



<http://www.diva-portal.org>

Postprint

This is the accepted version of a paper published in *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. This paper has been peer-reviewed but does not include the final publisher proof-corrections or journal pagination.

Citation for the original published paper (version of record):

Rodrigues, C., Brandão, A., Rodrigues, P. (2021)

I can't stop hating you: an anti-brand-community perspective on Apple brand hate

Journal of Product & Brand Management, 30(8): 1115-1133

<https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-10-2019-2621>

Access to the published version may require subscription.

N.B. When citing this work, cite the original published paper.

Permanent link to this version:

<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:lnu:diva-99043>



I can't stop hating you: an anti-brand-community perspective on Apple brand hate

Journal:	<i>Journal of Product & Brand Management</i>
Manuscript ID	JPBM-10-2019-2621.R4
Manuscript Type:	Regular Paper
Keywords:	brand hate, negative consumer-brand relationships, anti-brand communities

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

I can't stop hating you: an anti-brand-community perspective on Apple brand hate

1. Introduction

Recent research on negative consumer-brand relationships stresses the role of the equalization of speech between consumers and companies in motivating consumers to be more vocal and vociferous about the brands they do not like (Kucuk, 2018a; 2019; Bryson and Atwal, 2019) or perceive to be hypocritical in terms of image, mission, and messages (Guèvremont, 2019). Indeed, the growing number of anti-brand communities reflects the consumer empowerment movement (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009; Kucuk, 2015) and stresses the rising consumer-brand disidentification phenomenon (Wolter *et al.*, 2016; Dessart *et al.*, 2020) motivated by growing consumer concerns regarding how brands are reacting to human, societal and environmental problems (Sarkar and Kotler, 2018).

A review of the emerging literature also shows that anti-brand activism targets mainly the (otherwise) most loved and global brands (Kucuk, 2008, 2010; Özbölük and Dursun, 2017; Osuna Ramírez *et al.*, 2019) by demonstrating how consumers consciously reject brands primarily due to impediments to their own social identity creation (Wolter *et al.*, 2016; Khalifa and Shukla, 2017), **feelings of usease at the idea of buying a specific brand and lack of emotional complementarity** (Dessart *et al.*, 2020). These findings shed light on and enhance our understanding of why antibranders criminalize, demonize and dehumanize the hated brands (Kucuk, 2018), as well as on exploring effective ways to manage real-time and easily voiced brand negativity (Veloutsou and Guzmán, 2017; Fetscherin *et al.*, 2019; Dessart *et al.*, 2020). This assumption led us to question why brands generate feelings of hatred, especially in an era characterized by a constant search for authenticity, and to consider the emotional and behavioral outcomes of their hatred towards the brand.

A handful of recent studies have shed conceptual and empirical light on the antecedents and outcomes of brand hate, which are relevant to understanding the taxonomy of the most extreme negative brand feelings. For example, Hegner *et al.* (2017) demonstrated that brand hate is triggered by three determinants (negative past experience, symbolic incongruity, and ideological incompatibility), which leads to three behavioral outcomes (brand avoidance, negative word-of-mouth, and brand retaliation). However, most of these empirical studies ignore the impact of brand inauthenticity in explaining how consumers might feel deceived by brands to the point of truly hating them. Additionally, a large body of studies describe brand hate as an affective phenomenon occurring at a specific point of time, which creates a need to adopt a broader perspective, in order to understand how brand hate develops over time and its relationship to previous brand love feelings (Zaratonello *et al.*, 2016) and product ownership.

Our study attempts to address these gaps in our knowledge of negative consumer-brand relationships by reconciling and extending diverse theoretical perspectives on extreme negative brand feelings. Firstly, we investigate for the first time the role of brand inauthenticity in triggering brand hate. Secondly, we also investigate for the first time, two new behavioral outcomes which have been identified as relevant in the literature on brand negative emotions, i.e. willingness to punish brands (behavioral outcome) and negative brand engagement (emotional outcome). Thirdly, and most importantly, we bridge the gap in previous studies by exploring the impact of product ownership and previous love feelings in the formation of brand hate. In other words, we are particularly interested in revealing the differences in brand hate

1
2
3 between passionate and non-passionate users and non-users of brands. Responding to this
4 research challenge is extremely relevant during phases of rising consumer brand disidentification
5 and calls for a holistic approach to understand the formation of brand-love-hate feelings as a
6 result of an (in)direct exposure to the brand. By understanding what exactly leads to feelings
7 of brand hatred, brand marketers should be able to mitigate its effects and develop brand-
8 building strategies that more effectively target a wider spectrum of consumers.
9

10
11 In other to operationalise our study, we have chosen the Apple brand. It is commonly accepted
12 that Apple benefits from a high degree of brand prominence among its users and non-users,
13 since the majority of individuals have self-relevant cognitive and affective memories and
14 perceptions of the brand (Park *et al.*, 2013). In other words, the brand is not indifferent to the
15 majority of individuals, and the consumer-brand relationship is highly dependent on the
16 valence of positive or negative memories. Accordingly, some individuals might feel closer to
17 or distant from the brand (Park *et al.*, 2013) and thus love or hate it, respectively. For example,
18 anecdotal evidence shows that Apple lovers “are buying the spirit of the brand and the way it
19 makes them feel about themselves and in society” (CNBC, 2019), whereas, in the anti-brand
20 communities, Apple haters are voicing against the brand as elitist, self-congratulatory and
21 lacking innovation (I hate Apple, 2020). Moreover, the Apple brand was identified by Hegner
22 *et al.* (2017) and Kucuk (2019) as one of the most hated brands in the last decade, which
23 suggests that this present investigation is both relevant and current.
24
25

26
27 The structure of the paper is as follows. First, Section two reviews the relevant literature on
28 negative consumer-brand relationship and brand hate in particular, and is followed by an
29 explanation of the theoretical links under investigation. Sections three and four present the
30 methodology and findings. Section five concludes the paper with a discussion on academic and
31 managerial implications, directions for future research and limitations.
32
33

34 **2. Conceptual development**

35
36 The concept of negative consumer-brand relationships traces back to Fournier’s (1998a)
37 description of a brand enmity as an intense consumer-brand relationship in which consumers
38 demonstrate their desire to punish a brand or merely avoid it. In the last two decades, the
39 marketing literature has devoted substantial attention to the phenomenon of negative brand
40 emotions, such as brand aversion (Park *et al.*, 2013), brand detachment (Perrin-Martinenq,
41 2004), brand avoidance (Hogg *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2009), brand divorce (Sussan *et al.*,
42 2012), boycotting (Klein *et al.*, 2004; Kerr *et al.*, 2012) and more recently, brand hate (Kucuk,
43 2018; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2018; Fetscherin, 2019). Brand hate, in particular, has been defined
44 as “consumers’ detachment from a brand and its associations as a result of consumer’s intense
45 and deeply held negative emotions such as disgust, anger, contempt, devaluation, and
46 diminution (Kucuk, 2016, p.19). Similarly, Bryson *et al.* (2013, p. 394) defined brand hate as
47 “an intense negative emotional affect towards the brand”, whereas Hegner *et al.* (2017, p.3)
48 conceptualized brand hate as “a more intense emotional response consumers have towards a
49 brand than dislike”.
50
51
52
53

54 Brand hate has been investigated from various different perspectives, with a focus on its
55 measurement (Hegner *et al.*, 2017; Romani *et al.*, 2015), hater typology (Kucuk, 2018) and
56 trajectories of brand hate (Zarantonello *et al.*, 2018). Recent empirical studies have also
57 identified relevant determinants and outcomes of brand hate (Hegner *et al.*, 2017; Romani *et al.*,
58 2015; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Kucuk, 2018; Alba and Lutz, 2013; Grégoire *et al.*, 2009;
59 Fetscherin, 2019). Additionally, Zarantonello *et al.* (2016) demonstrated that brand hate is linked
60

1
2
3 to distinct negative behavioral outcomes such as “attack-like”, “approach-like” and
4 “avoidance-like strategies”, and that these outcomes may vary according to the brand hate
5 motivations. Despite the growing number of studies on brand hate, there is no common
6 consensus on its definition, or its antecedents and outcomes.
7

8
9 In our paper, we follow the conceptualization provided by Hegner *et al.* (2017) to investigate
10 the phenomenon of hating prominent brands, and we consider brand hate as a multidimensional
11 construct. This assumption is supported by the notion that brands are multidimensional
12 constructs (Lee *et al.*, 2009) and, therefore, there are several potential reasons for hating a
13 brand. According to the Attachment–Aversion (AA) model of customer–brand relationships, a
14 distant consumer-brand relationship is negative and may result from triggers that annoy
15 consumers (Park *et al.*, 2013) to the point of hatred. Drawing on the work of Hegner *et al.*
16 (2017), we investigated three antecedents to brand hate, namely symbolic incongruity, ideological
17 incompatibility, and negative past experience. We therefore assume that these triggers are
18 highly relevant in the context of preeminent brands (Park *et al.*, 2013) since consumers tend to
19 relate mainly to brands that they perceive to be congruent with their self-concept, ideology and
20 experiential benefits (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Park *et al.*, 2013). As such, the inability of brands to
21 meet consumer expectations and needs could lead to consumer-brand distancing and feelings
22 of hatred over the long-term. Research also shows that inauthenticity can be detrimental to a
23 brand and result in various forms of consumer retaliation (Thompson *et al.*, 2006). Therefore,
24 we investigate the effect of brand inauthenticity as a potential trigger of brand hate, if the brand
25 promise is not fulfilled (Schallehn *et al.*, 2014).
26
27
28
29

30 Expanding on previous research, our study also accounts for the dynamic nature of consumer-
31 brand relationships (Whang *et al.*, 2004; Huber *et al.*, 2015; Rodrigues & Rodrigues, 2019;
32 Batra *et al.*, 2012) and distinguishes between transient relationships (hate emotion) and long-
33 term relationships (hate relationship). It is worth noting that the empirical studies conducted
34 on brand hate do not account for the fact that consumer-brand relationships change their form
35 over time. In particular, the literature so far on brand hate depicts, from the appraisal theory of
36 emotions, that emotion-eliciting events will determine whether positive or negative emotions
37 are experienced (Roseman *et al.*, 1990). However, it fails to acknowledge that a brand love
38 relationship might diminish over time as the result of certain crucial factors (Huber *et al.*, 2015)
39 and evolve into a hate relationship that can last for a long time, to the point of considering the
40 brand as an enemy. Consequently, we investigated the effect of product ownership (emotion-
41 eliciting event) and previous feelings of love (relationship) on subsequently hating a particular
42 brand.
43
44

45 Finally, based on attachment-aversion relationship theory, we reveal that a large distance to the
46 brand defines a negative consumer-brand relationship characterized by feelings of aggression,
47 frustration, and hatred (Park *et al.*, 2013). Contrary to previous studies, we account for the
48 duality of hate emotions and relationships and investigate the effect of brand hate on the way
49 consumers feel (i.e. brand aversion), and the how consumers feel about themselves when
50 “involved in relationship” with those brands (i.e. negative word-of-mouth, willingness to
51 punish the brand, and negative brand engagement).
52
53

54 2.2 Antecedents of luxury brand hate

55 Symbolic incongruity

56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Symbolic incongruity is linked to a constellation of negative symbolic brand meanings (Lee *et al.*, 2009). More specifically, symbolic incongruity occurs when those brand meanings are
4 perceived as incongruent with a consumer's self-concept (Lee *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, it is
5 argued that when a consumer commits to a particular set of values, his/her identity becomes at
6 stake if the brand behavior is inconsistent with those values (Farah and Newman, 2010).
7 Moreover, consumers tend to disidentify with brands that are perceived to be inconsistent with
8 their own image (Lee *et al.*, 2009) and they may intentionally distance themselves from those
9 brands (Wolter *et al.*, 2016). As a result, non-self-relevant brands lead to brand avoidance (Lee
10 *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2012; Cherrier *et al.*, 2011; Lim, 2017; Wolter *et al.*, 2016), brand
11 abandonment (Lim, 2017), negative word-of-mouth (Wolter *et al.*, 2016) and brand hate
12 (Hegner *et al.*, 2017). As such, we predict that incongruity between the symbolic brand
13 meanings and the consumer's self-concept leads to brand hate. Hence, we state formally that:
14
15
16
17

