



Universidade de Aveiro
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**GONÇALO FILIPE
TEIXEIRA**

BRAND HATE – UMA ABORDAGEM ABRANGENTE

BRAND HATE – A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH



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Dissertação apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Mestre em Gestão, realizada sob a orientação científica da Doutora Vera Cristina Fontes Teixeira Vale, Professora Auxiliar do Departamento de Economia, Gestão, Engenharia e Gestão Industrial e Turismo da Universidade de Aveiro

“The essence of management is to make knowledge productive”

Peter Drucker

o júri

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agradecimentos

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palavras-chave

Brand hate, ideological incompatibility, negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance, negative brand engagement, apple, SEM, ANOVA.

resumo

Nos dias de hoje, estabelecer e manter relações significativas com os consumidores, é de extrema importância para as marcas. Apesar do imenso volume de pesquisa que existe em termos de sentimentos positivos para com uma marca, existe muito pouca pesquisa relativamente ao lado negativo das relações consumidor-marca. Assim sendo, este trabalho foca-se na exploração do fenómeno de *brand hate*, através da investigação dos seus antecedentes e resultados. Adicionalmente, algumas características demográficas, nomeadamente idade, cultura e género, foram observadas, de modo a avaliar o possível efeito nestes constructos. O contexto de análise foi a marca Apple, uma vez que é considerada uma das marcas mais valiosas no planeta. Os dados foram recolhidos de uma amostra de 322 indivíduos, através de um inquérito por questionário. Os resultados mostram que *ideological incompatibility* é, de facto, um antecedente do *brand hate*, e que o *brand hate* tem relações positivas com *negative word-of-mouth*, *willingness to punish brands*, *brand avoidance* e *negative brand engagement*. Além disso, também foi confirmado que existem diferenças significativas em *negative word-of-mouth* e em *willingness to punish brands*, dependendo do género do indivíduo. Adicionalmente, Além disso, o género, assim como a idade e a cultura, foram vistos como tendo alguma influência em determinadas variáveis de outros construtos, tais como *negative brand engagement*.

keywords

Brand hate, ideological incompatibility, negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance, negative brand engagement, apple, SEM, ANOVA.

abstract

Nowadays, establishing and maintaining meaningful relationships with consumers is of paramount importance to brands. Despite the sheer volume of research that exists regarding positive feelings towards a brand, there is very little research on the negative side of consumer-brand relationships. That being said, this work focuses on the exploration of the phenomenon of brand hate, through the investigation of its antecedents and outcomes. Additionally, some demographic characteristics, namely age, culture and gender, were observed, in order to assess a possible effect on these constructs. The context of analysis was the brand Apple, as it is considered one of the most valuable brands on the planet.

Data was gathered from a sample of 322 individuals, through an online questionnaire survey. Results show that ideological incompatibility is, indeed, an antecedent of brand hate, and that brand hate has a positive relationship with negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance, and negative brand engagement. Furthermore, it was also confirmed that there are significant differences in negative word-of-mouth and in willingness to punish brands, depending on the gender of the individual. Additionally, gender, as well as age and culture, were seen to have some influence in certain variables of other constructs, such as negative brand engagement.

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List of abbreviations

AVE – Average Variance Extracted

CFI – Comparative Fit Index

CR – Composite Reliability

PCFI – Parsimony Comparative Fit Index

RMSEA – Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

SEM – Structural Equation Modelling

WOM – Word-of-mouth

Chapter 1. Introduction

Today's market is a highly competitive and ever-changing landscape, where companies struggle to establish and maintain meaningful relationships with its consumers. The increasing number of players in the market makes this a challenging task, with companies focusing on activities like branding, in order to foster meaningful and emotional relationships with its consumers (Ramírez, Veloutsou, & Morgan-Thomas, 2019). In this sense, a lot has been said in terms of positive relationships between brands and consumers, with brand love being one of the most prominent constructs in this field of study (Fetscherin, 2019; Zarantonello, Romani, Grappi, & Bagozzi, 2016). Nonetheless, there is an evident gap in literature, in terms of negative relationships between brands and their consumers (Fetscherin, 2019; Zarantonello et al., 2016; C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020), which are increasingly important due to various factors. On one hand, due to globalization and the rise of digital platforms, consumers have the ability, now more than ever, to voice their feelings towards a brand, whether those feelings are positive or negative (Kucuk, 2018a). On the other hand, there is sufficient evidence that supports "that negative emotions have a greater impact on behaviour than positive ones" (Fetscherin, 2019, p. 116).

Brands being hated and punished by their consumers it's not a new phenomenon, with this actions of retaliation being the result of a number of events, such as product failures and lack of social awareness (Kucuk, 2019a; Sweetin, Knowles, Summey, & McQueen, 2013). Brand avoidance, negative word-of-mouth, brand revenge, and other such behaviours, have already been studied in marketing literature. The novelty, instead, resides in the existence of a multidimensional construct that incorporates many of these negative emotions and behaviours towards a brand, that can range from indifference to true hate (Kucuk, 2019c; Zarantonello et al., 2016). A consumer doesn't necessarily feel a certain emotion or has an opinion regarding a brand all his life, being that, over time, that emotion and opinion is likely to change and to morph into another feeling towards a brand (Zarantonello, Romani, Grappi, & Fetscherin, 2018). This means that a consumer might have neutral feelings towards a certain brand that, over time, turn into stronger and more negative ones (Zarantonello et al., 2018). Thus, a certain construct such as brand avoidance may morph into another one, without meaning that a consumer has stopped feeling brand hate. It is exactly this complexity and multidimensionality that makes brand hate a difficult and important construct to research.

In terms of brand hate, there is also a more specific gap in literature, regarding the possible influence that factors like age, culture and gender have on the previously mentioned constructs.

While reviewing the existent literature, one is able to comprehend that there are significant differences, psychologically speaking, between different generations, cultural groups and genders. While younger individuals feel emotions in a stronger manner, the same is not true for older ones, and, while a group of individuals from a certain culture might have a similar emotional reaction, that reaction might not be the same of a culturally distinct group (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007; Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019). In a similar manner, literature shows that men usually feel more powerful emotions than their female counterpart (Fischer, Mosquera, Vianen, & Manstead, 2004).

Bearing this in mind, the purpose of this investigation is to explore the phenomenon of brand hate, as well as to confirm the relationships between this construct, and its antecedents and outcomes. In addition, this research also focuses on three factors, namely age, culture, and gender, as possible sources of differences in results. All of these will be studied in the context of one of the most valuable brands in the world, namely Apple, as literature shows that bigger and more valuable brands attract more hate.

Regarding the structure of this thesis, it encompasses seven chapters, with this being the first. The second chapter offers a literature review of the chosen topic of research, thus enabling a better understanding of it, as well as presenting a theoretical foundation and justification for this investigation. Complementary to this chapter, chapter three goes on to justify the proposed research hypotheses and conceptual model. Chapter four, on the other hand, deals with questions related with methodology, starting with the methodological approach, the design of the questionnaire survey, the details regarding the scales and variable measurement, the sample and the pre-test that was conducted, and finally ending with the methods chosen for data analysis. The following chapter describes the results obtained throughout the course of this investigation, namely the characterization of the sample, the descriptive analysis, the scale reliability analysis, the structure equation modelling, and the homogeneity of variances and ANOVA tests, all converging on a discussion about the attained results, located in chapter six. Lastly, chapter seven verses on what was concluded from this research, the contributions that were made to literature and management, and some limitations and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2. Theoretical background

When compared to the sheer volume of research conducted on the field of positive feelings and emotions towards the brand, investigations on negative feelings and relationships with a brand remain rather scarce (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner, Fetscherin, & Delzen, 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016). Despite this, a myriad of concepts has been conceptualized and, despite representing different phenomena, some can be difficult to tell apart. The boundaries between concepts like anti-branding (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006, 2010; Kucuk, 2008), anti-consumption (Iyer & Muncy, 2009; Lee, Fernandez, & Hyman, 2009; Lee, Motion, & Conroy, 2009), brand avoidance (Abid & Khattak, 2017; Grégoire, Tripp, & Legoux, 2009; Hegner et al., 2017), brand dislike (Dalli, Grappi, Romani, & Gistri, 2007; Dalli, Romani, & Gistri, 2006), brand divorce (Sussan, Hall, & Meamber, 2012), brand hate (Kucuk, 2019c; Rodrigues, Brandão, & Rodrigues, 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016; C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020), brand revenge (Fetscherin, 2019; Grégoire et al., 2009), and brand retaliation (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017) can become blurry, thus the need to distinguish them right from the start, in order to fully understand the scope of this research.

In this sense, anti-branding represents a social movement against brands and against its untamed globalization, with concerns over factors such as brand authenticity at its core (Holt, 2002). On the other hand, anti-consumption “literally means against consumption” (Lee, Fernandez, et al., 2009, p. 145). Despite some authors treating it as some destructive action towards the brand, similar to brand revenge and retaliation (Solomon, 2018), many treat anti-consumption as an opposition against today’s consumeristic lifestyle (Chatzidakis & Lee, 2012; Lee, Motion, et al., 2009).

Brand avoidance is defined “as customers’ need to withdraw themselves from any interactions with firms” (Grégoire et al., 2009, p. 19), being that this construct constitutes a passive reaction against a brand (e.g. brand switching), motivated, not by anger, but by disgust (Fetscherin, 2019; Grégoire et al., 2009). Alternatively, brand dislike is conceptualized as negative judgments, expressed by a consumer, towards a brand, being that these can be formed either during the consumption process, or due to a previous negative experience (Dalli et al., 2007). Thus, the emotions present in events of brand dislike appear less intense than the ones occurring in cases of brand hate. On the other hand, Sussan et al. (2012) defines brand divorce as “the act of dissolving the marriage to a brand” (p. 521) which, when one analyses the meaning of the word divorce, conveys the notion of a more unilateral process.

While brand divorce can have an almost spiritual side and represents a passive reaction (Sussan et al., 2012), brand revenge and brand retaliation represent more active and violent reactions towards

the brand (Fetscherin, 2019). Brand revenge can be defined as the consumer's will and need to hurt a brand that harmed him, in order to punish it for the damage caused (Grégoire et al., 2009), whereas brand retaliation also represents a need to punish the brand but, while the former embodies a long term feeling of anger, the latter represents a more impulsive attitude (Fetscherin, 2019).

In this sense, one can begin to comprehend the differences that exist between these constructs and, specifically, the difference between these constructs and brand hate. In short, brand hate can be conceptualized as "consumer detachment and aversion from a brand and its value systems as a result of constantly happening brand injustices that leads to intense and deeply held negative consumer emotions" (Kucuk, 2019c, p. 29). It differentiates itself from anti-branding and anti-consumption, for it is not a movement of the masses against brands and consumption, but rather a state of mind of the consumer, who experiences hate towards a specific brand that has harmed him in a certain way (Fetscherin, 2019; Kucuk, 2019c). It can express itself in a number of ways, ranging from passive to active reactions, and is, by all means, a more intense feeling than dislike (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017). Thus, it is not a question of not only being different from brand avoidance, brand dislike, brand retaliation and brand revenge, but of encompassing all of these constructs, and playing a mediating role between them and different motivators (Abid & Khattak, 2017).

2.1. Brand hate

The advent of the *World Wide Web* served as a catalyst for many things, one being the creation of a platform for consumers to voice their views and concerns about a brand and, to an extent, to rebel against it (Grégoire et al., 2009; Kucuk, 2008). This criticism is not only the work of individual consumers, but also the labour of online communities of consumers, who are joint together by their common hate towards a corporation or brand (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006, 2010). In these groups, the so called "anti-brand communities", an individual is able to connect "with like-minded consumers" (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2010, p. 329), forming part of a new movement, determined to change, to an extent, the "meaning of brands" (p. 330) and the way they operate in the marketplace (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006, 2010).

Thus, these communities represent a new reality, in which power doesn't lie only in the hands of companies, but lies in equal measure between brands and its consumers (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan,

2006; Kucuk, 2008; Rodrigues et al., 2020). It is also worthy of mention that these communities are proven to target more known and relevant brands, in an phenomenon that Kucuk (2008) called “Negative Double Jeopardy”. In the most simple way, this means that “the most valuable brands attract more anti-brand sites while less valuable brands do not have such hate attraction on the Internet” (Kucuk, 2008, p. 209), being that this idea of the most-recognized brands being the primary target of anti-brand groups, is also upheld by other studies (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006; Kucuk, 2010; Ramírez et al., 2019).

The above-mentioned communities are a demonstration of a rather recent and novel construct that would be latter defined as “brand hate”. Perhaps one of the first attempts at referring to brand hate was made by Grégoire et al. (2009), that mentioned the yearning for revenge and avoidance felt by consumers who have been wronged by a brand. Grégoire et al. (2009) defined the first of these constructs as the “customers’ need to punish and cause harm to firms for the damages they have caused” (p. 19), while defining the second one as the “customers’ need to withdraw themselves from any interactions with firms” (p. 19), or, as Johnson, Matear, & Thomson (2011) put it, consumers may “become committed to harming that brand rather than simply walking away” (p. 109). Right away, it is possible to observe two types of behaviour toward the brand, one with a more active nature, and another with a more passive one (Hegner et al., 2017), with both being discussed in greater extent in the following chapters.

Nonetheless, such constructs may create some confusion in regard to the true meaning of brand hate, being that exists a myriad of concepts related to negative relationships with a brand and negative feelings/emotions towards it and, in turn, related to brand hate also. In recent years, literature as shown an increasing interest in the negative side of consumer behaviour and negative relationships with brands, leading to the arise of constructs such as anti-branding (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006, 2010; Kucuk, 2008), brand avoidance (Abid & Khattak, 2017; Grégoire et al., 2009), brand revenge (Grégoire et al., 2009), brand dislike (Dalli et al., 2007, 2006), as well as the scope of this research, brand hate (Bryson, Atwal, & Hultén, 2013; Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016, 2018).

Perhaps one of the first and most simple definitions of brand hate was the one created by Bryson et al. (2013), who stated that “brand hate can simply be defined as an intense negative emotional affect towards the brand” (p. 395). Bryson et al. (2013) then goes on to cement the same notion defended by Grégoire et al. (2009), that brand hate relates to an intention to avoid, reject a brand all together, or even act against it, on an individual or public manner. A study on brand relationships

was also conducted by Alba & Lutz (2013), who have identified different negative feelings towards the brand, such as brand resentment, brand disgust, brand boycott and lastly, brand hatred, which was used to characterize relationships in which “the consumer is “held hostage” due to high switching costs (...) or some other exit barrier” (p. 267). True brand disgust is also a feeling which seems to be observable in some cases of this type of relationships (Alba & Lutz, 2013), which comes to strengthen the idea that brand hate represents an severe negative feelings towards a specific brand.

It is possible to acknowledge that Zarantonello et al. (2016) contribution to this field of research marked somewhat of a turning point in the literature regarding brand hate, having defined the concept “as a constellation of negative emotions which is significantly associated with different negative behavioural outcomes” (p. 11), being said emotions anger, contempt/disgust, fear, disappointment, shame and dehumanization. Zarantonello et al. (2016) also identified two types of brand hate, namely active brand hate and passive brand hate, with the former being comprised of anger and contempt/disgust, and the latter comprised of fear, shame, disappointment and dehumanization.

On the likes of Zarantonello et al. (2016), Hegner et al. (2017) defined brand hate as “a more intense emotional response that consumers have toward a brand than brand dislike” (p. 14), and also identifying three types of determinants, as well as behavioural outcomes of said construct. This definition is based on the same principle that hate is a more complex than simply a more severe version of dislike or dissatisfaction, and that there is a myriad of underlying emotions (Hegner et al., 2017).

In other to fully understand the conceptualizations proposed by Zarantonello et al. (2016) and other researchers, one must grasp the idea of hate being a multidimensional concept, that is, an emotion comprised of a combination of further emotions, such as anger, fear and disgust (Sternberg, 2003; Zarantonello et al., 2016). It was indeed Sternberg (2003) who was responsible for one of the most preeminent work regarding hate, having based it on its previous study entitled “A Triangular Theory of Love” (Sternberg, 1986). In this sense, as love is comprised of three components, so is hate comprised of a triad of components, namely negation of intimacy (repulsion and disgust), passion (anger and fear), and lastly, commitment (devaluation/diminution through contempt) (Sternberg, 1986, 2003). The important notion to retain from this, is that there isn’t a single and universal type of hate, and that different combinations of said emotions, result in various types of hate, specifically

seven: (1) cool hate, (2) hot hate, (3) cold hate, (4) boiling hate, (5) simmering hate, (6) seething hate, and (7) burning hate (Sternberg, 2003).

