

UNIVERSITY OF VAASA
FACULTY OF BUSINESS STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

Matti Horstia

**ANIMOSITY'S EFFECTS ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOR: A STUDY OF
FINNISH CONSUMER ANIMOSITY TOWARDS RUSSIA**

Master's Thesis in International Business

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TABLE OF CONTENTS	Page
ABSTRACT	5
1. INTRODUCTION	7
1.1. Goals and delimitations	9
1.2. Keywords, material and structure of the study	10
1.3. Justification	11
2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON CA TYPOLOGY	14
2.1. Origins of CA typology	14
2.2. War and military animosity	16
2.3. Economic animosity	17
2.4. Politic and diplomatic animosity	19
2.5. Function of animosity's sources	20
2.6. Locus of animosity's manifestation	24
2.7. People animosity	25
2.8. Religious animosity	27
2.9. Ecological animosity	29
2.10. Other animosity typology	30
3. LITERATURE REVIEW ON CA MODIFYING FACTORS	35
3.1. Agonistic emotions versus retreat emotions	35
3.2. Business to Business versus Business to Consumer	37
3.3. Demographic factors	38

3.4. International and open environments, and competitive settings	42
3.5. Cultural effects on CA	43
3.6. Animosity triggers and activating animosity	44
3.7. Empathy and authoritarianism	45
3.8. Hybrid products	46
3.9. Perceived purposefulness of actions	48
3.10. Other modifying factors	50
 4. THE EFFECTS OF CA AND CA MANAGEMENT	 53
4.1. Willingness to buy	53
4.2. Willingness to visit	54
4.3. Snowball effect	55
4.4. Ethnocentrism	56
4.5. Quality judgment	57
4.6. CA management's managerial dimension	58
4.7. CA management's governmental dimension	64
 5. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS	 67
5.1. Animosity background	67
5.2. Empirical objectives, methodology and hypotheses	68
5.3. Results	74
 6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	 88

6.1. Limitations and implications for future research	90
REFERENCES	92
APPENDIX	112

UNIVERSITY OF VAASA
Faculty of Business Studies

Author:	Matti Horstia	
Topic of the Thesis:	Animosity's effects on consumer behavior: A study of Finnish consumer animosity towards Russia	
Name of the Supervisor:	Jorma Larimo	
Degree:	Master of Science in Economics and Business Administration	
Master's Programme:	International Business	
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ABSTRACT

The goals of this thesis for the literature review's part are to 1) Explain what consumer animosity is 2) Study the most common sources of consumer animosity 3) Clarify how consumer animosity functions under different circumstances 4) Examine consumer animosity's effects on consumer behavior 5) Offer practical implications in managing consumer animosity from managerial and governmental standpoints.

The empirical study was conducted as an online survey, to which 149 Finnish consumers participated. The empirical goals of the this thesis are to 1) Find out to what degree Finnish consumers feel animosity towards Russia 2) Study how animosity towards Russia in Finnish consumers affects their consumer behavior towards Russian goods, and tourism to Russia 3) Examine sources behind the Finnish consumer animosity towards Russia 4) Research whether demographic factors have an impact on Finnish consumers' animosity towards Russia.

The results support previous consumer animosity literature in consumer animosity lowering willingness to buy from the animosity country. The results also show that consumer animosity, and people animosity in particular, decreases willingness to visit the animosity country as a tourist. The findings also give strong support for consumer animosity decreasing product quality judgments concerning products originating from the animosity country. It was found out that age is significantly and positively correlated with Finnish consumers' animosity towards Russia. Also consumers living in the capital expressed more animosity than those living outside the capital. Gender had no effect on the level of consumer animosity towards Russia in Finnish consumers. The most commonly expressed reasons for consumer animosity towards Russia were war related, and politics related. Lastly, it was found out that despite previous war history between Finland and Russia, Finnish consumers see Russia's more recent actions as harder to forgive. Also managerial implications based on the results are presented.

KEYWORDS: consumer animosity, country of origin

1. INTRODUCTION

What is consumer animosity? The first authors to relate tensions between nations to consumer purchase behavior (Jimenez and San Martin, 2007) were Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998), as they defined consumer animosity as remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events. These authors claim that consumers may hold feelings of hostility or animosity towards a specific country, and hence “boycott” their products. In other words, they argue that consumers may avoid purchasing products from a certain country not because of quality concerns, but because the exporting country has engaged (or is engaging) in an act that consumers find difficult to forgive. In fact, they claim that animosity towards a country can sometimes override a reputation for producing high-quality products. This definition by Klein et al. (1998) has since been used, modified and expanded by many other authors.

This definition has been expanded e.g. by Urbonavicius, Dikcius, Gineikiene and Degutis (2010), as they state that diplomatic disputes can also be a source of antipathy. Podoshenor (2009) for his part suggests that animosity towards other countries can in some cases have roots even in relatively benign rivalries, such as sharing a contiguous border (e.g. Canada and the United States). Jimenez and San Martin (2010), state that animosity can also refer to hostility towards a country. In turn, Pai and Sundar (2014) claim that consumer animosity refers to strong negative emotions toward purchasing products from a disliked nation or group. In other words, they state that the target of the animosity is not necessarily a country, but could be a specific group of people. In fact, one popular division of consumer animosity in the field of study divides consumer animosity into 1) War animosity 2) Economic animosity 3) Political animosity, and 4) Personal animosity (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). This model was created as the authors questioned the rather crude division of sources for animosity created by Klein et al. (1998), and found out that there can be other sources as well. Furthermore e.g. Nes, Yelkur and Silkset (2012) have suggested a somewhat similar division of 1) Economic animosity 2) People animosity 3) Military/war animosity, and 4) Politics/government animosity. Other classifications have been made as well, including (but not limited to)

“cultural animosity” (Amine, 2008), “social-cultural animosity”, and “religious animosity” (Rice and Wongtada (2007). Finally, it has also been pointed out that matters related to ecology are also relevant in the discussion of consumer animosity sources (Khemchotigoon, 2015). However, this thesis will discuss different classifications, sources, and types of consumer animosity in detail later on.

Other example definitions of customer animosity include e.g. Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau and Pornpitakpan (2008), who define consumer animosity as an “emotional antagonism toward a particular entity”, and claim that “intense emotions can overwhelm cognition in situations where consumers experience animosity toward another nation”. Amine (2008) for one’s part states that much like COO (country of origin) effects, “animosity is a multi-dimensional construct that involves levels of intensity and is country-specific”. Jimenez and San Martin (2007) for their part claim that consumer animosity in marketing research refers to the economic consequences of human emotional responses. The same authors suggest another definition in their more recent article (2010), as they see animosity as a variable that emphasizes a consumer’s emotional attachment to the geographic origin of a product. Finally, consumer animosity has been seen as reflecting the normative environments of the host country, which refers to shared understandings and meaning or “logic of appropriateness” (Fong, Lee and Du, 2013; Yiu and Makino, 2002; March, 1981).

Regarding definitions above, Klein et al, (1998); Klein and Ettenson, (1999) explain the way consumer animosity works by stating that in a consumer animosity case, there is a strong belief among the host country population that buying products from the animosity evoking country is considered inappropriate. Similarly to their view, Tabassi, Esmaelizadeh and Sambasivan (2012) claim that consumers who feel animosity towards a certain country, do not want to buy products originating from there, because they would feel like supporting the offending country’s economy as well as prior or actual actions that the country is engaging in (or has engaged in).

In practice, consumer animosity can be revealed e.g. by negative commercial effects such as boycotts and sales loss for businesses associated with the foreign offending government (Edwards, Gut and Mavondo, 2007). Ettenson, Smith, Klein and John (2006) support their view as they see that “long term harm by boycott is animosity”. It has also been found out that consumer animosity can be significantly harmful when it comes to launching performances of products in a host country market (Klein et al, 1998; Klein and Ettenson, 1999). In sum, it seems that consumer animosity can be seen as an overall negative attitude toward a nation or (out)group, which can lead to changes in consumer behavior.

1.1. GOALS AND DELIMITATIONS

The theoretical objectives of this study are to understand what consumer animosity is, as well as to explain what the most common causes of it are. In other words, how consumer animosity is defined, and where can it stem from. These matters are discussed in sections one and two.

Another theoretical objective is to clarify how consumer animosity functions within different circumstances and environments, such as differing demographic groups, different forms of commercial transaction (business to business / business to consumer), or different cultural groups etc. Stated differently, the objective is to clarify factors that modify the functions of consumer animosity. These matters are discussed in section three.

Thirdly, a theoretical objective is to explain what the actual effects of consumer animosity on consumer behavior are. In other words, the objective is to explain what businesses should expect when operating in markets, in which significant animosities exist. Additionally, the goal is to gather practical managerial (as well as governmental)

implications in how to best deal with consumer animosity. In other words, the goal is to offer practical suggestions in how to minimize the negative effects of consumer animosity, and how to possibly utilize it. These matters are discussed in section four.

As for delimitations of the study, it has been decided to focus strictly on consumer animosity. In other words, for example the quality related aspects of country of origin (which was studied much before CA-research started) are not studied. Similarly, consumer ethnocentrism is not studied in this research. These matters are only brought up if they are necessary to discuss because of their significant relation to consumer animosity in the more specific context.

1.2. KEYWORDS, MATERIAL AND STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The focus of this study is strictly consumer animosity and thus, the keywords used to gather material for the work were mostly limited to “consumer animosity”, “CA”, “country of origin”, “COO”, and “consumer racism”. The majority of the material was gathered using Finna portal (previously Nelli portal) of University of Vaasa. This portal gives access to a wide array of academic e-journals through different channels (such as EBSCOhost and ProquestABI etc.). Additionally, other online academic research databases such as Researchgate were utilized as well. Some materials were also suggested or presented by lecturers of the University of Vaasa. The study consists of six main headings, the first being introduction. The second, third and fourth main headings discuss CA based on theory, whereas the fifth and sixth main headings consist of empirical research.

1.3. JUSTIFICATION

Why is consumer animosity research important? Consumer animosity is an important topic of research, maybe now more than ever, as it has been claimed that consumer power increases in a digitally connected world (Labrecque, von der Esche, Mathwick, Novak and Hofacker, 2013). We now live in a more digitally connected world than ever before, and at the same time the international trade is on the rise. This view is supported e.g. by Khemchotigoon (2015), as he states that along with the rise of international trade, an increasingly diverse array of products from different countries are now available for consumers around the world, which has created a need for research of consumer attitudes towards products of different national origins. Also Wan, Luk and Chow (2014) support this view as they claim that companies are now facing a more culturally diverse and globally connected market than ever before. Other authors (Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2012) are also in support of this idea, as they state that the current global environment which involves civil wars, regime change and military conflicts, presents a significant challenge for international business, as actions of countries and organizations from around the world have not always been well received by consumers worldwide

In other words, it would seem that consumers now have access to more global news and information than ever, and at the same time there is a wide selection of global products to choose from. Thus, people not only have more knowledge of perceived global wrongdoing, but also have more opportunity to “vote with one’s feet”, by choosing the products and/or services to use accordingly. This could mean that the reputation modified by actions of nations, matters now more than ever.

Furthermore, the timing for animosity research could be argued to be good at the moment. Authors that support this idea involve e.g. Urbonavicius et al. (2010), who state that the past two decades have included major political, economic and social

transformations, many of which have resulted in countries emerging, splitting and breaking down. This has resulted in many consumers with new sets of attitudes towards products and countries, which previously belonged to the same political unit/country. It could be speculated that this may have also affected the attitudes of those who have been watching from the sidelines. It could be argued, that animosity research is also more timely than the quality related argument of COO (country of origin), which has been studied longer (Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012). Similarly, the recent times have been described to be potential for generating a renewed sense of nationalism and influencing the feelings of ethnocentrism and animosity of consumers (De Nisco, Mainolfi, Marino and Napolitano, 2014). The authors base this argument on the European economic and financial crisis, which is threatening the relationships between the economically strong and weak countries. They believe this seems to lead to more tensions between competing countries, as the world balance keeps shifting, economies rise and fall, and debt happens.

Customer animosity research is important to study, because it affects international business. Tian (2010) states that: “Both news media and academic researchers have shown that animosity against a country does matter to some consumers”. Consumer animosity has been found to correlate e.g. with low purchase intentions, poor performance in business, diminished trust in companies, unwillingness to buy, and boycotting (Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Klein et al. 1998; Fernandez, Del Rio and Bande, 2003; Jimenez and San Martin, 2007). More specifically, it has been found out that even rather low levels of animosity (which are unrelated to extreme cases, such as wartime memories) can affect consumer response (Klein and Morris, 1996).

In some cases customer animosity has even lead to protests, demonstrations and/or riots, which have led to destruction of property of businesses, as well as products (such as cars) of certain origins. This has been the case at least in the possibly most studied consumer animosity relationship between China and Japan (Qing, 2013). Thus, there are many hindrances caused by consumer animosity that have been confirmed in various

studies around the world, and consequently generally accepted as truths in the field of study. However, there are still some key issues that need to be clarified (Qing, 2013). For example, whether consumer animosity affects product evaluations/product judgment, has some evidence both in favor of - and against (Klein, 2002; Shoham, Davidow, Klein and Ruvio, 2006; Huang, Phau and Lin, 2010a; Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Klein et al. 1998; Shimp, Dunn and Klein, 2004).

Examples of animosity occur all over the world (Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012), thus making it relevant to be studied everywhere in the world. Also, it has been emphasized that models of previous animosity studies should be tested in other industries, as well as other cultural settings and other countries, in order to increase the robustness of the previous results (Sutkino and Cheng, 2010). More recently, e.g. Shoham and Gavish (2016) pointed out that the complex consumer animosity research variables need to be tested in further populations. Furthermore, some researchers have still rather recently stated that animosity effects seem to be more complex than previously believed (Huang, Phau and Lin, 2010a). These are some of the reasons why it has been decided to study animosity among Finnish consumers, as Finland has not particularly been the hub of consumer animosity research so far. In other words, Finnish results of consumer animosity can contribute something rather new to consumer animosity research. The animosity relationship between Finland and Russia is also relevant and important to study, as Russia is (one of) the biggest trading partner(s) of Finland (Tulli, 2017).

Finally, it seems that consumer animosity research is not only important for marketing theory, but also for international marketing practices, as well as multinational companies' global operations (Raajpoot, Iftikhar and Ahmad, 2001). Consumer animosity has also been categorized as a "non-tariff barrier" for truly free trade (Abraham and Reitman, 2014). However, the same authors point out that whereas import tariffs can be lowered (or even removed) quite simply by regulation, non-tariff barriers such as consumer animosity are more difficult to address.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON CA TYPOLOGY

This section discusses different identified types and sources of consumer animosity. The objective of this section is to present the most common and accepted types of animosity, starting with the original contributions of Klein et al. (1998), continuing to most recent findings, and suggested types of animosity (such as Kalliny, Hausman, Saran and Ismaeil (2017); Moufakkir, 2014), which are clearly not as studied and thus undisputed, but equally relevant to consumer animosity research – and particularly future research. This section will aim to present practical examples and proposed models in the context of the more particular animosity types, in order to comprehensively explain how they are defined. Furthermore, observations from the overall literature are made, and an additional model of consumer animosity is suggested. Animosity types are presented roughly in a chronological order, however including also the most essential more recent findings and suggestions in their corresponding animosity type sections.