18 H1: Symbolic incongruity has a positive relationship with brand hate
19

20 **Ideological incompatibility** 21

22
23 Ideological incompatibility with a brand is linked to a mismatch between the consumer's values
24 and the brand ideology, in terms of societal, religious, political and morally unethical behavior.
25 As such, ideological incompatibility "involves a more contextual and often societal or moral
26 focus that extends beyond the needs of the individual consumers' self-image or the basic
27 product or service performance (Hegner *et al.*, 2017, p. 15). It is commonly acknowledged that
28 brands have the potential to reflect a system of beliefs and values of a given society (Holt,
29 2004, 2006; McCracken, 1986) through its products, retail settings, and marketing
30 communications. Notably, brand ideology plays a relevant role in facilitating consumer choice
31 (Crockett and Wallendorf, 2004; Kozinets and Handelman, 2004) from a cognitive perspective
32 (Castelli and Carraro, 2011). As Shepherd *et al.* (2015) note, the potential for brands to alienate
33 consumers is dependent on the ideological lens through which the brand is viewed. More
34 specifically, brands may reflect what consumers dislike about a given society and what it stands
35 for. For example, consumers who are less satisfied with American society may respond
36 differently to the values signaled by iconic American brands such as Coca-Cola and
37 McDonald's, through negative purchase intention (Crockett and Wallendorf, 2004). Moreover,
38 there is evidence provided that consumers may also respond negatively to brands that reflect a
39 dominant ideology of placing value on power, and prefer brands that reflect universalism as
40 the value opposing power (Shepherd *et al.*, 2015). Strong evidence is also provided that
41 religious-political ideologies impact on how consumers relate to brands (Khan *et al.*, 2013) and
42 that religion mobilizes consumers to pursue social change (Izberk-Bilgin, 2012). On the other
43 hand, research on religious ideology has demonstrated that religion affects consumer attitudes
44 and beliefs (Essoo and Dibb, 2004), potentially leading to anti-consumption (Kaynak and Eksi,
45 2011), and reduced purchase intention (Mukhtar and Butt, 2012). Recent studies also argue
46 that consumers may feel ambivalent feelings towards morally unethical brand behavior which
47 might result in conflicting consumer-brand relationships (e.g. Zarattonello *et al.*, 2018). In that
48 regard, it has been demonstrated that corporate wrongdoing is the second most recurrent reason
49 for brand hate. More specifically, the more consumers learn about how a brand conducts its
50 business and what it stands for, the greater is the likelihood of hating it (Zarattonello *et al.*,
51 2018). By providing a shared belief and value system through which consumers view and react
52 to the world around them, brand ideology may lead to consumer-brand disidentification and
53 negative brand emotions such as hate (Hegner *et al.*, 2017). As a result, consumers may switch
54 to other solutions they in fact like less and may engage in constructive hateful feelings towards
55 brands (e.g. complaining behavior) in the hope of brands to subsequently aligning to their
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 expectations and values as part of a reconciliation process (Zaratonello *et al.*, 2018). Thus, we
4 expect consumers who feel distant from the brand ideology to potentially hate the brands in
5 question. Hence, it is hypothesized that:
6

7
8 H2: Ideological incompatibility has a positive relationship with brand hate
9

10 **Brand inauthenticity**

11
12 The degree of authenticity is based on what is perceived by consumers rather than the intrinsic
13 product characteristics (Gundlach and Neville, 2012, Beverland and Farrelly, 2009; Grayson
14 and Martinec, 2004; Rose and Wood, 2005; Thompson *et al.*, 2006). A consumer may perceive
15 a brand as non-authentic, based on objective facts and subjective feelings (Fritz *et al.*, 2017),
16 thus resulting in dissonance (Hede and Thyne, 2010). Those facts or emotions may be related
17 to manifestations of continuity (e.g. stability over time or a sense of timelessness), originality
18 (e.g. perceptions of creativity and innovativeness), reliability (e.g. keeping promises),
19 naturalness (e.g. perceived genuineness), credibility (e.g. keeping stated promises), integrity
20 (e.g. demonstrating strong morals) and symbolism (e.g. enabling a self-brand connection)
21 (Bruhn *et al.*, 2012; Morhart *et al.*, 2015). According to Schallehn *et al.* (2014), a low degree
22 of brand authenticity implies that the brand promise does not stem from its core values.
23 Consequently, it is likely that the brand actions are perceived as non-authentic by consumers,
24 since the brand promise was not fulfilled in an individual, continuous and consistent manner
25 (Schallehn *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, brand authenticity is context-based and its position is
26 constantly transformed along the brand-authenticity continuum (Napoli *et al.*, 2016). In this
27 regard, less authentic brands are expected to deliver lower consumer- and brand-derived value
28 in comparison to authentic brands (Napoli *et al.*, 2016; Beverland and Farrelly, 2009; Arnould
29 and Price, 2000; Liao and Ma, 2009). Research also shows that less authentic brands fail to
30 establish a stronger emotional attachment with a brand compared to highly authentic brands
31 (Napoli *et al.*, 2014, 2016; Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016). Hence, a consumer may avoid
32 a brand due to a lack of authenticity (Lee *et al.*, 2009). Indeed, a brand that becomes too popular
33 and mainstream, or loses the respect of its consumers, might be labeled as ordinary or
34 inauthentic, thus leading to brand avoidance (Lee *et al.*, 2009). In this context, Thompson and
35 Arsel (2004) suggest that inauthenticity perceptions of the Starbucks brand has motivated some
36 consumers to avoid the brand. From a conceptual standpoint, non-authentic brands may
37 strengthen the negative feelings of consumers towards a brand, thus resulting in different forms
38 of consumer retaliation (Thompson *et al.*, 2006). More specifically, when consumers are
39 exposed to brand-related stimuli, they engage in a cognitive process in order to judge the
40 authenticity of the brand, which may negatively affect their feelings and emotive response
41 (Napoli *et al.*, 2014, 2016) towards a non-authentic brand. Thus, we suggest that consumers
42 who perceive brands as unable to comply with its brand promise are prone to hate those brands.
43 Therefore:
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 H3: Brand inauthenticity has a positive relationship with brand hate
51

52 **Negative past experience**

53
54 Negative past experiences play a major role in anti-consumption behavior. This assumption
55 appears to support the idea that negative experiences are more distinctive and more easily and
56 frequently recalled from memory than the equivalent positive experiences (Folkes, 1988;
57 Arnold *et al.*, 2005). Negative brand experiences may entail a brand-related stimuli typology
58 ranging from product features and services to the performance associated with a particular
59
60

brand (Wakefield and Wakerfield, 2018). Furthermore, from a value perspective, consumption has shifted from being merely a transactional relationship to stand out as a valued holistic experience grounded on pleasurable experiences (Atwal and Williams, 2017; Bryson *et al.*, 2013) which include sensory, affective, behavioral and intellectual dimensions (Brakus *et al.*, 2009). Notably, the type of brand experience may determine whether a brand annoys, disables and impoverishes the self, and in turn creates brand-self distance (Schmitt, 2013; Park *et al.*, 2013). In a consumption context, consumers face dichotomous situations in which their expectations are either confirmed or disconfirmed (Halstead, 1989). The literature has documented that negative expectations and disconfirmation beliefs might result in dissatisfaction, negative word-of-mouth and complaints (Halstead, 1989; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1996). There is also growing evidence that negative past experiences influence brand avoidance and brand rejection (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Nenycz-Thiel and Romaniuk, 2011; Winchester and Romaniuk, 2008), as well brand hate (Hegner *et al.*, 2017; Bryson *et al.*, 2013). Thus, we expect consumers who have a negative past experience with brands to potentially develop hatred as a result of extreme brand dissatisfaction. Hence:

H4: Negative past experiences have a positive relationship with brand hate

2.3. Outcomes of brand hate

Negative word of mouth

In the marketing literature, negative word-of-mouth (N-WOM) is conceptualized as “all negatively valenced, informal communication between private parties about goods and services and the evaluation thereof” (Wetzer *et al.*, 2007, p. 66). In particular, it refers to the audience that “have access to the social media channels used for complaining” (Istanbulluoglu *et al.*, 2017, p. 1122). This dysfunctional behavior (Alvarez and Fournier, 2016) aims at warning other consumers not to support a particular service provider (Wetzer *et al.*, 2007). Complaining and engaging in negative WOM behavior have been widely documented in the marketing literature (Richins, 1983; Singh, 1990; Wangenheim, 2005; Wetzer *et al.*, 2007; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009) as an indirect form of retaliation (Wangenheim, 2005; Grégoire and Fisher, 2008). Research has shown that NWOM may be intensified if the problem causing the consumption dissatisfaction is severe (Richins, 1983; Singh and Wilkes, 1996). For example, negative emotions such as anger, frustration, and irritation have been shown to predict N-WOM (Nyer, 1997; Wetzer *et al.*, 2007) and are linked to destructive goals such as venting feelings and taking revenge on firms (Wetzer *et al.*, 2007; Grégoire *et al.*, 2010). Indeed, dissatisfied consumers may engage in specific anti-brand communities to give vent to their views and negative feelings about specific brands (Bailey, 2004), using mainly a market, ideological and transactional mode of speech (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009). As Ward and Ostrom (2006) note communities of extreme discontent may arise from a need to complain to the masses, thus demonstrating the power to influence others and exact revenge. In sum, negative WOM generates negative brand associations, as they link negative information to the brand in consumers’ minds, and reflect the way consumers feel about themselves regarding the relationship with the brand (Yuksel and Mryteza, 2009; Demiray and Burnaz, 2019). Thus, we expect consumers who hate brands to be prone to venting their negative feelings through “attack-like” strategies such as negative word-of-mouth. Hence, we hypothesize that:

H5: Brand hate has a positive relationship with negative word of mouth

Willingness to punish brands

A desire for revenge is conceptualized as a consumer desire to penalize and injure companies for their misconduct (Bechwati and Morrin, 2003; Grégoire and Fisher, 2008). The literature on consumer research suggests that a self-relevant consumer-brand relationship may lead to consumer self-esteem loss and self-concept harm. As in human relationships, the self-identity loss can be converted into negative brand feelings and subsequently, actions could be undertaken to hurt and punish brands (Johnson *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, betrayal is identified as a key motivational force that leads consumers to take action against brands (Grégoire and Fisher, 2008), either through constructive or destructive punitive acts (Romani *et al.*, 2013). In this domain, some consumers display deliberate forms of hostile and aggressive behavior designated to harm a brand, such as brand sabotage (Kähr *et al.*, 2016). A clear distinction is drawn between direct and indirect acts of revenge, namely “face to face” and “behind the firm’s back” (Grégoire *et al.*, 2010). Research suggests that high-intensity and deviant expressions result in vengeful anger which is directly linked to the willingness to punish brands (Antonetti, 2016). Moreover, Sweetin *et al.* (2013) found that consumers dealing with a socially irresponsible corporate brand are more prone to punish brands. Unlike brand avoidance which is directly associated with an intentional withdrawal from an ongoing consumer-brand relationship or the intention to move away, brand attack indicates that the consumer is willing to maintain a strong enemy relationship with a specific brand (Fournier, 1998a, 1998b; Fournier and Alvarez, 2013). Notably, the willingness to punish and/or attack a brand is more likely to occur after the self-relevant consumer-brand relationship is dissolved (Johnson *et al.*, 2010). This retaliation behavior also reflects the way consumers feel about themselves when still in a relationship with the brand, which in most cases is not an impulsive act, but rather the behavioral outcome of cognitive processing (Funches *et al.*, 2009). In this regard, we posit that consumers who hate brands are willing to engage in acts of revenge and thus punish them. Hence:

