel angry with a brand, they can do more than just passively complain or exit the consumer-brand relationship. They can take the revengeful action against the brand, that may include complaining to a third-party, insulting the brand's representative (Gregoire et al., 2010), stealing, breaking or damaging the brand's equity, using the brand's resources wastefully; all of those actions can be destructive for a brand (Fetscherin, 2019). The most common emotion that triggers brand revenge is anger (Fetscherin, 2019). The emotion of anger is associated with an impulse to respond and take action towards the object of anger. Reasons for anger are a brand's greed or opportunistic behaviour, its lack of fairness (Gregoire et al., 2010), negative past experience, perceived injustice (Funches et al., 2009) or any other of the above-mentioned antecedents of brand hate. Gregoire et al. (2009, p. 19) define desire for revenge as a "customer's need to punish and cause harm to firms for the damages they have caused" and is therefore associated with punishment oriented towards brands. As the desire for revenge typically lasts for a while, this reflects customer incapacity to "let go" of certain situations, where they feel that they have been betrayed. However, Gregoire et al. (2009) explain that desire for revenge typically diminishes over time, since it is associated with emotions and negative past experience. These feelings lead to retaliatory and revengeful behaviours, that require a lot of energy and even materials to pursue, and high level of investment may become too costly to maintain. Authors also note that if the consumers feel satisfied with the result of their revengeful behaviour (especially public

complaining) they might stop their acts towards the hated brand. Authors conclude that consumers do not “hold a grudge” over brands in form of revenge.

Consumers, who used to love their chosen brands and have formed a positive consumer-brand relationship but were later on disappointed, are prone to hate those brands (Gregoire et al., 2009) because they feel betrayed by the brand they used to trust (Bryson & Atwal, 2018). In the literature the term love-becomes-hate is used. Therefore, the higher the relationship quality was, the stronger the desire for revenge (Gregoire et al., 2009). If the consumer cannot trust their chosen brand anymore the reaction to follow is revengeful behaviour. Furthermore, the desire for revenge is stronger for the previously loyal customers, than for those who were not loyal. In addition, the brands with a bigger reputation are more exposed to revengeful outcomes (Riquelme, Román, Cuestas, & Iacobucci, 2019).

Two types of revengeful actions are defined: direct and indirect. While indirect is happening behind the brand’s back and includes negative word-of-mouth, that can occur either privately or publicly, direct revenge activates the desire of face-to-face confrontation, such as complaining to the front-line employees, damaging the brand’s property or showing other forms of aggression. Indirect revenge is harder to manage, as it is happening outside the company (Gregoire et al., 2010).

In the literature, brand hate has been shown to result in revengeful behaviour towards brands (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016). Some authors note the difference between revenge and retaliation and define revenge as long-term behaviour, while retaliation is more impulsive and short-term (Fetscherin, 2019).

4 RESEARCH ON BRAND HATE

Previous studies on negative emotions towards brands focus mainly on individual constructs of brand hate, not on the brand hate concept as a whole and as an independent construct. Recently, some authors showed a lot of interest in the concept of brand hate, its antecedents and outcomes. So far, however, no study has been done for the Slovenian market. Furthermore, the electronic negative word-of-mouth, that includes writing negative things on social media or posting negative reviews online, has not been considered in previous research as a possible outcome.

4.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the master thesis is to identify the key determinants and outcomes of brand hate through empirical research and to find out what is the attitude of Slovenian consumers towards brand hate. As there has been no study of how Slovenians express their negative feelings towards brands yet, they were the main focus in this thesis. Furthermore, the purpose of the study is to find out whether the results are in line with the previous research on the

topic. Moreover, as there is no other study researching brand hate being spread online, the aim of the study is to find out whether electronic negative word-of-mouth is one of the outcomes of brand hate.

The aim of the thesis is to emphasise the necessity of understanding strong negative emotions consumers feel towards brands. It has been noted that brands and its managers do not give enough attention to the haters of brands, even though the damage they can create is enormous and can have an extremely bad impact on the brand. Brands lose their customers, trustworthiness and revenue, because brand haters are expressing their hatred towards the brand. The results of the thesis are going to help managers understand why people even start hating a brand and what are the outcomes of their hatred. With improved knowledge of the problem, managers would be able to understand the importance of finding brand haters, know how to react accordingly, resolve the issues, and possibly even prevent brand hate.

4.2 Research hypotheses and conceptual model

Hypotheses are developed based on the previous literature review and are associated with either determinants or outcomes of brand hate.

A highly important aspect of branding is the brand's promises to deliver different benefits, called value proposition. Therefore, customers expect a performance of products or services on a certain level (Kotler & Keller, 2012), as the promise establishes a reason for expectations (Gronroos, 2006). If performance of the product does not meet the customer's expectations it results in dissatisfaction (Kotler & Keller, 2012) that can be a possible determinant of brand hate (Bryson et al., 2013). Therefore, the hypothesis is:

H1: Customer dissatisfaction leads to brand hate.

Lee et al. (2009b, p. 173) disclose that "inability of a brand to fulfil the individual's symbolic identity requirements" is the reason for brand avoidance. Not only do individuals consume the brands of their preference, they also express their self-concept by not choosing the brand that is incongruent with their (actual) self. Thus, the hypothesis is:

H2: Self-concept incongruity leads to brand hate.

Bhattacharya & Sen (2003) propose that corporate social responsibility influences the customer-company identification. Ideological incompatibility perceived by customers often leads to negative emotions towards brands and can be based on moral, social or legal corporate wrongdoings (Hegner et al., 2017). Hence, the hypothesis is:

H3: Ideological incompatibility leads to brand hate.

Negative emotions towards a certain brand can be expressed by avoiding this brand either by not buying the brand's product or by switching to a competitor's brand (Hegner et al.,

2017; Kucuk, 2016; Zarantonello et al., 2016). Therefore, brand avoidance is revealed when consumers consciously reject a brand or try to keep away from it (Lee et al., 2009b) in order to stop any interactions with the brand (Gregoire et al., 2009), which falls under the category of passive reactions towards a brand (Hegner et al., 2017). Hence, the next hypothesis is:

H4: Brand hate leads to brand avoidance.

One of the most prominent communication channels is word-of-mouth (Allsop et al., 2007). Word-of-mouth can be oral or electronic (Kotler & Keller, 2012). Contrary to brand avoidance, word-of-mouth applies to a category of active reactions towards brands (Hegner et al., 2017). Zarantonello et al. (2016) associate negative emotions towards brands with different behavioural outcomes, among which is negative word-of-mouth. Therefore, the hypothesis is:

H5: Brand hate leads to negative word-of-mouth.

Nowadays, with all the available digital tools, everyone can post their negative feelings online and therefore impact other consumers' perception of different brands (Kucuk, 2018). This thesis also investigates if Slovenian consumers are likely to write negative reviews on social media or join an online community created with the sole purpose to hate a specific brand. Thus, the hypothesis is:

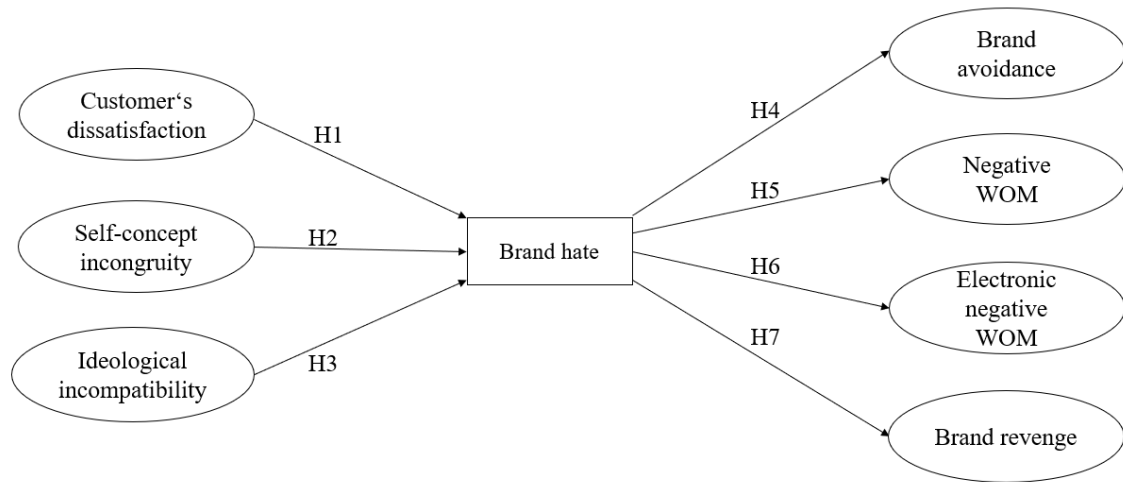
H6: Brand hate leads to electronic negative word-of-mouth.

Another active behaviour towards brands is brand revenge including complaints to employees, damaging brand's assets or stealing from the brand (Hegner et al., 2017). Hatred towards brands can lead to desire for revenge, that Gregoire et al. (2009) explain as "customers' need to punish the brand" for all the harm it caused. Therefore, the last hypothesis is:

H7: Brand hate leads to brand revenge.

Figure 6 that is visible below presents the conceptual model of brand hate together with its antecedents and outcomes. The model is built based on the previous thorough literature review and consists of seven hypotheses.

Figure 6: Conceptual model of antecedents and outcomes of brand hate



Source: Own work

4.3 Methodology

The research on brand hate is empirical with a quantitative method of data collection. The questionnaire in the research was conducted based on the previous literature review. One of the more important articles for the survey conduction was Hegner et al. (2017) Determinants and outcomes of brand hate, although one new concept was included. The data was collected through the internet anonymously and was mostly distributed to students from the School of Economic and Business, part of the University of Ljubljana, as well as through social media channels through groups of students and young adults looking for their (first) job. The survey was mostly held in Slovenian language, but some respondents answered it in English, as that was an option as well. The questionnaire in Slovenian is presented in Appendix 2 and in English in Appendix 3.

The survey was divided into six parts. At first, respondents were kindly asked to list a brand they hate or have extremely negative emotions towards. They were asked to keep it in mind for the rest of the questionnaire and while answering, only focus on this brand. The questionnaire was coded in such a way that the brand respondents have listed appeared in all the subsequent questions. The second part of the survey was focused on the relationship consumers have or have had with the brand. Respondents were asked whether they have ever bought or used the brand they hate in the past and later on, whether they still buy or use the hated brand.

The next three parts were divided into eight sections and each section applied to brand hate in general, as in main construct, determinants of brand hate and its outcomes. The respondents answered 32 questions on the five-point Likert scale (1 - strongly disagree, 2 - somewhat disagree, 3 - neither agree nor disagree, 4 - somewhat agree, 5 - strongly agree),

describing to what extent they agree with the given statements regarding different constructs of brand hate towards the chosen brand. In the last part of the questionnaire the socio-demographic data of the respondents was collected.

The questionnaire was tested on eight people to exclude the possible obscurities with filling in the survey. It turned out that there was no confusion with answering the survey, therefore there was no need to change or improve it.

The units in the research were collected through a non-probability sampling method. The goal was to achieve at least 200 responses for the questionnaire. The questionnaire was conducted in the Qualtrics platform and was distributed online. For the ease of collecting the data, each respondent was kindly asked to distribute the questionnaire further amongst their friends and family members (the “snow ball” sampling effect). The survey took place from 3rd November to 6th December 2019. The responses that were not completed in their entirety were deleted from the survey, as well as the entirely completed responses that failed to state a specific hated brand. In the end, 235 responses were included in the analysis.

After the data was collected completely, it was exported from the Qualtrics platform into the software for statistical processing of the data and statistical analysis – SPSS. Several analyses were conducted. First, the frequencies for each question and each construct were measured (mean and standard deviation). Afterwards, the factor analysis, reliability and validity tests were conducted. After having all the data in SPSS prepared, the analysis in AMOS was conducted in order to get the structural equation model.