2.1. ORIGINS OF CA TYPOLOGY

Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998) were the first authors to publicly deal with consumer animosity in the context of how it may affect business. They managed to develop a model (see figure 1 below), in which they portray how animosity can negatively affect consumers' willingness to buy products originating from the animosity evoking country. In other words, consumers may simply not be willing to buy products originating from a certain country, even if they feel like there are no quality related concerns. More particularly, Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998) took into account war animosity and economic animosity as separate possible causes for general consumer animosity (see figure 2 below).

The Animosity Model of Foreign Product Purchase

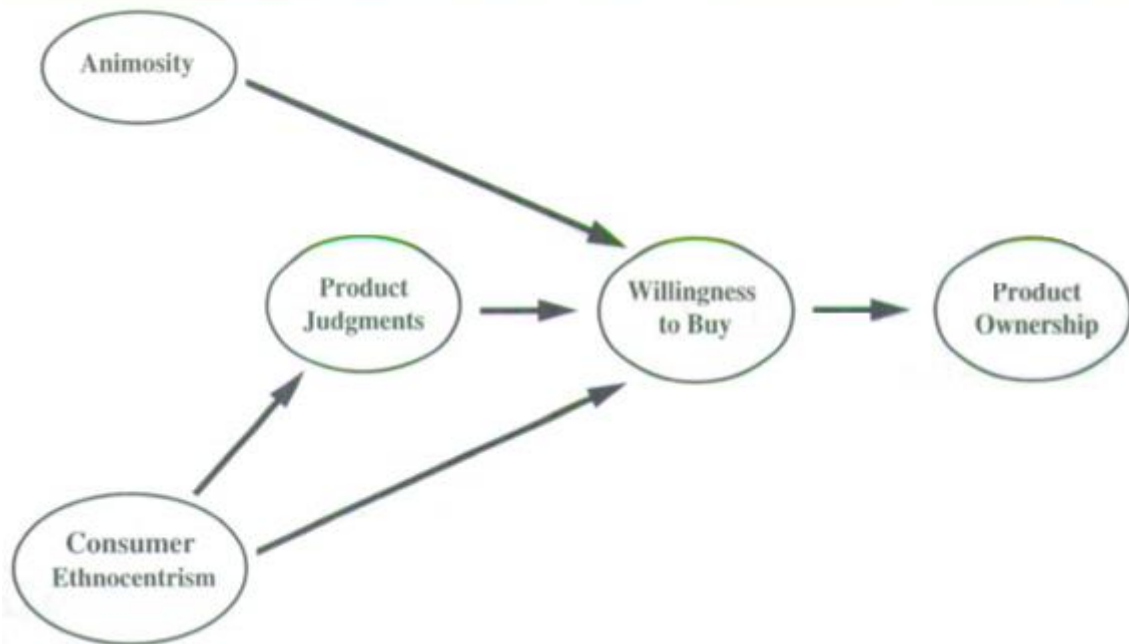


Figure 1. The first official animosity model by Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998).

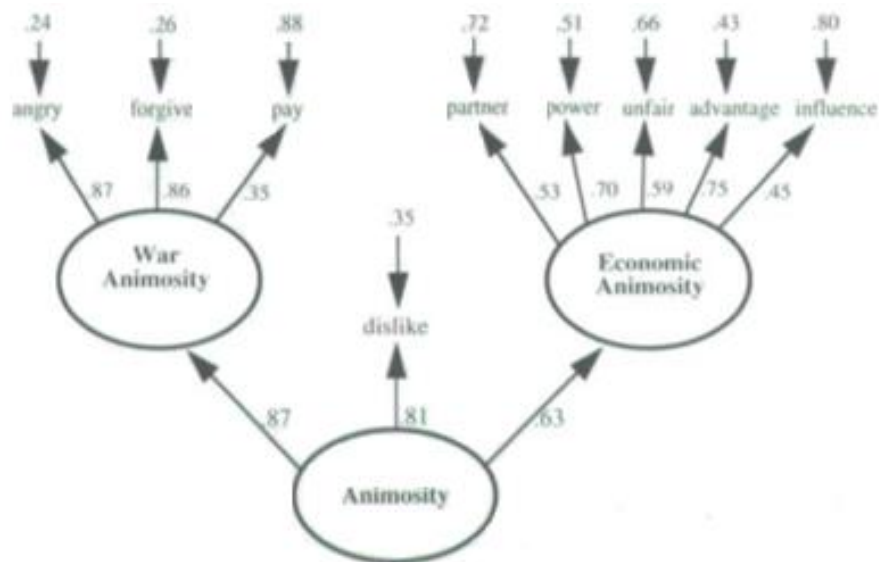


Figure 2. Part of structural equation model results to illustrate the studied sources of animosity (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998)

2.2. WAR AND MILITARY ANIMOSITY

War animosity has been referred to as crimes and cruelty committed during historic occupations of foreign country toward host country (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998; Hong and Kang, 2006; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). Nijssen and Douglas (2004) for their part see war animosity as a result of acts of aggression or warlike behavior by a country or a nation-state. Furthermore, it has been pointed out that not only previous or ongoing military actions should be taken into consideration, but that also the perceived potential of future military clashes cannot be ignored either (Qing, 2013). In some academic articles it has also been proposed that the concept of war animosity should also include animosity stemming from politic animosity, diplomatic disputes, border conflicts, as well as psychological warfar (Sutkino and Cheng, 2011). War animosity has been suggested to be more enduring, in comparison to e.g. economic and political animosity, which for their part have been suggested to have a more temporary effect (Little, little and Cox, 2009). This view of Little et al. (2009) seems reasonable, taken into account the irreplaceability of damages that wars cause.

The very first method used to separate war animosity from general animosity was to study it through finding out how people (the Chinese) felt about ever being able to forgive Japan for the Nanjing massacre, as well as researching whether the consumers felt like “Japan should pay for what it did to Nanjing during the occupation” (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998). Some of other predictors that have later been used in animosity research to identify war animosity include: dislike in a country’s involvement in wars, dislike in military operations of a country, seeing a country as a threat to one’s own country, seeing a country as a nuclear threat to the world, not helping (enough) in fight against terrorism, specific military attacks, specific invasions, and former occupation of other countries (Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2012). Somewhat similarly to the former, Nijssen and Douglas (2004) mapped whether consumers still feel resentment over a country’s role in previous wars and occupations. However, they also incorporated studying to what degree customers saw a country as being liable for

damages caused by past bombardments, and (adapted from Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998) whether they could ever forgive a country for pursuing specific groups in one's own country (in this case the Jews). Similarly to being liable for past actions, questions regarding seeing a country as responsible to pay compensation for its actions have also been incorporated in some research studying war animosity (Sutkino and Cheng, 2010).

2.3. ECONOMIC ANIMOSITY

Economic animosity has been explained as resulting from feelings of economic dominance or aggression (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998). Sutkino and Cheng (2010) for their part see economic animosity as “based on trading practice perceived as unfair to the home country, the unreliability of the trading partner, and the economic dominance power of the foreign country toward home country. It has also been suggested (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004) that economic animosity is particularly typical in smaller countries and economies with relatively small populations, since those countries are more likely to be concerned about the power of larger economies, and the possible threat of being economically dominated by them. Also e.g. Abraham (2013) shares this view. Moreover, this point of view has gotten support already much before consumer animosity research started, as e.g. LeVine and Campbell (1972) stated that countries with limited resources and large imports are often dependent on their neighboring countries, and thus may feel threatened by - or animosity towards them, especially if the neighboring countries are economically bigger or stronger than them. Economic animosity, along with war/military animosity, seem to be the most unanimously accepted (and used) types of consumer animosity (e.g. Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012) in the scientific community, even though the exact contents of them seem to be debatable.

More particularly, common ways in animosity research to segregate economic animosity from general animosity have included e.g. studying whether 1) a country is

seen as a reliable trading partner, 2) a country is seen as wanting to gain economic power over one's own country, 3) a country is taking advantage of (economically) over one's own country, 4) a country has too much economic influence over one's own country, or 5) the other country is doing business unfairly with one's own country (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998). Other variables have included e.g. whether consumers feel like 1) being angry at a country, because of the way they have conducted trade with one's own country, 2) one's own country is more fair in its trade dealings with a country, than the other country is with one's own country, 3) you should be careful while doing business with a particular country, 4) companies of certain country often outsmart companies of one's own country in business deals (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004).

It could be argued, that a good example of a timely manifestation of economic animosity would be the views of the President of the United States, Donald Trump, as he claims other countries (e.g. Mexico, China and Germany) have “beat us to a pulp”, and “outnegotiated us” in terms of trade deals (Goodman, 2017; Lopez, 2017; Benen, 2017; Morici, 2017; Hsu, 2017). He has also e.g. accused China of currency manipulation (Benen, 2017; Morisi, 2017; Hsu, 2017), as well as China, India, and Mexico of “stealing American jobs” (CNBC, 2016; The News International, 2016; Times of India, 2016). However, it should be mentioned that so far there seems to be no research of these public statements possibly affecting (or not affecting) U.S. consumers' animosity towards the publicly accused countries. Nonetheless, the effect of politicians blaming other countries for economic hardships has been brought up as a possible source of consumer animosity in other cases (Ang, Jung, Kau, Leong, Pornpitakpan and Tan, 2004; Moufakkir, 2014). Moreover, countries directing blame for their national sufferings to internal sources (e.g. one's own government officials), instead of external sources (blaming foreign countries, or foreign businessmen) has been suggested to have a relieving effect on animosity towards foreign countries (Jung, Ang, Leong, Tan, Pornpitakpan and Kau (2002).

2.4. POLITIC AND DIPLOMATIC ANIMOSITY

One commonly used category in the typology of animosity is politic animosity. Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2012) are some of the authors that chose to treat politic/government animosity as an independent variable, and see it as providing new insight in the animosity problem area. Their findings indicate that politic animosity can arise, even if the animosity evoking policies of the target country have no direct impact on the sample country. In other words, consumers may express politic animosity towards foreign countries because of moral evaluations, even if that foreign country's policies do not hindrance the consumers in practice. Treating politic animosity as an individual concept seems to be justifiable, as for example Hoffman, Mai and Smirnova (2011) identified antithetical political attitudes as one of the three universal drivers of animosity. Gec and Perviz (2012) found support for politics of a country as being a source of consumer animosity in their study as well (see figure 3 below).

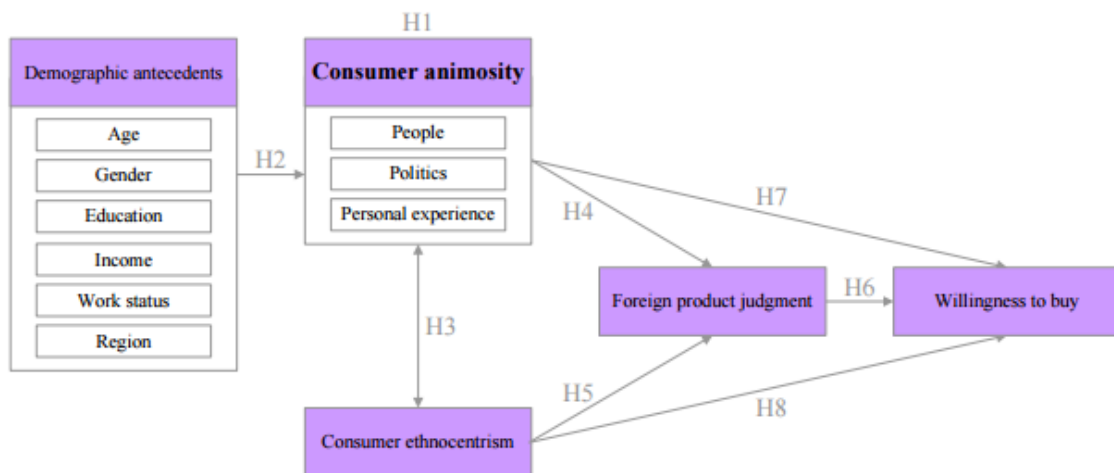


Figure 3. Conceptual model used by Gec and Perviz (2012).

Some of the sources of politic animosity have been expressed as e.g. seeing an animosity evoking countries' 1) government as authoritarian, 2) mixing politics and religion, 3) neglecting the majority of their people for global prestige, 4) official attitudes evasive, 5) politics and government generally dislikeable, 6) imposing

censorship on their people / lack of freedom / oppression, 7) communist or undemocratic, 8) violating human rights, or women's rights, 9) child birth policies unacceptable (Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2012). Other scale items used by the same authors include disliking a country's government policies, disliking the political system in a country, and perceiving that there is too much corruption in a country. Finally, more general items that have been used to research politic animosity include disapproving of the politics of a country, disagreeing with the political attitude of a country (Hoffman, Mai and Smirnova, 2011), perceiving that a country is twisting political facts, and seeing a country's foreign policy as opportunistic (Gec and Perviz, 2012).

2.5. FUNCTION OF ANIMOSITY'S SOURCES

Animosity research has leaned relatively much on researching sources and impacts of consumer animosity. Instead, Jung, Ang, Leong, Tan, Pornpitakpan and Kau (2002) wanted to shed light on the conceptualization of animosity, creating a new framework for better understanding of the animosity construct. Their research suggests that situational animosity "comprises feelings arising from a specific and current provocation". In other words, situational animosity could be classified as temporary animosity, which is caused by present circumstances. In contrast, stable animosity is "associated with the cumulative and embedded emotional antagonism that arises from multiple military, economic, and political provocations over time". The authors claim that similarly to situational animosity, stable animosity may originally have its roots in a specific event, but that the animosity has over the years, and through multiple other animosity evoking events, turned to a more enduring form of animosity. Thus, they claim that situational animosity can evolve into stable animosity over time. This way of thinking seems to get some support from earlier animosity research, as it has been argued that "constant reminders" can lead to animosity perpetuating (Berkowitz, 1994). It would seem that this classification of situational and stable animosity is similar to e.g. a disease being chronic, or acute.

Another study dealing with situational animosity and stable animosity points out that stable animosity is such long lasting animosity, that it is passed from generation to generation (Ang, Jung, Kau, Leong, Pornpitakpan and Tan, 2004). Thus, they add that not all consumers' stable animosity is based on actual personal experiences (for example war time memories etc.), but is instead based on views of others. This remark has been made by other authors as well, as e.g. Urbonavicius, Kikcius, Gineikiene and Degutis (2010) state that personal communication may develop animosity even among younger generations with no negative personal experiences. It has been suggested that e.g. history texts (Jung, Ang, Leong, Tan, Pornpitakpan and Kau, 2002), school education, media and entertainment (such as movies and television series) (Qing, 2013) can serve as ways of transmitting animosity down the generations. Qing (2013) also highlighted the impact of dark stories and memories passed down to children and grandchildren. Another example of animosity's perpetuity was found out by Little, Little and Cox (2009), as their study suggested that the "generation y" of the United States, which was born only after the Vietnam War, expressed roughly the same levels of animosity towards Vietnam, as the previous generations.