H6: Brand hate has a positive relationship with the willingness to punish brands

Brand avoidance

Brand avoidance is conceptualized as a particular form of anti-consumption, and focuses on the deliberate and active rejection of brands (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Thompson *et al.*, 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2013). The desire for avoidance is thus justified by consumers’ desire to refrain from interacting with specific companies (McCullough *et al.*, 2003). In other words, a desire for avoidance motivates consumers in self-neutral brand relationships (Johnson *et al.*, 2010) to “take flight” by supporting some companies in order to ensure future damages to the target company (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009). Like the desire for revenge, brand avoidance reflects consumer inability to “let go” and forgive brands (Finkel *et al.*, 2002; McCullough *et al.*, 2003, Grégoire *et al.*, 2009). Nevertheless, as Hogg *et al.* (2009) argue, the rejection of products, services, and brands represents passive behavior, which is more difficult for companies to recognize and counteract. It is worth noting however that avoidance and revenge are not mutually exclusive and may coexist. More specifically, a consumer may avoid a brand, while actively taking revenge by talking negatively about a brand to friends and family and on complaint web sites (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009). Brand avoidance is a multidimensional, second-order construct with five first-order dimensions (Odoom *et al.*, 2019): experiential, identity, moral, deficit-value (Lee *et al.*, 2009), and advertising-related (Knittel *et al.*, 2016) In particular, experiential brand avoidance arises because of negative consumption experiences

1
2
3 that lead to unfulfilled expectations. Identity avoidance develops when the brand image is
4 symbolically incongruent with the consumer's identity, whereas moral avoidance occurs when
5 the consumer's ideological beliefs clash with certain brand values or associations (Lee *et al.*,
6 2009). Deficit-value avoidance results from functionally inadequate brand promises (Lee *et al.*,
7 2009). Finally, advertising-related avoidance emanates from the contents of advertising (e.g.
8 theme, music, endorser, image) that undesirably affect consumers to the extent of subsequently
9 avoiding the brand. In contrast to Lee *et al.*'s (2009), Rindel *et al.* (2014) however proposes
10 that reasons for avoiding brands are not related to the company's brand promise, but to the
11 consumers' value-based perspective. Contrary to boycotting, in which consumers may reenter
12 the relationship with the brand once certain conditions are met, brand avoidance is not a
13 guarantee of a recommenced consumption relationship (Lee *et al.*, 2009). Notably, lasting
14 brand avoidance may be a route to negative brand equity, since consumers are prone to react
15 consistently and unfavorably to a particular brand (Lee *et al.*, 2009). In that regard, we argue
16 that consumers who hate brands use "avoidance-like" strategies as a way to reflect how they
17 feel about brands by distancing themselves. Hence:
18
19
20
21

22 H7: Brand hate has a positive relationship with brand avoidance
23
24

25 **Negative Brand Engagement**

26
27 The negative valence and influence on brand engagement have scarcely been discussed in the
28 marketing literature (Heinonen, 2018). Hollebeek and Chen (2014, p.62) conceptualized brand
29 engagement as the "level of a consumer's cognitive, emotional and behavioral investment in
30 specific brand interactions". These authors were among the first to explicitly explore why
31 consumers may either approach or distance themselves from a focal object (Heinonen, 2018)
32 and (dis)engage with a certain brand. Their conceptual model proposes positive and negative
33 brand engagement valences based on immersion, passion and activation dimensions.
34 According to Hollebeek and Chen (2014), negatively valenced brand engagement is expected
35 to occur through an unfavorable experience of any of the proposed key triggers. Consequently,
36 consumers exhibit unfavorable brand-related feelings, thoughts and behavior during
37 consumer-brand interactions. These psychological states of distance between the consumer and
38 the brand result from the weakening or dissolution of affective bonds between the two parties
39 (Perrin-Martinenq, 2004). Moreover, detached consumers who show a low level of
40 involvement with brands may suppress their intention to interact with the brands' actions (Lee
41 *et al.*, 2009). Hence, we predict that consumers who hate brands may feel emotionally detached
42 from them and thus distance themselves from consumer-brand interactions. We state formally
43 that:
44
45
46
47

48 H8: Brand hate has a positive relationship with negative brand engagement
49
50

51 **2.3 The role of product ownership and previous love feelings on brand hate**

52 Product ownership implies a direct consumer-brand relationship (Heinonen, 2018), in which
53 the experience may determine whether a brand entices or annoys the self (Schmitt, 2013).
54 Indeed, research shows that strong and passionate feelings about brands may be strengthened
55 along the consumer-brand relationship span, depending on the ability to provide a positive
56 brand experience (Rodrigues and Rodrigues, 2019). In the consumer-psychology of brands
57 model, Schmitt (2013) proposed that the brand-experiencing process takes place before
58 consumer-brand relationship assessment. As such, once the consumer-brand relationships are
59
60

formed positively, consumers may subsequently engage in disseminating the brand symbolism and derive its brand value from actively promoting the brand (Schmitt, 2012). Alternatively, experiencing a service or product failure in consumer-brand relationships may also result in brand hate (Zarantonello *et al.*, 2018). More specifically, two scenarios were identified leading to different brand hate trajectories: “steady decrease” (consumers who started using the brand based on its low price or new flavor but exhibit dissatisfaction as they started to perceive the poor quality), and “downward slope flattens” (consumers experienced repeated product and service failures, disengaged from the brand and switch to other solutions). Thus, we predict that product ownership intensifies the arousal of feelings of hatred due to the intimate relationship that consumers have with brands by testing and using its products.

H9. Product ownership has a positive impact on brand hate

It is commonly accepted that a positive consumer-brand relationship intensifies the strong attachment of the consumer to the brand (Bagozzi *et al.*, 2017). Research also shows that the longer a consumer-brand relationship lasts, the more consumers are prone to maintain their relationship due to its benefits (Huber *et al.*, 2010). More specifically, studies show that an affective outcome of a strong relationship changes its gestalt over time (Huber *et al.*, 2015). As such, brand love might inevitably decrease over time as the result of the consumer-brand interaction (Huber *et al.*, 2015). In particular, research acknowledges that long-term consumer-brand relationships may be affected by saturation, which in turn leads to brand dilution (Ramadan, 2017). It is also argued that stronger consumer-brand relationships may lead to higher levels of brand criticism (Gregoire and Fisher, 2008; Johnson *et al.*, 2010), thus resulting in “consumer-generated anti-branding activities” (Kucuk, 2018). Emanating from Huber *et al.*'s previous work (2015), we claim that brand-love relationships might deteriorate over time and that passionate consumers are more prone to hate the brand in the future. Hence we hypothesized that:

H10. Previous brand love feelings have a positive impact on brand hate

3. Methodology

3.1. Questionnaire and measures

The development of the survey instrument started with a detailed review of the literature aimed at equating relevant antecedents and outcomes of brand hate. The survey was divided into five sections; in the first, we asked respondents if they own Apple products and if they ever loved the Apple brand; the second section relates to brand hate feelings; the third and fourth sections relate to the antecedents and outcomes of brand hate; and the fifth and final section focuses on demographics. Validated scales from previous studies were adapted to measure the nine constructs and can be found in Appendix A. For brand hate, we used six items from a scale from Hegner *et al.* (2017), adapting one item by separating the corporation and the products. Then, the item from the Hegner *et al.* (2017) scale “I do not tolerate brand X and its company” was divided into two items “I can't tolerate Apple corporation” and “I don't tolerate Apple products”. This division was made because consumers may not like the company's practices and behaviors, but still like the products. The negative past experience, the symbolic incongruity and the ideological incompatibility scales were adopted from Hegner *et al.* (2017). Nevertheless, with regard to the ideological incompatibility scale, we added one more item for Apple “Respecting ethical principles doesn't have priority over achieving superior economic performance”.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Additionally, brand inauthenticity was measured by adapting Morhart *et al.*'s (2015) and Bruhn *et al.*'s (2012) scales and includes six dimensions (continuity, credibility, integrity, symbolism, originality and naturalness). All of the items were used in a negative form adapted from the original scales. As such, four dimensions with fifteen items were adapted from Morhart *et al.* (2015) scale – continuity, credibility, integrity and symbolism - and two dimensions, with seven items adapted from Bruhn *et al.* (2012) scale – originality and naturalness. The two remaining dimensions of Bruhn *et al.* (2012) scale (continuity and reliability) could not be used, as they would have been redundant. To the best of our knowledge, there is no validated scale for brand inauthenticity. The same methodology was followed by Hegner *et al.* (2017) in the development of the brand hate scale when adapting Carroll and Ahuvia's (2006) scales of brand love.

Moreover, negative word-of-mouth and brand avoidance scales derive from Hegner *et al.* (2017). Finally, the scale for willingness to punish hated brands was adapted from Chang (1998) and Zeithaml *et al.* (1996), and negative brand engagement was adapted from Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie (2014). Regarding the negative brand engagement scale, Hollebeek and Chen (2014) argued that there can be both positive and negative valence of engagement, and used the regulatory engagement theory to support their broader conceptualization of engagement. Due to the scarce research on the concept of negative brand engagement, a specific scale has not been identified to measure the concept. In order to fill this gap, the authors of this study used Hollebeek *et al.*'s (2014) consumer brand engagement scale in its negative version. Moreover, a new item was incorporated as an affective dimension: "I am ashamed to use Apple". All responses were recorded by means of an ordinal five-point Likert scale, which ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Additionally, the survey was pre-tested twofold. In order to avoid potential misinterpretation of the survey by respondents, three professors and the three marketing practitioners were asked to assess the adequacy of all the questions on the topic under investigation. Secondly, fifteen respondents were asked to evaluate and give feedback on the survey's ease of comprehension.

3.2 Data collection and sample

Data was gathered on two Apple anti-brand communities after obtaining consent from its administrators. Our aim was to collect data from a wider population of Apple brand haters, since anti-brand communities are networks of consumer relationships (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2006) where extreme consumer negativity can be observed (Kucuk, 2019). Furthermore, these two anti-brand communities gather like-minded consumers who actively voice their hatred of the Apple brand. As such, surveying these oppositional consumer groups yields real and valuable consumer insights that would be difficult to obtain from a different consumer panel.

The survey was conducted in English and was carried out from June to August 2017. This approach resulted in a sample of participants. The majority of respondents are between 16 and 35 years old (52%), followed by respondents who are between 36 and 45 years old (19%). Regarding gender, the majority of respondents are male (84%). Most live in USA (41%) followed by the UK (11%). Table 1 depicts the sample profile in detail, including the worldwide distribution. Since the questionnaires took place online without the direct presence of the researchers, the validity of all respondents was assessed by inspecting the participants URLs. Considering that our sample consists of 254 respondents in total, we argue that it is above the rule of 200 respondents (Kline, 2011), and therefore can be classified as an adequate sample

size. Moreover, the sample-to-item ratio is 7:1, which is higher than the acceptable ratio of 5:1 (Gorsuch, 1983). We also calculated the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) as well as Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity to measure the sampling adequacy (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999). The KMO is 0.939 (> 0.5) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant at $p < 0.001$; therefore, the data is suitable for the factor analysis.

(insert Table 1)

4. Data analysis and results

We conducted a structural equation model using SPSS AMOS 24 to assess the interrelationships between the various determinants and outcomes of brand hate (Figure 1).

(insert Figure 1)

4.1 Measurement assessment

A confirmatory factor analysis, with maximum likelihood estimation method, was conducted to assess the adequacy of the psychometric properties of all the measures. The measurement model fits data well (Chi-square = 1354,549, $df = 617$, RMSEA = 0.069 CFI = 0.926, TLI = 0.912 and IFI = 0.927). Normality was evaluated using skewness and kurtoses analyses and the values were above ± 2 and ± 7 , respectively. Construct validity and reliability were established by Cronbach’s alpha coefficients, item-to-construct loading, composite reliabilities (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) values (see Table 2). All scales proved to be reliable with Cronbach’s values above 0.70 [brand hate (0.94), negative past experience (0.88), symbolic incongruity (0.92), ideological incompatibility (0.93), brand inauthenticity (0.82), brand avoidance (0.96), negative word of mouth (0.91) and negative brand engagement (0.75)]. All the item-to-construct loading were ranging from 0.594 to 0.974. Convergent validity was examined by calculating the average variance extracted (AVE) and the construct reliability (CR). Both AVE and CR values are above the recommended threshold of 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) and 0.60 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988), respectively. The composite reliability exceeds in all cases the recommended 0.70 threshold level. As to the average variance extracted, all values are equal or, in most cases, exceed the 0.60 cut-off, thus convergent validity was supported.