5 RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

5.1 Sample characteristics

Altogether 235 usable online questionnaires were received. Kline (2011) suggest that the minimum size of the sample for structural equation modeling should be 200, meaning the study has achieved this rule with 235 responses. The minimum acceptable sample-to-item ratio of 5:1 (Gorsuch, 1983) was achieved with the ratio of 7.34.

Out of 235 respondents, 151 were female (64.26%) and 84 were male (35.74%). Respondents were mostly young adults. The youngest respondent was 18 years old while the oldest respondent was 69. The mean is 23.29 years old, with the standard deviation 5.738. Only one respondent marked primary school (0.43%) as the highest completed level of education. The majority of respondents completed secondary school (54.47%) or an undergraduate programme (31.06%). Most respondents were single (48.51%) or in a relationship (45.53%) at the time of survey fulfilment. The majority of respondents, 102 (43.4%) come from Osrednjeslovenska region. The question about personal monthly net income was not required to answer. Data is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Socio-demographic data of respondents

	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
GENDER		
Male	84	35.74
Female	151	64.26
AGE		
20 or less	81	34.47
21 - 30	140	59.57
31 - 40	8	3.4
41 - 50	5	2.13
more than 50	1	0.43
MARITAL STATUS		
Single	114	48.51
Married	13	5.53
Separated	1	0.43
In a relationship	107	45.53
EDUCATION		
Primary school or less	1	0.43
Technical secondary school	5	2.13
Secondary school	128	54.47
2-year College	9	3.83
Undergraduate Degree	73	31.06
Master's Degree	16	6.81
Doctoral Degree	3	1.28
REGION		
Dolenjska	15	6.38
Gorenjska	26	11.06
Goriška	10	4.26
Koroška	3	1.28
Notranjska	14	5.96
Osrednjeslovenska	102	43.40
Podravje	10	4.26
Pomurje	2	0.85
Posavje	8	3.40
Primorska	15	6.38
Other	30	12.80
MONTHLY INCOME		
Up to 500	85	36.17
501 - 1.500	42	17.87
1.501 - 2.500	11	4.68
2.501 - 3.500	3	1.28
More than 3.501	5	2.13
No answer	89	37.87

Source: Own work

5.2 Analysis of results

5.2.1 Results of general questions

At first, respondents needed to state one brand they hate or have extremely negative feelings for. The most hated brand is Apple, as 19 respondents named it as their most hated brand. It is followed by Primark (11 responses), McDonald's in third place (9 responses), Nestle and Samsung share fourth place of most hated brands with 8 responses, and in fifth place is Herbalife (7 responses). Other brands that were mentioned at least three times are Starbucks (6 responses), Coca-Cola, Desigual, Gucci and H&M (5 responses), Always and Zara (4 responses), Guess, Huawei, Marlboro, Monster, Newyorker and Topshop (3 responses). In Table 2 is presented the list of all brands answered by respondents that had at least three mentions. A list of all brands and its distribution is presented in Appendix 4.

Table 2: Distribution of most hated brands that were mentioned at least three times

Position	Brand	Number of mentions
1	Apple	19
2	Primark	11
3	McDonalds	9
4	Nestle	8
5	Samsung	8
6	Herbalife	7
7	Starbucks	6
8	Coca cola	5
9	Desigual	5
10	Gucci	5
11	H&M	5
12	Always	4
13	Zara	4
14	Guess	3
15	Huawei	3
16	Marlboro	3
17	Monster	3
18	Newyorker	3
19	Top shop	3

Source: Own work

The first two questions were meant to reveal if respondents had any previous contact with the brand they hate and if they are still in contact with that brand. Out of all responses, 66.81% of respondents have used or bought the hated brand in the past and only 14.47% still

use or buy the brand they state they hate today (Table 3). Both questions required only “yes” or “no” answers.

Table 3: Usage of brands in the past and in the present

	Did you buy/use brand X in the PAST?		Do you still buy/use brand X TODAY?	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	157	66.81	34	14.47
No	78	33.19	201	85.53
Total	235	100.00	235	100.00

Source: Own work

5.2.2 Results of the questions linked to brand hate

In the first section, questions were linked to brand hate, which is the main construct of the thesis. The statements below were meant to detect any hate that consumers feel towards the brand they chose. The results from Table 4 show that most respondents are disgusted by the brand they chose (mean 3.38; standard deviation 1.11), do not tolerate the brand and/or the company (mean 3.70; standard deviation 1.01), and think that the world would be a better place, if the aforementioned brand would not exist (mean 3.29; standard deviation 1.23). They feel anger towards the chosen brand (mean 3.27; standard deviation 1.27) and think it is awful (mean 3.46; standard deviation 1.13). Respondents in general feel hate towards the brand they chose in the beginning (mean 3.10; standard deviation 1.24). The construct of brand hate is highly present among the respondents (mean 3.37; standard deviation 1.11).

Table 4: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about brand hate

Statements about brand hate	Mean	SD
I do not tolerate brand X and it's company	3.70	1.02
Brand X is awful	3.46	1.13
I am disgusted by brand X	3.38	1.11
The world would be a better place without brand X	3.29	1.23
I am totally angry about brand X	3.27	1.27
I hate brand X	3.10	1.24
Brand hate	3.37	1.17

Source: Own work

5.2.3 Results of the questions linked to determinants of brand hate

In this section, the aim was to detect possible determinants of brand hate. It is divided into three constructs, namely the customer dissatisfaction, self-concept incongruity and ideological incompatibility.

First, it was important to determine whether the respondent's hate towards the brand they mentioned was linked to dissatisfaction that possibly occurred while interacting with the brand. In Table 5 it can be seen that most respondents thought the performance of the brand's products was poor (mean 3.55; standard deviation 1.16) and they think of the brand's products as mostly inconvenient (mean 3.09; standard deviation 1.17). They connect their hate towards the brand to bad performance of the brand (mean 3.60; standard deviation 1.27) and state that they are dissatisfied with the brand (mean 3.97; standard deviation 0.98). Overall customer dissatisfaction is quite high (mean 3.55; standard deviation 1.14).

Table 5: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about customer dissatisfaction

Statements about customer dissatisfaction	Mean	SD
I'm dissatisfied by brand X	3.97	0.98
My hate is linked to the bad performance of brand X	3.60	1.27
The performance of products of brand X is poor	3.55	1.16
Brand X's products are inconvenient	3.09	1.17
Customer dissatisfaction	3.55	1.14

Source: Own work

The other determinant of brand hate I wanted to test was self-concept incongruity. The results are presented in Table 6. People do not find that the brand they hate reflects who they are (mean 4.11; standard deviation 0.96) and instead feel like the brand does not fit their personality (mean 4.14; standard deviation 0.95). They do not want to be seen with the hated brand (mean 3.72; standard deviation 1.21). The brand does not represent who they are (mean 4.08; standard deviation 0.99) and for them it symbolizes the person they never want to be (mean 3.76; standard deviation 1.19). Overall, the construct of self-concept incongruity is high (mean 3.96; standard deviation 1.06).

Table 6: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about self-concept incongruity

Statements about self-concept incongruity	Mean	SD
Brand X does not fit my personality	4.14	.95
Brand X does not reflect who I am	4.11	.96
Brand X does not represent what I am	4.08	.99
Brand X symbolizes the kind of person I would never want to be	3.76	1.19
I don't want to be seen with brand X	3.72	1.21
Self-concept incongruity	3.96	1.06

Source: Own work

The last construct of the possible brand hate determinants is ideological incompatibility. Results from Table 7 show that a lot of respondents think the brand they have mentioned is acting irresponsibly (mean 3.40; standard deviation 1.21) and unethically (mean 3.34; standard deviation 1.29). They mostly think that the brand violates moral standards (mean 3.11; standard deviation 1.27) and they agree that the brand does not match their own beliefs and values (mean 3.79; standard deviation 1.20). Overall, a lot of respondents think that they are ideologically incompatible with the brand they chose (mean 3.41; standard deviation 1.24).

Table 7: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about ideological incompatibility

Statements about ideological incompatibility	Mean	SD
Brand X doesn't match my values and beliefs	3.79	1.20
In my opinion, brand X acts irresponsible	3.40	1.21
In my opinion, brand X acts unethically	3.34	1.29
Brand X violates moral standards	3.11	1.27
Ideological incompatibility	3.41	1.24

Source: Own work

5.2.4 Results of the questions linked to outcomes of brand hate

The last section is linked to questions about outcomes of brand hate and is divided into four subsections, namely brand avoidance, negative word of mouth, electronic negative word of mouth and brand revenge.

Results of statements about brand avoidance from Table 8 show that most respondents buy the brand less frequently than before (mean 4.11; standard deviation 1.18) and that they have switched to a competing brand (mean 3.91; standard deviation 1.18). Most of them said they have stopped buying the brand and will not buy it in the future (mean 4.05; standard deviation 1.15). Overall, respondents started avoiding the brand they hate (mean 4.02; standard deviation 1.17).

Table 8: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about brand avoidance

Statements about brand avoidance	Mean	SD
I buy brand X less frequently than before	4.11	1.18
I stop buying brand X, and I will not buy it anymore	4.05	1.15
I switched to a competing brand	3.91	1.18
Brand avoidance	4.02	1.17

Source: Own work

The second subsection was devoted to negative word-of-mouth and the results are presented in Table 9. Respondents are prone to say negative things about the brand they hate to others (mean 3.31; standard deviation 1.28) as well as discourage friends and relatives from buying the brand (mean 3.42; standard deviation 1.25). If someone seeks their advice on the brand, they recommend not buying it (mean 3.77; standard deviation 1.11). Overall, the results show that the respondents spread negative word of mouth about the hated brand (mean 3.50; standard deviation 1.21).

Table 9: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about negative word-of-mouth

Statements about negative word-of-mouth	Mean	SD
I recommend not to buy brand X to someone who seeks my advice	3.77	1.11
I discourage friends and relatives to buy brand X	3.42	1.25
I say negative things about brand X to others	3.31	1.28
Negative word-of-mouth	3.50	1.21

Source: Own work

In Table 10 the results for electronic negative word of mouth are presented. It can be seen that the respondents are not usually writing negative reviews about brands on social media (mean 1.58; standard deviation 0.99), or on the internet in general (mean 1.67; standard deviation 1.12), although it does happen. They also do not typically join an online community or group acting against the hated brand (mean 1.44; standard deviation 0.84). Based on the results it is clear that people do not usually spread negative word of mouth electronically (mean 1.56; standard deviation 0.96).

Table 10: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about electronic negative word-of-mouth

Statements about electronic negative word-of-mouth	Mean	SD
I have written a negative review of brand X on the internet	1.67	1.12
I have written negative things about brand X on social media	1.58	.99
I have joined an online community or group on social media that is against brand X	1.44	.84
Electronic negative word-of-mouth	1.56	0.96

Source: Own work

The next subsection is researching brand revenge and the results are presented in Table 11. It is not very likely for consumers to recruit their family and make it their shared mission to damage the hated brand (mean 1.53; standard deviation 0.92). Not a lot of people are fascinated by the various ways to harm the brand (mean 1.52; standard deviation 0.86), and only some people imagine how to hurt it (mean 1.68; standard deviation 1.07). They usually do not obsess how to get back at the brand (mean 1.53; standard deviation 0.93). Overall,

brand revenge is not highly present as an outcome of brand hate (mean 1.56; standard deviation 0.95).