It has also been found out (Leong, cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau and Pornpitakpan, 2008) that situational animosity is increased by stable animosity. In other words, the existence of stable animosity aggravates animosity based on current events (situational animosity). Thus, the same authors claim that initial stable animosity can have persistent effects on future emotions triggered by animosity evoking events. In practice, this means that consumers with stable animosity will have significantly more drastic reactions to ongoing conflicts or crises.

Some differences between stable and situational animosity are illustrated in figure 4. In the stable animosity case, the baseline regarding animosity effect strength is higher than in the situational animosity case, and remains constantly above zero, meaning that animosity has a constant effect on the consumers. In the situational animosity case, the baseline regarding animosity effect strength could be (and in this example is set) at zero

level, meaning animosity has no effect on the consumers during those times. The peaks in the line chart represent conflicts/crisis, or other animosity evoking events. As it can be seen, in the stable animosity case the effects of such events are more drastic. This graph is not intended to illustrate how big the differences between stable and situational animosity are (for example measured in per cents etc.), but to illustrate the basic theory.

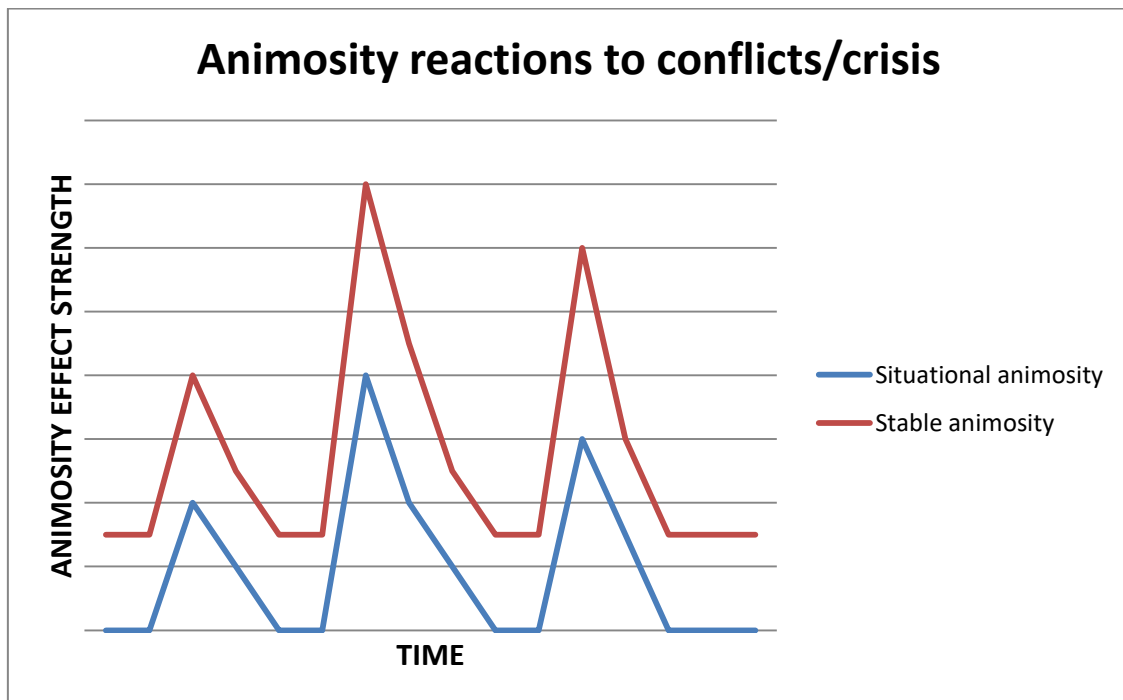


Figure 4. Line chart illustrating the theoretical differences between situational and stable animosity in times of animosity evoking events.

One practical example of a conflict in the context of situational animosity can be presented from the study of Edwards, Gut and Mavondo (2007), referred already earlier. French nuclear tests in the South Pacific in 1995 caused consumers to boycott French products and services. Despite the significant, and relatively quickly manifested hindrances to French (and French associated) businesses in Australia at the time, the effects dissipated in less than two years. The authors believed that this was partly thanks to historically good relations between Australia and France, indicating that there was no initial stable animosity between the countries.

In contrast, a common example of stable animosity could be presented in the relationship between China and Japan. Qing (2013) presents a wide array of sources of animosity, which have over time originated, maintained, strengthened and eventually passed down the animosity to further generations. The same author describes the animosity relationship of the Chinese towards the Japanese as having evolved into a “complex social, cultural and national phenomenon that is deeply embedded in many aspects of Chinese society”.

Lastly, it is worth mentioning that some authors (Sutkino and Cheng, 2011) have perceived the concepts of situational and stable animosity as confusing, relative terms, which are debatable. They also state that most of animosity research has adopted merely the two original dimensions presented by Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998). While it is true, that all animosity research does not take situational and stable dimensions into account, the rather wide use (and acceptance) of those dimensions in various researches in well-known academic journals cannot be ignored either. Moreover, the use of stable and situational dimensions is simply not necessary for many types of consumer animosity research, thus making it irrelevant to use in all studies. However, it seems clear that the exact line between situational and stable animosity, at least regarding the more particular tipping points (as in when exactly e.g. situational animosity evolves into stable animosity), are supposedly left debatable. This view is also supported by Li (2008) as it is stated that evolution over time may blur the borderline between stable and situational animosity. Similarly, one could make the argument that surely even the most hostile animosity relationships can be reconciled, given a long enough time frame - a view that would make all animosity merely temporary. In spite of all, the framework involving these dimensions seems to be rather evidently useful in practice (e.g. for managerial purposes in business), which makes it a relevant part of consumer animosity research. These managerial implications are discussed later on in this study.

2.6. LOCUS OF ANIMOSITY'S MANIFESTATION

Jung, Ang, Leong, Tan, Pornpitakpan and Kau (2002) suggest that animosity can be divided into national dimension (at the macro level), and personal dimension (at the micro level). This characterization is based on the locus of animosity's manifestation. The same authors suggest that national animosity refers to situations, where one perceives that his/her own country has suffered or is suffering, due to actions of a foreign country. In other words, national animosity reflects the feelings of individual's towards perceived threats to their homeland's national superiority, competitiveness, and sovereignty (Feshbach, 1994). In practice, e.g. unemployment is a phenomenon that consumers may blame other countries for (and thus feel animosity towards them) (Jung et al. 2002; Times of India, 2016; The News International, 2016).

In contrast, Jung et al. (2002) suggest that the personal dimension of animosity refers to situations in which an individual "feels resentment towards another country because of negative personal experiences s/he has with the foreign country or with people from that country". In other words, they claim it originates from personal setbacks suffered on the individual level, caused by perceived provocations. In later research (Ang et al. 2004) it is specified, that unemployment (used as an example source of possible national animosity above) can cause animosity on the personal level as well, if the unemployment situation of the country has had a negative effect on the consumer on the personal level. This could be the case e.g. when oneself loses a job or has to settle for lower salary.

Thus, it could be said that a single particular root cause can lead to animosities in (either) one, or both of the (personal and national) dimension, depending on the standpoint of the particular consumer. For example, immigrants can arouse animosity in some consumers (Moufakkir, 2014; Gec and Perviz, 2012; Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2012), and the essential variable in this context would be whether a consumer perceives

that immigrants from country x are hurting one's home country (e.g. by exploiting one's country, or statistically increasing the crime rates of one's country (Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2012)), or whether the feelings are based on the consumer having bad personal experiences with immigrants from a country x (thru, e.g. being a victim of crime by immigrants from country x).

Finally, it should be clarified that Ang et al. (2004) refer to personal experiences as including not only setbacks encountered by the consumer himself/herself, but also e.g. personal upset caused by the suffering of friends or family members. Concerning the above discussed dimensions of personal and national animosity, as well as the dimensions of stable and situational animosity discussed in the previous section, a 2x2 typology of animosity has been proposed (Jung et al. 2002; Ang et al. 2004). This typology is illustrated in figure 5 below.

	PERSONAL	NATIONAL
STABLE	Personal stable	National stable
SITUATIONAL	Personal situational	National situational

Figure 5. The 2x2 typology of animosity, illustrated based on the theory of Jung et al. (2002).

2.7. PEOPLE ANIMOSITY

Similarly to personal animosity, people animosity has its roots in consumers' dislike of people of certain origins. Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2012) see people animosity dimension reflecting "strong dislike of the mentality and the perceived hostility of the people from the animosity target". In their study typical reasons for disliking people of certain origins (and expressing animosity towards their country) were perceived: unfriendliness, harshness and rudeness, arrogance, bad attitude, exploit of our country, increasing crime rates, violence and riots, terrorism, killings, deaths, ethnic hatred,

treating people as slaves, hate towards one's own country (or its citizens), corruption, littering, bad experiences during visits (to their home country), and religion/muslim. The more general scale items used were not liking the mentality of the people from country x, feeling like people from this country x are hostile and not open to foreigners, and feeling like ones' experiences with people from country x are negative. The study was conducted in the United States and Norway, and the authors found support for people animosity positively impacting psychosocial affect, for the full sample, the U.S. sample, and the Norwegian sample.

Moreover, Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2012) found it interesting that proportionally rather many respondents expressed animosity towards a country due to negative impressions of immigrants from the animosity country, living in the sample country. Furthermore, animosity was emphasized on those countries, from where the sample country had large amount of immigrants from. Thus, the authors suggest that animosities towards immigrants may stimulate animosity towards the immigrants' home countries as well. Additionally, this finding suggests that animosity theory may embrace more animosity backgrounds, than the traditionally studied bilateral conflicts.

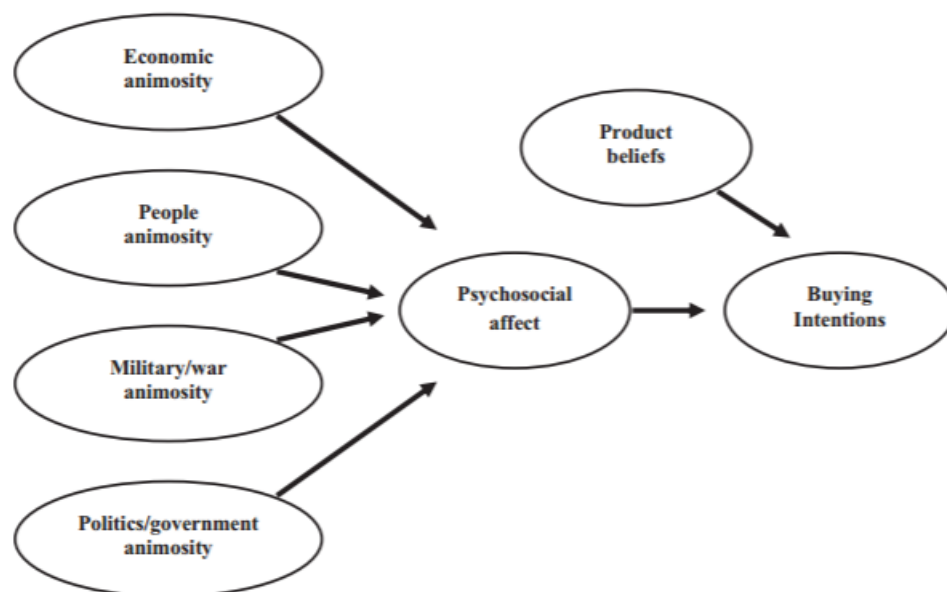


Figure 6. Extended animosity model by Yes, Nelkur and Silkoset (2012).

Gec and Perviz (2012) for their part have found people animosity to have a direct, as well as indirect effect on willingness to buy foreign products and services. Moreover, the fact that they found people animosity to be the most profound predictor of quality judgment, which in turn was by far the most important predictor of willingness to buy, is interesting (see figure 3 on page 19). Furthermore, whereas the effects of political and personal dimensions of their study lead to varying results (depending on the more particular settings/countries), people animosity's effects were found to be consistent on all of the studied animosity targets. Finally, the same authors suggested that language barriers between nationalities may encourage people animosity.

2.8. RELIGIOUS ANIMOSITY

Some animosity research treats animosity stemming from other sources, as their own more accurate categories or terms as well. However, most of these types can be treated merely as components of the other more commonly used and accepted types of animosity, and are thus briefly presented in the following three sections. Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) bring forth "religious animosity", and mentality-based animosity. The latter is later referred to as "personal-mentality animosity" by e.g. Amine (2008), and treated as one of four types of animosity in his research (along with war, economic, and religious animosity). Religious animosity has also been treated as a part of "social-cultural animosity" (Rice and Wongtada, 2007) (see figure 7 on page 30).

Religious animosity has been researched and/or noted in rather many studies worldwide (in contrast to other sources of animosity discussed in this section), including Klein (2002) which identifies common religious animosity in India, and Shoham et al. (2006) whose study concentrates on religious animosity in Israel. The results of Shoham et al.'s (2006) study suggest that religious animosity lowers willingness to buy, and affects purchase behavior towards products and services either produced by, or associated with

the animosity evoking entity. Moreover, they found religious animosity to have a negative relationship with product judgments.

Heathcote (2006) for his part discusses the religious tensions caused by the Danish newspaper's caricatures of Mohammed. Also e.g. Fattah (2006), Mohammed, Nik, Anwar, Hassan and Ebrahim (2012), Kalliny, Hausman, Saran and Ismaeil (2017), as well as Goodenough (2008), and Fox News (2006), discuss the negative impacts of the "Arab boycott" on Danish products, leading Danish companies to register losses and shut down their operations, as well as diminishing Danish people's tourism to Muslim countries, and employees of a Danish company getting assaulted in Saudi Arabia. Abosag and Farah (2014) for their part studied religious animosity in South Arabia. They concluded that religious animosity in the form of religious boycotts caused strong negative impacts on both brand image, and consumer loyalty. However, (unlike Shoham et al. (2006)) no effect on product judgments was identified. They also suggest that animosity may in fact have more stable and longer-term impacts on behavior than other animosity types (referring to the existing and more studied types). Kalliny, Hausman, Saran and Ismaeil (2017) suggest that religious animosity may have a negative economic impact comparable to war animosity and economic animosity, as religious animosity provokes the core values of some cultures. Supporting this claim, their study found religious animosity to have a negative impact on consumers' willingness to buy products from countries they view as rejecting their religious values. Moreover, they verified that religious animosity had a negative effect on product judgments as well. They also point out that religious animosities can exist between religions (e.g. Muslims versus Christians), between religions and countries (e.g. the earlier mentioned "Arab boycott" against Denmark), and also between different denominations/groups of religions (e.g. between Shia and Sunni Muslims, or between different denominations of Christian churches).

It could be said that religion based, as well as culture based animosities and boycotts emerged so far in the 21st century have not come as a surprise, as e.g. Huntington

argued already in 1993, that clashes of civilizations will only worsen, as the differences between them are not only real, but basic. He argues that differences in language, culture, tradition, and most of all - religion, will be driving forces of future conflicts over policy issues, human rights, immigration, trade and commerce. Problems most of which to this date have already surfaced on one level or another.

Lastly, in terms of religious animosity it has been raised that in some contexts it can be hard to distinguish whether the “animosity arises because of policies adopted by governments denominated by particular religious ideologies rather than because of religion, per se” (Rice and Wongtada, 2007). In other words, one could make the argument that consumers in some situations may express animosity towards government policies (which are based on religious grounds), more than the religion itself. On the other hand, it seems clear that in some of the above studies the animosity of consumers’ is evidently directed at religion itself, seemingly leaving the disputes with government policies to explain merely parts of the phenomenon.