(insert Table 2)

Additionally, discriminant validity was evaluated by comparing the AVE values to the corresponding squared correlations for all construct pairs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Moreover, we obtained evidence of discriminant validity for almost of the constructs, as the squared correlation between each pair of constructs is lower than the corresponding average variances extracted (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The exception being to the variable’s pairs, symbolic incongruity and negative brand engagement, negative brand engagement, and negative-word of mouth, as well as negative brand engagement and brand inauthenticity, which correlate at 0.876, 0.876 and 0.885, respectively (see Table 3). Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), we conducted a chi-square difference test in which we compared a model with the correlation between the constructs constrained to 1.0, to an unconstrained model. The results indicate that the first fit is significantly worst, and this is evidence of discriminant validity ($\Delta CMIN/DF = 0.044$; $\Delta RMSEA = 0.001$; $\Delta CFI = - 0.003$) (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Hence, the measurement models show acceptable levels of reliability and validity.

(insert Table 3)

Since the constructs used in the conceptual model cover consumers' perceptions and psychological states, it was necessary to verify whether common method bias caused problems (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). The common method bias is caused when the shared statistic variance is provoked by the measurement model rather than the constructs the items represent (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). To control the common method bias, the Harman's single factor test is the most widely used statistical control test in the literature (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). The Harman test was performed by an exploratory factor analysis forcing a single factor and the Total Variance Explained must be accounts less than 50% of the all variables in the model. In this case the results were 48.67% which allows us to conclude that the common method bias is not of concern.

To assess multicollinearity, we ran a series of regressions models on the various constructs to calculate the variance inflation factor (VIF) (Kleinbaum, Kupper and Muller, 1988). The VIF values ranged from 1.9 to 3.4 which can be considered unproblematic (Craney and Surles, 2002).

4.4 Structural model evaluation

The evaluation of the structural model contains the estimation and the statistical test of the hypothesized relationships. The results suggest an acceptable model fit with $X^2/df = 3.368$, $df = 617$; $IFI = 0.849$; $TLI = 0.825$; $CFI = 0.848$; $RMSEA = 0.097$, 90% IC [0.092, 0.101], $P(RMSEA \leq 0.05) < 0.001$. All the estimated values of the path coefficients empirically support all the direct effects that are part of the hypothesized model, at the significance level of 0.05 for the majority of the hypotheses (see Table 4).

In line with Hegner *et al.*'s (2017), the results suggest that brand hate is a second-order construct. Nevertheless, in contrast to Hegner *et al.*'s (2017), the findings demonstrate that brand hate is a construct with four first-order formative triggers, i.e. symbolic incongruity, ideological incompatibility, negative past experience, and brand inauthenticity. Additionally, and contradicting Hegner *et al.*'s (2017) empirical study, the results of Apple brand show that symbolic incongruity has the strongest direct effect on brand hate ($\gamma = 0.604$, $p < 0.001$), followed by ideological incompatibility ($\gamma = 0.336$, $p < 0.001$), negative past experience ($\gamma = 0.325$, $p < 0.001$), and brand inauthenticity ($\gamma = 0.156$, $p < 0.05$). The findings demonstrate that brand hate leads to both "attack-like" outcomes (i.e. negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish hatred brands) and "avoidance-like" outcomes (i.e. brand avoidance and negative brand engagement) as postulated by Zarantonello *et al.* (2016). Interestingly, our results show that brand hate exerts a stronger and direct influence on negative brand engagement ($\beta = 0.891$, $p < 0.001$), which emphasizes the importance of emotional outcomes of brand hate. Moreover, the effect of brand hate on negative word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.700$, $p < 0.001$) and brand avoidance ($\beta = 0.635$, $p < 0.001$), as behavioral outcomes, are consistent with Hegner *et al.*'s (2017) study although the influence in our study is greater than that established in prior research. Additionally, our results demonstrate that brand hate exerts an influence on the willingness to punish hatred brands ($\beta = 0.566$, $p < 0.001$), which is also classified as a behavioral outcome.

(insert Table 4)

1
2
3 After estimating the direct effects, we have analyzed the indirect effects using the bootstrap
4 method suggested by Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010). Table 5 shows the indirect effects,
5 standard errors, and the 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals obtained by applying
6 bootstrap estimation procedures. All the 16 indirect effects obtained are statistically significant.
7 Following the interpretation made by Iglesias *et al.* (2019) on the mediation effects, we argue
8 that the direct effects from the brand hate antecedents on brand hate outcomes are not
9 significant and therefore brand hate fully mediates the impact of the brand hate antecedents on
10 its outcomes. Hence, as the direct effect of symbolic incongruity, brand inauthenticity and
11 negative past experience on willingness to punish brands is not significant, we conclude that
12 brand hate fully mediates the impact of those variables on the willingness to punish brands.
13 Moreover, the results of this study reveal that brand hate fully mediates the impact of negative
14 past experience and brand inauthenticity on negative word-of-mouth. Additionally, as the
15 direct effect of some brand hate antecedents on the brand hate outcomes are significant, we
16 conclude that brand hate is a partial mediator of the impact of those antecedents on the
17 outcomes. Consequently, brand hate is a partial mediator of the impact of symbolic incongruity,
18 ideological incompatibility, brand inauthenticity and negative past experience on brand
19 avoidance. In the same vein, brand hate is a partial mediator of the impact of symbolic
20 incongruity and ideological incompatibility on negative word-of-mouth. The results also show
21 that brand hate fully mediates the impact of symbolic incongruity, brand inauthenticity and
22 negative past experience on the willingness to punish brands.
23
24
25
26
27

28 (insert Table 5)

29 4.5 The impact of product ownership and previous brand love feelings on brand hate

30
31 To test the effects of passionate and non-passionate users and non-users of Apple on the
32 dependent variable brand hate, a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out.
33 The results of the ANOVA indicate that the dependent variable brand hate is not significantly
34 affected in isolation by users and non-users of Apple ($F(1, 241) = 1.35, p = 0.25$), whereas is
35 significantly affected by passionate and non-passionate of Apple ($F(1, 241) = 12.55, p < 0.001$).
36 Nevertheless, the interaction effect between users and non-users of Apple and passionate and
37 non-passionate of Apple could not be calculated due to the absence of a group which combines
38 the characteristics of non-users of Apple products with passionate of the Apple brand (table
39 6). Moreover, the findings demonstrate that non-users of Apple do not manifest previous love
40 feelings. Additionally, it is shown that whereas the effect size of product ownership (users and
41 non-users) has a weak impact on brand hate ($\eta^2 = 0.006$), the effect size of love brand feelings
42 (passionate and non-passionate) has a medium impact on brand hate ($\eta^2 = 0.05$).
43
44
45
46

47 (insert Table 6)

48
49 Furthermore, we conducted a test for equality of observed means of brand hate, which was
50 categorized as four main groups: users and non-users combined with passionate and non-
51 passionate of the Apple brand. The results show that brand hate differs across
52 usage/passionate groups. The difference among the four groups categories is statistically
53 significant ($F(2, 241) = 7.69, p < 0.001$), and therefore the null hypothesis of equal population
54 means of brand hate was rejected. Additionally, the findings demonstrate that non-users/non-
55 passionate of the Apple brand manifest the highest level of brand hate ($M = 4.54$) compared to
56 users/passionate of the Apple brand ($M = 3.72$).
57
58
59

60 (insert Table 7)

5. General discussion and implications

In broad terms, this paper contributes to the literature on negative consumer-brand relationships by advancing knowledge on the key triggers of brand hate of global and prominent brands. This investigation is especially relevant in an era of growing hostility against brands that are not reacting effectively to human, societal and environmental problems (Sakar and Kotler, 2018). Moreover, this article also expands on the branding literature by demonstrating that brand hate is a multidimensional construct, thus confirming previous studies on negative consumer-brand relationships (Hegner *et al.*, 2017; Fetscherin, 2019), which show that ideological incompatibility, negative past experience and symbolic incongruity are antecedents of brand hate. Nevertheless, this study reveals that brand hate is a construct with four first-order formative triggers, since it also incorporates brand inauthenticity. These findings shed light on the relevance of brand inauthenticity in the formation of brand hate feelings. In essence, a low degree of brand authenticity implies that the brand promise does not stem from its core values (Schallehn *et al.*, 2014), in terms of continuity, originality, reliability, naturalness, credibility, integrity and symbolism (Bruhn *et al.*, 2012; Mohart *et al.*, 2015). Interestingly, anti-brand communities are particularly vocal on Apple's lack of originality, hardware problems and expensive products, and the brand is struggling to preserve its core mission of remaining minimalist and aligning its products, business and marketing with this idea (business insider, 2016).

Additionally, this study shows that symbolic incongruity has the strongest direct effect on Apple brand hate. These findings are interesting and useful, since they reinforce the assumption that consumers cognitively reject a brand which they consciously view as misrepresenting their selves and their self-motives (Wolter *et al.*, 2016). As such, the brand-self distance may result in feelings of hatred. A potential reason for consumers to distance themselves from Apple due to symbolic incongruity may be linked to recent accusations of being deceptive, immoral and unethical. Indeed, Apple has been harshly criticized for its unethical supply chain (smartcompany.com.au), as well as its immoral practices such as intentionally slowing down older mobile models as a way of forcing consumers to purchase its newer iPhone models (huffpost.com). Interestingly, the other two relevant key triggers, with almost the same intensity, are ideological incompatibility and negative past experience. For many years, Apple has focused on high-end technology products in order to provide a remarkable user experience. Nevertheless, numerous high-profile problems with Apple's product features and its performance have undermined the brand credibility in recent years (Forbes, 2018), with harmful effects on consumer-brand relationships. Moreover, the brand has been extensively criticized on the basis that ideology does not promote inclusion and diversity. As such, brand haters very negatively targeted Apple's content-first approach which, according to the brand, allows Apple users to access a rich cross-platform experience, and at the same time they can ensure that their myriad devices are up-to-date and synchronized (time.com, 2017).

Another relevant contribution of our study focus on how brand hate differs among users vs non-users and passionate vs non-passionate consumers. Alike the research conducted on positive consumer-brand relationships (e.g. Batra *et al.*, 2012), our study confirms that brand hate is an "intense emotional response" (Hegner *et al.*, 2017) to brand actions with a changing gestalt over time. This means that brand hate does not occur at a specific point of time as brand love (Huber *et al.*, 2015) and may result in transient feelings of hatred motivated by emotion-eliciting events (e.g. using a product) or by a long-term consumer-brand relationships that

1
2
3 evolved from love to feelings of hatred. More importantly, it is demonstrated that non-
4 passionate non-users manifest a higher degree of brand hate and might be highly influenced by
5 key triggers such as symbolic incongruity, ideological incompatibility and brand
6 inauthenticity. On the other hand, the passionate former users tend to manifest lower feelings
7 of hatred which reveals that are more tolerant to towards brands. These differences on how
8 consumers hate brands calls for a deeper understanding on how non-passionate non-users (the
9 'steady opponents'), passionate non-users (the 'disillusioned admirers'), non-passionate users
10 (the 'unimpressed testers') and passionate former users (the 'disenchanted fanboys') develop
11 feelings of hatred and how companies could mitigate potential negative consumer-brand
12 relationships.
13
14

15
16 This research also suggests that brand hate has an effect on how consumers feel in relation to
17 a brand (i.e. brand avoidance) and how they see themselves in the consumer-brand relationship
18 (i.e. negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish brands, negative brand engagement).
19 Additionally, these results emphasize that brand hate leads to both "attack-like" outcomes (i.e.
20 negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish brands) and "avoidance-like" outcomes (i.e.
21 brand avoidance and negative brand engagement), thus confirming previous studies on brand
22 hate (Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016). Another key theoretical contribution of this research is that
23 brand hate comprises negative emotional dimensions (i.e. negative brand engagement) and
24 behavioral dimensions (i.e. brand aversion, negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish
25 brands). These findings stress the need to look into brand hate as a dichotomous concept with
26 implications on how consumers feel and act when they hate a brand, either voicing their hate
27 or disengaging.
28
29