The transition and adjustment of this constructs, from the psychology literature into the marketing and branding literature, was done by Kucuk (2019), and was heavily based on Sternberg (2003), who identified the seven types of brand hate, and also classified them in two ways: (1) as attitudinal or behavioural brand hate, being the former characterized by a more passive and private approach to complaining and in dealing with the negative feelings towards the brand, and the latter with a more public outcry and rage against it; and (2) as mild, medium or severe brand hate, depending on the number of components of hate present. In order to better understand the different relations mentioned, the following model is presented.

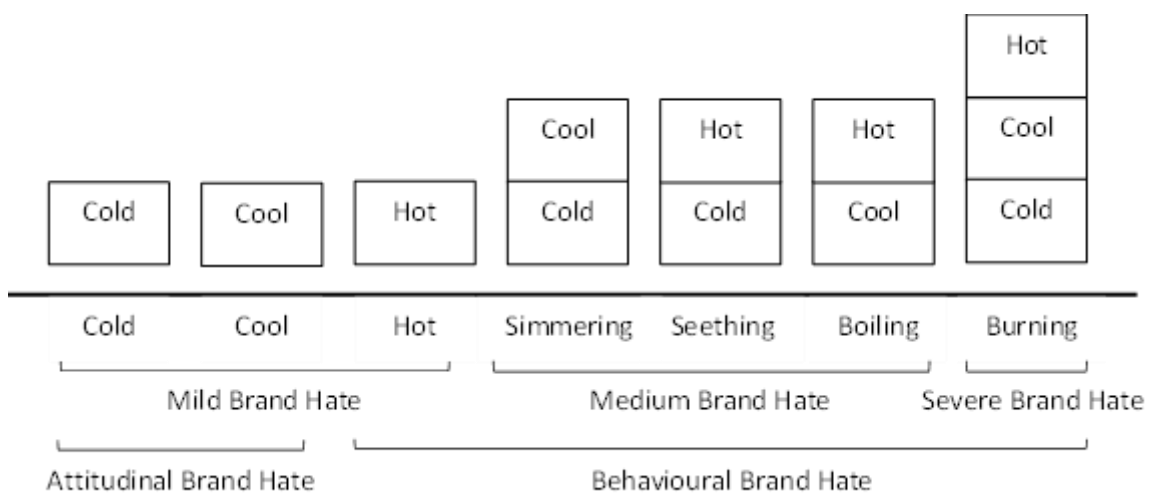


Figure 1 - Different types of hate. (Source: Adapted from Kucuk (2019, p.34))

Kucuk (2019) has thus defined brand hate as “consumer detachment and aversion from a brand and its value systems as a result of constantly happening brand injustices that leads to intense and deeply held negative consumer emotions” (p. 29), with said emotions being the ones presented by Sternberg (2003). According to the author, cold brand hate can be characterized as an almost passive hate, in which the consumer cuts ties with the brand, ignoring it and distancing himself from it and its universe (consumers, advertising, etc.), while cool brand hate refers to a more active, and somewhat aggressive hate, in which the consumer doesn’t only distance himself from the brand, but goes the extra length to do it, changing consumption patterns and feeling complete disgust with the brand in question (Kucuk, 2019c). In turn, hot brand hate refers to extreme negative feelings towards the brand, like extreme anger, that leads to the consumer feeling the need to defend himself from harm and to attack the brand, sometimes at his own expense (Fetscherin, 2019; Kucuk,

2019c). Such an attack can take the form of a public outcry, an attack on company property, or even an attack on the company's employees themselves (Kucuk, 2019c).

These types of brand hate were also observed by Fetscherin (2019) who, unlike Sternberg (2003) in psychology literature and Kucuk (2019) in marketing literature, postulated that there are only five types of brand hate, and not seven, having removed cold and seething hate from the equation. The author went on to link each type of hate to a particular outcome, which will be later addressed (Fetscherin, 2019).

All in all, one must comprehend the constant development of the brand hate construct, and its transition from a mere opposite of brand love, to a multidimensional and multi-layered construct, comprised of different emotions and components that, in different combinations, result in distinct types of hate (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2019c; Zarantonello et al., 2016; C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020).

2.2. Antecedents of brand hate

The current literature in the field of brand hate, and other negative feelings towards the brand, is filled with proposed antecedents (these can also be called "determinants" but, for the purpose of the current research, the term used will be the former) for said feelings (Hegner et al., 2017), thus the need to observe the wide array of hypothesised antecedents, in order to fully comprehend the nature of brand hate.

Many authors have identified different antecedents for brand hate, namely symbolic incongruity (Hegner et al., 2017; Pinto & Brandão, 2020; Rodrigues et al., 2020), brand inauthenticity (Rodrigues et al., 2020), negative past experience (Bryson et al., 2013; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2018b, 2019a; Pinto & Brandão, 2020; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016), country of origin (Bryson et al., 2013; Hegner et al., 2017), negative image of the brand's consumers (Bryson et al., 2013; Zarantonello et al., 2016), and lastly, ideological incompatibility (Bryson et al., 2013; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2018b, 2019a; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016).

In a straightforward manner, symbolic incongruity represents a discrepancy between the brands meanings, and the consumers self-concept (Rodrigues et al., 2020), resulting in an unpleasant image of the brand for the consumer (Hegner et al., 2017). In a somewhat similar way, brand inauthenticity also refers to a discrepancy or dissonance on the behalf of the consumer, that stems

from the consumer's perception of the brand as unauthentic (Rodrigues et al., 2020). According to Rodrigues et al. (2020), this can be the result "of manifestations of continuity (...), originality (...), reliability (...), naturalness (...), credibility (...), integrity (...) and symbolism" (sec. 2.1.3 Brand inauthenticity).

Regarding negative past experience, this is, together with ideological incompatibility, the most researched and well documented antecedent of intense negative feelings towards the brand (Bryson et al., 2013; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2018, 2019a; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016). This antecedent encompasses a variety of factors dealing with product failures and the brand not corresponding to expectations (Bryson et al., 2013; Hegner et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2020). The occurrence of a product failure leads, not only to a resent against the brand, but also to a complaint that, now more than ever, is a public one, instead of a private one, expressed only to the consumer's inner circle (Kucuk, 2018b). On the other hand, a product might not fail, in the literal sense, but can simply not fulfil the expectations the consumer has formed in regard to it, thus leading to negative disconfirmation and, ultimately, dissatisfaction (Hegner et al., 2017).

Another antecedent identified in literature refers to the product's country of origin, which can deter from purchasing a product, in case there is a certain level of hostility towards said country (Bryson et al., 2013). On the other hand, a negative image of the brand's consumers, just as the name indicates, refers to negative stereotypes that might be attributed to the typical consumers of a certain brand and, by extension, to anyone that might dare to use such a brand, thus discouraging its use (Bryson et al., 2013; Zarantonello et al., 2016).

2.2.1. Ideological incompatibility

Last of all, there's the antecedent known as ideological incompatibility, which is, as previously stated, one of the most researched antecedent of brand hate (Bryson et al., 2013; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2018, 2019a; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016). When one mentions ideological incompatibility, one refers to an incompatibility between the brand's values and ideology, and the ones of the consumer (Rodrigues et al., 2020) being that this mismatch can be "based on legal, social or moral corporate wrongdoing" (Hegner et al., 2017, p. 15), which will ultimately result in negative feelings towards the brand in question. Corporate greed (Kucuk, 2019a), bad treatment of employees (Kucuk, 2019a), deceptive communication (Hegner et al., 2017), all in all, any form corporate wrongdoing (Rodrigues et al., 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016),

can lead to a consumer being displeased, or angry, against the perpetrating brand. In fact, Rodrigues et al. (2020) asserted that “corporate wrongdoing is the second most recurrent reason for brand hate” (see section 2.1.2 about Ideological incompatibility).

In this sense, corporate social responsibility plays a large role in creating positive associations with the brand, in the minds of consumers, being that the nature of corporate social responsibility is “to profit the business and society” (Bryson et al., 2013, p. 399), thus improving the moral stance of the brand. In fact, Kucuk (2018) has acknowledged “that consumers are more likely to show extreme negative emotions and hate in two primary situations” (p. 556), one of those being the lack of corporate social responsibility.

In the specific case of smartphones, it has also been proven that ideological incompatibility can, in fact, lead to the development of hate towards the device, and to a need to avoid the damaging brand (Abid & Khattak, 2017). All things considered, brands need to focus on their performance, not only at a financial level, but also at a social, ethical and moral level, in order not to alienate its consumers, and to maintain positive relations with them.

2.3. Outcomes of brand hate

Alike what occurs in antecedents, outcomes are also heavily present in current literature, with many researchers proposing a multitude of them. Negative word-of-mouth (Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2019b; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Romani, Grappi, & Dalli, 2012; Zarantonello et al., 2016), willingness to punish brands (Rodrigues et al., 2020), brand avoidance (Hegner et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2020), negative brand engagement (Rodrigues et al., 2020), patronage reduction (Zarantonello et al., 2016), complaining (Fetscherin, 2019; Kucuk, 2019b; Romani et al., 2012; Zarantonello et al., 2016), protest (Zarantonello et al., 2016), brand retaliation (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017), consumer boycott (Kucuk, 2019b), and illegitimate and unethical consumer reactions (Kucuk, 2019b), brand switching (Fetscherin, 2019; Romani et al., 2012), are some of the examples of the variety of outcomes identified until now. Nevertheless, one fact worth mentioning is that several of these outcomes are, in fact, similar behaviours, or can be one of the behaviours included in another outcome. Brand retaliation serves as an example of this reality, being that it can be included in the sphere of the outcome “willingness to punish brands”, according to the depiction of Rodrigues et al. (2020), that describes this outcome as to include retaliation behaviours. Being that this investigation builds upon the previous study of Rodrigues et al. (2020),

the outcomes investigated will be negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance and negative brand engagement.

2.3.1. Negative word-of-mouth

In this sense, when one speaks about negative word-of-mouth, one refers to “the extent to which an individual speaks or writes poorly about a brand” (Hegner et al., 2017, p. 15). This phenomenon has long been proven to be a consequence of negative feelings towards a brand (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2019b; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016, 2018), possibly being described as a passive or indirect form of retaliation towards the hatred brand (Rodrigues et al., 2020). That being said, it is possible to break down this phenomenon into two different ones, specifically private complaining and public complaining (Hegner et al., 2017). Private complaining means that a consumer will voice his complaint to his inner circle, meaning close friends and family (Fetscherin, 2019), while public complaining is, as the name suggests, when the complaint is voiced towards the general public (Fetscherin, 2019), for example, through online posts and social media (Hegner et al., 2017), and while the former suggests a lack of effort on the part of the consumer, the latter implies a greater one (Broadbridge & Marshall, 1995). This comes to stress, yet again, the role that the Internet has played in the changing of consumer behaviour, with consumer complaints becoming increasingly public, due to the easiness and anonymity of it. (Kucuk, 2019b).

In regard to negative word-of-mouth, several authors have also identified its relationship with different types of brand hate (Fetscherin, 2019; Zarantonello et al., 2016, 2018; C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020). Zarantonello et al. (2016) discovered that negative word-of-mouth is especially higher in cases where the antecedent of brand hate was related with corporate wrongdoings, while in another study, assessed that the great majority of consumers that faced repeated product failures, also exhibited the same behaviour toward the brand (Zarantonello et al., 2018). On the other hand, Fetscherin (2019) postulated that private complaining is the result of simmering hate, while public complaining is a result of burning hate, which is, in part, aligned with what was theorized by Zhang & Laroche (2020), that negative word-of-mouth is observed after moderate brand hate (which includes simmering hate) and strong brand hate (burning hate). Nonetheless, it was discovered that this phenomenon was more prone to occur as a reaction to moderate brand hate, rather than strong brand hate (C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020). Lastly, Pinto & Brandão (2020) mention that “negative word-of-mouth has been found to be highly correlated with brand avoidance or even

with action similar to boycotting” (p. 21). In this sense, one must address the outcome related to the willingness to punish brands.

2.3.2. Willingness to punish brands

Sweetin et al. (2013) defines willingness to punish as “the consumer's motivational state to act negatively and penalize another entity that is caused by the consumer's perception that the entity's actions do not support the consumer's empowerment to affect movement toward his or her personal goals” (p. 1826). In a simpler way, willingness to punish brands can be conceptualized as a desire to punish, injure, retaliate, or otherwise harm a brand, due to its behaviour (Rodrigues et al., 2020). In this sense, one can argue that this construct encompasses concepts such as brand retaliation (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Pinto & Brandão, 2020), brand revenge (Fetscherin, 2019; Grégoire et al., 2009), boycotts (Kucuk, 2019b) and other types of punishments perpetrated by consumers against the hatred brand (Bryson & Atwal, 2019; Duman & Ozgen, 2018; Kucuk, 2019b).

The behaviours that consumers enact towards the brand, and the punishments they inflict to it, can vary, with some being a great deal harsher than a simple boycott (Kucuk, 2019b). Consumers who are profoundly wronged resort, a lot of times, to retaliate against the perpetrating brand, in order to fulfil their need to restore equity (Fetscherin, 2019). It is important to note that, while revenge and retaliation might be used interchangeably, they represent different concepts, with the former embodying a more “planned” and long-term attack, defined as “customers’ need to punish and cause harm to firms for the damages they have caused” (Grégoire et al., 2009, p. 19), while the latter being an impulsive and short-term behaviour, that can express itself through behaviours such as “complaints to brand’s employees, stealing from the brand or damaging the brand’s property” (Hegner et al., 2017, p. 15) (Fetscherin, 2019). Beyond this, Fetscherin (2019) distinguished the behaviours based on its financial nature, meaning that the consumer doesn’t want to restore equity, but simply wants to harm the brand, and is prepared to make financial sacrifices to see it through. Examples of this type of behaviour are the “willingness to pay postage to write the brand complaint letters or the registration and hosting fees for buying an anti-brand website” (Fetscherin, 2019, p. 119).

A willingness to punish the brand can arise due to a number of factors, like the lack of corporate social responsibility, or corporate social irresponsibility (Sweetin et al., 2013), or even the political

faction or ideology supported and advocated by the brand (Duman & Ozgen, 2018). Furthermore, it was observed that hot and seething hate are the types of brand hate more likely to cause outcomes of this nature, with boiling hate proving to be the cause of brand retaliation and financial sacrifices, while burning hate triggers brand revenge (Fetscherin, 2019).

2.3.3. Brand avoidance

Brand avoidance has been largely studied in the scope of brand hate and has been identified as an outcome of it by various researchers (Abid & Khattak, 2017; Bryson & Atwal, 2019; Bryson et al., 2013; Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2018; C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020). In fact, one can argue that brand avoidance predates the very concept of brand hate, in the marketing and branding literature (Grégoire et al., 2009; Lee, Conroy, & Motion, 2009; Lee, Motion, et al., 2009), being defined as “customers’ need to withdraw themselves from any interactions with firms” (Grégoire et al., 2009, p. 19), that is, “as a phenomenon whereby consumers deliberately choose to keep away from or reject a brand” (Lee, Conroy, et al., 2009, p. 422). Grégoire et al. (2009) argues that a consumer can exhibit two forms of behaviours, a “fight or flight” strategy, with the first representing behaviours like negative word-of-mouth and protest, and the second representing behaviours like avoidance. Therefore, one can comprehend that brand avoidance and related behaviours like patronage reduction or cessation, have a more passive nature, with some being triggered by cool hate (with disgust as the key emotion) (Grégoire et al., 2009; Hegner et al., 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016).