Table 11: Mean and standard deviation (SD) for statements about brand revenge

Statements about brand revenge	Mean	SD
I imagined how to hurt brand X	1.68	1.07
I obsessed over what I could do to get back at brand X	1.53	.93
I made it one of my life's missions to damage brand X	1.53	.92
I became fascinated about the various ways I can do harm to brand X	1.52	.86
Brand revenge	1.56	0.95

Source: Own work

5.3 Hypotheses testing

5.3.1 Validity and reliability test

First, reliability tests were conducted for each construct, to extract Cronbach's α . Also, linear regression was conducted to get the variance inflation factor (VIF) and bivariate correlation to get the correlation matrix. Later on, the factor analysis was conducted. I used promax rotation for factor analysis as there are correlations between factors which were measured with Kendal Tau-b correlation (visible in Appendix 5). Initially, 32 items were included in the analysis but one statement had a factor loading of less than 0.5 (0.367) and was excluded from further analysis. There were no significant cross-loadings between factors. As one item was excluded, a new factor analysis was conducted. The factor analysis was also conducted for each separate construct, to calculate the CR (composite reliability) and AVE (average variance extracted). These results were later on tested with AMOS.

Only seven factors have eigenvalues above 1. However, the eigenvalue for the eighth construct was close to one (0.928), so it is still included in the further analysis. Therefore, the extraction has a fixed number of factors set to eight and it is not based on eigenvalues. Together the eight factors are explaining 69.97% of cumulative variance (Appendix 6). Brand hate explains 3.78% of variance, customer dissatisfaction explains 5.27% of variance, self-concept incongruity explains 32.52%, symbolic incompatibility explains 8.06% of variance, brand avoidance explains 2.1 % of variance, negative word-of-mouth explains 2.95%, electronic negative word-of-mouth explains 2.54% of variance and brand revenge explains 12.75% of variance. In the Appendix 7 a pattern matrix is presented. To measure the adequacy of the sample, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated. The KMO value is 0.896, which is valid, since it is above 0.5. Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant at 0.000, which is also acceptable, as the value should be $p < 0.05$. This means that the data is suitable for further factor analysis.

Cronbach's α is above the rule of 0.70 for all constructs (Table 12), meaning all the constructs are reliable. It was calculated based on factor analysis for every construct separately. Cronbach's α for brand hate is 0.89, for customer dissatisfaction 0.83, for self-concept incongruity 0.90, for ideological incompatibility 0.93, for brand avoidance 0.74, for negative word-of-mouth 0.89, for electronic negative word-of-mouth 0.86 and for brand revenge 0.93.

Table 12: Cronbach's alpha, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) for all constructs

	Construct	Cronbach α	AVE	CR
1	Brand hate	0.892	0.630	0.900
2	Customer dissatisfaction	0.829	0.570	0.840
3	Self-concept incongruity	0.896	0.670	0.910
4	Ideological incompatibility	0.926	0.760	0.930
5	Brand avoidance	0.743	0.520	0.760
6	Negative WOM	0.889	0.740	0.890
7	Electronic negative WOM	0.856	0.680	0.860
8	Brand revenge	0.929	0.780	0.930

Source: Own work

Variance inflation factor (VIF) is between 1.33 and 1.72 for all constructs, which means this is no cause for concern of multicollinearity among constructs. The dependent variable is brand hate. The VIF values between 1 and 5 mean that constructs are moderately correlated, which is not problematic. Details are provided in Table 13.

Table 13: VIF values for all constructs

Construct	VIF
Customer dissatisfaction	1.540
Self-concept incongruity	1.437
Ideological incompatibility	1.475
Brand avoidance	1.333
Negative WOM	1.692
Electronic negative WOM	1.607
Brand revenge	1.716

Note: Brand hate is dependent variable.

Source: Own work

Furthermore, the convergent validity was assessed. Average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated based on communalities of factor analysis for each separate construct. In order for AVE to be reliable, the value needs to be >0.50 . In this study all AVE values comply with that rule (Table 12). AVE for brand hate was 0.63, for customer dissatisfaction 0.57,

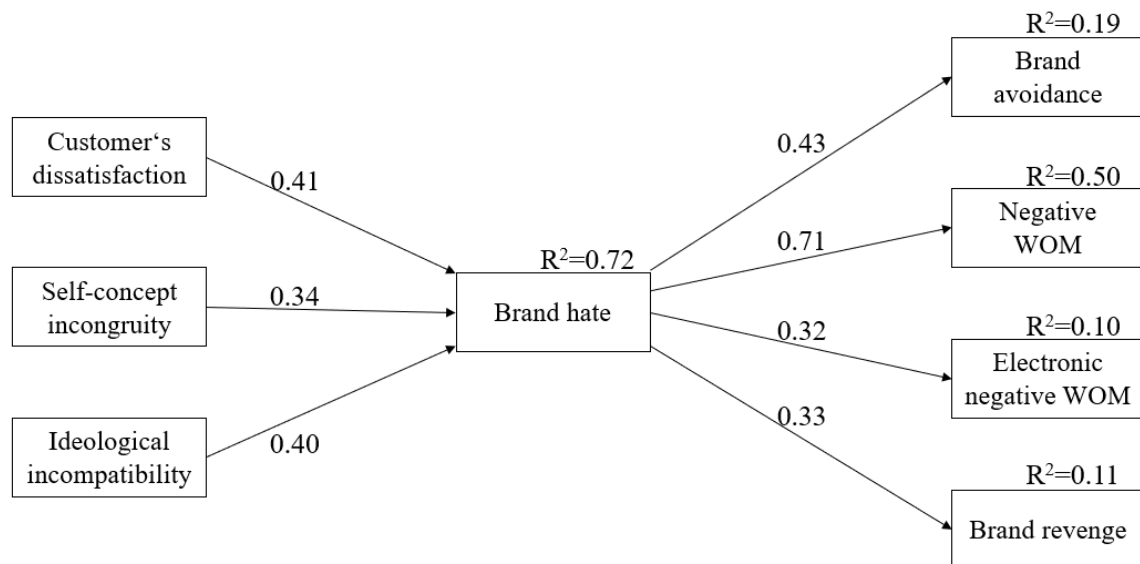
for self-concept incongruity 0.67, for ideological incompatibility 0.76, for brand avoidance 0.52, for negative word-of-mouth 0.74, for electronic negative word-of-mouth 0.68 and for brand revenge 0.78. Furthermore, the composite reliability (CR) was researched and is presented in Table 12. The CR for brand hate was 0.90, for customer dissatisfaction 0.84, for self-concept incongruity 0.91, for ideological incompatibility 0.93, for brand avoidance 0.76, for negative word-of-mouth 0.89, for electronic negative word-of-mouth 0.86 and for brand revenge 0.93. With every construct's CR being above 0.6 and AVE being >0.5 , the convergent validity is confirmed.

5.3.2 Measurement and structural model

The measurement model was conducted in AMOS to check whether the model fit was acceptable. It turned out that the model fit was acceptable with the later results: $\chi^2=864.83$, $df=406$, $p=0.00$, $\chi^2/df=2.13$, $IFI=0.914$, $TLI=0.901$, $CFI=0.913$, $RMSEA=0.069$.

Then, the structural model was conducted and is presented in Figure 7. The AMOS export of the structural model is shown in Appendix 8. Results of the structural model fit are: $\chi^2=1016.22$, $df=424$, $p=0.00$, $\chi^2/df=2.40$, $IFI=0.889$, $TLI=0.877$, $CFI=0.888$, $RMSEA=0.077$.

Figure 7: Structural model with standardized path coefficients



Source: Own work

The above model shows that customer dissatisfaction not only leads to brand hate, but is in fact the most important reason for people to start hating certain brands ($\beta=0.41$). The model also confirms self-concept incongruity is one of the determinants of brand hate. Although the construct has the lowest relationship with brand hate of all three determinants, all of

which are dependant variables, it is still a common reason for brand hate ($\beta=0.34$). Ideological incompatibility very closely follows after customer dissatisfaction as a determinant of brand hate ($\beta=0.40$). Therefore, hypotheses one, two and three are confirmed.

From the model it is evident that negative word-of-mouth explains 50% of variance, which means it is the most common outcome of brand hate, as it is the easiest way for consumers to vent their negative feelings. The direct effect brand hate has on negative word-of-mouth is $\beta=0.71$. With $\beta=0.43$, brand avoidance is one of the outcomes of brand hate. The construct itself explains 19% of variance. People sharing negative opinions and reviews online are accounted for in the construct named electronic negative word-of-mouth, which explains 10% of variance. The direct effect, that brand hate has on the construct, is $\beta=0.32$, which show that people tend to post negative experiences with the brand online to cause damage to the brand. The effect brand hate has on brand revenge is $\beta=0.33$. This outcome explains 11% of variance. Hypotheses four, five, six and seven are all confirmed.

The structural model from Figure 7 explains all of the hypotheses, as seen from Table 14.

Table 14: Confirmation of hypotheses

	Link	β	t-values	Confirmed/ disproved
H1	Customer dissatisfaction \rightarrow brand hate	0.41	7.06*	Confirmed
H2	Self-concept incongruity \rightarrow brand hate	0.34	6.11*	Confirmed
H3	Ideological incompatibility \rightarrow brand hate	0.40	7.15*	Confirmed
H4	Brand hate \rightarrow brand avoidance	0.43	5.08*	Confirmed
H5	Brand hate \rightarrow negative word-of-mouth	0.71	9.83*	Confirmed
H6	Brand hate \rightarrow electronic negative word-of-mouth	0.32	4.39*	Confirmed
H7	Brand hate \rightarrow brand revenge	0.33	4.71*	Confirmed

* $p<0.01$

Source: Own work

5.4 Discussion

5.4.1 Theoretical discussion

The first thing respondents were asked to answer in the survey was the name of the brand they hate or very strongly dislike. It is no surprise that the most commonly mentioned brands are brands that are known to have a lot of supporters, as Kucuk (2008) proposed in the theory for the “negative double jeopardy”. The most hated brands among respondents are therefore Apple, Primark, McDonald’s, Nestle, Samsung, Herbalife and Starbucks.

Based on the results from the research, I can confirm all seven hypotheses. The model confirms that customer dissatisfaction, self-concept incongruity and ideological

incompatibility are all antecedents of brand hate. The model also confirms that brand avoidance, negative word-of-mouth, electronic negative word-of-mouth and brand revenge are outcomes of brand hate.

It is interesting to see that brand hate is mostly influenced by customer dissatisfaction, however, it is not that unexpected, as the majority of respondents (almost 67%) have already been in contact with the brand – either by buying or using it. This means that there is a higher chance for them to be disappointed by the brand, either because of unmet expectations or because of the bad post-purchase experience. If the customer is disappointed with the brand, the buying stops (Oliver, 2010), which is in line with the information that less than 14,5% respondents in our sample still use the brand today.

Customer dissatisfaction being the most common reason for brand hate is also interesting because the results are not in line with the study of Hegner et al., (2017). In their study, customer dissatisfaction, or negative past experience as they call it, is found to be the construct that is least likely out of all three determinants to lead to brand hate. In my study, the value of customer dissatisfaction is $\beta=0.41$, while in the German study it is $\beta=0.22$. However, the results of my study are in line with the findings of several authors that prove customer dissatisfaction is an antecedent of brand hate (Kucuk, 2018; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016; Bryson et al., 2013).

Self-concept incongruity, interestingly, has the lowest impact on brand hate in my study, although not that much lower than the other two antecedents, as β is ranging from 0.41 for customer dissatisfaction to 0.34 for self-concept incongruity. The study confirms the findings of previous research on the topic, stating that self-concept incongruity is an antecedent of brand hate (Bryson & Atwal, 2018; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2016). One of the variables in the section of the questionnaire for self-concept incongruity was a statement “I do not want to be seen with the brand” with the mean 3.72 out of 5. The results comply with the theory, as people who are sensitive to external opinions are more likely to choose a widely consumed brand in order to be accepted by others and they would not want to take the risk of being seen in public using a brand, that others do not like (Kotler & Keller, 2012). This also means that consumers do not want to buy brands that would anyhow connect or identify them with social groups they would like to avoid (Hogg & Banister, 2001).