30
31 More importantly, this paper shows for the first time that brand hate exerts the strongest and
32 direct most influence on negative brand engagement. This finding implies that consumers
33 express their hatred by consciously reducing their level of interaction with brands, which might
34 weaken or dissolve the affective bonds between the two parties (Hollebeck and Chen, 2014;
35 Perrin-Martinenq, 2004). Interestingly, this also means that brand haters may exhibit higher
36 levels of detachment from brands and, as with brand avoidance, are not willing to resume the
37 relationship with the brand in the future. By contrast, brand haters who express and voice their
38 feelings of hatred through negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish the brand are
39 prone to maintain their relationship of enmity with the brand. Both retaliatory behaviors
40 represent the way consumers feel about themselves in the relationship with brands. Thus, one
41 would expect brand haters to engage in specific anti-brand communities, as in the case of
42 Apple, for the purpose of spreading negative word-of-mouth using mainly a market related,
43 ideological and transactional speech (Bailey, 2004; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009). In other
44 words, by using the power to influence other consumers, brand haters vent their views and
45 negative feelings as a means to warn other consumers not to patronize a particular brand or to
46 stop doing so (Wetzer *et al.*, 2007). Additionally, brand haters may experience a desire for
47 revenge through the act of punishing and causing harm to brands, in retaliation for the damages
48 they might have caused them (Bechwati and Morrin, 2003). In particular, brand haters may
49 deliberately engage in destructive punitive acts (Romani *et al.*, 2013) and demonstrate their
50 hostility and aggressive behaviors against brands.
51
52
53

54
55 Overall, this research further confirms that brand hate is extremely harmful to consumer-brand
56 relationships, and might lead to disengagement, avoidance, and retaliatory behaviors. The
57 current findings have important implications for brand managers. With respect to negative
58 consumer-brand relationships, the findings suggest that consumer-brand disidentification
59 results in hatred of brands. This offers new possibilities for brand managers to act in preventing
60

1
2
3 on-line and off-line anti-brand activism, in order to avoid its impact on brand equity and brand
4 reputation. More specifically, brand managers should aim to understand brand disidentifiers'
5 motivations in connection with symbolic incongruity. For example, regular netnographic
6 studies and on-line interaction with brand haters in anti-brand communities will provide useful
7 insights for addressing the growing phenomenon of consumer-brand disidentification.
8 Furthermore, brand managers should also aim to develop brand strategies anchored on
9 diversity, inclusiveness, authenticity and responsibility, that nurture the sense of worthiness
10 and belonging to brands.
11
12

13
14 The present findings also elaborate that brand hate, as a result of consumer-brand
15 disidentification, might affect brands in several ways. Hence, strategies should be used to
16 prevent potential brand haters avoiding or disengaging with brands and thus leaving no hope
17 of recovering from damaged consumer-brand relationship. On the other hand, it is crucial to
18 mitigate the impact of retaliatory behaviors which might harm the brand in its reputation.
19

20
21 Being one of the first studies to investigate the mediating effect of brand hate in the context of
22 prominent brands, this empirical study has some limitations. Firstly, this study is limited to
23 one technological brand, and therefore, caution must be taken in generalizing findings to other
24 settings. Hence, future research should replicate this study and involve other brands in order
25 to verify whether the results are consistent. It would also be useful to test our research model
26 in the context of goods, and to compare the results to service brands. This research approach
27 could reveal some (di)similarities between both sectors, and how consumer-brand
28 disidentification could be managed and/or mitigated in order to avoid feelings of hatred
29 towards brands. The second limitation refers to the fact that most of respondents are male and
30 thus, the generalizability of the results is a concern. Future studies should include a balanced
31 sample of male and female respondents, which might enable the investigation of gender as a
32 moderator between consumer brand disidentification and brand hate, as well as between brand
33 hate and its outcomes. Moreover, the moderating effect of culture is another key aspect that
34 needs to be further investigated. Finally, a comparative study between Millennials and
35 Generation Z might be relevant in the field of branding, so as to understand the differences
36 between the two generational cohorts.
37
38
39
40

41 **References**

- 42
43 Alba, J. W., and Lutz, R. J. (2013), "Broadening (and narrowing) the scope of brand
44 relationships", *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 23, N° 2, pp. 265-268.
45
46 Alvarez, C., and Fournier, S. (2016), "Consumers' relationships with brands", *Current Opinion*
47 *in Psychology*, Vol. 10, pp. 129-135.
48
49 Anderson, J.C., and Gerbing, D.W. (1988), "Structural equation modeling in practice: A review
50 and recommended two-step approach", *Psychological bulletin*, Vol. 103, N° 3, pp. 411-423.
51
52 Antonetti, P. (2016), "Consumer anger: a label in search of meaning", *European Journal of*
53 *Marketing*, Vol. 50, N° 9/10, pp. 1602-1628.
54
55 Arnold, S. J., Kozinets, R. V., and Handelman, J. M. (2001), "Hometown ideology and retailer
56 legitimation: the institutional semiotics of Wal-Mart flyers", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 77, N°
57 2, pp. 243-271.
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 Arnould, E.J., and Price, L.L. (2000), "Authenticating acts and authoritative performances: Questing for self and community". In S. Ratneswar, D. G. Mick, and C. Huffman (Eds.), *The Why of Consumption: Contemporary Perspectives on Consumer Motives* (pp. 140-163). New York: Routledge.

9
10 Arnould, E. J., and Thompson, C. J. (2005), "Consumer culture theory (CCT): Twenty years of research", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 31, N° 4, pp. 868-882.

11
12
13 Arnoud, M.J., Reynolds, K.E., Ponder, N., and Lueg, J.E. (2005), "Customer delight in a retail context: investigating delightful and terrible shopping experiences", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 58, N° 8, pp. 1132-1145.

14
15
16
17 Atwal, G., and Williams, A. (2017), "Luxury brand marketing—the experience is everything!". In: Kapferer, J.N., Kernstock, J., Brexendorf, T., and Powell, S. (Eds), *Advances in Luxury Brand Management* (pp. 43-57). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

18
19
20
21 Bagozzi, R.P., and Yi, Y. (1988), "On the evaluation of structural equation models", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 16, N° 1, pp. 74-94.

22
23
24
25 Bagozzi, R.P., Batra, R., and Ahuvia, A. (2017), "Brand love: development and validation of a practical scale", *Marketing Letters*, Vol. 28, No. 1, pp. 1-14.

26
27
28
29
30 Bain and Company (2018b), "The personal luxury goods market delivers positive growth in 2018 to reach 260 billion – a trend that is expected to continue through 2025", available at: www.bain.com/about/media-center/press-releases/2018/fall-luxury-goods-market-study/ (accessed 25 January 2019)

31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Batra, R., Ahuvia, A., and Bagozzi, R. P. (2012). Brand Love. *Journal of Marketing*, 76, 1–16.

Bechwati, N. N., and Morrin, M. (2003), "Outraged consumers: Getting even at the expense of getting a good deal", *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 13, N° 4, pp. 440-453.

Bailey, A.A. (2004), "This companysucks.com: the use of the Internet in negative consumer-to-consumer articulations", *Journal of Marketing Communications*, Vol. 10, N° 3, pp. 169-182.

Berthon, P., Pitt, L., Parent, M., and Berthon, J.P. (2009), "Aesthetics and ephemerality: observing and preserving the luxury brand", *California Management Review*, Vol. 52, N° 1, pp. 45-66.

Beverland, M. B., and Farrelly, F. J. (2009), "The quest for authenticity in consumption: Consumers' purposive choice of authentic cues to shape experienced outcomes", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 36, N° 5, pp. 838-856.

Borghini, S., Diamond, N., Kozinets, R. V., McGrath, M. A., Muniz Jr., A. M., and Sherry Jr., J. F. (2009), "Why are themed brand stores so powerful? Retail brand ideology at American Girl Place", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 85, N° 3, pp. 363-375.

1
2
3 Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., and Zarantonello, L. (2009), “Brand experience: what is it? How
4 is it measured? Does it affect loyalty?”, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 73, N° 3, pp. 52-68.

5
6 Brudholm, T. (2010), “Hatred as an Attitude”, *Philosophical Papers*, Vol. 39, N° 3, pp. 289-
7 313, doi: 10.1080/05568641.2010.538912

8
9
10 Bruhn, M., Schoenmüller, V., Schäfer, D., and Heinrich, D. (2012), “Brand authenticity:
11 Towards a deeper understanding of its conceptualization and measurement”, *Advances in*
12 *Consumer Research*, Vol. 40, pp. 567-576.

13
14 Bryson, D., Atwal, G., and Hultén, P. (2013), “Towards the conceptualisation of the
15 antecedents of extreme negative affect towards luxury brands”, *Qualitative Market Research:*
16 *An International Journal*, Vol. 16, N° 4, pp. 393-405.

17
18
19 Bryson, D., and Atwal, G. (2019), “Brand hate: the case of Starbucks in France”, *British Food*
20 *Journal*, Vol. 121, N° 1, pp. 172-182.

21
22
23 Business Insider (2016). “Apple is losing its focus again – and this time, there’s no Steve Jobs
24 coming to the rescue”, available at [https://www.businessinsider.com/apple-is-losing-its-focus-](https://www.businessinsider.com/apple-is-losing-its-focus-again-steve-jobs-2016-12?r=US&IR=T)
25 [again-steve-jobs-2016-12?r=US&IR=T](https://www.businessinsider.com/apple-is-losing-its-focus-again-steve-jobs-2016-12?r=US&IR=T) (accessed 25 May 2019)

26
27
28 Canziani, B., Watchravesringkan, K., and Yurchisin, J. (2016), “A model for managing service
29 encounters for neo-luxury consumers”, *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, Vol. 8,
30 N° 1, pp. 41-52.

31
32
33 Carroll, B.A., and Ahuvia, A.C. (2006), “Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love”,
34 *Marketing Letters*, Vol. 17, pp. 79-89.

35
36
37 Castelli, L., and Carraro, L. (2011), “Ideology is related to basic cognitive processes involved
38 in attitude formation”, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 47, N° 5, pp. 1013-
39 1016.

40
41
42 Chang, M. K. (1998), “Predicting unethical behavior: a comparison of the theory of reasoned
43 action of the theory of planned behavior”, *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 17, N° 3/5, pp.
44 187-199.

45
46
47 Cherrier, H., Black, I. R., and Lee, M. (2011), “Intentional non-consumption for sustainability:
48 consumer resistance and/or anti-consumption?”, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 45, N°
49 11/12, pp. 1757-1767.

50
51
52 Craney, T.A., and Surles, J.G. (2002), “Model-Dependent Variance Inflation Factor Cut-off
53 Values”, *Quality Engineering*, Vol. 14, N° 3, pp. 391-403.

54
55
56 Cristini, H., Kauppinen-Räsänen, H., Barthod-Prothade, M., and Woodside, A. (2017),
57 “Toward a general theory of luxury: advancing from workbench definitions and theoretical
58 transformations”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 70, N° 1, pp. 101-107.

59
60
61 Crockett, D., and Wallendorf, M. (2004), “The role of normative political ideology in consumer
62 behavior”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 31, N° 3, pp. 511-528.