There are five types of brand avoidance, namely (1) experiential avoidance, regarding unmet expectations and undelivered promises concerning the product or service, (2) identity avoidance, involving unappealing promises, like inauthenticity or negative associations with the brand, (3) moral avoidance, concerning detrimental promises, in terms of the country of origin and anti-hegemony, (4) deficit-value avoidance, regarding inadequate promises, like an impossible trade-off, and, lastly, (5) advertising avoidance, concerning negative feelings towards the advertisements conducted by the brand (Knittel, Beurer, & Berndt, 2016; Lee, Conroy, et al., 2009; Lee, Motion, et al., 2009).

Intertwined with this concept, there’s the concept of brand switching, that can be considered as one form of brand avoidance (Fetscherin, 2019), in which the consumer not only avoids the brand,

but moves on to be a consumer of a competitor, in order to satisfy his needs and expectations (Abid & Khattak, 2017; Hegner et al., 2017).

2.3.4. Negative brand engagement

Lastly, negative brand engagement is the fourth outcome of brand hate postulated by Rodrigues et al. (2020), and can be defined as “a series of mental states and an iterative psychological process, which is catalysed by perceived threats (...) to self” (Juric, Smith, & Wilks, 2016, p. 285). This represents a largely marginalized subject of consumer behaviour literature, being that the bulk of research, alike of brand love/hate, focuses on the positive spectre of this phenomenon (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014; Naumann, Bowden, & Gabbott, 2020).

Brand engagement is comprised of three components, namely immersion (cognitive aspect), passion (emotional aspect) and activation (behavioural aspect) (Hollebeek, 2011), and is a result of six different triggers: (1) perceived brand/company actions, (2) perceived brand/quality performance, (3) perceived brand value (4) perceived brand innovativeness, (5) perceived brand/company responsiveness, and (6) perceived delivery of brand promise (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). From these, the first four relate to the component of immersion, whereas the last two relate to passion, being that the activation component is a result of immersion and passion, and can manifest through brand attitude, negative word-of-mouth (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014), brand switching, avoidance and revenge (Naumann et al., 2020).

In that sense, a consumer who is negatively engaged with a brand, will become its opponent and adversary, possibly exerting himself to cause harm to said brand (Naumann et al., 2020). In addition, Naumann et al. (2020) discovered that, unlike what occurs in a positively valenced consumer engagement, the involvement of the consumer with the brand is not relevant for the development of a negative engagement.

Chapter 3. Conceptual model development

3.1. Research hypotheses

This chapter deals with the research hypotheses and conceptual model. Thus, a theoretical justification for the research hypotheses is firstly presented, followed by the proposed conceptual model, based on said hypotheses.

3.1.1. Ideological incompatibility

Ideology can be defined as “a system of collectively held normative and reputedly factual ideas and beliefs and attitudes advocating a particular pattern of social relationships and arrangements” (Hamilton, 1987). Being that ideology represents a set of ideas, this concept is applicable to the universe of marketing and branding, seeing as brands represent a specific set of values (Maurya & Mishra, 2012). When said set of values and ideology clashes with the ones of the consumer, the phenomenon of ideological incompatibility occurs, as it is defined as a “mismatch between the consumer’s values and the brand ideology, in terms of societal, religious, political and morally unethical behaviour” (Rodrigues et al., 2020, sec. 2.1.2 Ideological incompatibility). This dissonance between the consumer and the brand, may occur when the consumer witnesses acts perpetrated by the brand, that go against their own beliefs, such as corporate greed (Kucuk, 2018b), misleading promotion and moral misconducts (Hegner et al., 2017), and abuse of employees (Kucuk, 2019a).

It is then possible to consider that brands must follow a moral conduct and account for their impact in society, through corporate social responsibility, in order not to alienate consumers (Kucuk, 2018b). It is largely proven in literature that consumers reward brands that conduct corporate social responsibility, while avoiding and punishing the ones who do not (Bryson et al., 2013; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2018b, 2019a; Lee, Motion, et al., 2009). This negative reaction on the part of the consumer may take the form of simply avoiding the brand (Abid & Khattak, 2017), or go to the extent of boycott (Bryson et al., 2013), public outcry and sabotage (Kucuk, 2019a). In fact, Kucuk (2019a) states that consumers whose brand hate stemmed from these factors experienced a “stronger and hotter brand hate than any other brand hate” (p. 57). Additionally, Sweetin et al. (2013) established that consumers who are victims of socially irresponsible brands are indeed more likely to punish said brands. Thus, it is proposed that:

H1: Ideological incompatibility has a positive relationship with brand hate

3.1.2. Negative word-of-mouth

Richins (1983) defines negative word-of-mouth “as the act of telling at least one friend or acquaintance about the dissatisfaction” (p. 71), a definition that is rather insufficient, being that excludes the consumers’ family. In this sense, the broader conceptualization offered by Hegner et al. (2017), that “negative word-of-mouth is the extent to which an individual speaks or writes poorly about a brand” (p. 15), is much more adequate. Comprised by two distinct components, negative word-of-mouth as a public and private aspect, in the form of private and public complaining (Fetscherin, 2019). While private complaining refers to a complaint addressed to the consumers’ inner circle, meaning friends and family (Broadbridge & Marshall, 1995; Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017), a public complaint is directed towards a larger audience and external entities, such as the retailer or manufacturer, and can make use of media outlets (Broadbridge & Marshall, 1995; Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017).

The literature shows that disgruntled and unsatisfied consumers can resort to negative word-of-mouth, in order to express their dissatisfaction, or hurt the brand in some way, and that can, in fact, harm the brand (Bryson et al., 2013; Charlett, Garland, & Marr, 1995; Sweetin et al., 2013; Zarantonello et al., 2016; C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020). Bryson et al. (2013) states that dissatisfaction can lead to behaviours like negative word-of-mouth and complaints, falling in line with Sweetin et al. (2013), that claims that, if a substantial percentage of the customer base is dissatisfied, that might hurt the brand from, amongst other things, negative word-of-mouth. Zarantonello et al. (2016) and Fetscherin (2019) have, in fact, proven that actions of negative word-of-mouth are triggered by brand hate, while the true impact of negative word-of-mouth remains unknown and is, in many circumstances, underestimated by managers (Charlett et al., 1995). Hence, it is hypothesized that:

H2: Brand hate has a positive relationship with negative word-of-mouth

3.1.3. Willingness to punish brands

In a comprehensive way, willingness to punish brands can be defined as “the consumer's motivational state to act negatively and penalize another entity that is caused by the consumer's

perception that the entity's actions do not support the consumer's empowerment to affect movement toward his or her personal goals" (Sweetin et al., 2013, p. 1826). As a matter of fact, this concept can be seen as an aggregation of various other outcomes postulated by different researchers, such as brand revenge (Fetscherin, 2019; Grégoire et al., 2009) and brand retaliation (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Pinto & Brandão, 2020). Psychologically, it was discovered that hate is a primer for one to seek revenge against the ones who caused harm (Sternberg, 2003). Grégoire et al. (2009) describes the desire for revenge "as customers' need to punish and cause harm to firms for the damages they have caused" (p. 19), which demonstrates the relationship between constructs. Actually, Fetscherin (2019) declares that the level of consumer hate can be determined by the degree of his willingness to cause harm to the brand in question.

The literature is filled with precedents on consumers' willingness to punish a hatred brand (Duman & Ozgen, 2018; Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2019b; Rodrigues et al., 2020), in order to "get even" and to restore the status quo (Fetscherin, 2019). Fetscherin (2019) discovered that a consumer motivated by anger has a greater will to punish the brand financially, as well as to take revenge and to retaliate against it. In a similar way, consumers who experience product/service failures or who are victims of some type of social irresponsible action of the brand, are likelier to want to harm the brand and to punish it for the damages caused (Kucuk, 2019c; Sweetin et al., 2013). This factor was confirmed by Hegner et al. (2017), that identified negative past experience as the key trigger of consumer retaliation. Bearing this in mind, it is postulated that:

H3: Brand hate has a positive relationship with willingness to punish brands

3.1.4. Brand avoidance

Brand avoidance can be conceptualized as "consumers turning their back to the specific brand and, therefore, avoiding the brand by either switching to a competitor or not consuming the brand at all" (Hegner et al., 2017, p. 15). Despite being a comprehensive definition, one must be careful and understand the difference between brand avoidance and brand switching, being that the former represents a deliberate rejection of a certain brand, whereas the latter might simply represent a change from one brand to another (Lee, Motion, et al., 2009). This desire for avoidance can thus be defined "as customers' need to withdraw themselves from any interactions with firms" (Grégoire et al., 2009, p. 19).

Consumers try to distance themselves from brands due to various reasons, either by being unsatisfied with the product (experiential avoidance), considering the brand unauthentic (identity avoidance), hating the country-of-origin (moral avoidance), presenting an unacceptable trade-off (deficit-value avoidance), or by hating its advertising (advertising avoidance) (Knittel et al., 2016; Lee, Conroy, et al., 2009).

Although prejudicial to brands, brand avoidance is considered a passive behaviour, in contrast with others considered more “aggressive”, the so called active ones, like brand retaliation (Hegner et al., 2017). At most, it can be considered a moderate reaction of brand hate (C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020). The justification for this fact, is that brand avoidance is a phenomenon primarily triggered by a cool type of hate, and not a hot one, which means that it is more motivated by disgust than by anger (Fetscherin, 2019). All in all, brand avoidance can be triggered by negative emotions (Abid & Khattak, 2017), such as brand hate (C. Zhang & Laroche, 2020), and can be a result of consumer dissatisfaction (Lee, Motion, et al., 2009). Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H4: Brand hate has a positive relationship with brand avoidance

3.1.5. Negative brand engagement

Brand engagement is defined as the “level of a consumer’s cognitive, emotional and behavioural investment in specific brand interactions” (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014, p. 62). This consumer engagement with a brand can have a positive or negative valence (Heinonen, 2018). Negative brand engagement can be triggered by a number of factors, being that anger (one of the central emotions of brand hate) is an emotion well present in the so called “affective dimension” of negative consumer engagement (Naumann et al., 2020). In fact, negative brand engagement shares some triggers with brand hate, like prior negative experience with the product/service (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2020).

The negatively engaged consumer is on track to become a brand adversary, being more prone to not only switching to another brand but also to cause harm to the hatred brand, to influence others to hate it (Naumann et al., 2020), and to distance himself from the brand all together (Heinonen, 2018). The literature shows that detached consumers might avoid and disengage with a brand, which partially supports the notion that consumers who experience brand hate can come to be negatively engaged with the brand (Rodrigues et al., 2020). Hence, it is proposed that:

H5: Brand hate has a positive relationship with negative brand engagement

3.1.6. Age

Psychology literature is rich in regard to the effect that age has on the emotions of individuals (Cota-McKinley, Woody, & Bell, 2001; Mroczek, 2001; Wachs & Wright, 2018), whereas marketing and branding literatures, although similarly rich, present some conflicting findings (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Japutra, Roy, & Pham, 2021; Varela-Neira, Vázquez-Casielles, & Iglesias, 2010; Y. Zhang, Zhang, & Sakulsinlapakorn, 2020; Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2015). It is proven that, as individuals get older, they experience emotions in an less deeply manner, due to a process known as emotional maturity (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019), meaning that emotions will shift from active to passive (e.g. excitement - serenity) (Ross & Mirowsky, 2008). The emotion of hate is no exception, having different meanings for individuals of different age groups (Japutra et al., 2021), being that negative affect decreases as individuals get older (Mroczek, 2001). These individuals are more equipped to adapt to different emotional situations, and to stay in a neutral state (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019). Despite that, older consumers are known to retain positive images more easily than negative ones (Japutra et al., 2021).

In terms of precedents in literature, it has been assessed that brand relation assumes a greater importance, in the case of consumers who are fifty years old or older, with identical results occurring in the case of consumers who are thirty years old or younger (Sikkel, 2013). Wachs & Wright (2018) discovered that age is related with posting online hate. Y. Zhang et al. (2020) found evidences that older consumers, when driven by negative emotions, may be more prone to retaliate against the hatred brand, compared to younger ones. Opposite to the findings regarding retaliation behaviours, Cota-McKinley et al. (2001) observed that older consumers are less likely to orchestrate a revenge against a brand, keeping in line with the notion that older consumers feel emotions less intensively (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019), and don't hold grudges against brands like younger ones do (Japutra et al., 2021). In a similar manner, Varela-Neira et al. (2010) uncovered evidences that consumers who are older, are less likely to exhibit negative emotions, after a product/service failure, while also moderating the relationship between the type of failure endured, and the negative emotions felt. Lastly, it was also found that consumers between the ages of 25 and 34 are indeed likelier to resort to public complaining, while older complainers prefer a more discreet, third party complaint (Broadbridge & Marshall, 1995).

Be that as it may, research on the effect of age in brand hate, its antecedents and outcomes is needed (Rodrigues et al., 2020). Thus, it is proposed that:

H6a: There are significant differences in ideological incompatibility, depending on age;

H6b: There are significant differences in brand hate, depending on age;

H6c: There are significant differences in negative word-of-mouth, depending on age;

H6d: There are significant differences in willingness to punish brands, depending on age;

H6e: There are significant differences in brand avoidance, depending on age;

H6f: There are significant differences in negative brand engagement, depending on age;

3.1.7. Culture

Although partially universal in nature, emotions are influenced by environmental context as well, leading to differences between cultures (Lim, 2016; Mesquita & Walker, 2003). Common values change from one culture to another, and emotions such as “hate and love are culturally and socially constructed” (Fetscherin, 2019, p. 125), with the emotional response being influenced by each culture, resulting in different levels of reinforcement of said response (Butler et al., 2007). As an example, Butler et al. (2007) found that women with European values, are less likely to suppress emotions on a daily basis, whereas women who share European and Asian values have a higher level of suppression. Each culture possesses a specific three-dimensional structure that classifies emotions on valence (positive-negative), potency (strong-weak) and activity (active-passive), with variables like ecological and socio-political context, being capable of influencing emotions and their expression (Hemert, Poortinga, & Vijver, 2007). Thus, it is understandable that a certain emotional expression is better perceived by members of the same group, rather than by members of different groups (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2003). Western cultures, in fact, view activity in a more positive way, when compared to Asian cultures, who seem to value serenity and passiveness (Ross & Mirowsky, 2008).

Despite cultural disparities, some argue that the valence of emotion is a rather universal fact, which can lead to the understanding that hate is considered as a negative emotion across cultures (Ross & Mirowsky, 2008). Many cultures seem to try their hardest to suppress negative emotions, being

considered socially unacceptable to show them (Kucuk, 2019d). Thus, hate can more often be observed in a passive form, and not in an active one (Kucuk, 2019d).

Hollebeek & Chen (2014) found that the culture to which the consumer belongs to, can wield some influence, in terms of online posts, in brand communities. As a matter of fact, culture can be one of the reasons behind the hate towards a brand, as it was shown by Bryson & Atwal (2019) in the case of Starbucks, where some consumers hated the brand, as they feared that it would dominate and threaten the French culture. Additionally, cultural background also affects the way consumers attribute blame to a brand, with members of an individualistic culture blaming the brand for a product failure, while members of a collectivist culture blame factors other than the brand, or even themselves (Y. Zhang et al., 2020; Zourrig et al., 2015). Furthermore, consumers who have a Hispanic-American background are much likelier to want revenge against a staff member than Anglo-American ones (Zourrig et al., 2015). Bearing this in mind, the following array of hypotheses is proposed:

H7a: There are significant differences in ideological incompatibility, depending on culture;

H7b: There are significant differences in brand hate, depending on culture;

H7c: There are significant differences in negative word-of-mouth, depending on culture;

H7d: There are significant differences in willingness to punish brands, depending on culture;

H7e: There are significant differences in brand avoidance, depending on culture;

H7f: There are significant differences in negative brand engagement, depending on culture;

3.1.8. Gender

Alongside with age, gender is one of the most fundamental criteria for market segmentation. There have been many attempts at explaining the differences in emotion between men and women, with authors citing biological, social and cultural factors as the cause of that discrepancy (Fischer et al., 2004). Even in terms of emotional maturity, there is much debate between researchers that study the emotional maturity of students, with no consensus between their results, being that, while some argue that female students are more emotionally mature, others find evidence that the more mature ones (Bhattacharjee, 2016). Despite the stereotypical idea that women are more emotional than men, it is largely proven that this does not correspond to reality (Shields, Garner, Leone, &

Hadley, 2006). In fact, men are known to experience more powerful emotions than women, whereas women exhibit more powerless ones than males (Fischer et al., 2004). In the case of hate, this means that men are more prone to emotions like anger, while women display emotions such as fear (Fischer et al., 2004).