2.9. ECOLOGICAL ANIMOSITY

Ecological matters have sometimes been treated as an individual type of animosity. One of these authors includes Rice and Wongtada (2007) (see figure 7 below). They classify ecological animosity as relating to abuse of the natural environment. They present examples of ecological animosity from Ettenson’s and Klein’s (2005) study, where it was concluded that the French nuclear tests in the South Pacific caused unwillingness to buy French products in Australia (the negative animosity effects of the nuclear tests were also studied e.g. Edwards, Gut and Mavondo, 2007). Rice and Wongtada (2007) also point out that perceived poor treatment of animals can cause ecological animosity as well. They offer the example of U.S. tourists boycotting travelling to Canada, due to seal-hunting subsidized by the Canadian government. However, some U.S. consumers not only boycotted tourism, but also rallied for a boycott of all Canadian seafood

products (Toronto Sun, 2013; CBC News, 2013). These boycotts have been promoted by a group of celebrities, and have led to some restaurants chains pulling Canadian seafood off their menus (Gerson, 2013; CBC News, 2012; CBC News, 2005). Similarly, Tian (2010) points out the calls for boycott of Japanese products, due to whaling of the Japanese.

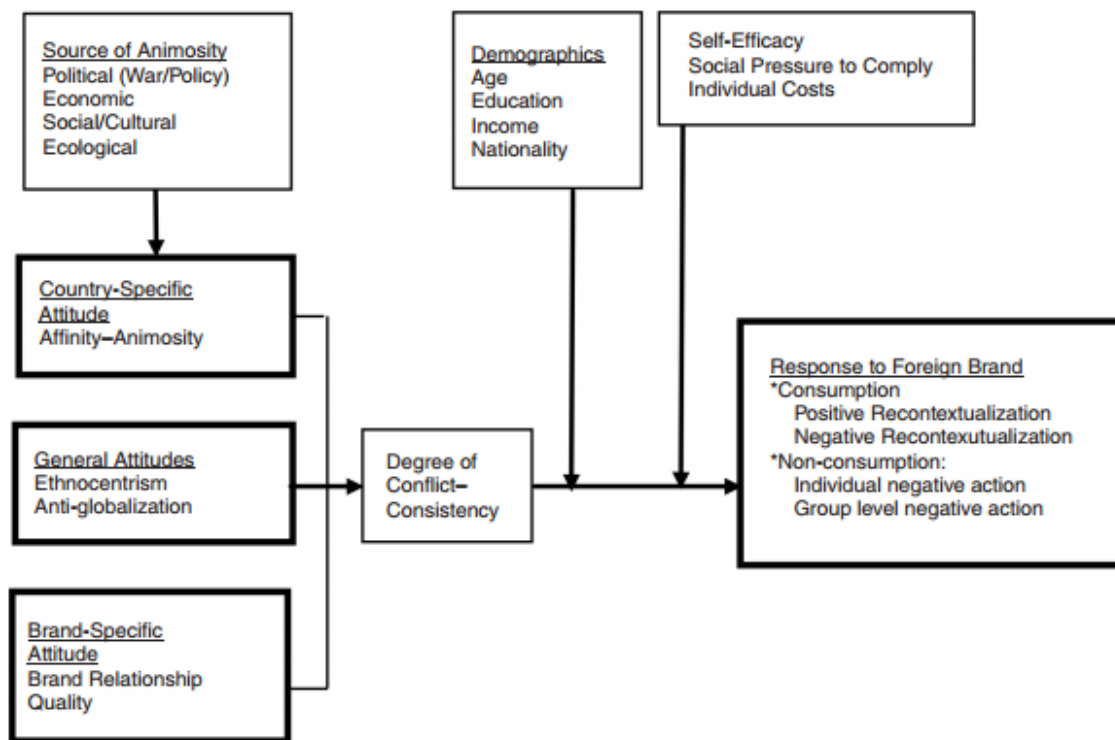


Figure 7. The model of Rice and Wongtada (2007), illustrating different variables affecting consumer response to foreign brands. In this model religious animosity is included in the social/cultural dimension, while ecological animosity is treated as an individual variable.

2.10. OTHER ANIMOSITY TYPOLOGY

Finally, other terms used in academically accepted publications in relation to consumer animosity types include e.g. “cultural animosity” (Amine, 2008; Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012), which is closely related to Rice’s and Wongtada’s (2007) classification of “social-cultural animosity” (see the previous section). Mosley and Amponsah (2006) for

their part used and researched “colonial animosity”. However, in the bigger picture colonial animosity could be seen as a part of the more established types of war, economic, and political dimensions. Moufakkir (2014) in his study on tourism (see figure 8 below) found out that “immigrant animosity” had a negative impact on intentions to visit the home country of the immigrants who consumers have inimical perceptions of. This dimension of immigrant animosity however could be classified as a part of people animosity, as it has been studied as a part of it before being treated as an independent type. Another animosity type that has been referred to in studies is “domestic animosity” (Hinck, 2004), which refers to animosity in the context of inter-border tensions (Little, Little and Cox, 2009; Little, 2010). Similarly to domestic animosity, the term “regional animosity” has been established as well (Shimp, Dunn and Klein, 2004).

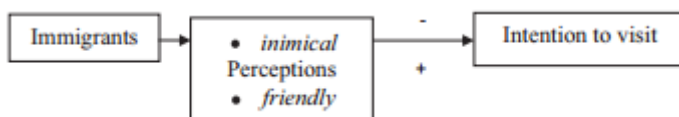


Figure 8. Immigrant animosity and its effects on perception and intention to visit (Moufakkir, 2014).

In addition to animosity types and sources discussed above, an interesting observation from consumer animosity literature seems to be, that in various researches respondents have expressed their animosity to originate from perceived animosity of others. In other words, consumers sometimes feel animosity towards a foreign country x, because of perceived hate towards oneself (or ones country) expressed by the foreign country x (or its citizens). One practical example (Qing, 2013) is the Chinese boycotts of French companies (and the French Carrefour supermarket in particular) (CNN, 2008; Branigan, 2008; NBC, 2008). The boycott of the Chinese was caused by the French demonstrations/protests against the lack of human rights in China. The French protesters disrupted, and forced cancellation of the final Olympic torch ceremony in Paris, ahead the Beijing Olympic Games in 2008 (Anderson and Moore, 2008). Similarly, American consumers expressed animosity and boycotts towards the French, hurting the French exports to the U.S. (Fox News, 2003), after the French had expressed

anger towards the actions of the U.S. in the Iraq War (Ebenkamp, 2003; Amine, Chao and Arnold, 2005; Cui Wajda and Hu, 2012). Furthermore, in the study of Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2012) some respondents specified that they dislike country x, because people from country x “hate us”. Thus, one could make the argument that animosity, at least to some degree - feeds on animosity. Accordingly, a model of animosity feeding on animosity is proposed (see figure 9 below).



Figure 9. Proposed model of animosity feeding on animosity.

This model draws from the suggestions of Ang, Jung, Kau, Leong, Pornpitakpan and Tan (2004), Moufakkir (2014), and Jung et al. (2002) in terms of hostile public statements. Hostile public statements in this context refer to agonistic accusations by one’s home country’s politicians (or other politically powerful figures) directed at other foreign countries, regardless of the accusations being based on truth, untruth, or controversial grounds. The perceived hostile accusations could also be made by politically powerful people from foreign countries, directed at one’s home country. These hostile public statements may work as painful “reminders” for consumers, similarly to the views of Berkowitz (1994) and Jung et al. (2002) in section 2.5. (concerning animosity perpetuating), as well as to the views of Russell and Russell (2006) in section 3.6. (concerning animosity triggers).

The protests and demonstrations in this context refer to protests against one’s own home country, regardless of the more specific nature of the theme of the protests or demonstrations (war, economic, political etc.). The use of this variable draws from the practical examples of protests, and rallies for boycotts against country x in country y, leading to further calls for boycotts against country y in country x (Qing, 2013; CNN, 2008; Branigan, 2008; NBC, 2008; Anderson and Moore, 2008; Fox News, 2003;

Ebenkamp, 2003; Amine, Chao and Arnold, 2005; Cui Wajda and Hu, 2012). The use of perceived hate, or perceived animosity as a predictor and/or source of animosity is based on the findings of Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2012), in which it was revealed that some consumers dislike of a foreign country x , was the perceived hate of country x (or its citizens) towards one's home country, or its citizens.

These three variables are thus hypothesized to act as sources of animosity for some consumers. Consequently, this build up consumer animosity is hypothesized to impact (at least) the most commonly affected sectors of consumer behavior, in unwillingness to buy products or services produced by, or associated with the animosity evoking country, as well as in unwillingness to visit the animosity evoking country in tourist intentions. The possible effect on product judgments is left out of the model due to its still debatable nature in consumer animosity literature.

In terms of summarizing this section of animosity typology, it seems clear that all real life scenarios cannot be fit in a single type of animosity source. Wars for instance, often bring about economic suffering as well. Then again, religious animosity could escalate into wars, or warlike behavior. Similarly, e.g. wartime memories could possibly have an (whether conscious or unconscious) effect on consumers' opinions of immigrants, thus manifesting in the form of people animosity or immigrant animosity. In other words, overlap is inevitable. Additionally, it would seem that one source of animosity should not be assumed to be universally more dominant or critical than another, as the phenomenon seems to be highly context specific, and dependent on the more particular environment. In fact, in the light of recent animosity research dealing with more diverse sources of animosity (and confirming their effects on consumer behavior), than merely the originally identified war, political, and economic disputes, it seems logical to support the view of Qing (2013), in that there is a need to break away from the accepted factors, and explore future potential sources.

Animosity research is made hard - but also particularly interesting and important by the fact that anger as an emotion involves low levels of individual control (as opposed to other emotions e.g. sadness), and one's understanding of its sources is often miniscule (Dunn and Schweitzer, 2005). Similarly, it has been stated that consumers are not often capable of realizing the impact of their emotional states on their judgments, attitudes and behavior (Kiefer, 2005). Still and all, consumer animosity typology offers a good framework in order to understand and identify potential animosity sources, which might cause significant hindrances not only for companies, but for national economies as well. However, understanding the animosity environment can not only assist in avoiding losses, but can also help finding new openings for business opportunities. These managerial implications will however be discussed more in detail in section 4.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW ON CA MODIFYING FACTORS

This section will discuss matters that may modify the functions of consumer animosity under different circumstances. These matters are relevant to understand, as consumer animosity and its consequences are context specific. This section will discuss the following topics: How consumer animosity may be manifested in different ways by different people (3.1.), what are the differences between the dimensions of business to business (hereinafter referred to as B2B) and business to consumer (hereinafter referred to as B2C) in the context of consumer animosity (3.2.), how demographic factors affect consumer animosity (3.3.), what are the effects of internationality and competitiveness of the settings on consumer animosity (3.4.), the effects of culture on consumer animosity (3.5.), animosity triggers (3.6.), the effects of empathy and authoritarianism on consumer animosity (3.7.), how consumer animosity functions in the context of hybrid products (3.8.), does the perceived purposefulness of animosity evoking actions matter (3.9.), and finally a summary of other researched variables that may modify consumer animosity (3.10). The objective of this section is to present information which is necessary in understanding, assessing or evaluating different consumer animosity situations.

3.1. AGONISTIC EMOTIONS VERSUS RETREAT EMOTIONS

The difference between agonistic emotions and retreat emotions in the context of consumer animosity has been studied e.g. by Harmeling, Magnusson and Singh, 2015. Agonistic emotions such as anger (or madness, irritation, frustration etc.), refer to approach-oriented emotions. These emotions are associated with the desire to retaliate against and/or punish the referent. Instead, retreat emotions such as fear (or tension, worry etc.), refer to avoidance-oriented emotions. These emotions are associated with the desire to distance oneself from the referent. This definition of agonistic emotions and retreat emotions has been presented by Roseman, 1996.

It has been found out (Harmeling, Magnusson and Singh, 2015) that agonistic emotions cause negative word of mouth and product avoidance. However, agonistic emotions have not been linked to lowered product quality judgment. Retreat emotions for their part seem to cause product avoidance, and affect product quality judgment, but they have not been identified to cause negative word of mouth. These causal connections are presented in the following figure.

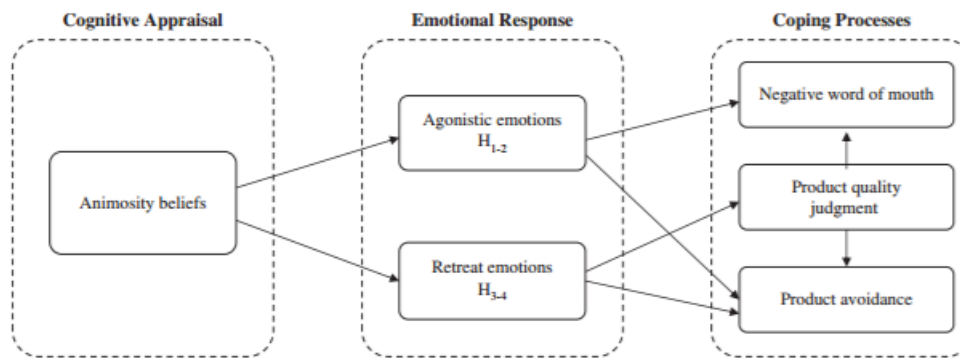


Figure 10, The emotional core of consumer animosity (Harmeling, Magnusson and Singh, 2015).

The core thing to understand from this study (Harmeling et al. 2015) seems to be that people with feelings of animosity may behave differently, depending on the more accurate type of animosity feelings that they have. It has also been claimed that culturally individualistic people are more likely to react with agonistic emotions, whereas culturally collective people are more likely to react with retreat emotions (Zourrig, Chebat and Toffoli, 2009).

The authors (Harmeling et al. 2015) argue that from the perspective of companies (and why not governments as well), the positive side of people reacting with agonistic emotions seems to be that their presence is relatively easy to identify, as they often cause e.g. visible public protests or rallies (either on the streets or on social message boards). This visibility makes it easier for brand managers to recognize, and react to (implementing strategic response). Naturally, the downside of visible and angry consumers is the fact that they may spread it to more consumers, creating a viral effect

(also known as snowball effect). In addition, there is some evidence to suggest that avoidance tendencies tend to increase over time, whereas revenge behavior tends to decrease over time (Gregoire, Tripp and Legoux, 2009).