1
2
3 Danziger, P.N. (2018), “4 mega-trends ahead for the luxury market in 2019: expect turmoil
4 and slowing sales”, available at:
5 [https://www.forbes.com/sites/pamdanziger/2018/12/18/whatsahead-for-the-luxury-market-in-](https://www.forbes.com/sites/pamdanziger/2018/12/18/whatsahead-for-the-luxury-market-in-2019-expect-turmoil-and-slowing-sales/#4d3d1f3b6578)
6 [2019-expect-turmoil-and-](https://www.forbes.com/sites/pamdanziger/2018/12/18/whatsahead-for-the-luxury-market-in-2019-expect-turmoil-and-slowing-sales/#4d3d1f3b6578)
7 [slowing-sales/#4d3d1f3b6578](https://www.forbes.com/sites/pamdanziger/2018/12/18/whatsahead-for-the-luxury-market-in-2019-expect-turmoil-and-slowing-sales/#4d3d1f3b6578) (accessed 24 January 2019).
8

9 Demiray, M. and Burnaz, S. (2019), “Exploring the impact of brand community identification
10 on Facebook: firm-directed and self-directed drivers”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol.
11 96, pp.115-124, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.11.016>
12

13 Dessart, L., Veloutsou, C. and Morgan-Thomas, A., (2020). “Brand negativity: a relational
14 perspective on anti-brand community participation”. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 54
15 No. 7, pp. 1761-1785.
16

17
18 Duman, S., and Ozgen, O. (2018), “Willingness to punish and reward brands associated to a
19 political ideology (BAPI)”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 86, pp. 468-478.
20

21
22 Essoo, N., and Dibb, S. (2004), “Religious influences on shopping behaviour: an exploratory
23 study”, *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 20, N° 7-8, pp. 683-712.
24

25 Farah, M. F., and Newman, A. J. (2010), “Exploring consumer boycott intelligence using a
26 socio-cognitive approach”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 63, N° 4, pp. 347-355.
27

28
29 Fetscherin, M. (2019), “The five types of brand hate: How they affect consumer
30 behavior”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 101, pp. 116-127.
31

32 Fetscherin, M., and Sampedro, A. (2019), “Brand forgiveness”, *Journal of Product & Brand*
33 *Management*, Vol. 28, N° 5, pp. 633-652.
34

35 Fetscherin, M., Guzman, F., Veloutsou, C. and Cayolla, R.R. (2019), “Latest research on brand
36 relationships: Introduction to the special issue”, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*,
37 Vol. 28, N° 2, pp. 133–139
38

39
40 Finkel, E. J., Rusbult, C. E., Kumashiro, M., and Hannon, P. A. (2002), “Dealing with
41 betrayal in close relationships: Does commitment promote forgiveness”, *Journal of*
42 *Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 82, N° January, pp. 956–974.
43

44
45 Folkes, V. S. (1988), “Recent attribution research in consumer behavior: A review and new
46 directions”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 14, N° 4, pp. 548-565.
47

48 Forbes (2018). “Apple iOS 12 is Causing iPhone X Display Issues”, available at
49 [https://www.forbes.com/sites/gordonkelly/2018/09/22/apple-ios-12-problem-display-iphone-](https://www.forbes.com/sites/gordonkelly/2018/09/22/apple-ios-12-problem-display-iphone-x-xs-ipad-upgrade/#450fdfea364d)
50 [x-xs-ipad-upgrade/#450fdfea364d](https://www.forbes.com/sites/gordonkelly/2018/09/22/apple-ios-12-problem-display-iphone-x-xs-ipad-upgrade/#450fdfea364d) (accessed 15 May 2019)
51

52
53 Fornell, C., and Larcker, D.F. (1981), ”Evaluating structural equation models with
54 unobservable variables and measurement error”, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 8, N° 1,
55 pp. 39-50.
56

57 Fournier, S. (1998a), “Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in
58 Consumer Research”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 25, N° 2, pp. 123–44.
59
60

1
2
3 Fournier S. (1998b), "Consumer resistance: societal motivations, consumer manifestations, and
4 implications", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 25, N° 1, pp. 88–90.

5
6 Fournier, S., and Alvarez, C. (2013), "Relating badly to brands", *Journal of Consumer
7 Psychology*, Vol. 23, N° 2, pp. 253-264.

8
9 Frick, W., and Berinato, S. (2014), "Apple: Luxury Brand or Mass Marketer?", *Harvard
10 Business Review*: <https://hbr.org/2014/10/apple-luxury-brand-or-mass-marketer>

11
12 Fritz, K., Schoenmueller, V., and Bruhn, M. (2017), "Authenticity in branding—exploring
13 antecedents and consequences of brand authenticity", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol.
14 51, N° 2, pp. 324-348.

15
16 Funches, V., Markley, M., and Davis, L. (2009), "Reprisal, retribution and requital:
17 Investigating customer retaliation", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62, N° 2, pp. 231-238.

18
19 Gorsuch, R. L. (1983), *Factor analysis*, 2nd ed., Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

20
21 Grayson, K., and Martinec, R. (2004), "Consumer perceptions of iconicity and indexicality and
22 their influence on assessments of authentic market offerings", *Journal of Consumer
23 Research*, Vol. 31, N° 2, pp. 296-312.

24
25 Grégoire, Y., and Fisher, R. J. (2008), "Customer betrayal and retaliation: when your best
26 customers become your worst enemies", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol.
27 36, N° 2, pp. 247-261.

28
29 Grégoire, Y., Tripp, T. M., and Legoux, R. (2009), "When customer love turns into lasting
30 hate: the effects of relationship strength and time on customer revenge and avoidance", *Journal
31 of Marketing*, Vol. 73, N° 6, pp. 18-32.

32
33 Grégoire, Y., Laufer, D., and Tripp, T. M. (2010), "A comprehensive model of customer direct
34 and indirect revenge: understanding the effects of perceived greed and customer
35 power", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 38, N° 6, pp. 738-758.

36
37 Guèvremont, A., and Grohmann, B. (2016), "The brand authenticity effect: situational and
38 individual-level moderators", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 50, N° 3/4, pp. 602-620.

39
40 Guèvremont, A., (2019), "Brand hypocrisy from a consumer perspective: scale development
41 and validation", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 28, N° 5, pp. 598-613.

42
43 Gundlach, H. and Neville, B. (2012), "Authenticity: Further theoretical and practical
44 development", *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 19, N° 6, pp. 484-499.

45
46 Halstead, D. (1989), "Expectations and disconfirmation beliefs as predictors of consumer
47 satisfaction, repurchase intention, and complaining behavior: an empirical study", *Journal of
48 Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, Vol. 2, N° 1, pp. 17-21.

49
50 Hayes, A. F. (2018), "Partial, conditional, and moderated mediation: Quantification, inference,
51 and interpretation", *Journal of Communication Monographs*, Vol. 85, N° 1, pp. 4-40.

1
2
3 Hede, A. M., and Thyne, M. (2010), "A journey to the authentic: Museum visitors and their
4 negotiation of the inauthentic", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 26, N° 7-8, pp. 686-
5 705.

6
7
8 Hegner, S. M., Fetscherin, M., and van Delzen, M. (2017), "Determinants and outcomes of
9 brand hate", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 26, N° 1, pp. 13-25.

10
11 Heinonen, K. (2018), "Positive and negative valence influencing consumer
12 engagement", *Journal of Service Theory and Practice*, Vol. 28, N° 2, pp. 147-169.

13
14
15 Hirschman, E. C. (1988), The ideology of consumption: A structural-syntactical analysis of
16 "Dallas" and "Dynasty". *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 15, N° 3, pp. 344-359.

17
18 Hirschman, E. C. (1993), "Ideology in consumer research, 1980 and 1990: A Marxist and
19 feminist critique", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 19, N° 4, pp. 537-555.

20
21
22 Hogg, M. K., Banister, E. N., and Stephenson, C. A. (2009), "Mapping symbolic (anti-)
23 consumption", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62, N° 2, pp. 148-159.

24
25 Hollebeek, L., and Chen, T. (2014), "Exploring positively-versus negatively-valenced brand
26 engagement: a conceptual model", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 23, N° 1,
27 pp. 62-74.

28
29
30 Hollebeek, L. D., Glynn, M. S., and Brodie, R. J. (2014), "Consumer Brand Engagement in
31 Social Media: Conceptualization, Scale Development and Validation", *Journal of Interactive
32 Marketing*, Vol. 28, N° 2, pp. 149-165.

33
34
35 Hollenbeck, C. R., and Zinkhan, G. M. (2006), "Consumer Activism on the Internet: the Role
36 of Anti-Brand Communities", in NA - *Advances in Consumer Research*, Volume 33, eds.
37 Connie Pechmann and Linda Price, Duluth, MN: Association for Consumer Research, pp: 479-
38 485.

39
40
41 Holt, D. B. (2004), *How Brands Become Icons: The Principles of Cultural Branding*.
42 Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

43
44
45 Holt, D.B. (2006), "Jack Daniel's America: Iconic Brands as Ideological Parasites and
46 Proselytizers", *Journal of Consumer Culture*, Vol. 6, N° 3, pp. 355-77.

47
48
49 Huber, F., Vollhardt, K., Matthes, I., and Vogel, J. (2010), "Brand misconduct: consequences
50 on consumer- brand relationships", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 63, No. 11, pp. 113-
51 1120.

52
53
54 Huber, F., Meyer, F., and Schmid, D.A. (2015), "Brand love in progress-the interdependence
55 of brand love antecedents in consideration of relationship duration", *Journal of Product &
56 Brand Management*, Vol. 24, No. 6, pp. 567-579.

57
58
59 Huffpost (2017), "Apple Hit With Lawsuits After Admitting It Intentionally Slowed Down
60 iPhones", available at <https://www.huffpost.com> (accessed 18 May 2019).

1
2
3 Hutcheson, G. D. ,and Sofroniou, N. (1999), *The multivariate social scientist: Introductory*
4 *statistics using generalized linear models*, London: Sage Publications.

5
6
7 Iglesias, O., Markovic, F.,and Rialp, J. (2019), “How does sensory brand experience influence
8 brand equity? Considering the roles of customer satisfaction, customer affective commitment,
9 and employee empathy”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 96, pp. 343-354.

10
11
12 Istanbulluoglu, D., Leek, S., and Szmigin, I. T. (2017), “Beyond exit and voice: developing an
13 integrated taxonomy of consumer complaining behavior”, *European Journal of*
14 *Marketing*, Vol. 51, N° 5/6, pp. 1109-1128.

15
16 Izberk-Bilgin, E. (2012), “Infidel Brands: Unveiling Alternative Meanings of Global Brands
17 at the Nexus of Globalization, Consumer Culture, and Islamism”, *Journal of Consumer*
18 *Research*. The University of Chicago Press, Vol. 39, N° 4, pp. 663–687.

19
20
21 Johnson, A. R., Matear, M. and Thomson, M. (2010), “A coal in the heart: Self-relevance as a
22 post-exit predictor of consumer anti-brand actions”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 38,
23 N° 1, pp. 108-125.

24
25 Kähr, A., Nyffenegger, B., Krohmer, H. and Hoyer, W. D. (2016), “When hostile consumers
26 wreak havoc on your brand: The phenomenon of consumer brand sabotage”, *Journal of*
27 *marketing*, Vol. 80, N° 3, pp. 25-41.

28
29
30 Kapferer, J. N. and Laurent, G. (2016), “Where do consumers think luxury begins? A study of
31 perceived minimum price for 21 luxury goods in 7 countries”, *Journal of Business*
32 *Research*, Vol. 69, N° 1, pp. 332-340.

33
34
35 Katsanis, L.P. (1994), “The ideology of political correctness and its effect on brand
36 strategy”, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 3, N° 2, pp. 5-14.

37
38
39 Kaynak, R. and Eksi, S. (2011), “Ethnocentrism, religiosity, environmental and health
40 consciousness: Motivators for anti-consumers”, *Eurasian Journal of Business and*
41 *Economics*, Vol. 4, N° 8, pp. 31-50.

42
43
44 Khalifa, D. and Shukla, P. (2017), “Me, my brand and I: Consumer responses to luxury brand
45 rejection”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 81, pp. 156-162.

46
47
48 Khan, R., Misra, K. and Singh, V. (2013), “Ideology and brand consumption”, *Psychological*
49 *science*, Vol. 24, N° 3, pp. 326-333.

50
51
52 Kerr, G., Mortimer, K., Dickinson, S. and Waller, D. S. (2012), “Buy, boycott or blog:
53 Exploring online consumer power to share, discuss and distribute controversial advertising
54 messages”, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 46, N° 3/4, pp. 387-405.

55
56
57 Kim, H., Jung Choo, H. and Yoon, N. (2013), “The motivational drivers of fast fashion
58 avoidance”, *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, Vol.
59 17, N° 2, pp. 243-260.

60
61
62 Klein, J. G., Smith, N. C. and John, A. (2004), “Why we boycott: Consumer motivations for
63 boycott participation”, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 68, N° 3, pp. 92-109.