In my model, ideological incompatibility follows customer dissatisfaction really closely. This finding shows that consumers are really conscious about the ethical behaviour of the brand and do not tolerate moral and ethical violations. If the brand's values do not match the consumers', not only will they not use it, but they will also start to hate the brand for its possibly unethical actions. Ethicality highly impacts the consumer's decision-making process. In Slovenia, the results prove that ideological incompatibility is as important an antecedent ($\beta=0.40$) as customer dissatisfaction ($\beta=0.41$), while in Hegner et al. study (2017) ideological incompatibility is an antecedent with the highest effect on brand hate with $\beta=0.47$. This might show that German consumers are more ethically conscious than

Slovenian consumers. The results comply with recent studies that recognise ideological incompatibility as an antecedent of brand hate (Bryson & Atwal, 2018; Kucuk, 2018; Islam et al., 2018; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016).

The structural model conducted in the thesis also shows that brand hate has the direct effect on all four hypothesised outcomes (brand avoidance, negative word-of-mouth, brand revenge and electronic negative word of mouth). The explained variance for the four constructs ranges from 50% for negative word-of-mouth to 10% for electronic negative word-of-mouth.

The main outcome of brand hate is therefore negative word-of-mouth. It comes as no surprise as it is the simplest way for consumers to vent after experiencing a brand's poor performance. In the study of German respondents, the results are similar, as negative word-of-mouth is the most common outcome of brand hate as well. The only difference is that the explained variance is a bit lower ($R^2 = 0.39$) than in this thesis ($R^2 = 0.50$). The results are in line with previous studies that confirm negative word-of-mouth as an outcome of brand hate (Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2016; Zarantonello et al., 2016). However, electronic negative word-of-mouth has much lower explained variance $R^2 = 0.10$. It is not surprising, as Gregoire et al. (2009) emphasise that private complaining occurs far more often than public complaining. Both, however, fall into the category of attack-like strategy (Zarantonello et al., 2016).

Brand avoidance is the second most important outcome with the explained variance $R^2 = 0.19$. It either means that the consumer switched to a competitor's brand, found an alternative for the product or stopped using the product entirely. It is clear that avoiding a brand is not always simple because of the lack of alternatives, the cost of switching, the influence of others and low product involvement. Therefore, the percentage of people still using the brand might be even lower if there were no avoidance barriers. Brand avoidance is categorised into avoidance-like strategy (Zarantonello et al., 2016). It is interesting that in Hegner et al. (2017) study, brand avoidance had an even lower explained variance ($R^2 = 0.17$) than in this thesis. Brand avoidance is recognised as one of the outcomes of brand hate by several studies (Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2016; Zarantonello et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2009b; Gregoire et al., 2009).

Brand revenge is also found to be an outcome of brand hate in this model; however, it is not as common as negative word-of-mouth and brand avoidance. Brand revenge has the explained variance $R^2 = 0.11$. This outcome is categorised as an attack-like strategy, the same as (electronic) negative word-of-mouth. As it was noticed in the previous literature review, anger is supposed to be the most common emotion that triggers brand revenge because the emotion of anger is associated with an impulse to respond and take action towards the object of anger (Fetscherin, 2019). However, anger was excluded from my analysis as the factor loading was lower than 0.4. This shows that the respondents have soft brand hate reactions towards the hated brands (Bryson & Atwal, 2018). The lower variance explained might also mean that the quality of the relationship between the customer and the

brand were lower before the brand hate occurred, as it is known that the desire for revenge is higher if the consumer-brand relationship was stronger. The consumer used to trust the brand and was loyal to it but once the consumer became disappointed, the desire for revengeful behaviour occurred. The reason behind it might as well be that over time the desire for revenge diminishes and the respondents might have just forgotten about the revengeful thoughts they used to have towards the brand (Gregoire et al., 2009).

As there is a distinction between soft brand hate reactions and hard brand hate reactions (Bryson & Atwal, 2018), the above results unveil that Slovenian consumers are prone to soft reactions, as negative word-of-mouth and brand avoidance fall into this group. From the model of this study it is evident, that hard brand hate reactions are not as common for Slovenian consumers. Brand revenge is more proactive and intense and the people reacting revengefully towards the hated brand are willing to punish it for the damage it caused, which seems rare amongst Slovenian consumers.

As the respondents' main reaction towards the hated brands is sharing negative word-of-mouth privately with others, the model reveals that the hate consumers are feeling towards brands is mostly attitudinal. If their reactions were expressed loudly and in public, it would mean the hate is behavioural (Kucuk, 2016). According to Fetcherin's (2019) conceptualisation of the five types of brand hate, the respondents from the Slovenian study only feel three different types of brand hate. They most commonly feel simmering hate, as the proven outcome is private complaining (negative word-of-mouth), followed by cool hate because of which they switch to competitors, and lastly burning hate, as brand revenge and public complaining are also the outcomes revealed in the structural model. Bryson & Atwal's (2018) approach to categorisation of brand hate differs from the aforementioned one. Based on their categorisation, the respondents from this study feel warm brand hate, as one of the antecedents from their brand hate model is connected to self-concept incongruity, and hot brand hate, as a lot of respondents hate the brand because of its unethical behaviour.

5.4.2 Managerial implications

This thesis helps brand managers understand the importance of brand hate, as it has been pointed out that the concept of hate has so far been neglected by brands. It is crucial that managers deal with the haters and therefore prevent undesired outcomes of brand hate that could damage the brand. Managers should carefully monitor customers' behaviour to be able to prevent brand hate if an unfortunate event occurs. It has already been mentioned how important the understanding of brand hate is for brand managers, since a lot of damage can be done to the brand. The results from the survey point out that only 14.50 % of people still use the hated brand, which should be a clear call for the managers to take brand hate seriously.

With the next few steps brand managers can manage brand hate easily and efficiently, retain the customers and prevent the switching behaviour.

First step that brand managers should take is monitoring consumers' behaviour before the purchase, in the process of the purchase itself as well as consumers' post-purchase behaviour. Thus, they will easily detect the hatred or other negative emotions and start to deal with the haters right away. Brand managers need to cover different sources to be able to understand the consumers' behaviour. The first important source is the sales point. Managers need to establish a continuous connection with the sales people. The next source of information is customer service, so the managers can be in touch with possible complaints and dissatisfactions. They should not forget about the online channels such as social media and platforms for reviews, as it has been proven that people tend to talk about their negative emotions online. Any possible dissatisfaction expressed online should be publicly answered or the consumers should be kindly redirected to customer service if the cause of dissatisfaction contains exposure of personal data.

The second step is to take care of the recognised cases of brand hate from the first step. First of all, the cases should be divided into ordinary and specific cases. The ordinary cases should have a clear path to the resolution, that is defined beforehand, while the unusual and more severe cases of brand hate should be resolved on an individual level. Since there are three different antecedents of brand hate found in this research, each of these antecedents should be taken care of accordingly. The most straight-forward antecedent to handle is customer dissatisfaction, as it is the only one where the company can be sure it is dealing with actual customers. In the case of other two determinants – self-concept incongruity and ideological incompatibility that is not necessarily the case.

It is important that the customers who were really loyal in the past but have experienced dissatisfaction with the brand have a priority when it comes to managing brand hate, since they can become the most severe haters. If the company works ethically, does not commit any moral transgressions and is socially responsible, there is less (or zero) cases of brand hate caused by ideological incompatibility. Hate caused by self-concept incongruity is the hardest to avoid, since consumers' personalities differ from each other. The brand should have a clear identity and should always appear in accordance to this identity. However, there will still be people who do not match that identity but in case of expressing hate towards the brand, no form of anger or contempt should be sensed in the brand's responses. Instead, the brand should show integrity, sincerity and respect to the haters.

The part of resolving brand hate that is detected online is trickier. One person should be responsible for monitoring online channels and answering bad reviews and negative posts on social media. Not all consumers that have written bad things online are willing to accept an explanation or apologies from the brand. Nevertheless, brands should still strive to answer and explain the situation from their point of view and try to resolve the issues consumers have with the brand.

The last step is to monitor the behaviour of haters after the case is considered closed. Therefore, brand managers would know whether they were successful in avoiding the

consumers' hate, retaining the customers when the hate occurred and silencing the spread of negative emotions about the brand online.

5.4.3 Limitations and future research opportunity

Despite the listed contribution, there are some challenges and limitations of this research. Future research opportunities based on these limitations are also presented below. The main limitation of the study was finding people who are true haters of a brand. Results are expected to be different if the survey was distributed via groups on social networks that are dedicated to hate a specific brand. Despite the effort of finding at least one, these kinds of groups do not appear on social media in Slovenia. The only kind of hate groups that were found were dedicated to hating specific responsibilities or situations, like "I hate school" or "I hate cold weather".

Furthermore, I assume that if the survey would have been answered as soon as the hatred for the brand occurs, the conclusion would be different in terms of outcomes. As the emotion of hate fades over time, people who state they hate a specific brand do not have such strong feelings about it if the hate has started a long time ago. Proactive behaviour towards a brand is more likely to occur when the emotions are still fresh. From the results of the study it is clear that respondents are prone to soft brand reactions more than hard and proactive reactions. In order to improve the relevancy of results, the approximate time of when hate for the brand first began should be included in the study.

The next step for future research is to find out which determinants lead to which outcome. For further investigation it would be interesting to include even more possible determinants of brand hate in the study, for example, country of origin that Bryson et al. (2013) confirmed as a possible antecedent. It would also be interesting to see whether it is possible that brand hate does not have an outcome every time, meaning that people do not do anything even if they feel hate, or how Zeelenberg & Pieters (2004) call it – inertia. One more possible outcome that Fetscherin (2019) has already detected should be included in the study – willingness to make financial sacrifices in order to do damage to the brand. For the part of self-concept incongruity, I recommend further research that will reveal whether the bigger reason for brand hate is inner or social-self incongruity.

For future research it would be really interesting to see whether the outcomes of brand hate differ for the group of people who have used the brand in the past and for those, who have not but hate the brand anyway. In fact, it would also be interesting to find out whether the people who hate a brand but still use it, do it because they do not have any other options because of avoidance barriers or because they do not really hate the brand. In case of the latter, they should be removed from the research. I also recommend collecting responses from consumers of different countries, including the developing countries. Therefore, the insight into brand hate of other cultures will be provided which will enable the comparison

of results amongst the received responses. Thus, it will be possible to develop a bigger picture concerning the topic and deepen our understanding of brand hate.

CONCLUSION

In this master thesis the concept of brand hate, its determinants and outcomes are presented. Brand hate has risen to a very important topic of marketing in the recent years, as it has been pointed out that consumers tend to process negative feelings and events more thoroughly than positive ones and are more likely to talk about a negative experience or share a negative review rather than a positive one (Baumsteier & Finkernauer, 2001). This happens due to consumers with negative feelings being more prone to engage in dissatisfaction responses (Mattila & Ro, 2008). Authors define brand hate differently; some think that brand hate is an emotion, while others believe that it consists of several negative emotions, however, they all agree that brand hate leads to various negative behavioural outcomes which can be damaging for the brand.

Many reasons lie behind the hatred of brands, including corporate wrongdoings, unmet expectations, negative perception of the brand (Zarantonello et al., 2016), country of origin (Bryson et al., 2013) and symbolic incongruity (Hegner et al., 2017). Furthermore, the actions taken by consumers expressing their hate are diverse. In the literature review, the most common outcomes of brand hate are negative word-of-mouth, complaining (Zarantonello et al., 2016), brand avoidance, brand retaliation (Hegner et al., 2017) and willingness to make financial sacrifices in order to hurt the brand (Fetscherin, 2019). These outcomes can harm the brands in unimaginable ways, like ruining brands' reputations, affecting their sales and revenues and cause a loss of customers.

To stress the importance of brand hate and to introduce its relevance to brands and their managers, the research among Slovenian consumers was conducted. Aside from the already perceived determinants and outcomes of brand hate from the literature review, one other outcome was included into the research – electronic negative word-of-mouth.