3.2. BUSINESS TO BUSINESS VERSUS BUSINESS TO CONSUMER

The differences between B2C markets and B2B markets in the context of consumer animosity has been studied e.g. by Edwards, Gut and Mavondo, 2007, referred already earlier. These authors studied the effects in the context of the French nuclear tests in 1995, in the South Pacific. These nuclear tests caused consumer animosity e.g. in Australia. The results of their study showed that while B2B market is not immune to the effects of consumer animosity, the effects seem to be less significant, than in the B2C markets. More specifically, it was found out that B2C companies received significantly more calls for boycotts by consumers than B2B companies. Secondly, B2C companies suffered greater loss of sales than B2B companies. And thirdly, B2C companies were more likely to be targeted by the media, than B2B companies. The authors believe that one reason behind B2B markets being more protected from the consumer animosity effects is that in B2B markets companies tend to make longer-term investments in customer relationships than in the B2C markets. Their findings (of B2C markets being more vulnerable than B2C markets) seem to be consistent with some earlier literature concentrating on country of origin effects (Ahmed and D`Astous, 1995; Ahmed, D`Astous and El Adraoui, 1994; Cordell, 1992; Robertson and Wind, 1980) which have stated e.g. that industrial buyers tend to focus more on costs, performance, and quality issues, whereas consumers are more likely to emphasize brand characteristics such as aesthetics, prestige and symbolism. In other words, industrial buyers' decisions seem to be more rational than those of consumers.

3.3. DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Different demographic factors affecting consumer animosity have been studied in multiple studies worldwide. It has been proposed (Amine, 2008), and supported (Bahae and Pisani, 2009) that the context and the historical picture must be taken into consideration whenever studying consumer animosity dyads. Similarly, it has been stated that as each animosity setting is unique, findings pertaining to the same variable often contradict each other (Gec and Perviz, 2012). Consequently, generalizations are hard to make. Thus, the following results and suggestions concerning different demographic factors are to be interpreted with the more particular context and situation in mind. This section will represent study results from previous research concerning education, age, gender, and foreign travel / international orientation. Mentions of other studied variables are also presented in a short summary in the end of this section.

Education is one demographic factor that has been studied in the context of consumer animosity by various authors. Bahae and Pisani (2009) found an inverse relationship between consumer animosity and education, in their study conducted on Iranian consumers. In other words, as the amount of education increased, the amount of consumer animosity decreased. This result of an inverse relationship between the two has also been supported by e.g. Rice and Wongtada (2007). Furthermore, Mosley and Amponsah (2006) who studied the effects of education on consumer animosity also found an inverse relationship between the two, in their study conducted on Ghanaian respondents.

On the other hand e.g. Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007) in their study, found a positive relationship between education and consumer animosity (as the amount of education increased, so did the amount of consumer animosity). Similarly, Al Ganideh and Elahee (2012) in their study in Jordan found education to increase consumers' animosity towards Britain. However, Klein and Ettenson (1999), as well as Shah and Halim

(2011) for their part did not manage to find a significant correlation between the two whatsoever. Consequently, it would seem that in the context of education, it is more a matter of “what kind of education”, than “how much of education”. This view is supported e.g. by Gec and Perviz (2012), as they categorize education as a variable that can either decrease or increase consumer animosity. Thus, in order to understand the possible effects of education on consumer animosity, it seems crucial to first understand whether the education in question is e.g. affected by propaganda, or whether the education itself (e.g. learning English) might be making it possible for people to access global (and thus possibly less biased) news.

Another common variable that has been studied is **age**. Much like with education, the results concerning age seem to be mixed. For example, Klein and Ettenson (1999), as well as Hinck (2004) have found a positive correlation between age and consumer animosity, whereas e.g. Bahaee and Pisani (2009) found an inverse correlation between the two. Other studies in support of a positive relationship include Klein (2002), Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007), and Shah and Halim (2011). Other studies in support of an inverse relationship include e.g. Huang, Phau and Lin (2010a), Urbonavicius, Dikcius, Gineikiene and Degutis (2010). Furthermore, some studies e.g. Funk, Arthurs, Trevino and Joireman (2010), and Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998) failed to identify any statistically significant relationship between the two. Accordingly, it seems fair to support the view of Little, Little and Cox (2009), backed up e.g. by Gec and Perviz (2012) in that “it is not the age per se, but the environment in which values, preferences and behaviors of each person are formed and which play a crucial role in determining the level of animosity”. However, it has also been proposed, that in general e.g. better access to information (apparently hinting towards the availability of internet and global news) may have made the younger consumers more prone to feelings of animosity (Sutkino and Cheng, 2011).

Another demographic factor that has been taken into account in many studies is **gender**. The results of the effect of gender on consumer animosity are mixed. Some studies have

reported that there tends to be more consumer animosity within men (Matic and Puh, 2011; Shah and Halim, 2011; Gec and Perviz, 2012; Klein, 2002; Klein et al, 1998). On the other hand, some studies have gotten the opposite results (Bahae and Pisani, 2009; Sutkino and Cheng, 2011). Then again, there are various studies that did not find a statistically significant relationship between gender and consumer animosity at all (Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Funk, Arthurs, Trevino and Joireman, 2010; Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007). Consequently, even though there seems to be some more findings in favor of males being more likely to hold feelings of animosity than females, there is not enough evidence to say that this is universally true. Ultimately, there is no consensus on this topic in the field of study.

However, it seems worth mentioning that for example in the study by Bahae and Pisani, 2009, where females were found to be significantly more likely to hold higher consumer animosity feelings than men, the authors themselves felt like this result was expected, given the circumstances. This study was conducted in Iran, where the authors claim women are very sheltered, and not much affected by “outside influences” (such as global news), thus allowing government propaganda to have a bigger influence on their thinking. It seems worth mentioning, that also the other research which found women expressing more animosity than men, was conducted in a country (Indonesia), which by various sources is listed as low in gender equality (Haines, 2016; National Geographic, 2015) thus possibly affecting the animosity results thru factors actually not related to gender (such as education and role in society).

One interesting factor that has been taken into account in Bahae’s and Pisani’s (2009) study was **foreign travel**. Foreign travel was found to have a significant inverse relationship with consumer animosity. This factor, and the effects of it on consumer animosity seem to need further research, but there is some previous research that would seem to give some preliminary support for the hypothesis that foreign travel can potentially lower consumer animosity towards foreign countries. Such studies include e.g. Nijssen and Douglas (2004), which found out that **internationally oriented** (e.g.

interest in foreign travel) people are less likely to be ethnocentric and to evaluate foreign products negatively. More generally, it has been stated (Appadurai, 1990) that foreign travel and exposure to people from other countries can reduce misrepresentation, mistrust and misunderstandings between different groups. Furthermore, it has been claimed that communication with other cultures reduces the ingroup-outgroup-effect (LeVine and Campbell, 1972).

Other less studied demographic factors which have been taken into account in previous research include e.g. the dimension of **rural versus urban** environment. A study of Mosley and Amponsah (2006) conducted in Ghana got support for their hypothesis of the degree of urbanity being negatively associated with consumer animosity. Al Ganideh and Elahee (2012) got similar results in their study conducted in Jordan. Additionally, Shah and Halim (2011) got similar results in their study of Indonesia as well. In other words, consumers living in rural areas expressed more animosity. However, despite the similarity of the results, the still small sampling has to be taken into account before drawing premature conclusions. However, these results would at least seem to provide reasoning for similar hypothesis in future research, in order to clarify the nature of the relationship.

Also e.g. **membership in a union** (animosity increasing effect) and **race** (Caucasian Americans more than others) have been studied (Klein and Ettenson, 1999). Other socio-demographic factors such as **occupation, civil status, political party preference, and income** have been studied as well (e.g. Moufakkir, 2014; Bahaee and Pisani, 2009; Klein and Ettenson, 1999), but the results are too scarce or conflicting to generalize, or to draw conclusions from.

It seems fair to mention that even though many of the demographic factors discussed above do not seem to act in the same way in all situations, the way they affect the results in the individual studies, mostly seems to make sense (both in the minds of the

authors of the examined studies, and the author of this study). In other words, even though e.g. age or education cannot automatically be assumed to have the very same effect on consumer animosity in all countries, they very likely can be used as predictors of consumer animosity by someone who has in-depth knowledge of the particular country's history and/or situation. Thus, many socio-demographic factors could be utilized in practice (e.g. in market segmentation), but successful execution would most likely require market research, or in-depth understanding of the local animosity environment.

3.4. INTERNATIONAL AND OPEN ENVIRONMENTS, AND COMPETITIVE SETTINGS

It has been speculated, that the traditional consumer animosity model might not work in the usual way, if the environment was highly “international” or “open”. In other words, there was doubt that people in that type of environment might not be affected by animosity, when making purchase decisions. This was studied by Nijssen and Douglas (2004) in the context of Netherlands. It was hypothesized that due to Netherlands high imports, general openness of people, and wide selection of foreign goods, the study might generate unusual results. The hypothesis was also seemingly supported by the fact that consumers from small open societies are more likely to travel outside their country, and that communicating and exchanging ideas with people from other cultures reduces the ingroup-outgroup effect, also decreasing hatred towards outgroups (Levine and Campbell, 1972). Additionally, Netherlands unlike large industrialized countries do not have any domestic options in many product categories (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004).

However, the result of the study was that consumer animosity was a strong predictor of reluctance to buy, and had an important impact on evaluation of foreign products. This study can be seen as a strong sign of the significance of consumer animosity, not only due to high openness and internationality of the environment, but also the fact that the

study's respondents leaned towards young, better-educated people, who were the ones most open to foreign products in this study. Furthermore, this study suggests that war animosity has a strong direct effect on reluctance to buy, whereas economic animosity seems to affect reluctance to buy indirectly, through ethnocentrism.

Finally, this study showed that while consumer animosity affected the evaluation of foreign products, even when there were no domestic options available, the effects of consumer animosity were stronger when there was a single domestic brand competing with a foreign option. Interestingly, this competitive setting between a domestic, and a foreign option, seemed to trigger or increase feelings of economic animosity.

3.5. CULTURAL EFFECTS ON CA

It has been suggested that in comparison to consumers from individualistic cultures, consumers from collectivistic cultures tend to express more animosity at the national level (dimension), rather than at the personal level (dimension) (Jung et al. 2002). These dimensions of individualistic cultures versus collectivistic cultures refer to Geert Hofstede's (2017) dimensions of national cultures. In fact, the issue of collectivism increasing the in-group versus out-group effect and possibly exacerbating conflicts has been taken into consideration already before consumer animosity research started (Leung, 1987; Leung, Au, Fernandez-Dols and Iwawaki, 1992).

Another cultural effect in the consumer animosity context is peer pressure. In cultures, sub-cultures, or environments where animosity towards target x is common, even those individuals without any material animosity may be pressured to dislike, or at least to show no sign of approval towards the animosity target x (Qing, 2013). The same author suggests that even when peer pressure does not create animosity per se, it does lead to

similar practical consequences in creating unwillingness to buy due to animosity of those in one's social groups.

3.6. ANIMOSITY TRIGGERS AND ACTIVATING ANIMOSITY

Russell and Russell (2006) studied consumer animosity effects between France and the U.S., in the context of movies (and movie tickets). At the time of study, it was seen that there were economic, political, and war animosity feelings between the two countries, and that those animosity feelings had been aggravated by the recent U.S. international tensions over the war in Iraq (Russell and Russell, 2006), creating anti-American attitudes that lead to consumers boycotting products originating from the United States (The Economist, 2003; 2005; Sherwood, 2008).

The research (Russell and Russell, 2006), and the three studies it included were conducted with the use of “animosity statements”, and French/U.S. cultural prompts. The low-animosity statement described the trade relations between France and the United States in a positive (but truthful) light, while the high-animosity statement described the trade relations in a negative (but also truthful) light. It was found out that despite extensive media coverage (at the time) on the supposed tensions between France and the United States, the French only expressed resistance when animosity was stimulated, and when the U.S. origin of a movie was emphasized. For example, when exposed to the high-animosity statement and an U.S. movie, 31,7% of the participants chose to receive U.S. movie tickets. Under other circumstances 39,7-45,1% of the participants chose U.S. movie tickets. The study suggests that in some consumers, who do not normally let feelings of animosity affect their decisions, the animosity can be activated or triggered by “reminding” or “informing” them of the apparent negative outcomes of their actions.

Thus, Russell and Russell (2006) claim that “animosity may be better thought of as a latent construct that can be activated by contextual variables”. Also, interestingly this activating/triggering effect on individuals could be seen as somewhat similar to the earlier introduced concept of situational animosity, which can be sparked by a particular episode, but is not a long lasting emotion that is “active” more or less all the time (which would be stable animosity).

3.7. EMPATHY AND AUTHORITARIANISM

In a fairly recent study by Shoham and Gavish (2016), the relationships between empathy and consumer animosity, as well as authoritarianism and consumer animosity were studied. They defined empathy thru the statements of Strayer and Eisenberg (1987), defining it as “feeling in oneself the feeling of others”, as well as thru suggestions of (Davis, 1994), labeling empathy as dealing with feelings of compassion towards others. Empathy was measured by Wang’s, Davidson’s, Yakushko’s, Savoy’s, Tan’s, and Bleier’s (2003) 7-item scale. Authoritarianism on the other hand, was characterized e.g. thru “high degree of submission to authorities who perceived as established and legitimate”, as well as “general aggressiveness”, and “a high degree of adherence to the social conventions that are perceived to be endorsed by society and its established authorities” (Altemeyer, 1998). Authoritarianism was measured by McFarland’s (2005) 10-item scale.

The study was conducted on Jewish-Israeli consumers, and researched their consumer behavior towards products from the Palestinian Authority. The results of the study suggest that authoritarianism and consumer animosity are strongly and positively associated. In other words, authoritarianism seems to be a strong predictor of consumer animosity. Empathy on the other hand was found to be negatively associated with consumer animosity. Stated differently, the more empathy a consumer expressed, the less likely was s/he to express high levels of consumer animosity. However, unlike the

relationship between authoritarianism and consumer animosity, the relationship between empathy and consumer animosity was merely marginally significant.

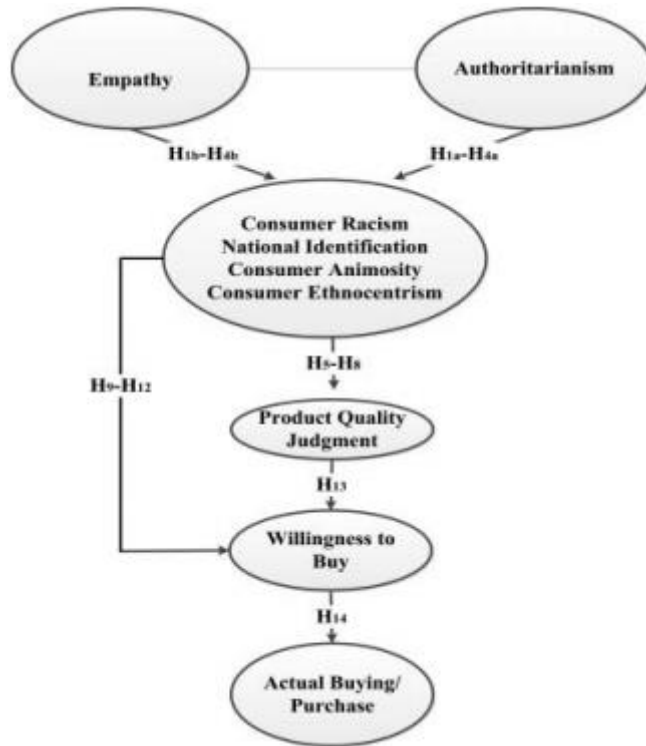


Figure 11. The empathy-authoritarianism model of Shoham and Gavish (2016).