The male gender is considered the more aggressive one, with that being translated into a proneness for vengeance (Cota-McKinley et al., 2001). On the other hand, Mroczek (2001) states that women have more negative affect than men. Furthermore, women are shown to experience more negative emotions than men, as well as more passive ones (e.g. sadness) (Ross & Mirowsky, 2008; Y. Zhang et al., 2020). Female consumers are, in fact, more likely to condemn a brand when a crisis with the product occurs, even when the responsibility for said crisis is not known (Y. Zhang et al., 2020). Additionally, Y. Zhang et al. (2020) prove that female consumers exhibit more intention to retaliate, when motivated by negative emotions, than their male counterparts. Nevertheless, it is interesting to observe that Broadbridge & Marshall (1995) identified men as the main public complainers, and women as the least complainers of all. On the “reverse side of the coin”, in terms of positive relations with the brand, it was also assessed that women, contrary to men, are likelier to convert their brand loyalty into actual equity for the brand (Nawaz, Jiang, Alam, & Nawaz, 2020).

Yet again, the effect of gender in brand hate, its antecedents, and its outcomes, has not been asserted in the marketing literature (Rodrigues et al., 2020). In this sense, it is hypothesized that:

H8a: There are significant differences in ideological incompatibility, depending on gender;

H8b: There are significant differences in brand hate, depending on gender;

H8c: There are significant differences in negative word-of-mouth, depending on gender;

H8d: There are significant differences in willingness to punish brands, depending on gender;

H8e: There are significant differences in brand avoidance, depending on gender;

H8f: There are significant differences in negative brand engagement, depending on gender;

3.2. Conceptual model

With the theoretical background assessed, as well as all of the research hypotheses formulated, one is able to construct a conceptual model, in order to obtain a visual representation of the research that is currently being conducted. All things considered, the conceptual model proposed

below (figure 2) is comprised of four distinct elements, namely (1) the key construct studied, (2) the antecedent and (3) outcomes analysed, and (4) the relationships between constructs, that are going to be tested. All in all, this study proposes to assess if ideological incompatibility leads to brand hate, and if this hate triggers any of the four outcomes.

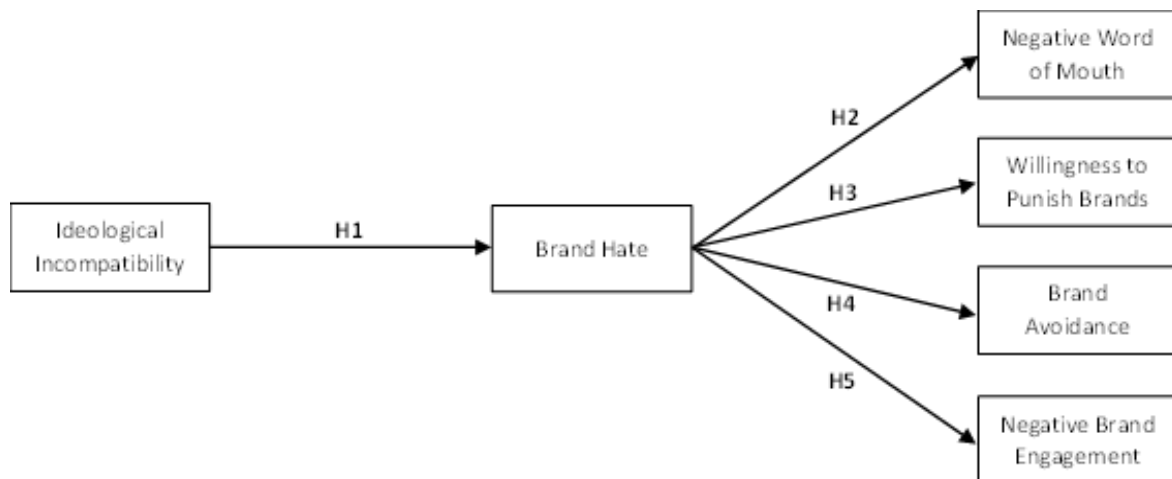


Figure 2 - Proposed conceptual model. (Source: Own elaboration)

Chapter 4. Methodology

4.1. Methodological approach

When one considers the methodological approach for one's research, one must ponder certain elements, such as research philosophy and paradigm. To ease the comprehension of these research concepts, it is necessary to comprehend the underlying philosophical notions. There are three types of research assumptions that are rooted in philosophy, namely ontology, axiology and epistemology. Ontology refers to "assumptions about the nature of reality" (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornbill, 2009, p. 133), while axiology deals with the role that the ethics and values of the researcher play in its investigation, with epistemology referring to the acceptability, validity and legitimacy of knowledge (Saunders et al., 2009).

That being said, there are five research philosophies, specifically positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism, that differ from one another due to their stance regarding the previously mentioned assumptions (Saunders et al., 2009). Positivism stand for impartial and objective knowledge, almost a form of empiricism, while critical realism believes that knowledge and reality are also independent from the researcher but are not directly available through observation alone (Ryan, 2018; Saunders et al., 2009). Interpretivism, on the other hand, is the opposite of positivism, believing in a socially constructed reality, meaning that the researcher is part of the observed reality, and the knowledge and reality are subjective (Saunders et al., 2009; Wahyuni, 2012). In contrast with these philosophies, postmodernism seeks to "question accepted ways of thinking and give voice to alternative marginalised views" (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 149), bestowing great importance in power relations. Lastly, pragmatism assumes a reconciling role between the extremes of philosophy (objectivism and subjectivism), believing that "concepts are only relevant where they support action" (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 151), and that the research question is the beacon that guides the research (Wahyuni, 2012).

In terms of research approach, there are three main types, namely deductive, inductive and abductive approach, with this last one serving as a reconciliation of the first two (Saunders et al., 2009). That being said, a deductive approach represents the process where a theory is hypothesized and subsequently tested, with the use of a structured methodology, in order to prove or disprove it, while trying to establishing relationships between different variables (Saunders et al., 2009). An inductive approach stands on the other end of the continuum, criticizing the idea of a "cause-effect link to be made between particular variables" (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 155) that is at the core of a deductive approach, defending the importance of the individual's interpretation of the world. Due

to this fact, an inductive approach makes use of a less structured methodology than deduction (Saunders et al., 2009). In the middle of the continuum stands abduction, combining the deductive and inductive approaches, being that Saunders et al. (2009) notes that “most management researchers in practice use at least some element of abduction” (p. 156).

Lastly, research methodology may have a quantitative, qualitative or mixed nature, with quantitative research being associated with numbers, and measuring relationships between variables in a numerical, and standardized fashion, while qualitative research is associated with words, thus taking in account the meaning that the participant attributes to reality and to his world (Saunders et al., 2009). As the name might suggest, a mixed method research combines qualitative and quantitative methods, thus being a multi method type of research (Saunders et al., 2009).

Now that all the different concepts have been clarified, it is possible to assert that the research in question follows a positivist philosophy, with a deductive approach, making use of a mono method quantitative methodology. This is supported by the fact that the research here described is built on top of pre-existing theories and knowledge, with the researcher maintaining an objective and distanced stance. This assumption is also supported by the fact that this research attempts to establish a causal and measurable relationship between the antecedents of brand hate, brand hate itself, and its outcomes. In order to obtain the data required for this research, a questionnaire survey is necessary, being that the questionnaire used was a highly structured one, with a previously tested and validated strict set of items. Being that this is the sole method of data collection, this research can be considered a mono method quantitative study, with the quantitative methodology being the preferred choice for a positivist deductive research (Wahyuni, 2012).

4.2. Data collection method: questionnaire survey

4.2.1. Questionnaire survey design

A questionnaire can be defined as “a formalised set of questions for obtaining information from participants” (Malhotra, Nunan, & Birks, 2017, p. 374), being that these questions are standardized and that it is a useful instrument to gather greater amounts of data (Hair, Page, & Brunsveld, 2020; Saunders et al., 2009). For the purpose of this research, the questionnaire survey used was a self-completion type of survey, meaning that the respondent must answer without assistance and that the researcher is not present while the respondent is filling the questionnaire, which leads to a lack of control by the investigator (Hair et al., 2020).

The questionnaire survey was constructed in Google Forms, as to facilitate its distribution, and was made available between April 9, 2021, and September 27, 2021. Being that the culture aspect is at play, there was a need to create an English and a Portuguese version. To guarantee the correct translation of items, a translation and a subsequent counter translation were made, with the help of a neutral third party.

In order to reach a broader audience, a number of digital channels and platforms were used to share said questionnaire. The bulk of respondents came from social media channels, namely Facebook and Instagram, being that groups with the specific intent to share academic questionnaires were also used. Parallel to the use of social media, there was the use of online questionnaire sharing platforms, such as *SurveySwap* and *SurveyCircle*, in order to not only reach a wider audience, but also to obtain a greater volume of international respondents, seeing as culture is an observed factor of this research.

The questionnaire survey is comprised of three components (excluding the consent form), starting with the demographic profiling of the respondent, followed by its ownership history and, lastly, the questions related to the studied constructs. In this sense, the respondents were questioned about their age, gender, nationality, literacy level, professional situation and income, enabling, not only the general characterization of the respondent, but also the retrieval of necessary data to observe the possible impact of age, gender and culture on the studied phenomena. Secondly, the respondents were presented with two questions about their present or past ownership of an Apple device, as well as their desire to acquire one. The last component of the questionnaire consists of questions related to the different constructs studied, namely brand hate, ideological incompatibility, negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance and negative brand engagement, being that the specific distribution of items per construct will be discussed further ahead. All in all, the questionnaire comprises a total of forty-five items, with a brief representation of the structured being presented below (table 1).

Table 1 - Brief questionnaire structure. (Source: Own elaboration)

Demographic profile	6 items	
Brand ownership	2 items	
Constructs	Brand hate	8 items
	Ideological incompatibility	4 items
	Negative word-of-mouth	5 items
	Willingness to punish brands	5 items
	Brand avoidance	5 items
	Negative brand engagement	10 items
Total		45 items

4.2.2. Scales and variable measurement

4.2.2.1. Brand hate

The measurement of the construct brand hate, was made possible with the use of the scale devised by Hegner et al. (2017) and Rodrigues et al. (2020), with the first six items corresponding to the former, and the last two items being the work of the latter.

Both authors developed Likert-type scales, from 1 to 5, where 1 corresponds to strongly disagree and 5 corresponds to strongly agree.

Table 2 - Brand hate items. (Source: Hegner et al. (2017); Rodrigues et al. (2020))

I am disgusted by Apple
I do not tolerate Apple and its company
The world would be a better place without Apple
I am totally angry about Apple
Apple is awful
I hate Apple
I can't tolerate Apple corporation
I don't tolerate Apple products

4.2.2.2. Ideological incompatibility

Regarding the ideological incompatibility phenomenon, the items and scales developed by Hegner et al. (2017) were used, with a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 5 equals “strongly agree”.

Table 3 - Ideological incompatibility items. (Source: Hegner et al. (2017))

In my opinion, Apple acts irresponsibly
In my opinion, Apple acts unethically
The company violates moral standards
The brand does not match my values and beliefs

4.2.2.3. Negative word-of-mouth

Negative word-of-mouth was measured using five items, also established by Hegner et al. (2017), and also with a Likert-type scale, from 1 to 5, where 1 corresponds to strongly disagree and 5 corresponds to strongly agree.

Table 4 - Negative word-of-mouth items. (Source: Hegner et al. (2017))

I spread negative word-of-mouth about Apple
I denigrated the brand to my friends
When my friends were looking for a similar service, I told them not to buy from Apple
I always tell my friends about my feelings towards this brand
I try to influence a lot of people in not purchasing this brand

4.2.2.4. Willingness to punish brands

The items related to the willingness to punish brands were the creation of Rodrigues et al. (2020), and resorted to a five point Likert-type scale, where 1=“strongly disagree” and 5=“strongly agree”.

Table 5 - Willingness to punish brands items. (Source: Rodrigues et al. (2020))

I intend not to buy Apple in the future to punish it
I will make an effort not to buy Apple in the future to punish it
I will not encourage my friends and relatives to buy Apple to punish it
I will not recommend Apple to others who seek my advice to punish it
I will complain to others if I experience a problem with Apple to punish it

4.2.2.5. Brand avoidance

The construct of brand avoidance was measured using the work of Hegner et al. (2017). The author developed a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 corresponds to strongly disagree and 5 corresponds to strongly agree.

Table 6 - Brand avoidance items. (Source: Hegner et al. (2017))

I don't purchase products of Apple anymore
I reject services/products of Apple
I refrain from buying Apple's products or using its services
I avoid buying the brands products/using its services
I do not use products or services of Apple

4.2.2.6. Negative brand engagement

Lastly, negative brand engagement was the construct with the greatest number of items used, being that these ten items were developed by Hollebeek, Glynn, & Brodie (2014). These items were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale, where 1 equals "strongly disagree" and 7 equals "strongly agree".

Table 7 - Negative brand engagement items. (Source: Hollebeek et al. (2014))

Using Apple gets me to think negatively about Apple
I think negatively about Apple a lot when I'm using it
Using Apple does not stimulate my interest in learning more about Apple
I feel very depressed when I use Apple
Using Apple makes me unhappy
I feel bad when I use Apple
I'm ashamed to use Apple
I don't spend a lot of time using Apple, compared to other technological brands
Whenever I'm using technological brands, I don't use Apple
Apple is not one of the brands that I usually use when I use technological brands

In order to facilitate the analysis of items, the table below (table 8) was formulated, comprising these thirty-seven items and their respective scales, as well as their authors.

Table 8 - Scales and variable measurements. (Source: Own elaboration)

Construct	Item	Scale	Source
Brand Hate	I am disgusted by Apple	Likert-type scale (1-5)	Hegner et al. (2017)
	I do not tolerate Apple and its company		
	The world would be a better place without Apple		
	I am totally angry about Apple		
	Apple is awful		
	I hate Apple		
	I do not tolerate Apple and its company		
	I can't tolerate Apple corporation		Rodrigues et al. (2020)
Ideological incompatibility	In my opinion, Apple acts irresponsibly	Likert-type scale (1-5)	Hegner et al. (2017)
	In my opinion, Apple acts unethically		
	The company violates moral standards		
	The brand does not match my values and beliefs		
Negative word-of-mouth	I spread negative word-of-mouth about Apple	Likert-type scale (1-5)	Hegner et al. (2017)
	I denigrated the brand to my friends		
	When my friends were looking for a similar service, I told them not to buy from Apple		
	I always tell my friends about my feelings towards this brand		
	I try to influence a lot of people in not purchasing this brand		
Willingness to punish brands	I intend not to buy Apple in the future to punish it	Likert-type scale (1-5)	Rodrigues et al. (2020)
	I will make an effort not to buy Apple in the future to punish it		
	I will not encourage my friends and relatives to buy Apple to punish it		
	I will not recommend Apple to others who seek my advice to punish it		
	I will complain to others if I experience a problem with Apple to punish it		
Brand avoidance	I don't purchase products of Apple anymore	Likert-type scale (1-5)	Hegner et al. (2017)
	I reject services/products of Apple		
	I refrain from buying Apple's products or using its services		
	I avoid buying the brands products/using its services		

	I do not use products or services of Apple		
	Using Apple gets me to think negatively about Apple		
	I think negatively about Apple a lot when I'm using it		
	Using Apple does not stimulate my interest in learning more about Apple		
	I feel very depressed when I use Apple		
Negative brand engagement	Using Apple makes me unhappy	Likert-type scale (1-7)	Hollebeek, Glynn, & Brodie (2014)
	I feel bad when I use Apple		
	I'm ashamed to use Apple		
	I don't spend a lot of time using Apple, compared to other technological brands		
	Whenever I'm using technological brands, I don't use Apple		
	Apple is not one of the brands that I usually use when I use technological brands		

4.2.3. Sample

When one formulates his research objectives, one needs to define the target population accordingly (Hair et al., 2020). This target population refers to the full set of elements that are relevant for the research, being that a sample is a portion, that should be representative, of said population (Hair et al., 2020; Saunders et al., 2009). For the purpose of this work, the target population has no geographical bounds, being that the culture variable is being observed. Seeing as age and gender are also part of the scope of research, the population is not limited to a determined gender or age group.