- 1
2
3
4 Kleinbaum, D. G., Kupper, L. L. and Muller, K. L. (1988), *Applied Regression Analysis and*
5 *Other Multivariate Methods*, Boston: PWS-KENT Publishing Company.
6
7
8 Kline, R. B. (2011), *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling*, New York, The
9 Guildford Press.
10
11 Knittel, Z., Beurer, K. and Berndt, A. (2016), “Brand avoidance among Generation Y
12 consumers”, *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, Vol. 19, N° 1, pp. 27-43.
13
14 Kordrostami, M. and Kordrostami, E., (2019), “Secure or fearful, who will be more resentful?
15 Investigating the interaction between regulatory focus and attachment style”, *Journal of*
16 *Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 28, N° 5, pp. 671-683.
17
18
19 Kozinets, R. V. and Handelman, J. M. (2004), ”Adversaries of consumption: Consumer
20 movements, activism, and ideology”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 31, N° 3, pp. 691-
21 704.
22
23
24 Krishnamurthy, S. and Kucuk, S. U. (2009), “Anti-branding on the internet”, *Journal of*
25 *Business Research*, Vol. 62, N° 11, pp. 1119-1126.
26
27
28 Kucuk, S. U. (2008), “Negative double jeopardy: The role of anti-brand sites on the
29 internet”, *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 15, N° 3, pp. 209-222.
30
31
32 Kucuk, S. U. (2010), “Negative double jeopardy revisited: A longitudinal analysis”, *Journal*
33 *of Brand Management*, Vol. 18, N° 2, pp. 150-158.
34
35
36 Kucuk, S. U. (2015), “A semiotic analysis of consumer-generated antibranding”, *Marketing*
37 *Theory*, Vol. 15, N° 2, pp. 243-264.
38
39
40 Kucuk, S. U. (2016), “Exploring the legality of consumer anti-branding activities in the digital
41 age”, *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 139, N° 1, pp. 77-93.
42
43
44 Kucuk, S. U. (2018), “Macro-level antecedents of consumer brand hate”, *Journal of Consumer*
45 *Marketing*, Vol. 35, N° 5, pp. 555-564.
46
47
48 Kucuk, S. U. (2019), “Consumer Brand Hate: Steam rolling whatever I see”, *Psychology &*
49 *Marketing*, Vol. 36, N° 5, pp. 431-443.
50
51
52 Lee, M.S., Motion, J. and Conroy, D. (2009), “Anti-consumption and brand
53 avoidance”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62, N° 2, pp. 169-180.
54
55
56 Lee, M. S. W., Conroy, D. and Motion, J. (2012), “Brand avoidance, genetic modification, and
57 brandlessness”, *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, Vol. 20, N° 4, pp. 297-302.
58
59
60 Liao, S. and Ma, Y.Y. (2009), “Conceptualizing consumer need for product
authenticity”, *International Journal of Business and Information*, Vol. 4, N° 1, pp. 89-114.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Lim, W. M. (2017), "Inside the sustainable consumption theoretical toolbox: Critical concepts for sustainability, consumption, and marketing", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 78, pp. 69-80.

Loureiro, S.M.C. and de Araújo, C.M.B., (2014), "Luxury values and experience as drivers for consumers to recommend and pay more", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 21, N° (3), pp. 394-400.

Massa, S. and Testa, S. (2012), "The role of ideology in brand strategy: the case of a food retail company in Italy", *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, Vol. 40, N° 2, pp. 109-127.

McCracken, G. (1986), "Culture and Consumption: A Theoretical Account of the Structure and Movement of the Cultural Meaning of Consumer Goods", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 13, N° 1, pp. 71-84.

McCullough, M. E., Rachal, K. C., Sandage, S. J., Worthington Jr., E. L., Brown, S. W. and Hight, T. L. (1998), "Interpersonal forgiving in close relationship II: Theoretical elaboration and measurement", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 75, pp. 1586-163.

McGrath, M. A., Sherry Jr, J. F. and Diamond, N. (2013), "Discordant retail brand ideology in the House of Barbie", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, Vol. 16, N° 1, pp. 12-37.

Morhart, F., Malär, L., Guèvremont, A., Girardin, F. and Grohmann, B. (2015), "Brand authenticity: An integrative framework and measurement scale", *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 25, N° 2, pp. 200-218.

Munichor, N. and Steinhart, Y. (2016), "Saying no to the glow: When consumers avoid arrogant brands", *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 26, N° 2, pp. 179-192.

Mukhtar, A. and Mohsin Butt, M. (2012), "Intention to choose Halal products: the role of religiosity", *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, Vol. 3, N° 2, pp. 108-120.

Napoli, J., Dickinson, S. J., Beverland, M. B. and Farrelly, F. (2014), "Measuring consumer-based brand authenticity", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 67, N° 6, pp. 1090-1098.

Napoli, J., Dickinson-Delaporte, S. and Beverland, M. B. (2016), "The brand authenticity continuum: strategic approaches for building value", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 32, N° 13-14, pp. 1201-1229.

Nenycz-Thiel, M. and Romaniuk, J. (2011), "The nature and incidence of private label rejection", *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, Vol. 19, N° 2, pp. 93-99.

Nyer, P.U. (1997), "A study of the relationships between cognitive appraisals and consumption emotions", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 25, N° 4, pp. 296-304.

Odoom, R., Kosiba, J.P., Djamgbah, C.T. and Narh, L., (2019), "Brand avoidance: underlying protocols and a practical scale", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 28, N° 5, pp. 586-597.

1
2
3
4
5 Osuna Ramírez, S. A., Veloutsou, C. and Morgan-Thomas, A. (2019), "I hate what you love:
6 brand polarization and negativity towards brands as an opportunity for brand
7 management", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 28, N° 5, pp. 614-632.

8
9 Özbölük, T. and Dursun, Y. (2017), "Online brand communities as heterogeneous gatherings:
10 a netnographic exploration of Apple users", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol.
11 26, N° 4, pp. 375-385.

12
13 Park, C. W., Eisingerich, A. B. and Park, J. W. (2013), "Attachment–aversion (AA) model of
14 customer–brand relationships", *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 23, N° 2, pp. 229-248.

15
16 Perrin-Martinenq, D. (2004), "The Role of Brand Detachment on the Dissolution of the
17 Relationship between the Consumer and the Brand", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol.
18 20, N° 9-10, pp. 1001-1023.

19
20 Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Lee, J.-Y. and Podsakoff, N.P. (2003), "Common method
21 biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies",
22 *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 88, N° 5, pp. 879-903.

23
24 Ramadan, Z. (2017), "Examining the dilution of the consumer-Brand relationship on
25 Facebook: the saturation issue", *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, Vol.
26 20, No. 3, pp. 335-353.

27
28 Rempel, J. K. and Burris, C. T. (2005), "Let me count the ways: An integrative theory of love
29 and hate", *Personal Relationships*, Vol. 12, N° 2, pp. 297-313.

30
31 Richins, M. L. (1983), "Negative word-of-mouth by dissatisfied consumers: A pilot
32 study", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 47, N° 1, pp. 68-78.

33
34 Rindell, A., Strandvik, T. and Wilén, K. (2014), "Ethical consumers' brand avoidance", *Journal*
35 *of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 23, N° 2, pp. 114-120.

36
37 Rodrigues, C. and Rodrigues, P. (2019), "Brand love matters to Millennials: the relevance of
38 mystery, sensuality and intimacy to neo-luxury brands", *Journal of Product & Brand*
39 *Management*, Vol. 28, N° 7, pp. 830-848.

40
41 Romani, S., Grappi, S. and Dalli, D. (2012), "Emotions that drive consumers away from
42 brands: Measuring negative emotions toward brands and their behavioral
43 effects", *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 29, N° 1, pp. 55-67.

44
45 Romani, S., Grappi, S. and Bagozzi, R. P. (2013), "My anger is your gain, my contempt your
46 loss: Explaining consumer responses to corporate wrongdoing", *Psychology &*
47 *Marketing*, Vol. 30, N° 12, pp. 1029-1042.

48
49 Romani, S., Grappi, S., Zarantonello, L. and Bagozzi, R. P. (2015), "The revenge of the
50 consumer! How brand moral violations lead to consumer anti-brand activism", *Journal of*
51 *Brand Management*, Vol. 22, N° 8, pp. 658-672.

1
2
3 Roper, S., Caruana, R., Medway, D. and Murphy, P. (2013), “Constructing luxury brands:
4 exploring the role of consumer discourse”, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 47, N° 3/4,
5 pp. 375-400.
6

7
8 Rose, R. L. and Wood, S. L. (2005), “Paradox and the consumption of authenticity through
9 reality television”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 32, N° 2, pp. 284-296.
10

11 Roseman, I. J., Spindel, M. S. and Jose, P. E. (1990),. Appraisals of emotion-eliciting events:
12 Testing a theory of discrete emotions”, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 59,
13 N° 5, pp. 899.
14

15
16 Sarkar, C. and Kotler, P. (2018), *Brand Activism. From Purpose to Action*: Kindle edition.
17

18 Schallehn, M., Burmann, C. and Riley, N. (2014), ”Brand authenticity: model development
19 and empirical testing”, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 23, N° 3, pp. 192-199.
20

21 Schmitt, B. (2013), “The consumer psychology of customer–brand relationships: Extending
22 the AA Relationship model”, *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 23, N° 2, pp. 249-252.
23

24
25 Shepherd, S., Chartrand, T. L. and Fitzsimons, G. J. (2015), “When brands reflect our ideal
26 world: the values and brand preferences of consumers who support versus reject society’s
27 dominant ideology”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 42, N° 1, pp. 76-92.
28

29
30 Silverstein, M.J., Fiske, N. and Butman, J. (2005), “*Trading up: Why Consumers Want New
31 Luxury Goods – and How Companies Create Them*”, Portfolio, New York, NY.
32

33 Singh, J. (1990), “A typology of consumer dissatisfaction response styles”, *Journal of
34 Retailing*, Vol. 66, N° 1, pp. 57-99.
35

36
37 Singh, J. and Wilkes, R. E. (1996), “When consumers complain: a path analysis of the key
38 antecedents of consumer complaint response estimates”, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing
39 Science*, Vol. 24, N° 4, pp. 350.
40

41 Smart Company (2018), “A hostage situation: Why Apple won’t address its unethical supply
42 chain”, available at [https://www.smartcompany.com.au/industries/information-technology/a-
43 hostage-situation-why-apple-wont-address-its-unethical-supply-chain/](https://www.smartcompany.com.au/industries/information-technology/a-hostage-situation-why-apple-wont-address-its-unethical-supply-chain/) (accessed 15 May
44 2019).
45

46
47 Sternberg, R. J. (2003), “A duplex theory of hate: Development and application to terrorism,
48 massacres, and genocide”, *Review of General Psychology*, Vol. 7, N° 3, pp. 299-328.
49

50
51 Sussan, F., Hall, R. and Meamber, L.A. (2012), “Introspecting the spiritual nature of a brand
52 divorce”, *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 65, N° 4, pp. 520-526.
53

54 Sweetin, V. H., Knowles, L. L., Summey, J. H. and McQueen, K. S. (2013), “Willingness-to-
55 punish the corporate brand for corporate social irresponsibility”, *Journal of Business
56 Research*, Vol. 66, N° 10, pp. 1822-1830.
57

58
59 Thompson C.J. and Arsel Z. (2004), “The Starbucks brandscape and consumers' (anticorporate)
60 experiences of glocalization”, *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 31, N° 3, pp. 631–42.

1
2
3
4 Thompson, C. J. and Hirschman, E. C. (1995), "Understanding the socialized body: A
5 poststructuralist analysis of consumers' self-conceptions, body images, and self-care
6 practices", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 22, N° 2, pp. 139-153.

7
8
9 Thompson, C.J., Rindfleisch, A. and Arsel Z. (2006), "Emotional branding and the strategic
10 value of the doppelganger brand image", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 70, N° 1, pp. 50–64.

11
12 Time (2017), "Learning this 1 Thing Helped Me Understand Apple's Strategy", available at
13 <https://time.com/4723389/apple-strategy-iphone-ipad-apple-tv/> (accessed 20 May 2019)

14
15
16 Truong, Y., McColl, R. and Kitchen, P.J. (2009), "New luxury brand positioning and the
17 emergence of masstige brands", *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 16, N° 5/6, pp. 375-382.