3.8. HYBRID PRODUCTS

Companies nowadays often manufacture hybrid products, and aim to utilize it in their marketing as well (Wee, 2015; Metropolis Magazine, 2012; China Daily; 2013). The trend towards hybrid products has been driven by companies' increased offshoring and outsourcing (Funk, Arthurs, Trevino and Joireman, 2010). Hybrid products refer to products which include elements (whether physical or not) originating from various countries. Instead of the traditional "made in" label, also labels such as "designed in" and "assembled in" are used. In country of origin studies (e.g. in animosity research) these are often referred to as COM (country of manufacture), and COB (country of origin of brand).

Funk, Arthurs, Trevino and Joireman (2010) studied whether or not consumer animosity would affect hybrid products, similarly to how it has been shown to affect fully foreign products (from animosity evoking countries) in earlier studies. The results of their study showed, that consumer animosity indeed was inversely related to willingness to purchase (WTP) hybrid products associated with the animosity target country. The study was conducted on U.S. consumers, and tested their attitudes towards Canada, India and Iran. As hypothesized, WTP was lowered due to consumer animosity in the case of India and Iran, with products associated with Iran suffering a more drastic drop in WTP (due to greater amount of expressed consumer animosity towards Iran than India).

Cheah, Phau, Khea and Huang (2016) for their part studied the effects of consumer animosity in the context of hybrid products, in a high animosity environment. The study was conducted on Chinese consumers in the city of Nanjing, where consumer animosity towards Japanese products has been found out be high in previous studies. The results of the study showed that consumer animosity significantly decreased willingness to buy not only Japanese products, but hybrid products associated with Japan as well. The unwillingness to buy Japanese products was greater than the unwillingness to buy hybrid products. However, the difference between the two was not great enough to be considered statistically significant. Therefore, it was concluded that (at least) in high animosity environments, merely elements (or associations) from the animosity evoking country, are enough to trigger avoidance and boycott behavior comparable to that expressed towards products originating completely from the animosity evoking country. Finally, it is worth mentioning that the hybrid products were specifically identified as partly Chinese (the home country of respondents).

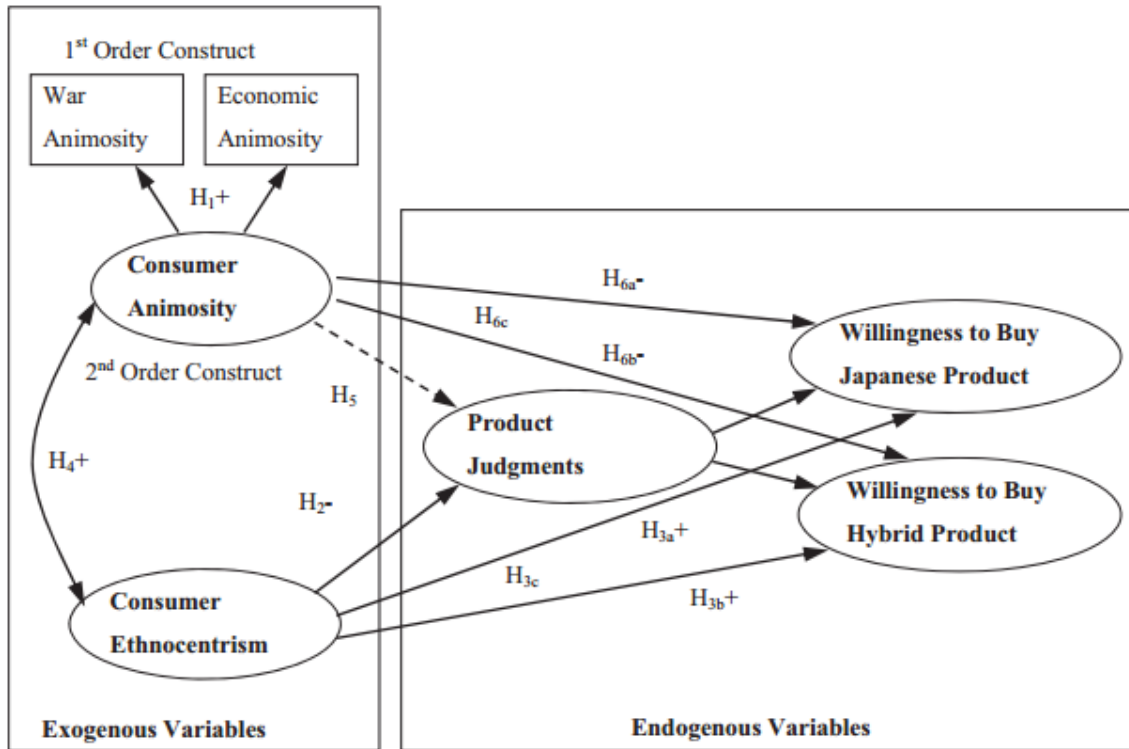


Figure 12. The model of Cheah, Phau, Kea and Huang (2016), concerning consumer animosity towards hybrid products.

3.9. PERCEIVED PURPOSEFULNESS OF ACTIONS

Little (2010) studied consumer animosity in light of perceived purposefulness. The results of their study suggest that consumers react more drastically in terms of consumer animosity, when the actions of the animosity evoking entity are seen as guided (in contrast to unguided). In other words, perceived purposeful actions seem to cause more consumer animosity than “accidents”. Similarly, they suggest that the perceived purposefulness of consequences caused by actions (whether guided or unguided) has an effect on the level of animosity expressed by consumers. Thus, actions leading to intended consequences seem to raise more consumer animosity, than those actions that e.g. thru indiscretion or carelessness, lead to animosity evoking results (see figure 13 below).

		Consequences	
Actions		Intended	Unintended
	Unguided	<u>Mechanical Cause</u> - Intervening Agent - Machines	<u>Accidental Cause</u> - Natural Disasters - Machine runs amok
	Purposeful	<u>Intentional Cause</u> - Assault - Oppression	<u>Inadvertent Cause</u> - Side effects - Carelessness

Figure 13. Stone's (1989) types of causal theories in Little (2010).

One might wonder how could there be unintended actions, which lead to intended consequences (mechanical causes). However, in this context these type of actions refer to situations where e.g. entity/country x sells weapons to entity/country y, which in turn uses the weapons against entity/country z. Or similarly, McDonald's sells food, which in some cases (and amounts), could lead to health problems (Little and Singh, 2016). In both examples the basic action (sales of weapons or food) is not (at least universally) considered unethical or especially animosity evoking, but the (possibly intended) consequences have often been debated and criticized (Moss, 2013; Crowe, 2013; Mäntymaa, 2016; Nieminen, 2016; MTV, 2016).

<u>CONSEQUENCE</u>		
<u>ACTION</u>	Unintended	Intended
Unintended	Unintended / Unintended	Unintended / Intended
Intended	Intended / Unintended	Intended / Intended

Figure 14. Table illustrating the potential severity of consumer animosity evoking events, drawing from the theories of Stone (1989), Little (2010), and Little and Singh (2016).

One of the upsides of this model and theory is that unlike most consumer animosity theory being very context specific (e.g. specific in certain historical events and certain populations/countries), this model is easier to generalize into use in a wider scope of situations worldwide (Little and Singh, 2016). The presented framework may prove useful for companies (and possibly national economies as well) e.g. in terms of risk assessment, as tobacco companies for instance have been fined hundreds of billions of dollars for their assumed mechanical causes, and some activists are rallying for similar fines to certain food industries (Wald, 2003; Nestle, 2015; Boyle, 2013; O’Flynn, 2015; BBC, 2015). The framework and theory also contribute to managerial practical implications regarding dealing with crises, which will be discussed later on in this study.

3.10. OTHER MODIFYING FACTORS

External attribution and **perceived external control** (see figure 15 below) have been suggested to be positively related to consumer animosity (Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau and Pornpitakpan, 2008). The study was conducted in five different Asian countries in the context of the Asian economic crisis in 1997. External attribution refers to the clearness of who is to blame for the animosity evoking event, while external control refers to how much control did the blamed party have over the event and its consequences (similarly to perceived purposefulness of actions, see section 3.9.) (Weiner, 1986; Leong et al, 2008).

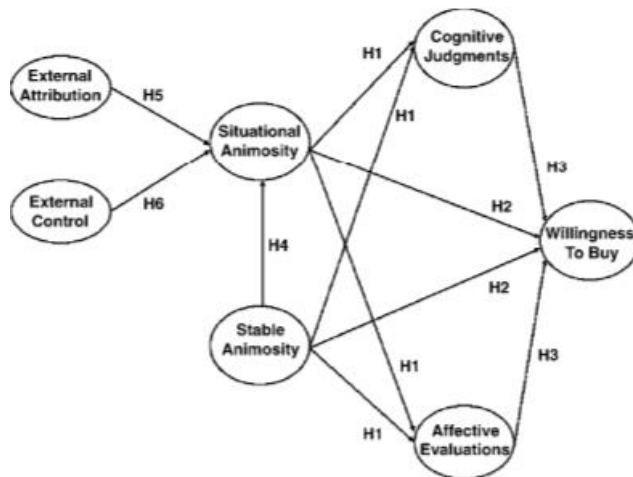


Figure 15. The hypothesized and generally supported model testing the effects of external attribution and external control on situational animosity (Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau and Pornpitakpan, 2008)

Nostalgia for country x has been suggested to lower consumer animosity towards that country x (Urbonavicius, Dickius, Gineikene and Degutis, 2010). According to the same authors nostalgia can stem from feelings of (previously) being a part of the country in question. **Dogmatism**, **nationalism** and **internationalism** (see figure 16 below) have been identified as predictors of animosity as well (Shoham et al, 2006). The authors conducted the study in Israel, and found dogmatism and nationalism to be positively related to consumer animosity, while internationalism was found to be inversely related to consumer animosity. Dogmatism has been identified as positively related to consumer animosity by Little's (2010) study as well. In the same study, also **ego-involvement** was found to be positively related to consumer animosity. Ego-involvement refers to situations where a consumer reacts to an event that is perceived as negatively affecting oneself on a personal level. Also **patriotism** and **prejudice** (toward a nation) have been identified as positively related to consumer animosity in a research conducted in the United States (Klein and Ettenson, 1999).

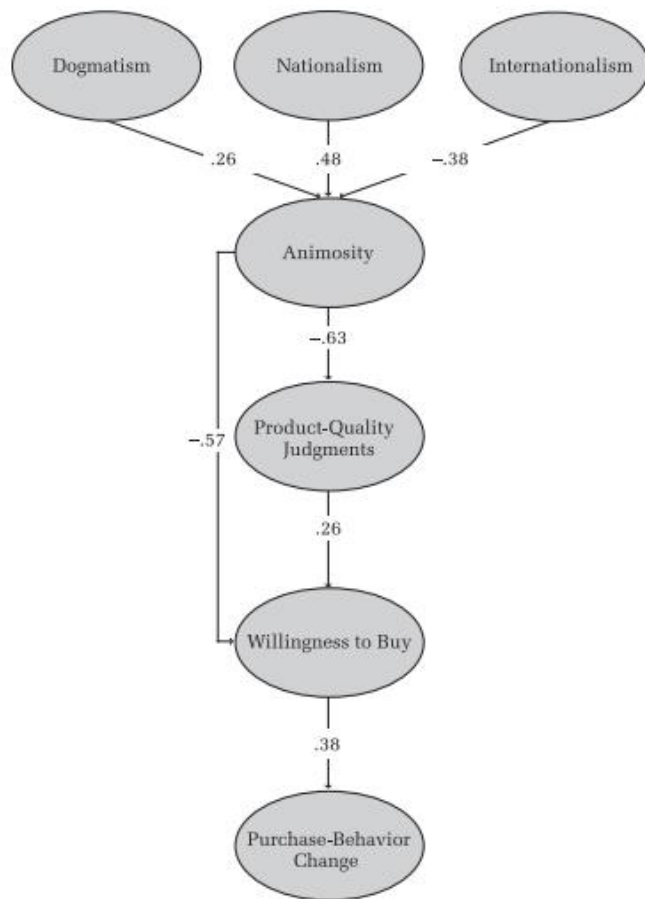


Figure 16. Shoham et al's (2006) model, illustrating predictors and effects of animosity.

4. THE EFFECTS OF CA AND CA MANAGEMENT

This section will address the consequences and effects of consumer animosity, which have economic or commercial significance in the context of consumer behavior. Thus, any other possible e.g. social effects/issues will not be covered, unless they have been identified to significantly - directly or indirectly impact the aforementioned dimensions of business.

4.1. WILLINGNESS TO BUY

The most essential consequence of consumer animosity is undoubtedly its effect on willingness to buy. In consumer animosity research the fundamentally same phenomenon is sometimes studied under the name of purchase intention, or buying intention as well. Various studies have pointed out that consumer animosity has a negative impact on willingness to buy (e.g. Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998; Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Klein, 2002; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Qing, 2013; Gec and Perviz, 2012; Shoham et al, 2006; Rice and Wongtada, 2007; Rose, Rose and Shoham, 2009; Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012; Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012; Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2012). In contrast, few studies (e.g. Tian, 2010) have reported conflicting results of consumer animosity not having a statistically significant negative impact on willingness to buy. Moreover, e.g. the aforementioned study of Tian (2010) yielding contradictory results studied a relatively weak animosity relationship, and the study was conducted two years after the assumed animosity evoking event took place. All in all, this effect of consumer animosity is undoubtedly supported to a degree that it can be considered a fact in the field of study.

As consumer animosity increases, the unwillingness to buy products or services from the animosity target increases as well. Thus, depending on the level of animosity, the

effects can range from miniscule to absolute. Absolute in this context could mean total refusal of products from the opposed target - a boycott. However, also relatively low levels of consumer animosity have been identified to affect consumer behavior (Klein and Morris, 1996). It has been suggested that especially when a consumer has two (or more) products/services as options, which seem otherwise rather equal, then animosity can act as the deciding factor, even if the level of animosity is relatively low (Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012). Similarly with willingness to buy, consumer animosity has also been identified as negatively related to re-purchase intent and customer loyalty (Akdogan, Ozgener, Kaplan and Coskun, 2012; Pai and Sundar, 2014).

Interestingly, unwillingness to buy is sometimes (possibly by accident) directed at products or services, which are not by strict definition a part of the actual animosity target. For example, unwillingness to buy has been directed at ethnic restaurants, which are not owned or ran by people of that ethnicity or nationality (Edwards, Gut and Mavondo, 2007; Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012). In other words, in some cases any products, services or businesses in one way or another associated with the opposed animosity target may suffer from the same consequences.

4.2. WILLINGNESS TO VISIT

Some authors (e.g. Moufakkir, 2014; De Nisco, Mainolfi, Marino and Napolitano, 2014; Rice and Wongtada, 2007) have pointed out that animosity towards a country can also reduce willingness to visit the opposed country as a tourist. Naturally, animosity could affect consumer behavior in terms of tourism the other way around as well. In other words, consumers may not be willing to travel to a country that is perceived to possess animosities towards one's home country (e.g. for safety reasons). Thus, in addition to actual borders and requirements, also perceptual borders which are affected by animosity, affect the consumer behavior in the context of tourism (Timothy and Tosun, 2003; Moufakkir 2014). Similarly to products and services, the effects could be felt by

parties not belonging to the actual animosity target as well (e.g. airlines of different origins/ownership).