In terms of sampling, this research utilized a non-probabilistic self-selection sample, being that the questionnaire survey will be uploaded online and will only be answered voluntarily by willing individuals (Saunders et al., 2009). Moreover, the choice of a non-probabilistic sampling method is due to the impossibility to use a probabilistic one, owing to time and logistical constraints.

4.2.4. Pre-test

In order to safeguard the suitability of the questions proposed for the questionnaire survey, a pre-test was conducted. This took place between March 31, 2021, and April 7, 2021, and, in that time, twenty participants responded to said questionnaire. Pre-testing a questionnaire is of the utmost importance, not only to guarantee the validity and reliability of scales, but also to avoid any type of misinterpretation in terms of words and sentences, as well as lack of comprehension by the respondent (Collins, 2003).

With that in mind, an open question was presented in the pre-test version of the questionnaire, that allowed respondents to express their concerns regarding the questions, and to suggest any improvement that they would consider suitable. Despite this, no improvement was suggested, nor any type of concern was raised, and, thus, the questionnaire proceeded to the application phase.

4.3. Data analysis methods

Regarding the methods used to analyse the gathered data, it is a four-step approach. First and foremost, it is necessary to proceed with a statistical analysis, followed by a reliability analysis, which, in turn, is followed by homogeneity of variance and ANOVA tests. Ultimately, this will all culminate on a structure equation modelling (SEM). This analysis will be conducted using two software, namely IBM SPSS 28 for the statistical and reliability analysis, as well as homogeneity of variance and ANOVA tests, and IBM SPSS Amos 27 for the structural equation modelling.

Statistical analysis comprises two branches of research, namely descriptive statistics and inductive statistics, with the former studying non-uniform characteristics of observed units, like people and cities, while the latter allows the generalization of certain conclusions, based on observed and experimented elements (Pestana & Gageiro, 2014). With that being said, the first measurements to be used are going to be mean, median, mode, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

In a straightforward manner, mean, median and mode represent the so-called measures of central tendency, but despite looking like similar measurements, they characterize different things: (1) mean represents the totality of observations, divided by the number of said observations; (2) median represents the central value, with the specificity that the observations must be arranged by order of greatness; and (3) mode represents the value that is most frequently observed (Gupta, 2014). Standard deviation, on the other hand, is not a measurement of central tendency, but of

dispersion, measuring the variability of values, when compared to the mean (Hair et al., 2020). Lastly, in order to know if the distribution of data is normally distributed, or not, one must observe the values of skewness and kurtosis, and, while skewness is utilized in asymmetrical distributions, kurtosis is used in symmetrical ones (Đorić, Nikolić-Đorić, Jevremović, & Mališić, 2009).

After the statistical analysis, one must assert the validity and reliability of the scales used, thus the need for a reliability analysis. In a simplistic manner, reliability can be defined as “the ability of the questionnaire to consistently measure the topic under study at different times and across different populations” (Hinton, McMurray, & Brownlow, 2014, p. 351). For this purpose, Cronbach’s alpha, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) were measured.

Cronbach’s alpha, also referred to as coefficient alpha, measures the internal consistency of a scale, being based on the number of items, as well the as average correlation between them (Hinton et al., 2014). It is based on a scale from 0 to 1, with ideal values being closer to 1, while values below 0,7 are deemed unacceptable (researchers differ in opinion regarding the acceptance value, which can range from 0,6 to 0,8) (Hinton et al., 2014; Ursachi, Horodnic, & Zait, 2015). Pestana & Gageiro (2014), for example, consider 0,6 as the cut-off point, presenting a more detailed characterization of values (table 9).

Table 9 - Cronbach's alpha intervals. (Source: Pestana & Gageiro (2014))

Inadmissible	< 0,6
Weak	0,6 – 0,7
Reasonable	0,7 – 0,8
Good	0,8 – 0,9
Very good	> 0,9

On the other hand, composite reliability deals, according to Malhotra et al. (2017), with “the total amount of true score variation in relation to the total score variance” (p. 798), embodying the classical idea of reliability. The cut-off point of this measure is situated between 0,6 or 0,7, according to different authors (Valentini & Damásio, 2016). Lastly, the average variance extracted refers to the variance that exists in variables and that can be explained by the underlying construct, with a cut-off point of 0,5, with lesser values being considered insufficient (Valentini & Damásio, 2016).

Following the results of the reliability analysis, one proceeds with the so-called homogeneity of variances test and the ANOVA test. In regard to the homogeneity of variance test, one must observe the p-value, being that, if this value is $< 0,05$, there is the assumption of heterogeneity of means and one can proceed to run an ANOVA test to confirm that finding. ANOVA stands for Analysis of Variance, being one of the most used statistical methods (Kim, 2017). Larson (2008) describes ANOVA as a way to “analyse variation in a response variable (continuous random variable) measured under conditions defined by discrete factors (classification variables, often with nominal levels)” (p. 115), being that this method is used when three or more groups are at play (Kim, 2017). In short, ANOVA deals with two hypotheses: on one hand, the null hypothesis that all means are identical; and on another hand, the alternative hypothesis that, at least, one of said means presents significant differences from the others (Larson, 2008). These hypotheses are either confirmed or rejected depending on p-value, with significant values of $< 0,05$, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Lastly, one can advance to the final step of data analysis, the structure equation modelling, commonly abbreviated as SEM. SEM is defined as a generalized technique, used to test the validity of theoretical models that define causal and hypothetic relations between variables (Marôco, 2010). This technique is, in its core, a combination of factor analysis and liner regression, going beyond the simple sum of this techniques, by explicitly considering the errors associated with variables (Marôco, 2010). Furthermore, SEM, contrary to classic statistics, formulates the model and then gathers the data to prove or disprove it, while statistic gather data first and then elaborates a model accordingly (Marôco, 2010). Bearing this in mind, this research will primarily use four measurements related to SEM, namely chi-square divided by degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Parsimony Comparative Fit Index (PCFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The different value intervals of these measurements are detailed below (table 11).

Table 10 - Value intervals for SEM model fit measurements. (Source: Marôco (2010, 2021))

CMIN/DF	Bad fit	> 5
	Acceptable fit	> 2 – 5
	Good fit	> 1 – 2
	Very good fit	1
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Bad fit	< 0,9
	Good fit	0,9 – 0,95
	Very good fit	> 0,95
	Perfect fit	1
Parsimony Comparative Fit Index (PCFI)	Bad fit	≤ 0,6
	Reasonable fit	> 0,6 – 0,8
	Good fit	> 0,8
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	Inappropriate fit	> 0,1
	Mediocre fit	0,1 – 0,08
	Good fit	< 0,08 – 0,05
	Very good fit	< 0,05

Chi-square refers to a statistic used to observe the discrepancy between the gathered data and the previously proposed model, thus the desire for the smallest value possible, for it will mean that the data is aligned with the model (Malhotra et al., 2017). In the case of CMIN/DF, unlike chi-square, it penalizes complex models (Marôco, 2021), which can lead to a good fit in one of the measurements and a bad fit in the other. Regarding the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), it measures the fit of the model, compared to another baseline model with non-related variables, working well with smaller samples, while Parsimony Comparative Fit Index (PCFI), as previously stated, takes in account model complexity (Malhotra et al., 2017; Marôco, 2010). Lastly, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), according to Malhotra et al. (2017), “examines the difference between the actual and the predicted covariance” (p. 807), being one of the most commonly used measurements, as well as one of the least affected by sample size.

Chapter 5. Results

5.1. Sample description

The sample gathered for this investigation was comprised of 325 individuals, being that three of those were considered unacceptable for analysis, thus bringing the total number down to 322 individuals. The demographic profile was created considering six factors, namely age, gender, nationality, literacy level, professional situation and income. In addition, two other questions were formulated, related with the current or previous ownership of an Apple device (“Do you own or have you ever owned an Apple equipment?”) and with the desire to possess one (“Do you wish to own an Apple equipment?”).

Firstly, in terms of age, it presented a range of 52 years, with the youngest respondent being 15 years old and the oldest one being 67 years old. Nevertheless, the mean age of individuals was 28 years, with the median age being 24 years. Such a concentration of respondents in the younger age groups might be attributed to the fact that this questionnaire survey was distributed online, specifically through social media channels, which have a predominantly younger audience.

In second place, the majority of the sample identifies with the female gender, with 198 individuals choosing that option, against 122 males and 2 individuals that preferred to not specify their gender. In terms of percentage, 61,5% are females, 37,9% are males and 0,6% prefer not to say.

Regarding nationality, the studied sample was a rather eclectic one, with a total of 44 nationalities being represented, ranging from American, all the way to Yemeni. As expected, the majority of respondents were of Portuguese nationality (51,6%), with British (7,5%), Brazilian (6,5%), Dutch (4,3%) and American (3,1%) having a significant representation. On the contrary, there were 17 nationalities with only one response, such as Czech, Jordanian and South African. One must note that three individuals considered themselves as “white British”, and that those were simply considered as British, being that the scope of the question was the nationality of individuals and not their ethnicity.

In fourth place, the majority of individuals possess a higher degree, being that 43,2% obtained a bachelor’s degree, 27,6% a master’s degree and 5,9% a PhD. In this sense, it is possible to observe that the remainder of the sample has a lower literacy degree, having completed either secondary school (22,4%) or 9th grade (0,9%). This discrepancy can, probably, be justified by the individuals’ age, being that, as it was previously stated, the bulk of respondents belonged to younger age groups, which have a higher literacy rate than older ones.

In terms of professional situation, individuals categorized themselves in six groups, namely unemployed, full-time student, self-employed, employed, working student and retired. As it was also expected, the majority of individuals are students, either full-time (37,9%) or working students (20,5%). Many individuals are also employed (29,8%), with fewer being self-employed (6,8%). In the studied sample, only 14 (4,3%) respondents were unemployed and 2 (0,6%) were retired.

In regard to the income received by each respondent, more than 60% (60,2%) of individuals have indicated that their income is lower than 1000€, in contrast with a minority that receives more than 3000€ (5%). The remainder of the sample is distributed between those who earn between 1001€ and 2000€ (26,7%), and those who earn between 2001€ and 3000€ (8,1%).

Lastly, in terms of current or past ownership of an Apple equipment, as well as the desire to own one, 61,7% of individuals have revealed that they own an equipment of Apple, while 58,4% express the desire to own one, in contrast with 41,6% that do not wish to own such a device.

In sum, one might argue that a representative persona of this sample would be a 23-year-old female student, of Portuguese nationality, with a bachelor's degree and an income lower than 1000€, that possess an Apple equipment and actually desires to have it. In order to better understand the characterization of the sample, a detailed table demonstrating the specific values of each characteristic can be found in annexes (annex 1).

5.2. Descriptive analysis

5.2.1. Brand hate

In order to study the construct of brand hate, eight variables were chosen and incorporated on the questionnaire survey. In each variable, there were respondents whose opinions were situated in both extremes, meaning that were some individuals who strongly agreed or disagreed with the statement. These eight variables all had a mean situated on the value "1", ranging from 1,56 to 1,94. With this knowledge, one can assess that respondents disagree with the statements that were proposed, being that the mean is situated between 1 = "strongly disagree" and 2 = "disagree". In terms of standard deviation, 1,235 was the highest value, while 0,920 was the lowest, meaning that the responses presented some deviation from the mean. Variance, on the other hand, presents values ranging from 0,846 to 1,526, meaning that the actual results were somewhat different from the expected ones. In terms of skewness, this construct presents a mean value of 1,372, which

means that the answers are highly skewed (> 1) (Kallner, 2017). Lastly, in terms of kurtosis, BH_1 is the only variable that has a negative value (- 0,193), meaning that the distribution of answers is not as concentrated as in other seven variables. In the case of variables BH_6 and BH_8, this concentration is especially high, when compared to others.

Table 11 - Descriptive analysis of brand hate. (Source: Own elaboration)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
BH_1	1	5	1,94	1,235	1,526	1,041	- 0,193
BH_2	1	5	1,87	1,162	1,350	1,198	0,388
BH_3	1	5	1,89	1,155	1,333	1,136	0,210
BH_4	1	5	1,78	1,123	1,261	1,406	1,054
BH_5	1	5	1,75	1,055	1,113	1,357	1,063
BH_6	1	5	1,56	0,920	0,846	1,745	2,466
BH_7	1	5	1,74	1,117	1,248	1,426	0,958
BH_8	1	5	1,64	1,068	1,141	1,669	1,792

5.2.2. Ideological incompatibility

The construct of ideological incompatibility was composed of four variables, each with responses in both ends of the spectrum. In terms of mean, the highest value was of 2,34 and the lowest was of 2,09, thus meaning that, in general, individuals disagree with the proposed statements regarding ideological incompatibility. The values of standard deviation had a mean of 1,254, indicating a certain degree of deviation from the mean results, akin to the values of variance, with a mean of 1,574, implying a disparity between the obtained results and the expected ones. Last of all, skewness and kurtosis present mean values of 0,712 and - 0,580, respectively, meaning that results are slightly skewed and less concentrated than normal.

Table 12 - Descriptive analysis of ideological incompatibility. (Source: Own elaboration)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
II_1	1	5	2,09	1,191	1,419	0,855	- 0,247
II_2	1	5	2,21	1,287	1,656	0,677	- 0,734
II_3	1	5	2,17	1,215	1,475	0,718	- 0,510
II_4	1	5	2,34	1,321	1,745	0,598	- 0,830

5.2.3. Negative word-of-mouth

Negative word-of-mouth was investigated through five different variables, each with answers ranging from 1 to 5, and with means ranging from 1,62 to 2,30. Similarly to what occurs with previous constructs, respondents disagree, or even strongly disagree, with the proposed statements, meaning that, the majority of respondents strongly disagree with affirmations that they spread negative word-of-mouth about Apple or that they denigrate the brand to their friends, to name a few examples. On the other hand, the value of standard deviation has a mean value of 1,189, which is somewhat similar to previous values. In addition, and as one might expect, due to the relationship between standard deviation and variance, the latter doesn't differ greatly from results already presented, with a mean value of 1,43. Regarding skewness, values range from 0,498 to 1,529, with NWOM_4 tending to be symmetrical, since it as a value inferior to 0,5 (Kallner, 2017).

Table 13 - Descriptive analysis of negative word-of-mouth. (Source: Own elaboration)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
NWOM_1	1	5	1,71	1,150	1,323	1,529	1,186
NWOM_2	1	5	1,73	1,163	1,352	1,469	1,013
NWOM_3	1	5	1,97	1,317	1,734	1,043	- 0,321
NWOM_4	1	5	2,30	1,330	1,770	0,498	- 1,116
NWOM_5	1	5	1,62	0,985	0,971	1,519	1,309

5.2.4. Willingness to punish brands

In order to understand the phenomenon designated as “willingness to punish brands”, five variables were used. These variables all had a rather similar mean, with the exception of the variable WPB_5, which had a slightly higher mean value (1,94). Likewise, the values of standard deviation were all consistent, varying just 0,041. Regarding variance, the results differed from the expected ones in a relatively similar way. Lastly, all of the variables of this construct have highly skewed results, with a slightly higher concentration than normal, with the exception of WPB_5, which has an almost normal concentration.

Table 14 - Descriptive analysis of willingness to punish brands. (Source: Own elaboration)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
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WPB_1	1	5	1,78	1,245	1,549	1,419	0,643
WPB_2	1	5	1,80	1,236	1,528	1,382	0,586
WPB_3	1	5	1,79	1,204	1,449	1,377	0,727
WPB_4	1	5	1,79	1,215	1,476	1,398	0,686
WPB_5	1	5	1,94	1,228	1,507	1,068	- 0,045

5.2.5. Brand avoidance

In order to investigate the construct of brand avoidance, five variables were used, each with answers ranging from 1 to 5, with the mean answer of all variables being approximately 2. Thus, one can conclude that, like in many previous variables, individuals tend to disagree. The values of standard variation ranged between 1,341 and 1,684 and variance ranged between 1,799 and 2,835. In this sense, there was some deviation from the mean value and, in the case of variable BA_5, there was a rather significant disparity between the expected results and the actual ones. In terms of skewness, BA_1 and BA_2 are highly skewed, with the rest of the variables being moderately skewed. On the other hand, the values of kurtosis are all negative, ranging from - 1,444 to - 0,478, with kurtosis then being considered platykurtic (> 0) (Kallner, 2017).