The research shows that three antecedents are the reason for brand hate among Slovenians; customer dissatisfaction, self-concept incongruity and ideological incompatibility. The most common reason for brand hate is customer dissatisfaction. It is followed closely by ideological incompatibility, which shows that consumers are conscious of the ethical behaviour of the brand and do not tolerate moral and ethical violations. It also proves that the brand's ethicality impacts the consumers' decision-making process. The least common reason for brand hate amongst Slovenians is self-concept incongruity.

Four outcomes of brand hate are recognised among Slovenian consumers, namely brand avoidance, negative word-of-mouth, electronic negative word-of-mouth and brand revenge. The most common behavioural outcome is negative word-of-mouth, as it is the simplest way for consumers to vent after experiencing a brand's poor performance. It is followed by brand

avoidance, which is obvious from the respondents' answers, as less than 14.50% of respondents still use the brand they hate. Brand revenge and electronic negative word-of-mouth are not as common as the previous two outcomes, but were also detected among the respondents. In conclusion, soft brand reactions are more common than hard and proactive behavioural reactions. The results of this thesis prove the presence of brand hate in the Slovenian market and they exhibit the seriousness of brand hate's behavioural outcomes. The research also confirms Kucuk's (2008) "negative double jeopardy" phenomenon, since the most mentioned brands in this research were Apple, Primark, McDonalds, Nestle, Samsung, Herbalife, Coca Cola and Desigual, Gucci and H&M, which are also known to be beloved by many.

Since the research was conducted with Slovenian respondents and there was no previous research available on the topic for this country, this study is the first to interpret perceived brand hate amongst Slovenian consumers. The main contribution of this thesis to the topic of brand hate is defining a new outcome of brand hate – electronic negative word-of-mouth. It is interesting to see that consumers spread their negative experience and the hate they feel towards a brand online, whether it is on social media or through online reviews of the product or service. The findings from this research can be a foundation for future research opportunities.

REFERENCES

1. Ahuvia, A. C. (2005). Beyond the extended self: Loved objects and consumers' identity narratives. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(1), 171-184.
2. Akgün, A. E., Koçoğlu, İ., & İmamoğlu, S. Z. (2013). An emerging consumer experience: Emotional branding. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 99, 503-508.
3. Albert, N., & Merunka, D. (2013). The role of brand love in consumer-brand relationships. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 30(3), 258-266.
4. Albert, N., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2008). When consumers love their brands: Exploring the concept and its dimensions. *Journal of Business Research*, 61, 1062-1075.
5. Alkiviadou, N. (2019). Hate speech on social media networks: towards a regulatory framework? *Information & Communications Technology Law*, 28(1), 19-35.
6. Allsop, D. T., Bassett, B. R., & Hoskins, J. A. (2007). Word-of-mouth research: Principles and applications. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 47(4), 398-411.
7. Alvarez, C., & Fournier, S. (2016). Consumers' relationships with brands. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 10, 129-135.
8. Arnold, M. J., Reynolds, K. E., Ponder, N., & Lueg, J. E. (2005). Customer delight in a retail context: Investigating delightful and terrible shopping experiences. *Journal of Business Research*, 58, 1132-1145.

9. Aron, A., Aron, E. N., Tudor, M., & Nelson, G. (1991). Close relationships as including other in the self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(2), 241-253.
10. Ba, S. (2001). Establishing online trust through a community responsibility system. *Decision Support Systems*, 31(3), 323-336.
11. Bagozzi, R. P., & Mahesh Gopinath, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 27(2), 184-206.
12. Balaji, M. S., Khong, K. W., & Chong, A. Y. (2016). Determinants of negative word-of-mouth communication using social networking sites. *Information & Management*, 53, 528-540.
13. Banister, E. N., & Hogg, M. K. (2004). Negative symbolic consumption and consumers' drive for self-esteem. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38(7), 850-868.
14. Batra, R., Ahuvia, A., & Bagozi, R. P. (2012). Brand love. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(2), 1-16.
15. Baumsteier, R. F., & Finkernauer, E. B. (2001). Bad in stronger than good. *Review of General Psychology*, 5(4), 323-370.
16. Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer-company identification: a framework for understanding consumers' relationship with companies. *Journal of Marketing*, 67(2), 76-88.
17. Bougie, R., Pieters, R., & Zeelenberg, M. (2003). Angry customers don't come back, they get back: The experience and behavioral implications of anger and dissatisfaction in services. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 4, 377-393.
18. Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand experience: What is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 73(3), 52-68.
19. Brocato, E. D., Baker, J., & Voorhees, C. M. (2015). Creating consumer attachment to retail service firms through sense of place. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(2), 200-220.
20. Broniarczyk, S. M., & Griffin, J. G. (2014). Decision Difficulty in the Age of Consumer Empowerment. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 24(4), 608-625.
21. Brown, J., Broderick, A. J., & Lee, N. (2007). Word of mouth communication within online communities: Conceptualizing the online social network. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 21(3), 2-20.
22. Brunk, K. H. (2010). Exploring origins of ethical company/brand perceptions - A consumer perspective of corporate ethics. *Journal of Business Research*, 63, 255-262.
23. Brunk, K. H., & Blümelhuber, C. (2011). One strike and you're out: Qualitative insights into the formation of consumers' ethical company or brand perceptions. *Journal of Business Research*, 64(2), 124-141.
24. Bryson, D., & Atwal, G. (2018). Brand hate: the case of Starbucks in France. *British Food Journal*.
25. Bryson, D., Atwal, G., & Hulten, P. (2013). Towards the conceptualisation of the antecedents of extreme negative affect towards luxury brands. *Qualitative Marketing Research*, 16(4), 393-405.

26. Carroll, B. A., & Ahuvia, A. C. (2006). Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love. *Marketing Letters*, 17(2), 79-89.
27. Casaló, L. V., Flavián, C., & Guinalíu, M. (2010). Relationship quality, community promotion and brand loyalty in virtual communities: Evidence from free software communities. *International Journal of Information Management*, 30(4), 357-367.
28. Chaudhuri, A., & Holbrook, M. B. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: The role of brand loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*, 65(2), 81-93.
29. Chen, Y.-Y., Huang, H.-L., Huang, W.-N., & Sung, S.-F. (2009). Confirmation of expectations and satisfaction with an on-line service: The role of internet self-efficacy. *2009 International Conference on New Trends in Information and Service Science*, (str. 880-885). Beijing.
30. Chetty, N., & Alathur, S. (2019). Digital hate content reduction with mobile edge computing: An architecture. *Digital Communications and Networks*.
31. Chevalier, J. A., & Mayzlin, D. (2006). The effect of word-of-mouth on sales: Online book reviews. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 43(3), 345–354.
32. Coelho, P. S., Rita, P., & Santos, Z. R. (2018). On the relationship between consumer-brand identification, brandcommunity, and brand loyalty. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 43, 101-110.
33. Dall’Olmo Riley, F., & de Chernatony, L. (2003). The Sservice Brand as Relationships Builder. *British Journal of Management*, 11(2), 137-150.
34. Dalli, D., Romani, S., & Gistri, G. (2006). Brand dislike: representing the negative side of consumer preferences. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 33, 87-95.
35. Das, G., Agarwal, J., Malhotra, N. K., & Varshneya, G. (2019). Does brand experience translate into brand commitment?: A mediated-moderation model of brand passion and percieved brand ethicality. *Journal of Business Research*, 95, 479-490.
36. de Chernatony, L., & Dall’Olmo Riley, F. (1998). Defining A "Brand": Beyond The Literature With Experts' Interpretations. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 14(5), 417-443.
37. de Chernatony, L., McDonald, M., & Wallace, E. (2011). *Creating powerful brands*, 4th ed. Oxford: Elsevier.
38. DeWitt, T., Nguyen, D. T., & Marshall, R. (2008). Exploring customer loyalty following service recovery: The mediating effects of trust and emotions. *Journal of Service Research*, 10(3), 269–281.
39. Dick, A. S., & Basu, K. (1994). Customer loyalty: Toward an integrated conceptual framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 22(2), 99–113.
40. Du, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2011). Corporate social responsibility and competitive advantage: Overcoming the trust barrier. *Management Science*, 57(9), 1528-1545.
41. Duman, S., & Ozgen, O. (2018). Willingness to punish and reward brands associated to a political ideology (BAPI). *Journal of Business Research*, 86, 468-478.

42. Epley, N., Waytz, A., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2007). On seeing human: A three-factor theory of anthropomorphism. *Psychological Review*, 114(4), 864-886.
43. Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2003). You are what they eat: The influence of reference groups on consumers' connection to brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 13(3), 339-348.
44. *Ethical consumer markets report*. (1. June 2018). Pridobljeno 29. April 2019 iz Ethical consumer: <https://www.ethicalconsumer.org/research-hub/uk-ethical-consumer-markets-report>
45. Fetscherin, M. (2019). The five types of brand hate: How they affect consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 101, 116-127.
46. Fetscherin, M., & Heinrich, D. (2015). Consumer brand relationship research: A bibliometric citation meta-analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 68(2), 380-390.
47. Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(4), 343-373.
48. Fournier, S., & Alvarez, C. (2012). Brands as relationship partners: Warmth, competence, and in-between. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 22, 177-185.
49. Fournier, S., Breazeale, M., & Fetscherin, M. (2012). *Consumer brand relationships: theory and practice*. New York: Routledge.
50. Funches, V., Markle, M., & Davis, L. (2009). Reprisal, retribution and requital: Investigating customer retaliation. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 231-238.
51. Garcia-Madariaga, J., & Rodriguez-Rivera, F. (2017). Corporate social responsibility, customer satisfaction, corporate reputation, and firms' market value: Evidence from the automobile industry. *Spanish Journal of Marketing - ESIC*, 21(1), 39-53.
52. Giovanis, A. N., & Athanasopoulou, P. (2018). Consumer-brand relationships and brand loyalty in technology-mediated services. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 40, 287-294.
53. Gorsuch, R. L. (1983). *Factor Analysis, 2nd ed.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
54. Grappi, S., Romani, S., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2013). Consumer response to corporate irresponsible behavior: Moral emotions and virtues. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(10), 1814-1821.
55. Gregoire, Y., Laufer, D., & Tripp, T. M. (2010). A comprehensive model of customer direct and indirect revenge: Understanding the effects of perceived greed and customer power. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38(6), 738-758.
56. Gregoire, Y., Tripp, T. M., & Legoux, R. (2009). When customer love turns into lasting hate: The effects of relationship strenght and time on customer revenge and avoidance. *Journal of Marketing*, 73(6), 18-32.
57. Grisaffe, D. B., & Nguyen, H. P. (2011). Antecedents of emotional attachment to brands. *Journal of Business Research*, 64(10), 1052-1059.
58. Grohmann, B., & Bodur, H. O. (2015). Brand social responsibility: conceptualization, measurement, and outcomes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 131(2), 375-399.