4.3. SNOWBALL EFFECT

This section deals with consequences of consumer animosity, which are not necessarily significant economically or businesswise per se, but potentially lead to further effects, which in turn may alter consumer behavior. Firstly, consumer animosity may lead to **negative word of mouth** (Harmeling, Magnusson and Singh, 2015), which has the potential to hurt businesses. However, sometimes negative word of mouth can escalate into more organized actions in the form of **activism**. This thesis has presented various real life examples, where consumers have organized rallies, protests, campaigns, and demonstrations, calling for more and more consumers to join their cause.

It could be argued that the present digitally and globally connected times provide a better breeding ground for activism and viral effects than ever before, as internet and social media can involve massive amounts of people throughout the world very quickly. This can be problematic for businesses, because boycotts have more power, when there are more consumers involved. Likewise, there are likely more consumers involved, when more consumers are aware of the animosity evoking information in the first place. This view seems to get some support from Sen, Gurhan-Canli and Morwitz (2001) as they state that consumers are increasingly using boycotts as their preferred mean in expressing dissatisfaction in the marketplace. Some further support seems to be provided by Haenschen's (2016) study, which suggests that internet and social media can boost consumer participation in political activities, such as rallies e.g. thru peer/social pressure (see section 3.5; peer pressure). In some cases, activism has also escalated into **vandalism** and destruction of property, such as cars and restaurants of certain country origins (Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012; Qing, 2013).

4.4. ETHNOCENTRISM

Whereas consumer animosity is directed at a specific target (such as a particular country), ethnocentrism refers to avoidance of all foreign products or services (Edwards, Gut and Mavondo, 2007). Stated differently, ethnocentrism refers to rejection of everything considered foreign (as opposed to domestic) (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998). It has been suggested that consumer animosity may affect unwillingness to buy foreign goods also indirectly, through ethnocentrism (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004). Pai and Sundar (2014) in their study, found a significant and positive relation between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity. Huang, Phau and Lin (2010a) for their part claim that “consumer animosity evokes the perception of out-group threats and reinforces in-group identity”. They also suggest that consumer animosity strengthens the significant and positive effect of ethnocentrism to unwillingness of buying foreign products/services. Also De Nisco, Mainolfi, Marino and Napolitano (2014) support the claim that consumer animosity can boost ethnocentric tendencies.

However, despite many studies (also e.g. Huang, Phau and Lin, 2010b; Pai and Sundar, 2014; Akdogan, Ozegener, Kaplan and Coskun, 2012) having identified consumer animosity to be positively related to ethnocentrism, they are two distinct concepts, with distinguishable effects on consumer behavior (e.g. Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Ettenson and Morris, 1998; Edwards, Gut and Mavondo, 2007; Li, 2008). Overall, it would seem that consumer animosity can indeed indirectly affect consumers’ willingness to buy foreign goods on a wider scope as well (as opposed to goods merely from the animosity target).

4.5. QUALITY JUDGMENT

The possible effect of consumer animosity on product (or service) quality judgments has possibly been the most debated and studied phenomenon in consumer animosity research in recent years. Quality judgment, or quality denigration was first brought up by Klein and Ettenson (1998), as they found consumer animosity not to have an effect on quality judgment. However, the study results of Shoham et al. (2006) challenged the original assumptions on the matter, as they identified an inverse relationship between the two. Interestingly, further individual studies conducted after the research of Shoham et al. (2006) started to yield mixed results.

This era of mixed results led to many researchers (e.g. Qing, 2013; Gec and Perviz, 2012) who studied the phenomenon based on a collection of previous studies (as opposed to merely conducting an individual study) to assume an unsure stance on the subject, stating that the matter seemed indecisive. Interestingly, most recent research (conducted in the 2010s) reviewed for this thesis seems to lean on consumer animosity being positively related to product denigration (or correspondingly, negatively related to quality judgments) (e.g. Huang, Phau and Lin, 2010a; Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012; Perviz, Gec, Vida and Dimitrovic, 2014; Harmeling, Magnusson and Singh, 2015; Khemchotigoon and Kaenmanee, 2015; Shoham and Gavish, 2016). This finding seems to be coherent with the recent meta-analysis of Shoham, Gavish and Rose (2016), which suggests that the relationship between consumer animosity and quality judgments based on a large collection of individual studies, is negative. All things considered, this study supports the inverse relationship between consumer animosity and quality judgments. Thus, a high level of consumer animosity generally causes consumers to underestimate the quality of products and services from the opposed animosity target.

4.6. CA MANAGEMENT'S MANAGERIAL DIMENSION

This section will present practical implications for dealing with consumer animosity situations based on the reviewed literature. The objective of the following sections (4.6. and 4.7.) is to offer suggestions for both managerial and governmental considerations in the context of managing consumer animosity. This first section (4.6.) will deal with the managerial dimension, and the following section (4.7.) will briefly discuss governmental possibilities for consumer animosity management. The goal of these sections is basically to give guidelines on how to minimize the negative effects of consumer animosity, and in some cases how to utilize consumer animosity as well. Real life examples are also presented to demonstrate some possible options for consumer animosity management.

Companies may have to deal with consumer animosity related matters for a variety of reasons. Abosag and Farah (2014) provide one classification for consumer animosity consequences in the context of boycotts. They state that macro boycotts are directed at country level, and micro boycotts are directed at company level. Simplified, in this context consumer animosity at micro level is caused by animosity evoking actions of a particular company, and directed at that particular company. Consumer animosity on macro level however, is caused by perceived animosity evoking events by a country (or another broader entity, as opposed to a particular company), and is then directed at all goods perceived as associated with that animosity evoking country (or entity). For purposes of limiting this section to match the main objectives of the framework of this thesis, only macro level consumer animosity consequences are discussed.

In order to manage consumer animosity, companies should first be aware of whether or not their business might be affected by it. Amine (2008) states that possessing deep knowledge of historical relations and causes of past animosities with one's trading partners, is essential in understanding the current risks. The same author adds that on

top of knowledge of the past, companies should also keep track of possible changes in consumer attitudes and beliefs, by conducting regular market research on the subject. Companies should be aware, that many consumers seem to be willing to make tradeoffs between price and animosity (Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012). In other words, not all consumers boycott unconditionally, but seem to consider animosity as a variable among others (such as price and perceived quality etc.), when making purchase decisions. The results of to which degree people emphasize the importance of animosity in purchase decision making has varied between different studies researching different animosity relationships. For example, one study revealed that people were willing to pay approximately 15% more for an alternative corresponding product, in order to avoid buying from an “animosity country” (Cui, Wajda, Hu, 2012). Another study found out that 42.3% of the participants would never buy goods from their animosity country at all (Al Ganideh and Elahee, 2012). This seems to highlight the importance of companies estimating exactly how serious hindrances they might face e.g. in different potential new market entries under consideration.

In the context of market entries, there is some evidence to suggest that when entering a hostile market (the target market consumers have feelings of animosity towards the home country of the company that is making the market entry), using a joint venture as entry mode can decrease the amount of animosity expressed by the target market consumers (Fong, Lee and Du, 2013; 2014; 2015). Furthermore, the same authors results suggest that the more host country identity the entry mode enables, the better (less agonistic) the reception. Thus, greenfield joint venture subsidiaries are preferred to acquisition joint ventures, and fully owned greenfield subsidiaries. Takeovers for their part have been stated to carry the risk of host country consumers perceiving it as a “blow to national sovereignty”, or a “competitive loss” (Xu and Shenkar, 2002), potentially causing more animosity. As for the timing of market entries, it would seem reasonable to suggest that companies not enter during situational animosity, if waiting for the animosity to dissipate is a considerable option, and there is a foreseeable ending for the situational animosity in the near future. Lastly, some countries have significant sub-groups with sometimes differing attitudes towards foreign countries (Rose, Rose

and Shoham, 2009), which should be taken into account by managers when determining the more particular geographical positioning in the new target country. Also, CA levels towards a particular country might differ between a country's different demographic groups, which should be taken into account when making decisions about segmentation, or targeting marketing and advertising (Sutkino and Cheng, 2011). Furthermore, managers of companies dealing with hybrid products should be aware of their strategic advantage of being rather easily able to emphasize or downplay either the country of manufacture, or the country of design of their products depending on the target country consumer's attitudes (Cheah, Phau, Kea and Huang, 2016).

In fact, whether companies should try to hide or downplay the country of origin of their goods, or attempt to highlight it, is often discussed in COO and CA literature. If the company's home country is seen as hostile in the target market, it may be a good idea to reduce the country cues to minimum (Amine, 2008; Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012), while emphasizing other aspects of the goods. On the other hand, sometimes companies can gain a competitive edge by highlighting their COO (Hong and Kang, 2006). This is the case, when the country in question is well known of high quality products (either in general, or in a particular industry). This can become a dilemma for some companies, if their home country has positive quality related potential, but negative animosity related potential. Basically, companies may be put in a situation where they have to consider which benefit/hindrance is greater, thus overriding the other (see figures 17 and 18 below).

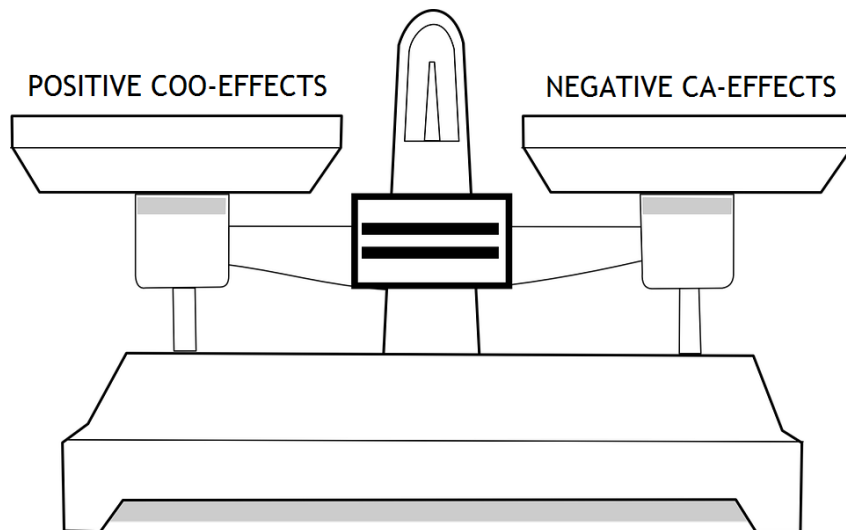


Figure 17. Weighting the quality related country of origin effects and consumer animosity effects.

Country-specific attitude			
		Affinity	Animosity
Brand relationship quality	Strong	Strong attraction to brand	Conflict
	Weak	Indifference	Dominated by animosity

Figure 18. Model illustrating the dilemma between quality cues, and attitudes/animosities (Rice and Wongtada, 2007).

Whichever the choice, it has been suggested that companies cease major marketing campaigns when there is situational animosity to a degree where the animosity situation has gotten unmanageable and/or unpredictable (Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012). Also e.g. Edwards, Gut and Mavondo (2007) have supported the view of decreasing marketing during (animosity wise) challenging times. They also state that some companies have decided to re-brand themselves “farther” away from the animosity country during situational animosity. This has happened e.g. in the form of changing company names in Australia, during the boycott on French companies (due to nuclear testing). The same authors claim that while re-branding can create profits in the short term, also the costs of re-branding, as well as the long term perspective should be considered before making significant changes. The same authors bring forth that some companies in challenging times (due to animosity towards their home country) have publicly expressed their

opinion on the (animosity evoking) matters e.g. through issuing press releases and signing protest lists. However, the authors note that “fighting” one’s government may have unexpected consequences related to e.g. government support, or participation in government contracts. Finally, it seems relevant to mention that speaking out in public may draw attention to a company’s unfavorable origins from consumers (and the media) which were still unaware of the origins. This could prove to be another dilemma for companies trying to manage their consumer animosity situations. In worst cases, the animosity situation may become so overwhelming, that the best solution left for companies is to withdraw from the host country market, at least for a period of time (Amine, 2008). This has been the case for example for Danish companies in Saudi Arabia after the “Arab boycott” (caused by caricatures of Mohammed) started (Goodenough, 2008).

The boycotts following the caricatures of Mohammed published by the Danish newspaper in 2005 bring forth the unpredictability of animosity environments in the 21st century. Company “A” from country “X” might be doing business in country “Y”, where no animosities hindrance business. However, at any time a company “B” from country “X” might do something that consumers in country “Y” find aggravating. As a result, company “A” might now face tremendous difficulties in country “Y”. In other words, modern companies may have to face issues related to CA even if they or their home country does not do anything “wrong”. Thus, CA related hindrances may surface between unexpected countries, and they may escalate fast through internet and social media. Other similar situations include e.g. publishing of the movie “Fitna” in 2008, which led to calls for boycott of Dutch companies (BBC Worldwide Limited, 2008; Fox News, 2007).

Consumer animosity literature to this date has concentrated almost entirely on minimizing and avoiding the negative effects of consumer animosity. However, there are some real life examples in which companies have actually tried to leverage the prevalent animosity situation to their advantage. Thus, one could find it rather

surprising that it has not truly and properly been discussed in previous CA literature. One example of companies possibly trying to take advantage of animosity within the local consumers can be drawn from the United States, after the decision to invade Iraq in 2003 was made. France's opposition of the invasion caused anti-French sentiment and boycotts in the US, leading restaurants to change the names of foods that hinted at France. For example French fries were renamed freedom fries, and French toast was renamed liberty toast (Ebenkamp, 2003; Amine, Chao and Arnold, 2005; Cui, Wajda and Hu, 2012). Naturally, some restaurants may have changed the names simply to speak their minds, but doing so has most likely seemed attractive to those US consumers thinking likewise about the matter, thus adding to the attractiveness of those restaurants for their part. This may very well have paid off, as one survey at the time reported that 73% of Americans boycotted French wines, cheeses, and other delicacies, while 53% of Americans favored renaming of foods that hinted at France (Ebenkamp, 2003; Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012).

Other examples of leveraging animosity directed at others can be made of companies around the world trying to cash in on anti-American sentiments. One of the industries includes soft drinks, as e.g. during the complicated times in the Middle East, Coca-Cola's sales went down by 60% in that area (Cheah, Phau, Kea and Huang, 2016), and e.g. US exports to Saudi Arabia declined by more than 40% in just the three first months of 2002 (Murphy, 2003). Some of the many companies that have tried to make use of the anti-American sentiments in the soft drink industry include Mecca Cola, Qibla Cola, and Zam Zam Cola (Justo and Cruz, 2008; Uri, 2007). The creator of Mecca Cola brand has openly stated that the purpose of the brand is to offer Arab and Muslim customers an alternative to American products, which to some consumers symbolizes unacceptable cultural values, as well as unacceptable military actions (in the Middle East) (Uri, 2007). The founder of the Mecca Cola brand has also stated that Mecca Cola is all about fighting America's imperialism and increasing the blockade of countries boycotting American goods (Murphy, 2003). He added that the plan involves exploiting the difficult and complex situation in the Middle East in the European markets

(Murphy, 2003). Thus, these soft drink companies have often been called anti-American (Marketing Week, 2004), or anti-Western (The Grocer Marketing, 2003) in the media.