18
19
20 Veloutsou, C. and Guzmán, F. (2017), "The evolution of brand management thinking over the
21 last 25 years as recorded in the Journal of Product and Brand Management", *Journal of Product
22 & Brand Management*, Vol. 26, N° 1, pp. 2-12.

23
24 Wakefield, L. T. and Wakefield, R. L. (2018), "Anxiety and ephemeral social media use in
25 negative eWOM creation", *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, Vol. 41, pp. 44-59.

26
27
28 Whang, Y.-O., Allen, J., Sahoury, N. and Zhang, H. (2004), "Falling in love with a product:
29 the structure of a romantic consumer-product relationship", in Kahn, B.E. and Luce, M.F.
30 (Eds), NA - Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 31, Association for Consumer Research,
31 Valdosta, GA, pp. 320-327.

32
33 Wangenheim, F. V. (2005), "Postswitching negative word of mouth", *Journal of Service
34 Research*, Vol. 8, N° 1, pp. 67-78.

35
36
37 Ward, J. C. and Ostrom, A. L. (2006), "Complaining to the masses: The role of protest framing
38 in customer-created complaint web sites", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 33, N° 2, pp.
39 220-230.

40
41
42 Wetzer, I. M., Zeelenberg, M. and Pieters, R. (2007), "Never eat in that restaurant, I did!":
43 Exploring why people engage in negative word-of-mouth communication", *Psychology &
44 Marketing*, Vol. 24, N° 8, pp. 661-680.

45
46 Wiedmann, K.P., Hennigs, N. and Siebels, A. (2009), "Value-based segmentation of luxury
47 consumption behavior", *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 26, N° 7, pp.625-651.

48
49
50 Winchester, M., Romaniuk, J. and Bogomolova, S. (2008), "Positive and negative brand beliefs
51 and brand defection/uptake", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 42, N° 5/6, pp. 553-570.

52
53
54 Wolter, J. S., Brach, S., Cronin Jr, J. J. and Bonn, M. (2016), "Symbolic drivers of consumer-
55 brand identification and disidentification", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69, N° 2, pp.
56 785-793.

57
58
59 Yuksel, U. and Mryteza, V. (2009), "An evaluation of strategic responses to consumer
60 boycotts", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62, N° 2, pp. 248-259.

1
2
3 Zarantonello, L., Romani, S., Grappi, S. and P. Bagozzi, R.P. (2016), "Brand hate", *Journal of*
4 *Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 25, N° 1, pp. 11-25.

5
6
7 Zarantonello, L., Romani, S., Grappi, S. and Fetscherin, M. (2018), "Trajectories of brand
8 hate", *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 25, N° 6, pp. 549-560.

9
10 Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L. and Parasuraman, A. (1996), "The behavioral consequences of
11 service quality", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 60, N° 2, pp. 31-46.

12
13 Zhao, X., Lynch, J. G. and Chen, Q. (2010), "Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and
14 Truths about Mediation Analysis", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 37, N° 3, pp. 197-206.

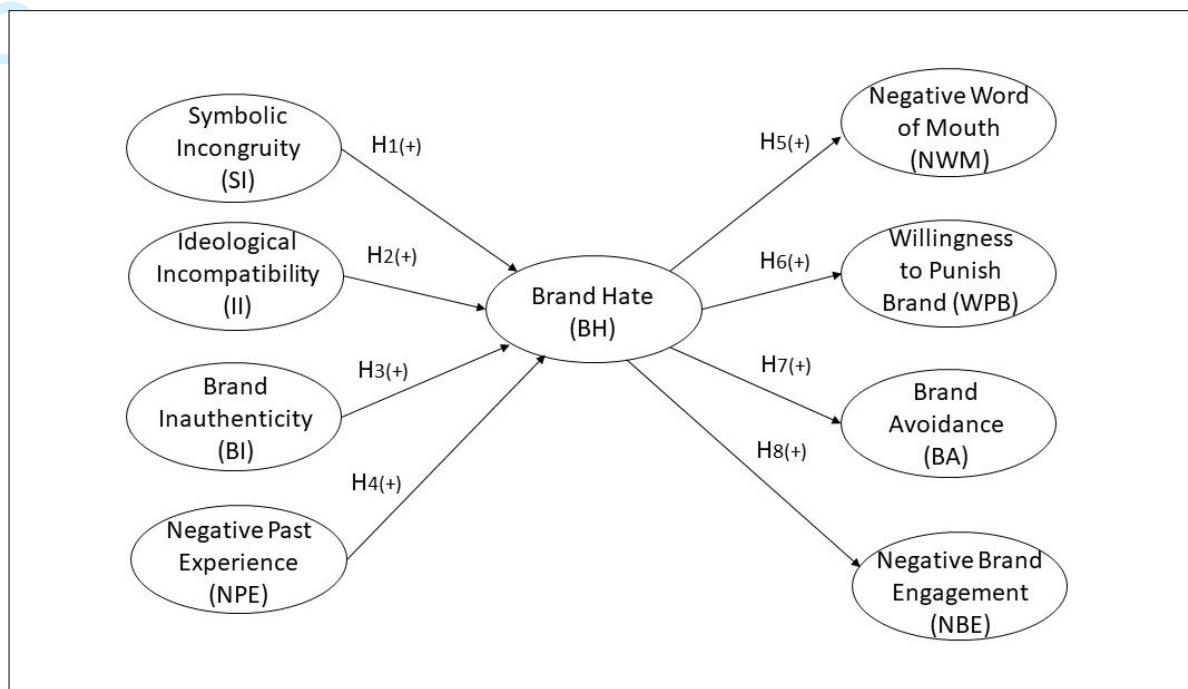


Fig. 1. Conceptual Model

Journal of Product & Brand Management

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Table 1: Sample Characterization

Category	N	Percentage %
Male	30	11.8
Female	214	84.3
Age		
Less than 25	94	38.5
26-35	63	25.8
36-45	47	19.3
46-55	25	10.2
More than 55	15	6.1
Education		
Basic	40	16.4
Higher	204	83.6
Income		
Less than 1000€	42	19.1
1001 at 2000€	49	22.3
2001 at 3000€	51	23.2
More than 3000€	78	35.5
Country		
USA	108	42.5
UK	28	11.0
Canada	17	6.7
Australia	15	5.9
Belgium	6	2.4
Netherlands	5	2.0
Spain	4	1.6
Others	74	27.9
	254	100%

Table 2: Constructs Measurement

Constructs	Items	Standardized Loading	CR	AVE	α
Symbolic Incongruity	SI1	0.911	0.93	0.73	0.92
	SI2	0.844			
	SI3	0.859			
	SI4	0.886			
	SI5	0.762			
Ideological Incompatibility	II1	0.801	0.94	0.78	0.93
	II2	0.906			
	II3	0.941			
	II4	0.886			
Brand Inauthenticity	BI_F1	0.974	0.81	0.6	0.82
	BI_F2	0.594			
	BI_F3	0.708			
Negative Experience Past	NPE1	0.797	0.90	0.69	0.88
	NPE2	0.870			
	NPE3	0.850			
	NPE4	0.805			
Brand Hate	BH1	0.871	0.94	0.71	0.94
	BH2	0.841			
	BH4	0.784			
	BH5	0.815			
	BH6	0.879			
	BH7	0.864			
Negative Word of Mouth	NWM1	0.847	0.91	0.67	0.91
	NWM2	0.855			
	NWM3	0.852			
	NWM4	0.731			
	NWM5	0.799			
Brand Avoidance	BA1	0.932	0.96	0.86	0.96
	BA2	0.907			
	BA3	0.936			
	BA4	0.943			
Negative Brand Engagement	NBE_F1	0.767	0.75	0.60	0.75
	NBE_F2	0.785			
Willingness to punish brands	WPB1	0.902	0.96	0.84	0.97
	WPB2	0.934			
	WPB3	0.917			
	WPB4	0.947			
	WPB5	0.880			

Notes: CR: Composite Reliability, AVE: Average variance extracted, α : Cronbach's alpha, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics and Discriminant Validity

Constructs	Mean	SD	NPE	SI	II	BH	NWM	WPB	BA	BI	NBE
NPE			0.83								
SI			0.60** *	0.85							
II			0.53** *	0.67	0.89						
BH			0.70** *	0.77	0.70	0.84					
NWM			0.58** *	0.70	0.58	0.72	0.82				
WPB			0.46** *	0.51	0.49	0.62	0.72	0.92			
BA			0.57	0.68	0.77	0.64	0.71	0.58	0.93		
BI			0.74	0.74	0.83	0.78	0.64	0.53	0.64	0.78	
NBE			0.75	0.92	0.71	0.83	0.87	0.65	0.95	0.89	0.78

Note: on the diagonal the square root of the average variance extracted of each construct, *** p < 0.001.

Table 4: Direct effects of the determinants and outcomes of brand hate

Hypotheses		Loading	p-value	Conclusion
H1	NPE \rightarrow BH (+)	0.325	$p < 0.001$	Accepted
H2	SI \rightarrow BH (+)	0.604	$p < 0.001$	Accepted
H3	II \rightarrow BH (+)	0.336	$p < 0.001$	Accepted
H4	BI \rightarrow BH (+)	0.156	$p < 0.05$	Accepted
H5	BH \rightarrow NWM (+)	0.700	$p < 0.001$	Accepted
H6	BH \rightarrow WPB (+)	0.566	$p < 0.001$	Accepted
H7	BH \rightarrow BA (+)	0.635	$p < 0.001$	Accepted
H8	BH \rightarrow NBE (+)	0.891	$p < 0.001$	Accepted

Table 5: Assessing the indirect effects (by Hayes)

Mediation Effects	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Standard error	95% bias-corrected CI	Result
SI → BH → NWO	Significant	0.289	0.059	[0.181; 0.411]	Partial mediation
SI → BH → WPB	Not Significant	0.479	0.102	[0.301; 0.702]	Full mediation
SI → BH → BA	Significant	0.203	0.061	[0.097; 0.332]	Partial mediation
SI → BH → NBE	Significant	0.213	0.052	[0.129; 0.326]	Partial mediation
II → BH → NWO	Significant	0.347	0.066	[0.226; 0.494]	Partial mediation
II → BH → WPB	Significant	0.437	0.093	[0.271; 0.639]	Partial mediation
II → BH → BA	Significant	0.290	0.079	[0.161; 0.473]	Partial mediation
II → BH → NBE	Significant	0.343	0.080	[0.207; 0.513]	Partial mediation
BI → BH → NWO	Not Significant	0.377	0.067	[0.252; 0.512]	Full mediation
BI → BH → WPB	Not Significant	0.450	0.087	[0.290; 0.638]	Full mediation
BI → BH → BA	Significant	0.286	0.075	[0.158; 0.438]	Partial mediation
BI → BH → NBE	Significant	0.297	0.065	[0.180; 0.436]	Partial mediation
NPE → BH → NWO	Not significant	0.3261	0.055	[0.223; 0.439]	Full mediation
NPE → BH → WPB	Not significant	0.423	0.079	[0.273; 0.590]	Full mediation
NPE → BH → BA	Significant	0.252	0.064	[0.132; 0.384]	Partial mediation
NPE → BH → NBE	Significant	0.293	0.059	[0.185; 0.414]	Partial mediation

Table 6: Cross tabulation users vs. passionate of Apple brand

Counts

		Have you ever loved Apple before?		Total
		No	Yes	
Have you ever used Apple products?	No	15	0	15
	Yes	171	58	229
Total		186	58	244

Table 7: Test for Equality of means of Brand Hate categorized by users vs. non-users
and passionate vs. non-passionate

Method	df	Value	p-value		
Anova F- test	(2, 241)	7.69	0.0006		
Category Statistics					
Groups	Have you ever loved Apple before?	Have you ever used/own Apple products?	Count	Mean	SE
Non-passionate non users	No	No	15	4.54	0.68
Non-passionate users	No	Yes	171	4.24	0.88
Passionate non-users	Yes	No	0	NA	NA
Passionate former users	Yes	Yes	58	3.7	0.15