59. Gronroos, C. (2006). On defining marketing: finding a new roadmap for marketing. *Marketing Theory*, 6(4), 395-417.
60. Han, X., Kwortnik Jr., R. J., & Wang, C. (2008). Service Loyalty: An integrative model and examination across service contexts. *Journal of Service Research*, 11(1), 22-42.
61. Hegner, S. M., Fetscherin, M., & Denzel, M. v. (2017). Determinants and outcomes of brand hate. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 26(1), 13-25.
62. Hennig-Thurau, T., Malthouse, E. C., Friege, C., Gensler, S., Lobschat, L., Rangaswamy, A., & Skiera, B. (2010). The impact of new media on customer relationships. *Journal of Service Research*, 13(3), 311-330.
63. Hess, J., & Story, J. (2005). Trust-based commitment: multidimensional consumer-brand relationships. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 22(6), 313-322.
64. Hogg, M. K., & Banister, E. N. (2001). Dislikes, distastes and the undesired self: Conceptualising and exploring the role of the undesired end state in consumer experience. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 17(1-2), 73-104.
65. Huber, F., Meyer, F., & Schmid, D. A. (2015). Brand love in progress - the interdependence of brand love antecedents in consideration of relationship duration. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 24(6), 567-579.
66. Hudson, S., Huang, L., Roth, M. S., & Madden, T. J. (2016). The influence of social media interactions on consumer-brand relationships: A three-country study of brand perceptions and marketing behaviors. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 33(1), 27-41.
67. Islam, T., Attiq, S., Hameed, Z., Khokhar, M. N., & Sheik, Z. (2018). The impact of self-congruity (symbolic and functional) on the brand hate: A study based on self-congruity theory. *British Food Journal*.
68. Japutra, A., Ekinci, Y., & Simkin, L. (2018). Positive and negative behaviours resulting from brand attachment: The moderating effects of attachment styles. *European Journal of Marketing*, 52(5/6), 1185-1202.
69. Kaufmann, H. R., Loureiro, S. M., & Basile, G. (2012). The increasing dynamics between consumers, social groups and brands. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 15(4), 404-419.
70. Keaveney, S. M. (1995). Customer switching behavior in service industries: An exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing*, 59(2), 71-82.
71. Khan, M. A., & Lee, M. S. (2014). Prepurchase determinants of brand avoidance: The moderating role of country-of-origin familiarity. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 27, 329-343.
72. Kim, S., & McGill, A. L. (2011). Gaming with Mr. Slot or gaming the slot machine? Power, anthropomorphism, and risk perception. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 38, 94-107.
73. Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principle and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling*, 3rd edition. New York: The Guilford Press.
74. Knittel, Z., Beurer, K., & Berndt, A. (2016). Brand avoidance among generation Y consumers. *Qualitative Market Research: An international Journal*, 19(1), 27-43.

75. Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2012). *Marketing management 14th ed.* New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
76. Krishnamurthy, S., & Kucuk, S. U. (2009). Anti-branding on the internet. *Journal of Business Research*, 62, 1119–1126.
77. Kucuk, S. U. (2008). Negative double jeopardy: The role of anti-brand sites on the internet. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(3), 209-222.
78. Kucuk, S. U. (2016). *Brand hate: navigating consumer negativity in the digital world.* Cham: Palgrave Macmillan.
79. Kucuk, S. U. (2018). Macro-level antecedents of consumer brand hate. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 35(5).
80. Kucuk, S. U. (2019). Consumer Brand Hate: Steam rolling whatever I see. *Psychology of marketing*, 36(5), 431-443.
81. Labrecque, L. I., Esche, J. v., Mathwick, C., Novak, T. P., & Hofacker, C. F. (2013). Consumer power: evolution in the digital age. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 27, 257-269.
82. Lazarevic, V. (2012). Encouraging brand loyalty in fickle generation Y consumers. *Young Consumers*, 13(1), 45-61.
83. Lee, M. S., Conroy, D., & Motion, J. (2009a). Brand avoidance: A negative promises perspective. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 36, 421-429.
84. Lee, M. S., Motion, J., & Conroy, D. (2009b). Anti-consumption and brand avoidance. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 169-180.
85. Marticotte, F., Arcand, M., & Baudry, D. (2016). The impact of brand evangelism on oppositional referrals towards a rival brand. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 25(6), 538-549.
86. Matos, C. A., & Rossi, C. A. (2008). Word-of-mouth communications in marketing: a meta-analytic review of the antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36(4), 578-596.
87. Mattila, A. S., & Ro, H. (2008). Discrete negative emotions and customer dissatisfaction responses in a casual restaurant setting. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 32(1), 89-107.
88. McAlexander, J. H., Schouten, J. W., & Koenig, H. F. (2002). Building brand community. *Journal of Marketing*, 66(1), 38-54.
89. Morrison, S., & Crane, F. G. (2007). Building the service brand by creating and managing an emotional brand experience. *Journal of Brand Management*, 14(5), 410-427.
90. Ogilvie, D. M. (1987). The undesired self: A neglected variable in personality research. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(2), 379-385.
91. Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 17(4), 460-469.
92. Oliver, R. L. (2010). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer.* Abingdon: Routledge.

93. Otieno, R., Harrow, C., & Lea-Greenwood, G. (2005). The unhappy shopper, a retail experience: exploring fashion, fit and affordability. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 33(4), 298-309.
94. Ou, Y.-C., & Verhoef, P. C. (2017). The impact of positive and negative emotions on loyalty intentions and their interactions with customer equity drivers. *Journal of Business Research*, 80, 106-115.
95. Palihawadana, D., Oghazi, P., & Liu, Y. (2016). Effects of ethical ideologies and perceptions of CSR on consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(11), 4964-4969.
96. Pan, Y., Sheng, S., & Xie, F. T. (2012). Antecedents of customer loyalty: An empirical synthesis and reexamination. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 19, 150–158.
97. Papista, E., & Dimitriadis, S. (2012). Exploring consumer-brand relationship quality and identification: Qualitative evidence of cosmetic brands. *Qualitative Market Research*, 15(1), 33-56.
98. Park, C. W., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A. B., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand attachment and brand attitude strenght: Conceptual and empirical differentiation of the two critical brand equity drivers. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(6), 1-17.
99. Park, H., & Kim, Y.-K. (2014). The role of social network websites in the consumer-brand relationship. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 21(4), 460-467.
100. Pizzutti dos Santos, C., & Basso, K. (2012). Price unfairness: the indirect effect on switching intentions and negative word-of-mouth. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 21(7), 547–557.
101. Popp, B., Garmedmann, C. C., & Jung, B. (2016). We love to hate them! Social media-based anti-brand communities in professional football. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 17(4), 349-367.
102. Portal, S., Abratt, R., & Bendixen, M. (2018). Building a human brand: Brand anthropomorphism unravelled. *Business Horizons*, 61, 367-374.
103. Priporas, C.-V., Stylos, N., & Fotiadis, A. K. (2017). Generation Z consumers' expectations of interactions in smart retailing: A future agenda. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 77, 374-381.
104. Puzakova, M., Kwak, H., & Rocereto, J. (2009). Pushing the envelope of brand and personality: Antecedents and moderators of anthropomorphized brands. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 36, 413-420.
105. Ren, G., & Hong, T. (2019). Examining the relationship between specific negative emotions and the perceived helpfulness of online reviews. *Information Processing & Management*, 56(4), 1425-1438.
106. Ribeiro, G. C., Butori, R., & Nagard, E. L. (2018). The determinants of approval of online consumer revenge. *Journal of Business Research*, 88, 212-221.
107. Richins, M. L. (1997). Measuring emotions in the consumption experience. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(2), 127-146.

108. Rindel, A., Strandvik, T., & Wilen, K. (2013). Ethical consumers' brand avoidance. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 22(7), 484-490.
109. Riquelme, I. P., Román, S., Cuestas, P. J., & Iacobucci, D. (2019). The dark side of good reputation and loyalty in online retailing: When trust leads to retaliation through price unfairness. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 47, 35-52.
110. Romani, S., Grappi, S., & Dalli, D. (2012). Emotions that drive consumers away from brands: Measuring negative emotions toward brands and their behavioral effects. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 29, 55-67.
111. Romani, S., Sadeh, H., & Dalli, D. (2009). When the brand is bad, I'm mad! An exploration of negative emotions to brands. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 36, 494-501.
112. Roseman, I. J., Wiest, C., & Swartz, T. S. (1994). Phenomenology, behaviors, and goals differentiate discrete emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67(2), 206-221.
113. Rosengren, S., & Dahlen, M. (2006). Brand-slogan matching in a cluttered environment. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 263-279.
114. Rossiter, J. R. (2012). A new C-OAR-SE-based content-valid and predictively valid measure that distinguishes. *Marketing Letters*, 23(3), 905-916.
115. Ruzzier, K. M., & Ruzzier, M. (2015). *Startup Branding Funnel*. Ljubljana: Meritum.
116. Saleh, K. (2014). *Customer acquisition vs. retention costs – Statistics and trends*. Pridobljeno 3. June 2019 iz Invesp: <https://www.invespcro.com/blog/customer-acquisition-retention/>
117. Schmitt, B. (2013). The consumer psychology of customer-brand relationships: Extending the AA Relationship model. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 23(2), 249-252.
118. Sen, S., Du, S., & Bhattacharya, C. (2016). Corporate social responsibility: A consumer psychology perspective. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 10, 70-75.
119. Shimp, T. A., & Madden, T. J. (1988). Consumer-object relations: A conceptual framework based analogously on Sternberg's Triangular theory of love. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 15, 163-168.
120. Shukla, P., Banerjee, M., & Singh, J. (2016). Customer commitment to luxury brands: Antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Business Research*, 69, 323-331.
121. Singh, J. J., Iglesias, O., & Batista-Foguet, J. M. (2012). Does having an ethical brand matter? The influence of consumer perceived ethicality on trust, affect and loyalty. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 111(4), 541-549.
122. Sirgy, M. J., Grewal, D., & Mangleburg, T. (2000). Retail environment, self-congruity, and retail patronage: An integrative model and a research agenda. *Journal of Business Research*, 49(2), 127-138.
123. Smit, E., Bronner, F., & Tolboom, M. (2007). Brand relationship quality and its value for personal contact. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(6), 627-633.
124. Spreng, R. A., MacKenzie, S. B., & Olshavsky, R. W. (1996). A reexamination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(3), 15-32.

125. Sternberg, R. J. (2003). A duplex theory of hate: Development and application to terrorism, massacres, and genocide. *Review of General Psychology*, 7(3), 299–328.
126. Sudbury-Riley, L., & Kohlbacher, F. (2016). Ethically minded consumer behavior: Scale review, development, and validation. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(8), 2697-2710.
127. Swimberghe, K. R., Astakhova, M., & Wooldridge, B. R. (2014). A new dualistic approach to brand passion: Harmonious and obsessive. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(12), 2657-2665.
128. The Nielsen Company. (2015). *Global trust in advertising: Winning strategies for an evolving media landscape*. New York: The Nielsen Company.
129. Thompson, C. J., & Arsel, Z. (2004). The Starbucks brandscape and consumers' (anticorporate) experiences of glocalization. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(3), 631-642.
130. Thomson, M., MacInnis, D. J., & Park, W. (2005). The ties that bind: Measuring the strength of consumers' emotional attachments to brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15(1), 77-91.
131. Timofeeva, Y. A. (2003). Hate speech online: Restricted or protected? Comparison of regulations in the United States and Germany. *Journal of Transnational Law and Policy*, 12(2), 253-286.
132. Trump, R. K. (2014). Connected consumers' responses to negative brand actions: The roles of transgression self-relevance and domain. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(9), 1824-1830.
133. Tsai, W.-H. S., & Men, L. R. (2013). Motivations and antecedents of consumer engagement with brand pages on social networking sites. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 13(2), 76-87.
134. Tu, Y.-T., Wang, C.-M., & Chang, H.-C. (2012). Corporate brand image and customer satisfaction on loyalty: An empirical study of Starbucks coffee in Taiwan. *Journal of Social and Development Sciences*, 3(1), 24-32.
135. Tuškej, U., Golob, U., & Podnar, K. (2013). The role of consumer–brand identification in building brand relationships. *Journal of Business Research*, 66, 53-59.
136. Van Belleghem, S. (2016). How the digital world is shaping the modern consumer. *Strategic Direction*, 32(5), 1-2.
137. Ward, J. C., & Ostrom, A. L. (2006). Complaining to the masses: The role of protest framing in customer-created complaint web sites. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33(2), 220-230.
138. Watson, L., & Spence, M. T. (2007). Causes and consequences of emotions on consumer behaviour. A review and integrative cognitive appraisal theory. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41 (5/6), 487-511.
139. Wilk, R. R. (1997). A critique of desire: Distaste and dislike in consumer behaviour. *Markets and Culture*, 1(2), 175-196.