Table 15 - Descriptive analysis of brand avoidance. (Source: Own elaboration)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
BA_1	1	5	2,04	1,417	2,008	1,006	- 0,478
BA_2	1	5	1,96	1,341	1,799	1,136	- 0,091
BA_3	1	5	2,20	1,491	2,224	0,790	- 0,959
BA_4	1	5	2,24	1,529	2,338	0,744	- 1,078
BA_5	1	5	2,46	1,684	2,835	0,551	- 1,444

5.2.6. Negative brand engagement

Lastly, the construct of negative brand engagement was the construct with the most variables to observe, with a total of ten. Right the start, one needs to note that this construct was the only one to possess a 7-point scale, instead of a 5-point one, meaning that the mean values, for example, mustn't be interpreted in the exact same way as in previous scales. That being said, the lowest mean value was 1,72 and the highest was 3,58, meaning that individuals are rather neutral when it comes to the question of Apple not being one of the brands that they usually use when they use

technological brands. In addition, consumers were also rather neutral, though slightly negative, towards the idea of not spending lots of time using Apple, when compared to other brands, or the idea of not using Apple, when they use technological brands. In terms of standard deviation, the values ranged from 1,332 to 2,558, thus showing a bigger deviation compared to mean value. The same might be said in terms of variance, with results such as 6,234 and 6,544, for NBE_8 and NBE_10, respectively. With this knowledge, one can assert with certainty that the obtained results vary considerably from the expected ones. Regarding skewness, there is also a wide range of values, with NBE_8 and NBE_10 being approximately symmetrical, NBE_3 and NBE_9 being moderately skewed and the rest having a high level of skewness. Last of all, kurtosis varies from - 1,667, all the way to 4,070, which means that we have cases of increased kurtosis, or leptokurtic (NBE_1, NBE_2, NBE_4, NBE_5, NBE_6, and NBE_7), and cases of decreased kurtosis, or platykurtic (NBE_3, NBE_8, NBE_9, and NBE_10).

Table 16 - Descriptive analysis of negative brand engagement. (Source: Own elaboration)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
NBE_1	1	7	2,11	1,712	2,932	1,523	1,220
NBE_2	1	7	2,04	1,574	2,478	1,553	1,554
NBE_3	1	7	2,75	2,050	4,203	0,808	- 0,786
NBE_4	1	7	1,72	1,332	1,773	2,106	4,070
NBE_5	1	7	1,83	1,417	2,007	1,865	2,851
NBE_6	1	7	1,86	1,439	2,071	1,762	2,349
NBE_7	1	7	1,78	1,437	2,065	1,946	2,942
NBE_8	1	7	3,23	2,497	6,234	0,494	- 1,503
NBE_9	1	7	3,22	2,447	5,985	0,534	- 1,415
NBE_10	1	7	3,58	2,558	6,544	0,290	- 1,667

5.3. Scale reliability analysis

In order to attest the validity of the results, one must proceed with an analysis to verify the reliability of the scales that were used in the study. In terms of standardized coefficient, all of the variables scored above 0,6, with the exception of two, namely NWOM_4 and NBE_10, which were discarded in order to safeguard the integrity of the remaining scales.

That being said, it was necessary to observe Cronbach's alpha, that is, a measurement of internal consistency of scales. All things considered, and based on the values presented in the methodology

chapter, it is possible to observe that all of the constructs, not only score higher than the cut-off point of 0,6, but are actually considered very good.

The following measurement to be observed was the average variance extracted, which had values ranging from 0,60, in the case of negative brand engagement, to 0,81 regarding the willingness to punish brands. Taking in account what was previously stated, all of these values are deemed sufficient for analysis, being that they are higher than 0,5, which is considered as the cut-off point of this measurement.

Lastly, one needed to observe the composite reliability of the scales that were used. In regard to this measurement, all of the scales presented values far beyond the values needed for them to be considered reliable. Specifically, a scale needs to possess a reliability higher than 0,6 or 0,7 (varying from author to author) to be deemed reliable, being that, in this particular case, all of the scales have a value of 0,93 or higher.

Table 17 - Reliability and validity values. (Source: Own elaboration)

Constructs and variables		Standardized coefficient	Cronbach's alpha	AVE	CR
Ideological incompatibility	II_1	0,877	0,929	0,77	0,94
	II_2	0,925			
	II_3	0,898			
	II_4	0,819			
Brand hate	BH_1	0,828	0,960	0,75	0,96
	BH_2	0,882			
	BH_3	0,883			
	BH_4	0,871			
	BH_5	0,807			
	BH_6	0,843			
	BH_7	0,882			
	BH_8	0,908			
Negative word-of-mouth	NWOM_1	0,935	0,918	0,74	0,93
	NWOM_2	0,918			
	NWOM_3	0,768			
	NWOM_5	0,808			
Willingness to punish brands	WPB_1	0,966	0,958	0,81	0,96
	WPB_2	0,974			
	WPB_3	0,854			

	WPB_4	0,917			
	WPB_5	0,757			
	BA_1	0,865			
	BA_2	0,884			
Brand avoidance	BA_3	0,956	0,946	0,79	0,95
	BA_4	0,949			
	BA_5	0,778			
	NBE_1	0,896			
	NBE_2	0,897			
	NBE_3	0,737			
	NBE_4	0,847			
Negative brand engagement	NBE_5	0,834	0,928	0,60	0,96
	NBE_6	0,870			
	NBE_7	0,813			
	NBE_8	0,588			
	NBE_9	0,644			

5.4. Structure equation modelling

A number of measurements were tested and observed in order to access the fit of the proposed model, those being p-value, CMIN/DF, CFI, PCFI and RMSEA.

The first value that was observed was the p-value, which was approximately 0, meaning that is statistically significant. Secondly, it was necessary to examine the measurement CMIN/DF, that represents chi-square divided by degrees of freedom. This measurement is known to penalize complex models and it is rather sensitive to sample size. That being said, the model obtained a value of 3,779, which is deemed acceptable, since it scored lower than 5. Regarding the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the results show a value of 0,897, which is considered a bad fit, according to the reference values presented in the methodology chapter. Nevertheless, one must note that, despite being technically considered a bad fit, the attained value is almost 0,9, and thus, extremely close to being considered a good fit. On the contrary, when it comes to the Parsimony Comparative Fit Index (PCFI), the value of 0,820 is considered a good fit, being higher than 0,8. Lastly, in when it comes to RMSEA, this model is also considered to have a mediocre fit, being that it is in the reference interval of 0,1 – 0,08. However, it is necessary to clarify that, despite being considered a mediocre fit, it is by no means unacceptable, being that it is a lower value than 0,1.

Table 18 - Structural model measurement values. (Source: Own elaboration)

Measurements	Structural model values
p-value	0,000
CMIN/DF	3,779
CFI	0,897
PCFI	0,820
RMSEA	0,093

Through the observation of the model below (figure 3), one can realize that all of the tested hypotheses were confirmed. Through a closer look, one can see that every p-value is approximately 0, meaning that it is statistically significant, while β is positive in all of the variables. Thus, it is possible to infer that ideological incompatibility has a positive effect on brand hate, in the same way that brand hate has a positive effect on negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance, and especially negative brand engagement. In sum, one can acknowledge that H1, H2, H3, H4, and H5 are accepted.

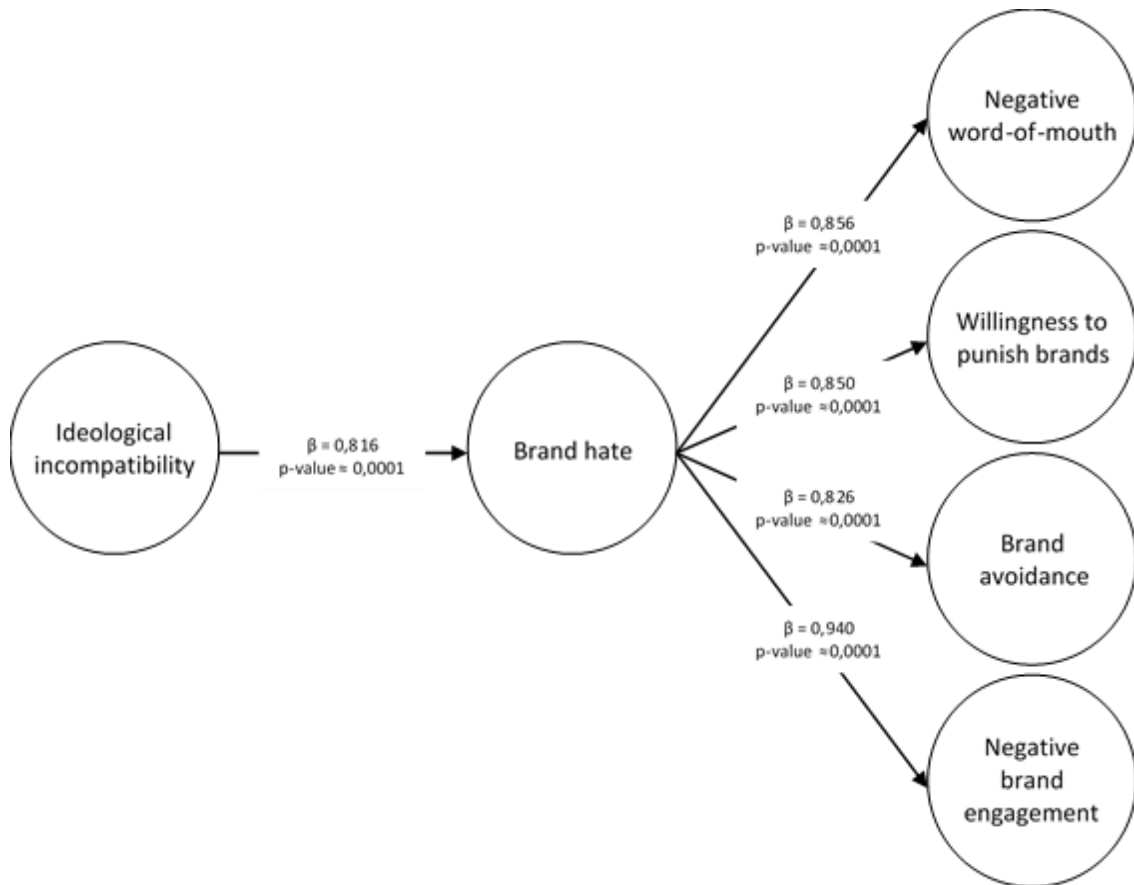


Figure 3 - Conceptual model of research hypothesis with β and p -values. (Source: Own elaboration)

5.5. Homogeneity of variances and ANOVA test

5.5.1. Age

The first test that was conducted focused on age as a possible source of differences in the studied constructs. After said tests, it is possible to observe that some variables have shown differences depending on the age of the respondent, namely variable NWOM_5 in negative word-of-mouth, WPB_4 in willingness to punish brands, and NBE_4, NBE_5, NBE_6 and NBE_7 in negative brand engagement. That being said, it is possible to deduce that brand hate, ideological incompatibility and brand avoidance don't present significant differences, depending on the age, while negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish brands show minor influence of age. On the other hand, negative brand engagement shows significant differences, in terms of age, with almost half of the variables showing signs of it.

Table 19 - ANOVA results regarding age. (Source: Own elaboration)

Constructs and variables	Homogeneity test	ANOVA	
Brand hate	BH_1	0,111	0,304
	BH_2	0,075	0,355
	BH_3	0,022	0,241
	BH_4	0,025	0,315
	BH_5	0,001	0,476
	BH_6	< 0,001	0,403
	BH_7	< 0,001	0,317
	BH_8	< 0,001	0,164
Ideological incompatibility	II_1	< 0,001	0,423
	II_2	0,001	0,541
	II_3	0,042	0,804
	II_4	0,456	0,830
Negative word-of-mouth	NWOM_1	< 0,001	0,566
	NWOM_2	0,002	0,268
	NWOM_3	0,027	0,795
	NWOM_5	< 0,001	0,026
Willingness to punish brands	WPB_1	< 0,001	0,122
	WPB_2	< 0,001	0,173
	WPB_3	< 0,001	0,078
	WPB_4	< 0,001	0,038
	WPB_5	0,109	0,522
Brand avoidance	BA_1	0,160	0,594
	BA_2	0,121	0,739
	BA_3	0,029	0,191
	BA_4	0,149	0,507
	BA_5	0,003	0,261
Negative brand engagement	NBE_1	0,001	0,238
	NBE_2	0,005	0,327
	NBE_3	0,081	0,697
	NBE_4	< 0,001	0,011
	NBE_5	< 0,001	0,025
	NBE_6	< 0,001	0,030
	NBE_7	< 0,001	< 0,001

	NBE_8	< 0,001	0,385
	NBE_9	0,105	0,331

5.5.2. Culture

The second source of differences to be studied was culture, with individuals' nationality serving as the means to test that influence. Through the conducted tests, one was able to observe that 18 variables show differences depending on age, with all of the constructs having at least two impacted variables. By analysing the table below, it is possible to assess that brand hate and willingness to punish brands are the constructs with most said variables (in proportion with their total number of variables), with ideological incompatibility and negative word-of-mouth coming in a close second.

Table 20 - ANOVA results regarding culture. (Source: Own elaboration)

Constructs and variables		Homogeneity test	ANOVA
Brand hate	BH_1	0,047	0,312
	BH_2	< 0,001	0,089
	BH_3	< 0,001	0,016
	BH_4	< 0,001	0,001
	BH_5	< 0,001	0,002
	BH_6	< 0,001	0,078
	BH_7	< 0,001	< 0,001
	BH_8	< 0,001	< 0,001
Ideological incompatibility	II_1	0,015	0,004
	II_2	0,007	0,005
	II_3	0,081	0,005
	II_4	0,054	0,031
Negative word-of-mouth	NWOM_1	< 0,001	0,005
	NWOM_2	< 0,001	0,002
	NWOM_3	< 0,001	0,052
	NWOM_5	0,020	0,360
Willingness to punish brands	WPB_1	< 0,001	0,083
	WPB_2	< 0,001	0,112
	WPB_3	0,007	< 0,001
	WPB_4	< 0,001	0,017
	WPB_5	< 0,001	0,006

Brand avoidance	BA_1	< 0,001	0,002
	BA_2	< 0,001	0,016
	BA_3	0,002	0,105
	BA_4	0,002	0,398
	BA_5	< 0,001	0,477
Negative brand engagement	NBE_1	< 0,001	< 0,001
	NBE_2	0,001	0,004
	NBE_3	0,022	0,082
	NBE_4	< 0,001	0,510
	NBE_5	< 0,001	0,031
	NBE_6	< 0,001	0,008
	NBE_7	< 0,001	0,064
	NBE_8	< 0,001	0,478
	NBE_9	< 0,001	0,396

5.5.3. Gender

Lastly, it was time to test the effect of gender in these constructs. After reviewing the table below, one can see that gender was the major source of differences, with all constructs but ideological incompatibility having at least a variable with a value below 0,05. The novelty, on the other hand, lies in the fact that gender is the only source of differences to impact every variable in a construct, such is the case of negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish brands. Thus, one can attest that negative word-of-mouth and willingness to punish brands truly present differences, depending on the gender of individuals. Possible explanations for this phenomenon, and others mentioned before, will be fully discussed in chapter 6.