140. Xie, C., Bagozzi, R. P., & Grønhaug, K. (2019). The impact of corporate social responsibility on consumer brand advocacy: The role of moral emotions, attitudes, and individual differences. *Journal of Business Research*, 95, 514-530.
141. Yamada, K. (2019). The effects of customer expectations for consumer behavior in reputation information sites. *Procedia CIRP*, 79, 684-689.
142. Yoo, C., & MacInnis, D. (2005). The brand attitude formation process of emotional and informational ads. *Journal of Business Research*, 58, 1397-1406.
143. Zablocki, A., Makri, K., & Houston, M. J. (2019). Emotions within online reviews and their influence on product attitudes in Austria, USA and Thailand. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 46, 20-39.
144. Zarantonello, L., Romani, S., Grappi, S., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2016). Brand hate. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 25(1), 11-25.
145. Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2004). Beyond valence in customer dissatisfaction: A review and new findings on behavioral responses to regret and disappointment in failed services. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(4), 445-455.
146. Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2006). Feeling is for doing: A pragmatic approach to the study of emotions in economic behavior. V D. De Cremer, M. Zeelenberg, & J. K. Murnighan, *Social Psychology and Economics* (str. 117-137). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

APPENDICES

TABLE OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Summary in Slovene.....	1
Appendix 2: Questionnaire in Slovene.....	3
Appendix 3: Questionnaire in English.....	8
Appendix 4: List of all hated brands mentioned in the survey	12
Appendix 5: Kendal Tau-b correlations	14
Appendix 6: Total variance explained.....	14
Appendix 7: Pattern matrix	15
Appendix 8: AMOS export of structural equation model	16

Appendix 1: Summary in Slovene

POVZETEK

Velik nabor različnih blagovnih znamk na trgu dandanes potrošnikom nudi veliko možnosti izbire. Blagovne znamke omogočajo razlikovanje enakih dobrin med različnimi ponudniki. V zadnjih dveh desetletjih se je tema "odnos porabnika do blagovne znamke" (angl. consumer-brand-relationship) močno razvila in pridobila na pomenu (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015), saj je blagovna znamka ena izmed najpomembnejših neopredmetenih sredstev podjetja (Pan et al., 2012). Akademiki so običajno nagnjeni k raziskovanju pozitivnega odnosa med porabnikom in blagovno znamko (Zarantonello et al., 2016) in zanemarjajo pomembnost negativnih čustev, ki jih je moč občutiti ob asociaciji na določeno blagovno znamko. Baumsteier & Finkernauer (2001) sta dokazala, da ljudje negativne informacije predelujemo bolj podrobno kot pozitivne, kar predstavlja glavni razlog za potrebo po raziskovanju odnosov med blagovno znamko in porabniki, v katerem so vključena tudi negativna čustva.

V raziskavi vzrokov in posledic ljubezni do blagovne znamke (angl. brand love) Carroll & Ahuvia (2006) jasno izpostavita potrebo po raziskovanju nasprotnega pola. Poleg tega različne skupine na socialnih omrežjih in negativne ocene na spletu, ki izražajo sovraštvo do blagovnih znamk (Krishnamurthy & Kucuk, 2009), nakazujejo potrebo po raziskavi novega koncepta negativnih čustev, ki jih porabniki čutijo do blagovnih znamk. V magistrski nalogi je predstavljena tema, ki se je v zadnjih nekaj letih začela pojavljati v akademskih krogih – sovraštvo do blagovne znamke (angl. brand hate) – in predstavlja najmočnejše negativno čustvo, ki ga posameznik lahko čuti do blagovne znamke. Poleg samega koncepta sovraštva do blagovne znamke, so v magistrski nalogi raziskani tudi vzroki sovraštva do blagovne znamke in vedenjske posledice le-tega.

Avtorji sovraštvo do blagovne znamke opredeljujejo različno. Nekateri so mnenja, da je sovraštvo čustvo, drugi opredeljujejo sovraštvo kot skupek različnih negativnih čustev. Bryson et al. (2013, p. 395) opišejo sovraštvo do blagovne znamke kot »močan negativen čustven odziv proti blagovni znamki«. Zarantonello et al. (2016, p. 11) navajajo, da je sovraštvo do blagovne znamke »skupek negativnih čustev, ki so pomembno povezana z vedenjskimi posledicami omenjenega sovraštva«. Sovraštvo do blagovne znamke je trajno in lahko blagovni znamki in matičnemu podjetju povzroči veliko škode, kot na primer izgubo zaupanja kupcev, upad prihodkov in dobička ter poslabšanje ugleda blagovne znamke (Bryson & Atwal, 2018).

V literaturi je zaznati različne vzroke za sovraštvo do blagovne znamke. Mednje spadajo korporativna hudodelstva oziroma nemoralna ali sporna ravnanja podjetja, nedosežena pričakovanja potrošnika, negativno zaznavanje blagovne znamke (Zarantonello et al., 2016), izvor blagovne znamke (Bryson et al., 2013), neskladnost s konceptom doživljanja »sebe« in neskladnost s porabnikovimi ideološkimi prepričanji (Hegner et al., 2017). Med vedenja,

ki se kažejo kot posledice sovraštva do blagovne znamke spadajo negativno širjenje informacij od ust do ust, pritoževanje (Zarantonello et al., 2016), izogibanje blagovni znamki, povračilo, oziroma maščevanje, blagovni znamki (Hegner et al., 2017) ter pripravljenost na finančno žrtvovanje z namenom škodovanja blagovni znamki (Fetscherin, 2019).

Skrbniki blagovnih znamk morajo sprejeti dejstvo, da je razumevanje sovraštva do blagovne znamke zelo pomembno, saj lahko sovraštvo preprečijo ali pravilno ukrepajo v primeru, ko pride do vedenjskih posledic.

Na podlagi pregleda literature sem postavila sedem hipotez:

- Hipoteza 1: Porabnikovo nezadovoljstvo vodi do sovraštva do blagovne znamke.
- Hipoteza 2: Neskladnost s konceptom doživljanja »sebe« vodi do sovraštva do blagovne znamke.
- Hipoteza 3: Neskladnost z lastnimi ideološkimi prepričanji vodi do sovraštva do blagovne znamke.
- Hipoteza 4: Sovraštvo do blagovne znamke vodi do izogibanja blagovni znamki.
- Hipoteza 5: Sovraštvo do blagovne znamke vodi do širjenja negativnih informacij od ust do ust.
- Hipoteza 6: Sovraštvo do blagovne znamke vodi do elektronskega širjenja negativnih informacij od ust do ust.
- Hipoteza 7: Sovraštvo do blagovne znamke vodi do maščevanja blagovni znamki.

V empiričnem delu magistrske naloge je bila za zbiranje podatkov uporabljena kvantitativna metoda. Vprašalnik je bil sestavljen na podlagi različnih predhodnih raziskav. Objavljen je bil na platformi Qualtrics in bil posredovan preko socialnih omrežij in drugih spletnih kanalov med slovenske porabnike; večinoma študente in mlade odrasle osebe. Zbiranje odgovorov je trajalo od 3. novembra do 6. decembra 2019. Skupno smo zbrali 235 v celoti rešenih vprašalnikov, ki smo jih kasneje uporabili v analizi podatkov. Analiza podatkov je bila narejena v programu SPSS in AMOS.

Rezultati raziskave potrjujejo tri različne vzroke za sovraštvo do blagovnih znamk: porabnikovo nezadovoljstvo, neskladnost s konceptom doživljanja »sebe« in neskladnost z ideološkimi prepričanji. Najbolj pogost vzrok je porabnikovo nezadovoljstvo, kateremu tesno sledi neskladnost z ideološkimi prepričanji, kar kaže na močno etično ozaveščenost slovenskih porabnikov, saj le-te ne podpirajo kršitev etičnih in moralnih načel blagovnih znamk.

Rezultati kažejo, da je najpogostejša vedenjska posledica sovraštva do blagovne znamke med slovenskimi porabniki širjenje negativnih informacij od ust do ust. To je ena izmed najlažjih oblik sproščanja negativnih čustev, zato ni presenetljivo, da je tudi najpogostejša. Sledi mu izogibanje blagovni znamki, kar nakazujejo rezultati, saj manj kot 14,50 % ljudi še

vedno uporablja blagovno znamko, ki jo sovraži. Najmanj pogosti posledici sovraštva do blagovne znamke sta maščevanje blagovni znamki in elektronsko širjenje negativnih informacij od ust do ust. Slednje je pomembno zaradi dejstva, da je to prva raziskava, ki potrjuje širjenje sovraštva do blagovne znamke preko socialnih omrežij oziroma preko spleta s strani porabnikov.

Appendix 2: Questionnaire in Slovene

Sovraštvo do blagovnih znamk

Povabljeni ste k reševanju kratke anonimne ankete o vaših izkušnjah z blagovno znamko. Blagovna znamka je lahko kateri koli izdelek (npr. brezalkoholna pijača, čevlji, računalnik) ali storitev (npr. restavracija, ponudnik mobilnih storitev, letalska družba), ki se je lahko domislite. Ko boste odgovarjali na vprašanja, imejte v mislih točno določeno blagovno znamko.

Prosim podajte odgovor, ki najbolje odraža vaše mnenje o tematiki.

Z odgovori mi boste zelo pomagali pri izdelavi moje magistrske naloge.

V1: Želite začeti z anketo?

- Da
- Ne

V2: Katere blagovne znamke najbolj ne marate oziroma jo sovražite?

- Prosim, vpišite blagovno znamko:

V3: Ste v PRETEKLOSTI kupili ali uporabljali blagovno znamko X?

- Da
- Ne

V4: Ali DANES še vedno kupujete ali uporabljate blagovno znamko X?

- Da
- Ne

V5: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Blagovna znamka X se mi gnusi					
Ne prenašam blagovne znamke X					
Svet bi bil lepši, če blagovna znamka X ne bi obstajala					
Jezen/jezna sem na blagovno znamko X					
Blagovna znamka X je grozna					
Sovražim blagovno znamko X					

V6: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Delovanje izdelka oz. izvedba storitve blagovne znamke X je slaba					
Izdelki/storitve blagovne znamke X so nepriročni					
Moje sovražstvo je povezano s slabim delovanjem oz. izvedbo blagovne znamke X					
Z blagovno znamko X sem nezadovoljen/nezadovoljna					

V7: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Blagovna znamka X ne odseva mojega značaja					

Blagovna znamka X ne ustreza moji osebnosti					
Ne želim biti viden/a z blagovno znamko X					
Blagovna znamka X ne predstavlja tega, kar sem					
Blagovna znamka X simbolizira osebo, katera nikoli ne bi želel/a biti					

V8: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Po mojem mnenju se X obnaša neodgovorno					
Po mojem mnenju se X obnaša neetično					
Blagovna znamka X krši moralna načela					
Blagovna znamka X se ne ujema z mojimi vrednotami in prepričanji					

V9: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Blagovna znamka X uporabljam/kupujem manj pogosto kot včasih					
Prešel/prešla sem h konkurenčni blagovni znamki					
Nehal/a sem uporabljati/kupovati blagovno znamko X in je tudi v prihodnosti ne bom					

V10: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Drugim govorim negativne stvari o blagovni znamki X					
Svoje prijatelje skušam odvrniti od nakupa blagovne znamke X					
Ljudem, ki iščejo moj nasvet, odsvetujem nakup blagovne znamke X					

V11: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Na socialnih omrežjih pišem negativne stvari o blagovni znamki X					
Na splet sem napisal/a negativno oceno ali kritiko o blagovni znamki X					
Vključen/a sem v skupino na socialnih omrežjih, ki je proti blagovni znamki X					

V12: V kolikšni meri se strinjate oziroma ne strinjate s podanimi trditvami, ki se nanašajo na izdelek ali storitev blagovne znamke X?

	Nikakor se ne strinjam	Se ne strinjam	Niti se strinjam, niti se ne strinjam	Se strinjam	Popolnoma se strinjam
Moje poslanstvo je, da škodujem blagovni znamki X					

Fasciniran/a sem glede različnih načinov, kako škoditi blagovni znamki X					
Predstavljaj/a sem si, kako bi škodila blagovni znamki X					
Neprestano sem razmišljal/a, kaj lahko storim, da blagovni znamki X vrnem milo za drago					

V13: Spol:

- Ženski
- Moški

V14: Starost (izberite iz spustnega seznama):

V15: Kakšen je vaš zakonski status?

- Samski/samska
- Poročen/a
- Ločen/a
- V zvezi
- Vdovec/vdova

V16: Najvišja stopnja dosežene izobrazbe:

- Manj kot srednja šola
- Srednja šola ali gimnazija
- Višja šola
- Dodiplomski študij
- Magistrski študij
- Doktorat

V17: V kateri regiji prebivate?

- Dolenjska
- Gorenjska
- Goriška
- Koroška
- Notranjska
- Osrednjeslovenska
- Podravje
- Pomurje
- Posavje

- Primorska
- Nobena od naštetih

V18: Kakšen je vaš povprečni mesečni neto dohodek? (Ni potrebno odgovoriti)

Appendix 3: Questionnaire in English

Brand hate

You are invited to participate in a brief anonymous survey on your experience with a brand. A brand can be any type of product (e.g. soft drink, shoe) or service (e.g., restaurant, hotel) you can think of. When answering the survey, please keep the same brand in your mind. Please provide answers that best reflect your opinion. Your participation is greatly appreciated as it will help me with my master thesis.

Q1: Do you want to proceed with the survey?

- Yes
- No

Q2: Which brand do you dislike or hate the most?

- Please type brand name:

Q3: Did you buy/use brand X in the PAST?

- Yes
- No

Q4: Do you still buy/use brand X today?

- Yes
- No

Q5: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am disgusted by brand X					
I do not tolerate brand X and it's company					

The world would be a better place without brand X					
I am angry with brand X					
Brand X is awful					
I hate brand X					

Q6: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
The performance of products of brand X is poor					
Brand X products are inconvenient					
My hate is linked to the bad performance of brand X					
I'm dissatisfied by brand X					

Q7: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Brand X does not reflect who I am					
Brand X does not fit my personality					
I don't want to be seen with brand X					
Brand X does not represent what I am					
Brand X symbolizes the kind of person I would never want to be					

Q8: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

In my opinion, brand X acts irresponsible					
In my opinion, brand X acts unethically					
Brand X violates moral standards					
Brand X doesn't match my values and beliefs					

Q9: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I buy brand X less frequently than before					
I switched to a competing brand					
I stop buying brand X, and I will not buy it anymore					

Q10: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I say negative things about brand X to others					
I discourage friends and relatives to buy brand X					
I recommend not to buy brand X to someone who seeks my advice					

Q11: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

I have written negative things about brand X on social media					
I have written a negative review of brand X on the internet					
I have joined an online community or group on social media that is against brand X					

Q12: To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as related to brand's X products or services?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree, nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I made it one of my life's missions to damage brand X					
I became fascinated about the various ways I can do harm to brand X					
I imagined how to hurt brand X					
I obsessed over what I could do to get back at brand X					

Q13: Gender:

- Female
- Male

Q14: Age (please select from the list):

Q15: What is your marital status?

- Single
- Married
- Separated
- In a relationship
- Widowed/other

Q16: What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Primary school or less
- Technical secondary school

- Secondary school
- 2-year College
- Undergraduate Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctoral Degree

Q17: What region do you come from?

- Dolenjska
- Gorenjska
- Goriška
- Koroška
- Notranjska
- Osrednjeslovenska
- Podravje
- Pomurje
- Posavje
- Primorska
- None of the above

Appendix 4: List of all hated brands mentioned in the survey

Brand	Numer of mentions	Brand	Numer of mentions
1 Apple	19	60 EY	1
2 Primark	11	61 Fa	1
3 Mc donalds	9	62 Facebook	1
4 Nestle	8	63 Fanta	1
5 Samsung	8	64 Felix	1
6 Herbalife	7	65 Forever 21	1
7 Starbucks	6	66 Fox Entertainment Group	1
8 Coca cola	5	67 goopti	1
9 Desigual	5	68 Gorenjka	1
10 Gucci	5	69 Head&shoulders	1
11 H&M	5	70 Heineken	1
12 Always	4	71 hp	1
13 Zara	4	72 Ibanez	1
14 Guess	3	73 Iberia	1
15 Huawei	3	74 iPhone	1
16 Malboro	3	75 JB	1
17 Monster	3	76 Jet airways	1
18 newyorker	3	77 Karlovačko	1
19 Top shop	3	78 Kik	1

20	A1	2	79	Lidl	1
21	Audi	2	80	Ljubljanske mlekarne	1
22	Barclays	2	81	Lpp	1
23	Bershka	2	82	Mango	1
24	Bhip	2	83	Mitsubishi	1
25	bioles horizont	2	84	Monsanto	1
26	bmw	2	85	Moschino	1
27	Burger King	2	86	Nivea	1
28	Carglass	2	87	NLB	1
29	ESSENCE	2	88	Ob	1
30	Flixbus	2	89	OMC	1
31	lars and sven	2	90	P&G	1
32	laško	2	91	Persil	1
33	L'oreal	2	92	Phillip Plein	1
34	Pandora	2	93	Popolna postava	1
35	Pepsi	2	94	Proteini.si	1
36	Ryanair	2	95	Puma	1
37	simobil	2	96	Purdue	1
38	Tuš	2	97	Radio 1	1
39	volotea	2	98	real madrid	1
40	Adidas	1	99	Revolution	1
41	Alexander McQueen	1	100	Sensilab	1
42	Alfa romeo	1	101	Skechers	1
43	Amazon	1	102	Smart	1
44	Android	1	103	Subway	1
45	Asisc	1	104	Škoda	1
46	balea	1	105	Takko	1
47	Balenciaga	1	106	Taxi storitve Cammeo	1
48	Banka nlb	1	107	Telekom	1
49	Blast	1	108	Telemach	1
50	Booking	1	109	Terranova	1
51	Breilmaier	1	110	Teta Frida	1
52	C&A	1	111	tommmy	1
53	Chelsea	1	112	Toyota	1
54	Cocta	1	113	Unite Students	1
55	Crocs	1	114	United colors of beneton	1
56	daniel wellington	1	115	Urban Outfitters	1
57	Disney	1	116	Victoria's secret	1
58	Disquared	1	117	Vueling	1
59	Dodo	1	118	West	1

Source: Own work

Appendix 5: Kendal Tau-b correlations

	Construct	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1.	Brand hate	1.000							
2.	Customer dissatisfaction	.321**	1.000						
3.	Self-concept incongruity	.496**	.196**	1.000					
4.	Ideological incompatibility	.478**	.158**	.359**	1.000				
5.	Brand avoidance	.219**	.366**	.158**	.114*	1.000			
6.	Negative WOM	.469**	.371**	.343**	.338**	.286**	1.000		
7.	Electronic negative WOM	.166**	.160**	.034	.205**	.053	.147**	1.000	
8.	Brand revenge	.197**	.119*	.099	.238**	-.002	.242**	.505**	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Own work

Appendix 6: Total variance explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	10.365	33.435	33.435	10.081	32.518	32.518	6.576
2	4.209	13.577	47.012	3.952	12.749	45.267	5.169
3	2.827	9.120	56.131	2.498	8.058	53.325	6.121
4	1.881	6.069	62.200	1.635	5.274	58.598	5.176
5	1.468	4.736	66.936	1.172	3.781	62.380	8.101
6	1.239	3.996	70.932	.916	2.954	65.334	6.290
7	1.082	3.490	74.422	.786	2.537	67.871	4.179
8	.928	2.993	77.415	.651	2.099	69.970	3.365
9	.660	2.129	79.544				
10	.586	1.890	81.434				
11	.540	1.742	83.176				
12	.506	1.632	84.808				
13	.477	1.540	86.348				
14	.467	1.505	87.853				
15	.363	1.170	89.023				
16	.361	1.165	90.188				
17	.310	1.000	91.188				
18	.297	.958	92.146				
19	.280	.905	93.051				
20	.270	.869	93.920				
21	.240	.774	94.695				
22	.234	.755	95.449				
23	.219	.708	96.157				
24	.200	.644	96.802				

25	.182	.586	97.387				
26	.176	.569	97.956				
27	.160	.517	98.474				
28	.158	.509	98.982				
29	.124	.399	99.381				
30	.104	.334	99.716				
31	.088	.284	100.000				

Source: Own work

Appendix 7: Pattern matrix

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	SCI	BR	II	CD	BH	NWOM	ENWOM	BA
Q5_1					.925			
Q5_2					.820			
Q5_3					.509			
Q5_5					.670			
Q5_6					.681			
Q6_1				.866				
Q6_2				.511				
Q6_3				.868				
Q6_4				.691				
Q7_1	.945							
Q7_2	.939							
Q7_3	.707							
Q7_4	.878							
Q7_5	.516							
Q8_1			.916					
Q8_2			.954					
Q8_3			.850					
Q8_4			.668					
Q9_1								.640
Q9_2								.588
Q9_3								.862
Q10_1						.819		
Q10_2						.945		
Q10_3						.713		
Q11_1							.778	
Q11_2							.849	
Q11_3							.778	
Q12_1		.842						
Q12_2		.967						

Q12_3		.942						
Q12_4		.716						

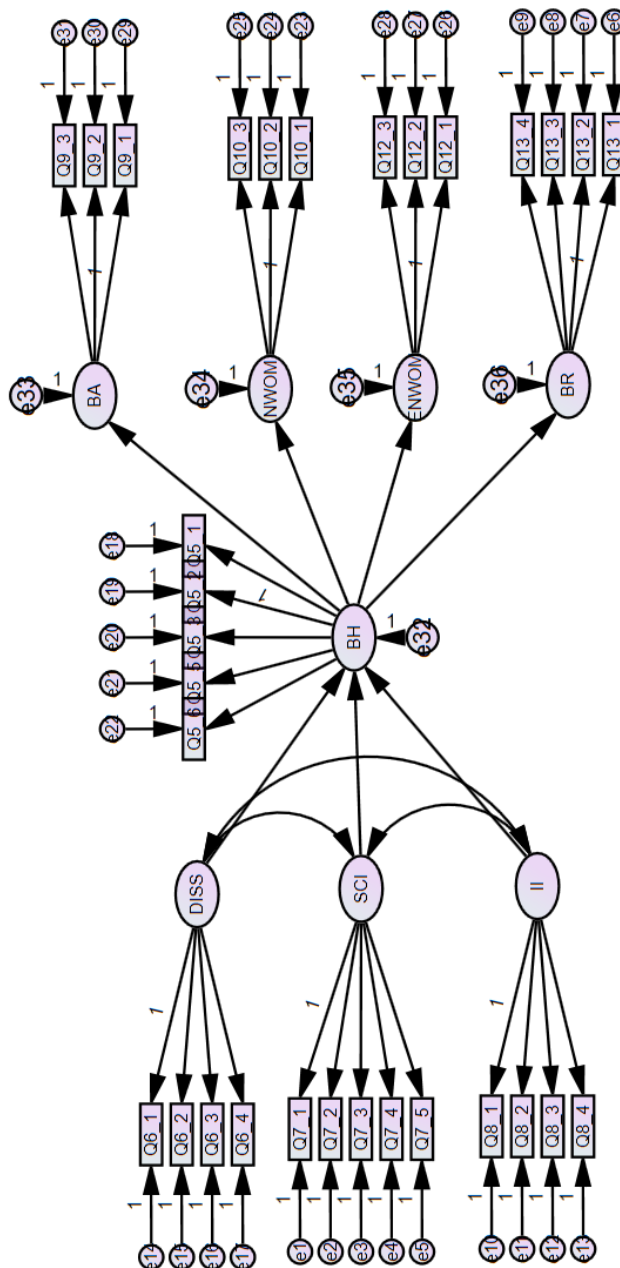
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Source: Own work

Appendix 8: AMOS export of structural equation model



Source: Own work