Table 21 - ANOVA results regarding gender. (Source: Own elaboration)

Constructs and variables	Homogeneity test	ANOVA
BH_1	0,943	0,031
BH_2	0,121	< 0,001
BH_3	0,035	< 0,001
BH_4	0,060	< 0,001
BH_5	0,003	0,002
BH_6	0,005	0,017
BH_7	0,020	0,008

	BH_8	< 0,001	< 0,001
Ideological incompatibility	II_1	0,537	0,001
	II_2	0,403	0,001
	II_3	0,073	< 0,001
	II_4	0,631	< 0,001
Negative word-of-mouth	NWOM_1	< 0,001	< 0,001
	NWOM_2	< 0,001	< 0,001
	NWOM_3	< 0,001	< 0,001
	NWOM_5	< 0,001	< 0,001
Willingness to punish brands	WPB_1	0,003	0,005
	WPB_2	0,003	0,004
	WPB_3	< 0,001	< 0,001
	WPB_4	< 0,001	< 0,001
	WPB_5	0,041	< 0,001
Brand avoidance	BA_1	0,004	0,008
	BA_2	0,169	0,030
	BA_3	0,357	0,040
	BA_4	0,602	0,047
	BA_5	0,594	0,145
Negative brand engagement	NBE_1	0,001	< 0,001
	NBE_2	0,031	0,006
	NBE_3	0,662	0,115
	NBE_4	< 0,001	0,002
	NBE_5	0,001	< 0,001
	NBE_6	< 0,001	0,002
	NBE_7	< 0,001	< 0,001
	NBE_8	0,432	0,121
	NBE_9	0,533	0,017

Chapter 6. Discussion

As it was previously stated, the purpose of this investigation was to (1) observe and test the relationship between ideological incompatibility and brand hate, as well as between brand hate and its four outcomes, and (2) to assess if there are significant differences in each of these constructs, derived from factors such as age, culture and gender. Upon reviewing the results obtained, it is possible to affirm that this investigation as fulfilled its objectives.

This research finds itself in line with what is proposed in literature, that ideological incompatibility is, in fact, an antecedent of brand hate, as it was expressed by the confirmation of hypothesis 1. Being described as an inconsistency between brand's values/ideology and those of the consumer, it can be triggered by a variety of factors such as corporate wrongdoings (Hegner et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2020). Actually, this research as shown one of the item with the highest mean in ideological incompatibility was II_2 "In my opinion, Apple acts unethically". This is particularly noteworthy in the case of Apple, being that the company has faced several attacks regarding its ethical stance, due to the use of child labour, tax avoidance, and others. Though this, one can deduce that consumers are, in fact, worried about the moral and ethical behaviour of brands, and beginning to experience negative feeling towards them derived from that (Hegner et al., 2017).

In addition to this fact, through this study, it was possible to uncover that culture might play a significant role in terms of ideological incompatibilities. This study reveals that two items, namely II_1 ("In my opinion, Apple acts irresponsibly") and II_2 ("In my opinion, Apple acts unethically") show significant differences between respondents of different nationalities. On one hand, this serves to corroborate the idea presented before, regarding the impact of unethical behaviour. On the other hand, this is a finding that suggests that culture as an impact on ideological incompatibility. By looking, not only at marketing literature, but at psychology literature also, one can see that there are some precedents for this phenomenon. If one thinks that ideological incompatibility deals with values, beliefs and ideology, this relationship is not a surprising one. An individual's set of values and beliefs is strongly influence by its cultural background (Fetscherin, 2019), as well as its emotional response (Butler et al., 2007). In this sense, it is possible to understand that different cultures might have a different concept of what is unethical or irresponsible. Despite this fact, it was not possible to either confirm or totally reject hypothesis H7a, being that the results of two variables favour rejection, and the other two favour acceptance. Nonetheless, it was possible two reject hypotheses H6a and H8a fully, being that neither age nor gender have proven to exert some kind of influence in a single variable.

Ethical and moral questions, however, are not the only ones related with hate towards a brand. Even the very meaning of hate is hard to conceptualized, whether it be in psychology literature or marketing literature. The fact of the matter is that brand hate is a complex and poorly studied phenomenon. Adding to this already confusing situation, one must take in account the myriad of construct that are constantly being confused with brand hate, such as brand avoidance and brand revenge (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017). In a way, brand hate encompasses many of these constructs, in the form of its outcomes, with this investigation focusing on negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance and negative brand engagement. In this sense, one thing that characterizes brand hate is a conjunction of negative feelings towards a brand, ranging from mild to severe (Kucuk, 2019c), shown by the number of items and responses, ranging from “I do not tolerate Apple and its company” to “I am disgusted by Apple”. All in all, brand hate is shown to produce a number of outcomes, which is corroborated by the acceptance of hypotheses 2, 3, 4 and 5.

Despite age not being a significant source of differences, thus rejecting H6b, culture and gender seem to have a significant impact on brand hate. In each of this cases, five of the eight variables of brand hate have statistically significant p-values in the ANOVA test, which means that their means are not homogeneous. It is noteworthy that, in both cases, one of the variables was BH_8 (“I hate Apple”), that being the variable that expresses hate in a simpler manner. The reality is that emotions, and specifically hate, are a social construct (Fetscherin, 2019), with the marketing literature having some precedents on the role that culture plays in the way a consumer expresses opinions online (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). In the case of gender, literature also shows that men and women respond differently to an emotional stimulus, such as men being more aggressive, or women being faster to condemn a brand (Cota-McKinley et al., 2001; Y. Zhang et al., 2020). Despite all of this, one is not able to fully reject or accept hypotheses 7b and 8b, being that the majority of variables lean towards acceptance, but some lean towards rejection.

As stated, brand hate can express itself in a number of ways, being one of those negative word-of-mouth. Bad-mouthing a brand that as failed to meet expectations or that as conducted itself poorly, seems to be somewhat of a natural reaction, with today’s digital platforms facilitating and increasing the scope of that reaction (Kucuk, 2019b). Negative Double Jeopardy defends that bigger brands attract the most hate and that seems to be true in the case of Apple. Being that this work deals with one of the most prominent and valuable brands in the world, public outcry, as well as private complaining, is expected when consumers feel mistreated by it. That being said, this investigation corroborates the marketing literature, through the confirmation of hypothesis 2.

Nevertheless, this behaviour is not completely independent of all factors, with age, culture and gender playing a significant role.

Age, as well as culture, were shown to have impact in, at least, one of the variables of this construct, which is expected, being that, on one hand, there are evidences of differences between younger and older consumers, when it comes to complaining about a brand (Y. Zhang et al., 2020), and on the other hand, there are precedents for different types of posts in online brand communities, depending on cultural background (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). That being said, though not being possible to completely accept hypotheses 6c and 7c, one can attest that there are some evidences that age and gender do play a role in this construct, thus, not being possible to completely reject those hypotheses either. Beyond the evidences regarding age and culture, this investigation uncovered that negative word-of-mouth actually presents differences, depending on gender, in all of its variables, which lead to the acceptance of H8c. Literature shows that different genders have different emotional responses. As an example, Broadbridge & Marshall (1995) state that men are more prone to public complaining than women. On the flipside, women are faster to condemn a brand than man (Y. Zhang et al., 2020). The conducted research shows that this differences extend to more than public complaining, being that differences go beyond the item "I spread negative word-of-mouth about Apple", and also affecting the items "I denigrated the brand to my friends", "When my friends were looking for a similar service, I told them not to buy from Apple" and "I always tell my friends about my feelings towards this brand".

However, complaining is not the only consequence of brand hate, with some consumers feeling the need to go a step beyond and punish the brand, with this knowledge being supported by the confirmation of hypothesis 3. In fact, this punishment can take many forms, such as brand revenge, retaliation or financial punishment (Fetscherin, 2019). Consumers' power has largely increased ever since the rise of internet and of digital platforms, such as social media. Consumers feel more empowered to retaliate against a brand that has been unjust to them, being that social media offer a platform for them to voice their concerns, even anonymously, to a large audience, and to connect with likeminded individuals. This phenomenon thus represents a shift from the traditional relationship between brands and consumers, where brands retain all the power and consumers are basically powerless. By looking at the psychology literature, it is possible to assess that hate is seen as a primary trigger for revenge (Sternberg, 2003), with consumers' will to punish a brand being driven by their perceptions of wrong behaviour enacted by it (Sweetin et al., 2013). Bearing this in mind, it comes with no surprise that factors related with age, culture and gender, play an integral part in this process. In fact, despite age alone not presenting significant differences in this aspect

of consumer behaviour, reason that lead neither to accept or to reject H6d, culture and gender are the source of significant differences. Consumers with different cultural backgrounds have different perceptions and emotional responses, being that these are socially constructed (Butler et al., 2007), as previously stated. This investigation as found that individuals of different nationalities have different responses when it comes to punish Apple, by not encouraging friends/family to buy from them, not recommending it to others, or by complaining in the event of a negative experience (items WPB_3; WPB_4 and WPB_5). Nonetheless, it wasn't possible to uphold hypothesis 7d, being that not all variables show this differences regarding culture. On the other hand, both psychology and marketing literatures show that different gender react differently to an emotional stimulus, despite not existing a consensus on the matter. Cota-McKinley et al. (2001), for example, uncovered that males are more prone to vengeance, while Y. Zhang et al. (2020) that women are the ones who are likelier to retaliate against a brand. Despite this lack of consensus, it is clear that gender does play a significant role in these relationships, with this investigation also upholding hypothesis H8d, being that all variables showed significant differences, depending on gender.

There are times, though, that consumer do not feel the need to retaliate, and have much more passive attitudes towards a brand. Consumer then choose to avoid the brand and eliminate any contact with it (e.g. "I avoid buying the brands products/using its services" and "I don't purchase products of Apple anymore") or rejecting the brand altogether, including their products and services ("I reject services/products of Apple"). One is then in the presence of brand avoidance, which already has been largely associated with brand hate in literature (Bryson & Atwal, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2020), a fact that has been confirmed in this investigation, leading to the acceptance of hypothesis 4. Additionally, despite age not having an effect on brand avoidance, culture and gender lead to some differences in results. This research shows that culture plays a role in brand avoidance, with different cultures responding differently to "I don't purchase products of Apple anymore" and "I reject services/products of Apple". Different societies have distinct ideas when it comes to the expression/suppression of emotions, such is the case of Asian vs Western individuals, because, while Asian individuals tend to suppress emotions, western individuals are more likely to favour activity and to express their emotions/act on them (Butler et al., 2007; Ross & Mirowsky, 2008). In addition, Ross & Mirowsky (2008) also uncovered evidences that women feel more passive emotions than men, which might suggest that women can give preference to a more passive behaviour such as avoidance. Nonetheless, it was only possible to reject hypothesis 6e, with hypotheses 7e and 8e not being completely rejected nor completely accepted.

Brand avoidance, as well as other constructs addressed here, are also related to negative brand engagement. Negatively engaged consumers might experience negative emotions when dealing with a brand (e.g. “Using Apple makes me unhappy” and “I’m ashamed to use Apple”), being that this state of mind can make the consumer act against a brand. In other words, negative brand engagement can later morph into one of the other outcomes studied, such as willingness to punish brands (Naumann et al., 2020). One must note that consumers do not need to be involved with the brand for them to being negatively engaged with it (Naumann et al., 2020). In this sense, this investigation as confirmed that brand hate as a positive relationship with negative brand engagement, thus accepting H5. Nevertheless, and alike what occurs with other constructs, the three factors that were studied have an effect on negative brand engagement. Results show that consumers of different age groups have different responses to items NBE_4, NBE_5, NBE_6, and NBE_7, which are all items related with negative feelings (e.g. shame, unhappiness). This is in agreement with literature, that older individuals feel emotions in a less powerful way, and that negative affect decreases with age (Huaman-Ramirez & Merunka, 2019; Mroczek, 2001). On the other hand, culturally distinct individuals also respond differently in terms of unhappiness, which goes hand in hand with what was previously argued about the social and cultural aspect of emotions and emotional responses. Nevertheless, it seems that gender is, in fact, the most prominent source of differences, with six variables showing significant differences between genders (NBE_1, NBE_2, NBE_4, NBE_5, NBE_6, and NBE_7). The differences between gender, when dealing with emotions have already been argued as well, with this research keeping in line with literature. The fact is, women were shown to have more negative affect than men, in the same way that younger individuals have more negative affect than older ones (Mroczek, 2001), which might mean a difference in the affective dimension of negative brand engagement. All in all, one is not able, yet again, to either completely accept or reject hypotheses 6f, 7f and 8f, due to a lack of homogeneity of results in all variables. However, one must mention that SEM results show a large correlation between the different variables of negative brand engagement, which might mean that respondents didn’t understand the questions that were asked, thus meaning a possible tainting of results.

Chapter 7. Conclusion

7.1. Final considerations

Throughout this research, it was mentioned several times that, unlike positive relationships with a brand, such as brand love, negative relationships, specially brand hate, have been largely marginalized in marketing literature (Zarantonello et al., 2016). This research attempts to reverse this tendency, and to contribute to the literature in question, by offering new insights on the phenomenon of brand hate.

Positive and meaningful relationships between brands and consumers are increasingly important. In today's fast passed world, in which globalisation is an established fact, brands need to connect with their consumers in order to thrive. This globalisation, together with the rise of the internet, not only poses the threat of more competition, but also offers an unprecedented platform for consumers to share their experience and feelings regarding a brand. In this sense, literature must deepen its knowledge of negative brand relationships, in order to provide managers with the tools to predict those events, and to react against them.

Overall, one can state that this work has achieved what it set out to accomplish. In chapter one, two main objectives were proposed: (1) to explore the construct of brand hate, including the validation of the relationships between brand hate, its antecedents and its outcomes; and (2) to assess if age, culture and gender have any kind of influence in these constructs. To understand if these objectives were achieved, a total of 23 hypotheses were proposed, of which 7 were confirmed, while 4 were rejected. In regard to the remaining 12 hypotheses, results didn't support their total rejection nor their total acceptance.

Regarding the first objective, this investigation has confirmed all five hypotheses, meaning that the relationships between ideological incompatibility and brand hate, as well as between brand hate and negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands, brand avoidance, and negative brand engagement, were all confirmed. The fact of the matter is, consumers may begin to experience brand hate due to number of reasons, with one being ideological incompatibility. In this day and age, ethical and moral questions take centre stage in many public debates, so much so that, when a brand's set of values doesn't match with the values of the consumer, negative feelings towards the brand in question will start to arise (Rodrigues et al., 2020). When the consumer starts to experience said brand hate, its outcomes can take many forms, ranging from a simple attempt to avoid the brand, to the orchestration of a violent revenge towards it. All in all, through the

confirmation of hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, one is able to affirm that the first objective was accomplished.

In regard to the second objective, this investigation as confirmed, to an extent, that age, culture and gender may be the cause of significant differences in results. Based on psychology literature, one understands that individuals of different age groups, cultural backgrounds and genders, possess some psychological differences. Either due to emotional maturity, socially constructed emotions, or other type of phenomenon, there are significant differences between these groups of individuals. Some of these differences have already been explored in marketing literature (Broadbridge & Marshall, 1995; Cota-McKinley et al., 2001; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014; Y. Zhang et al., 2020), with some results differing from each other. In terms of age, some differences were found in negative word-of-mouth, willingness to punish brands and negative brand engagement, with none of the six hypotheses being neither confirmed nor rejected. Culture, on the other hand, was seen as a source of differences in all six constructs but, yet again, none of the six hypotheses that were postulated have been completely accepted or completely rejected. The only factor that has seen some of its hypotheses confirmed was gender, with H8c and H8d being upheld. In addition, brand hate, brand avoidance and negative brand engagement displayed some differences in certain variables, depending on the gender of individuals. In sum, this investigation was somewhat successful in demonstrating that these three factors may justify some differences in the observed constructs.

7.2. Contribution to literature

This work contributes to current marketing literature in a number of ways. First of all, this research presents more insights into the phenomenon of brand hate, which, as it was mentioned several times, has been largely marginalized by researchers. Secondly, it serves, not only to replicate the model of Rodrigues et al. (2020), but to apply it to the general public, as well as to observe the possible impact that age, culture and gender have on the studied constructs. In this sense, this research helps to lay the foundation for further research about possible moderators of brand hate, serving as a precedent for the possible moderating effect of age, culture and gender.

7.3. Contribution to management

Beyond the contribution to literature, this research strives to contribute to management, by providing interesting and useful findings to managers. Nowadays, managers must, not only endeavour to establish meaningful relationships with consumers, but also to manage hate and attacks towards the brand. Thus, this research aims to provide some of the insights into brand hate, that managers need to manage said hate. On one hand, it is important for management professionals to know the diverse outcomes of brand hate, in order to understand the “journey” taken by consumers who hate their brand. If professionals can identify the early signs of one of these constructs, then they will be better prepared to deal with the fallout, or even to prevent it. On the other hand, due to this research, managers can also begin to comprehend that consumers of different age groups, cultural backgrounds, and genders, don’t have the same reaction to the same stimulus, meaning that professionals might need to learn how to cope differently, depending on the consumer they are dealing with.

7.4. Limitations and recommendations for future research

This research is not without limitations, and through these limitations, it is possible to formulate some suggestions regarding future paths of research. First of all, a non-probabilistic sampling method was chosen, being that it wasn’t possible to use a probabilistic one. Due to this, the sample that was gathered might not be representative of the general population, which can create problems regarding the generalization of results. In addition, it was not possible to obtain an equal number of individuals of both genders, which creates difficulties when studying the possible effect of gender. In the same way, it wasn’t possible to have an even and representative amount of nationalities and age groups, in order to correctly test the influence of age and culture. Future research should consider this fact in its research design, being this proportion in sample size is of paramount importance to guarantee robust, reliable, and scalable results.

This research has also focused on brand hate towards a specific brand (Apple), meaning that the results presented here, might not apply in other scenarios. Therefore, it would be of interest to conduct an investigation on other brands that possess a large market share and are viewed as leaders in the industry, such as Samsung, Huawei and Xiaomi. Such a research could provide noteworthy hints about possible differences, or similarities, between different incumbents of the technology market. Additionally, research about brand hate in other industries is also

recommended, in order to perceive possible differences between them. Said research could follow the same method as this one, that is, the study of industry leaders, being that bigger and more valuable brands attract more hate.

Another limitation of this investigation is that negative brand engagement was shown to have highly correlated variables. This fact might suggest that respondents didn't understand the differences between questions, which might cripple the integrity of results. Alternatively, it might also mean that there isn't a need for so many variables to study this construct. In this sense, additional research on the subject of negative brand engagement is suggested, in order to improve the manner through which it is measured.

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Annexes

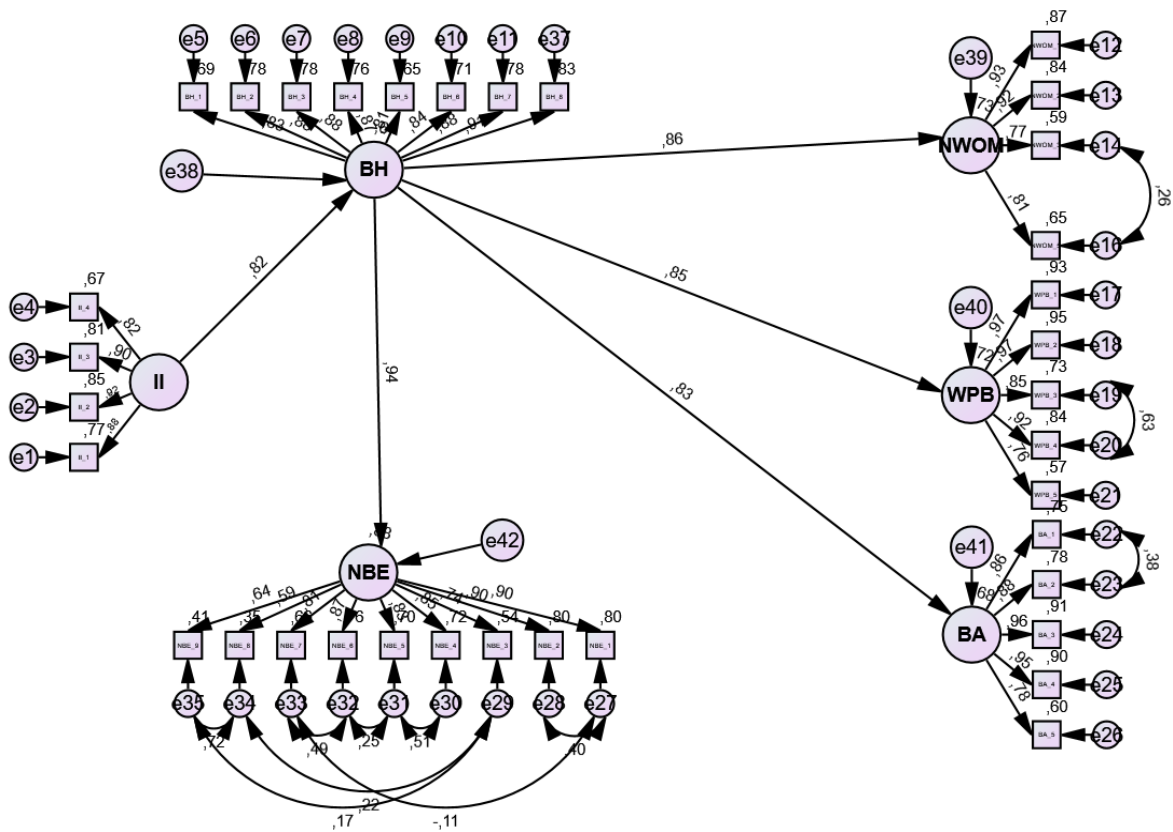
Annex 1 – Detailed sample description

Demographic characteristics		Absolute frequency	Relative frequency	Cumulative frequency
Age	15 – 23	135	41,93	41,93
	24 – 32	102	31,67	73,6
	33 – 41	32	9,94	83,54
	42 – 50	39	12,11	95,65
	51 – 59	11	3,42	99,07
	60 – 67	3	0,93	100
	Total	322	100	
Gender	Female	198	61,5	61,5
	Male	122	37,9	99,4
	I'd rather not answer	2	0,6	100
	Total	322	100	
Nationality	American	10	3,1	3,1
	Armenian	1	0,3	3,4
	Australian	2	0,6	4
	Austrian	3	0,9	5
	Brazilian	21	6,5	11,5
	British	24	7,5	18,9
	Canadian	6	1,9	20,8
	Chinese	6	1,9	22,7
	Czech	1	0,3	23
	Danish	2	0,6	23,6
	Dutch	14	4,3	28
	Ethiopian	1	0,3	28,3
	Filipino	3	0,9	29,2
	Finnish	1	0,3	29,5
	French	2	0,6	30,1
	German	7	2,2	32,3
	Greek	1	0,3	32,6
	Hungarian	2	0,6	33,2
	Indian	5	1,6	34,8
Israeli	1	0,3	35,1	

	Italian	3	0,9	36
	Japanese	2	0,6	36,6
	Jordanian	1	0,3	37
	Lebanese	1	0,3	37,3
	Mexican	2	0,6	37,9
	Cypriot	1	0,3	38,2
	Pakistani	1	0,3	38,5
	Palestinian	1	0,3	38,8
	Polish	5	1,6	40,4
	Portuguese	166	51,6	91,9
	Romanian	4	1,2	93,2
	Russian	3	0,9	94,1
	Singaporean	3	0,9	95
	Slovak	2	0,6	95,7
	Slovenian	1	0,3	96
	South African	1	0,3	96,3
	Spanish	2	0,6	96,9
	Swedish	2	0,6	97,5
	Swiss	1	0,3	97,8
	Taiwanese	2	0,6	98,4
	Turkish	1	0,3	98,8
	Venezuelan	1	0,3	99,1
	Vietnamese	2	0,6	99,7
	Yemeni	1	0,3	100
	Total	322	100	
Literacy level	Primary school	0	0	0
	6 th grade	0	0	0
	9 th grade	3	0,9	0,9
	Secondary school	72	22,4	23,3
	Bachelor's degree	139	43,2	66,5
	Master's degree	89	27,6	94,1
	PhD	19	5,9	100
	Total	322	100	
Professional situation	Unemployed	14	4,3	4,3
	Full-time student	122	37,9	42,2

	Self-employed	22	6,8	49,1
	Employed	96	29,8	78,9
	Working student	66	20,5	99,4
	Retired	2	0,6	100
	Total	322	100	
Income	- 1000€	194	60,2	60,2
	1001€ - 2000€	86	26,7	86,9
	2001€ - 3000€	26	8,1	95
	+ 3000€	16	5,0	100
	Total	322	100	

Annex 2 – Structural model



Brand hate - Apple

This form is part of a scientific investigation. The theme addressed in this questionnaire refers to the topic of brand hate regarding Apple, that is, the aversion of a consumer to a particular brand, due to factors such as ideological incompatibilities, and which may lead him/her to practice negative behaviours towards it (negative word of mouth, public criticism, among others).

The participation is voluntary and shouldn't take more than five minutes. The data collected will be used, solely and exclusively, for academic purposes, with the reliability and anonymity of the same being assured. The responsibility for the treatment of data lies with the author, and any questions regarding the treatment of data can be clarified via email (gfteixeira_98@hotmail.com).

***Obrigatório**

Secção sem título

1. I freely, specifically, informedly and unequivocally consent to my participation in this study *

Marcar tudo o que for aplicável.

Yes

Demographic profile

2. Age *

3. Gender *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

Female

Male

I'd rather not answer

4. Nationality *

5. Literacy level *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

- Primary school
- 6th grade
- 9th grade
- Secondary school
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- PhD

6. Professional situation *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

- Unemployed
- Full-time student
- Self-employed
- Employed
- Working student
- Retired

7. Income *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

- 1000€
- 1001€ - 2000€
- 2001€ - 3000€
- + 3000€

Apple equipment ownership

8. Do you own or have you ever owned an Apple equipment? *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

Yes

No

9. Do you wish to own an Apple equipment? *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

Yes

No

Brand
Hate

The questions should be answered in a scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 = "strongly disagree" and 5 = "strongly agree"

10. I am disgusted by Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

11. I do not tolerate Apple and its company *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

12. I can't tolerate Apple corporation *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

13. I don't tolerate Apple products *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

14. The world would be a better place without Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

15. I am totally angry about Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

16. Apple is awful *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

17. I hate Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

18. In my opinion, Apple acts irresponsibly *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

19. In my opinion, Apple acts unethically *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

20. The company violates moral standards *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

21. The brand does not match my values and beliefs *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

22. I spread negative word-of-mouth about Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

23. I denigrated the brand to my friends *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

24. When my friends were looking for a similar service, I told them not to buy from Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

25. I always tell my friends about my feelings towards this brand *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

26. I try to influence a lot of people in not purchasing this brand *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

**Brand
Hate**

The questions should be answered in a scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 = "strongly disagree" and 5 = "strongly agree", or of 1 to 7, in which 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree"

27. I intend not to buy Apple in the future to punish it *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

28. I will make an effort not to buy Apple in the future to punish it *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

29. I will not encourage my friends and relatives to buy Apple to punish it *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

30. I will not recommend Apple to others who seek my advice to punish it *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

31. I will complain to others if I experience a problem with Apple to punish it *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

32. I don't purchase products of Apple anymore *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

33. I reject services/products of Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

34. I refrain from buying Apple's products or using its services *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

35. I avoid buying the brands products/using its services *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

36. I do not use products or services of Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

37. Using Apple gets me to think negatively about Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

38. I think negatively about Apple a lot when I'm using it *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

39. Using Apple does not stimulate my interest in learning more about Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

40. I feel very depressed when I use Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

41. Using Apple makes me unhappy *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

42. I feel bad when I use Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

43. I'm ashamed to use Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

44. I don't spend a lot of time using Apple, compared to other technological brands *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

45. Whenever I'm using technological brands, I don't use Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

46. Apple is not one of the brands that I usually use when I use technological brands *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

Este conteúdo não foi criado nem aprovado pela Google.



Ódio à marca - Apple

O presente formulário enquadra-se no âmbito da realização de uma investigação científica. A temática abordada no presente questionário refere-se ao tema do ódio para com a marca Apple ("brand hate"), isto é, a aversão de um consumidor a uma determinada marca, devido a fatores como incompatibilidades ideológicas, e que o podem levar a praticar comportamentos negativos para com a mesma (passa a palavra negativo, críticas públicas, entre outros).

A participação no presente questionário é voluntária e não deverá demorar mais de cinco minutos. Os dados recolhidos serão utilizados, única e exclusivamente, para fins académicos, estando a confiabilidade e anonimato dos mesmos assegurado. A responsabilidade do tratamento dos mesmos recai no próprio autor, sendo que quaisquer dúvida relativa ao tratamento dos dados poderá ser esclarecida via email (gfteixeira_98@hotmail.com).

*Obrigatório

1. Consinto de forma livre, específica, informada e inequívoca na minha participação neste estudo *

Marcar tudo o que for aplicável.

Sim

Caracterização demográfica

2. Idade *

3. Género *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

Feminino

Masculino

Prefiro não responder

4. Nacionalidade *

5. Habilitação escolar *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

- Ensino primário
- 6º ano
- 9º ano
- Ensino secundário
- Licenciatura
- Mestrado
- Doutoramento

6. Situação profissional *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

- Desempregado
- Estudante
- Trabalhador por conta própria
- Trabalhador por conta de outrem
- Trabalhador-estudante
- Reformado

7. Rendimento individual *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

- 1000€
- 1001€ - 2000€
- 2001€ - 3000€
- + 3000€

Posse de equipamento Apple

8. Possui ou já possuiu um equipamento da marca Apple? *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

Sim

Não

9. Deseja possuir um equipamento da marca Apple? *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

Sim

Não

Ódio
à
marca

As questões deverão ser respondidas tendo em conta uma escala de 1 a 5, em que 1 = "discordo fortemente" e 5 = "concordo fortemente"

10. Estou enojado com a Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

11. Eu não tolero a Apple e a sua empresa *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

12. Não consigo tolerar a corporação Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

13. Não tolero produtos da Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

14. O mundo seria um sitio melhor sem a Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

15. Estou totalmente zangado com a Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

16. A Apple é horrível *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

17. Eu odeio a Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

18. Na minha opinião, a Apple age de forma irresponsável *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

19. Na minha opinião, a Apple age de forma não ética *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

20. A empresa viola padrões morais *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

21. A marca não corresponde aos meus valores e crenças *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

22. Eu espalho passa a palavra negativo sobre a Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

23. Eu denegri a marca para os meus amigos *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

24. Quando os meus amigos estavam à procura de um serviço similar, eu disse-lhes para não comprarem Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

25. Eu conto sempre aos meus amigos sobre os meus sentimentos para com esta marca *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

26. Eu tento influenciar muita gente a não comprar desta marca *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

Ódio
à
marca

As questões deverão ser respondidas tendo em conta uma escala de 1 a 5, em que 1 = "discordo fortemente" e 5 = "concordo fortemente", ou de 1 a 7, em que 1 = "discordo fortemente" e 7 = "concordo fortemente"

27. Eu pretendo não comprar Apple no futuro, para a punir *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

1	2	3	4	5		
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

28. Farei um esforço para não comprar Apple no futuro, para a punir *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

29. Eu não encorajarei os meus amigos e familiares a comprar Apple, para a punir *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

30. Eu não recomendarei Apple a outros que procurem o meu conselho, para a punir *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

31. Queixar-me-ei a outros se tiver um problema com a Apple, para a punir *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

32. Eu já não compro mais produtos da Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

33. Eu rejeito serviços/produtos da Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

34. Abstenho-me de comprar produtos Apple ou usar os seus serviços *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

35. Evito comprar os produtos/usar os serviços da marca *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

36. Eu não uso produtos ou serviços da Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

37. Usar Apple faz-me pensar negativamente na Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

38. Eu penso muito sobre a Apple, de forma negativa, quando a estou a usar *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

39. Usar Apple não estimula o meu interesse em aprender mais sobre a Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

40. Sinto-me muito deprimido quando uso Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

41. Usar Apple faz-me infeliz *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

42. Sinto-me mal quando uso Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

43. Tenho vergonha de usar Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

44. Eu não passo muito tempo a usar Apple, comparado com outras marcas tecnológicas *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

45. Sempre que estou a usar marcas tecnológicas, não uso Apple *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

46. Apple não é uma das marcas que normalmente uso quando uso marcas tecnológicas *

Marcar apenas uma oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Discordo fortemente	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Concordo fortemente

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