Some of the competitors of Coca-Cola have gained more popularity after guilt has been aimed at those consuming the American competitors' drinks, as e.g. Zam Zam Cola experienced a huge increase in demand in Saudi Arabia after a prominent Muslim cleric ruled that Coca-Cola and Pepsi are "un-Islamic" (Justo and Cruz, 2008). In the light of this information it would seem reasonable to suggest that in some cases companies can benefit from consumer animosity, and that in some cases getting the right person to boost that animosity might work well in doing so as well. Mecca Cola managed to expand to 34 countries within a year - and to 54 countries in less than two years (Justo and Cruz, 2008). They have also held relevant market shares of soft drink markets in some countries (e.g. 52% in Iran in 2003) (Justo and Cruz, 2008). Thus, it could be argued that a market entry could be specifically successful at a time - and in a place, where the goods of one's main competitors are currently being boycotted.

4.7. CA MANAGEMENT'S GOVERNMENTAL DIMENSION

This section will deal with the role of governments in managing consumer animosities. For the sake of sticking within the framework of this thesis, only CA related management will be discussed, limiting out nation branding, which attempts to improve country images on a more general level. Consumer animosity management is relevant from the perspective of governments, as e.g. Japan has accomplished not only to gradually decrease the feelings of animosity in American consumers, but to actually replace their animosity with admiration (Maher, Clark and Maher, 2010).

One interesting option that has been brought up in consumer animosity literature is the possibility for governments to apologize for their questionable choices or actions. In

Qing's (2013) research it was found out that one factor that has increased the animosity of Chinese consumers towards Japan, is the perception that the Japanese government has never properly acknowledged and/or formally apologized for their war crimes during the Second World War. Furthermore, the Japanese politicians' and ministers' regular visits to Yasukuni Shrine to honor class A war criminals of the Second World War, was seen to have further aggravated this perception. This perceived lack of genuine remorse or apology has created anger and alert, further enhancing the consumer animosity of the Chinese towards Japan. In the study, it was revealed that many Chinese consumers expected actions more similar to Germany, which was perceived to have shown genuine remorse for their actions in the Second World War. Another possible more direct effect of apologizing is the possibility of it leading to changes in other government's policies. Russia for example, decided to lift the almost year-long travel ban to Turkey, after Turkish president Erdogan expressed condolences/apology, for shooting down a Russian fighter plane, killing its pilot in November 2015 (Ripley, 2016; Bloomberg, 2016; Rapoza, 2016).

In addition to directly apologizing, government officials such as politicians may be able to minimize negative consequences caused by consumer animosity, by publically speaking of and highlighting the positive aspects of the countries relationship (Pottinger, 2005; Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012). This has been attempted and accomplished at least by Chinese state run media companies, and Japanese leaders in the past (Pottinger, 2005; Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012). Additionally, it has been suggested that economic assistance towards other countries may have an animosity decreasing effect on the consumers of the assisted country (Ang, Jung, Kau, Leong, Pornpitakpan and Tan, 2004).

Naturally, government control over e.g. media, actions of local companies, and contents of education is limited especially in countries where freedom of speech is honored, and level of propaganda is low. Moreover, it should be noted that animosity relationships are complicated, and governments may face decisions in which all available alternatives

will cause animosity in one group or another (e.g. whether to partake in military actions, or refuse to help in military actions can both cause animosity) (Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2012). Still and all, governments seem to still have some possibilities in steering the animosity relationships in their desired direction. However, just like companies, governments can also choose to elevate the animosity in order to capitalize the situation in different ways. De Nisco, Mainolfi, Marino and Napolitano (2014) for their part have suggested that countries can boost their domestic economy, if animosity towards imported products is heightened (this will drop consumers' willingness to buy from the animosity countries, as well as boost ethnocentrism, which further increases consumers' willingness to buy domestic goods). See sections 4.1. (willingness to buy) and 4.4. (ethnocentrism) for more information. In other words, it seems that aggravating animosity relationships with foreign countries will make it harder for local companies to do business in those foreign countries, but also make it harder for companies from those foreign countries to be successful in the local markets. Thus, whether morally "acceptable" or not, the question for governments seems to be not only how to lower CA, but also do they want to lower CA. This could be particularly relevant in countries where government policymakers have strong personal interests in business as well.

5. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

This section will present the empirical part of the thesis. First, this section will provide a brief background of the researched countries' common history, as well as information on some more current events relevant in order to understand the background of the research (6.1.). Then the objectives, methodology and hypotheses of the research will be discussed (6.2.). Lastly, the results of the research will be presented (6.3.). This research will examine consumer animosity, as well as its sources and effects in the context of Finnish consumer's animosity relationship towards Russia. The goal of this research is to generate results which are interesting both from the practical viewpoint of e.g. marketing, and from the theoretical viewpoint of adding robustness to current CA theory. The more particular objectives of the research will be presented in section 5.2.

5.1. ANIMOSITY BACKGROUND

Finland defended itself against the Soviet Union (currently Russia) in The Winter War between November 1939 and March 1940 (Sotamuseo, 2017; Raunio, 2017). The war started after the Soviet Union claimed that Finland's artillery had launched an attack on Russia, which Finland's government then denied (Raunio, 2017). The losses and casualties of The Winter war included over 24 000 dead or missing Finns, and approximately 128 000 dead or missing Russians, as well as territorial losses for Finland (Sotamuseo, 2017; Raunio, 2017). Later, The Continuation War from 1941 to 1944 caused further casualties of over 60 000 dead or missing Finns, and over 200 000 dead or missing Russians (Sotamuseo, 2017). More recently, Russia has been accused of their military intervention to eastern Ukraine, and e.g. the European Union and the United States have imposed economic sanctions on Russia as the result (European Union, 2017; Hirschfeld Davis, 2015; Borger, 2017). Even more recently, Russia has been accused of War Crimes in Syria (Borger and Shaheen, 2016; Al Jazeera, 2017; BBC, 2016b). Lastly, Russia has been accused of violating the Finnish airspace with its

fighter jets on several occasions, but Russia has denied the violations (Salokorpi, 2016; BBC, 2016a). For the sake of objectivity, it is seen reasonable to bring forth some other possibly animosity evoking themes as well (other than war related). Thus, it seems relevant to mention that Russia's recent list of publically criticized matters also includes e.g. accusations of restricting human rights and freedom of speech/expression, as well as discrimination. These accusations have been related e.g. to sexual minorities (Rankin, 2017), and they have been supported e.g. by the European Court of Human rights (Reuters, 2017; BBC, 2017). Additionally, Russia has been criticized of ecological issues, such as their standpoint on global warming (Mikkonen, 2015; Summanen, 2017; MTV, 2015), and accusations of polluting the Baltic Sea (Pinomaa, 2016; Salonen, 2012; Virtanen, 2014).

5.2. EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES, METHODOLOGY AND HYPOTHESES

The empirical objectives of this study are to answer the following questions:

- 1) To what degree (if any) Finnish consumers express animosity towards Russia?
- 2) To what degree the (possible) animosity expressed by Finnish consumers affects their consumer behavior towards Russian goods, tourism in Russia, and quality judgment of Russian goods?
- 3) What are the main sources of the (possible) consumer animosity expressed towards Russia?
- 4) Is the animosity relationship of Finnish consumers towards Russia influenced by demographic factors?

The study is implemented as an online survey, using quantitative research methods. The link to the questionnaire is created as public, meaning that all participants of the study

use the same link in order to access the study. Therefore, the researcher is not able to track exactly which person is responsible for a certain set of answers. This method is chosen in order to increase the feeling of privacy of those participating in the survey. Creating a feeling of privacy is seen important in order to persuade enough respondents to answer the questionnaire, as well as to ensure that the respondents answer the questionnaire truthfully. Individualizing the respondents (by e.g. using a private link, or asking for the names of the respondents in the form) might cause some potential participants to avoid the questionnaire, or alter their answers to lean towards whatever they feel might be considered as most “socially acceptable”. The public link to the questionnaire is posted on the Facebook wall of the researcher. The link is also posted to a student channel of the University of Vaasa on Facebook. Fellow students, friends, and family members are then encouraged to answer the questionnaire, and to spread/send the link to their friends and family members as well, asking them to do the same. The questionnaire is implemented by using Webropol online survey tool.

In order to cover the first objective of the study, two items to measure consumer animosity are chosen. Both items (claims) are answered on a 5-point likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3 = neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree). The first chosen item is the claim “I dislike Russia”. This item is rather popular in previous consumer animosity research, and has been adapted from e.g. Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998). The other item measuring animosity is the claim “I feel angry towards Russia”. This claim for its part has been used e.g. by Ettenson and Klein (2005). Taken into account the backgrounds of the two countries, and the common history between them, the following hypothesis concerning the first objective of the study is suggested:

H1: Finnish consumers will express moderate to high levels of animosity towards Russia.

In order to cover the second objective of the study, four further items are generated. All of these four items/claims are answered on a 5-point likert scale. The first item of this group is “I try to avoid buying Russian products and services”. This item has been adapted e.g. from Ettenson and Klein (2005), and Nijssen and Douglas (2004). The purpose of the item is to measure (un)willingness to buy Russian goods. The second item of this group is “I would be willing to pay 10% more for an equivalent product/service, which is not Russian”. This item’s purpose is to while also measure (un)willingness to buy Russian goods, to also measure consumers’ willingness to make tradeoffs between price and animosity. The second item has been adapted e.g. from Nijssen and Douglas (2004). The likert scale for the first two items is 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3 = neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree.

The third item of the group is “My interest in travelling to Russia as a tourist is best described as”. This items purpose is to measure the consumers’ (un)willingness to travel to Russia as a tourist. The idea to measure consumers’ (un)willingness to buy in the context of tourism and travelling as well (along with products and services), is adapted from Moufakkir (2014). The likert scale for this item is 1= not interested at all, 2= not interested, 3 = neutral, 4= interested, 5= very interested. The fourth item of this group is “The quality of Russian products is best described as”. The purpose of the item is to measure consumers’ quality judgment of Russian products. This item also has a purpose from the perspective of consumer animosity theory, as there is yet no complete consensus on the relationship between CA and product quality judgment (or quality denigration) in the field of CA study. The likert scale for this item is 1= very bad, 2= bad, 3= average, 4= good, 5= very good. Concerning the second objective of the study, the following hypotheses are suggested:

H2: Consumer animosity is negatively and significantly correlated with willingness to buy Russian goods.

H3: Consumer animosity is positively and significantly correlated with willingness to pay (10%) extra in order to avoid Russian goods.

H4: Consumer animosity is negatively and significantly correlated with interest to travel to Russia as a tourist.

H5: Consumer animosity is negatively and significantly correlated with quality judgment of Russian products.

In other words, it is expected that consumers who express higher levels of animosity towards Russia, are 1) less likely to buy Russian goods (or conversely, go to further lengths to avoid Russian products), 2) more likely to be willing to pay extra money in order to avoid Russian goods, 3) less likely to express interest to visit Russia as a tourist, 4) more likely to estimate the quality of Russian products as low.

In order to achieve the third objective of this study, some items measuring the sources of the assumed consumer animosity have to be generated. Considering the backgrounds and history of the countries, it is interesting to study whether previous war history (1939-1940 and 1941-1944) between Finland and Russia (or Soviet Union at that time) is still the main source of CA towards Russia, or have Russia's more recent global actions become more dominant in the minds of Finnish consumers. Thus, the first item of this group is "I find it hard to forgive Russia for its actions in the 2010s". The second item of this group is "I find it hard to forgive Russia for its actions in earlier times". These items have been adapted e.g. from Leong et al. (2008). Also, these two items both include a question description. The first item's question description is "E.g. War in eastern Ukraine, Syrian Civil War etc.", and the second item's question description is "E.g. Winter War, territorial losses, war reparations etc.". The purpose of the question descriptions is to help the participants of the survey to associate the time frames with actual (possibly) animosity evoking events (in other words, "earlier times" to wars between Finland and Russia, and "2010s" to global conflicts involving Russia). Both of these items are answered using a 5-point likert scale of 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3 = neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree.

As both of the first two items of this group refer to war related animosity, the survey's third item is chosen to be a multiselection question: "In me, animosity towards Russia is caused especially by". The item offers five possible answers (1= Wars, or reasons related to war, 2= Economic reasons, 3= Politic reasons, 4= Experiences or conceptions of Russian people, 5= Reasons related to climate or environment). The participants are to choose between zero and five of the available options. The purpose of this item is to measure what are the most significant sources of CA towards Russia in Finnish consumers, and in which proportions (see section 2. on CA typology). Concerning the third objective of the study, the following hypotheses are suggested:

H6: Russia's military actions against Finland (earlier time actions) are still seen as harder to forgive, than Russia's more recent global conflicts (2010s actions).

H7: War related reasons are the most commonly expressed source of consumer animosity.

H8: Consumers expressing people animosity are less likely to express interest in travelling to Russia as a tourist.

In other words, it is expected that in the context of animosity typology, "war animosity" is the dominant source of CA over "economic", "politic", "people", and "ecological" animosities. Furthermore, it is expected that Finnish consumers express more animosity stemming from Russia's war history with Finland, than from Russia's more recent global military actions. Finally, it is expected that consumers expressing people animosity will be less likely to express interest in travelling to Russia as a tourist, compared with consumers expressing other reasons as the most significant sources of their CA towards Russia.

In order to achieve the study's fourth objective, some demographic factors have to be implemented to the survey. This questionnaire will apply gender, age, and place of

residence. In choosing the demographic factors to implement, the two following factors are taken into account: 1) Relevance and significance from the perspective of pursuing meaningful results, and 2) Avoiding subjects which participants of the survey might find too private/personal or intrusive to answer. Gender is not seen as a particularly private matter, and studies on it have yielded interesting, but varying results in previous studies in different countries (e.g. in countries where the gender roles of men and women vary significantly). Thus, it is interesting to study the matter in Finland, where differences in gender roles and gender equality are very small on global standards. In fact, according to research from the World Economic Forum (WEF), Finland has the second smallest gender gap in the world (tied for second with Norway) (Haines, 2016).

Age has also generated interesting results in previous studies, and seems to be a demographic factor which does not “matter per se”. Instead, it seems to be the environment in which one lives in, and develops values, preferences and behaviors in during one’s lifetime, that matters (Gec and Perviz, 2012). It is interesting to study the influence of age on the CA towards Russia in Finnish consumers, as the older generations in Finland have personal experiences if not from the actual wars fought against Russia, then at least from the aftermath of the wars. However, the younger generations’ perceptions of the wars and their aftermath are based not on experiences, but merely on education and stories.

Place of residence is chosen as one of the demographic factors, because there have been some coherent results concerning it in previous CA studies. In fact, all of the studies taking into account the dimension of urban versus rural (reviewed for this thesis), got similar results of urban consumers expressing less animosity than those living in rural areas (Mosley and Amponsah, 2006; Ganideh and Elahee, 2012; Shah and Halim, 2011). However, the amount of studies on the subject for now seems too scarce to draw reliable conclusions from, and thus this study might help to increase the robustness of the previous results. Moreover, in the context of Finland the place of residence of the participants could be interesting not only because of the urban-rural dimension, but also

because Finland shares a long border with Russia. In other words, it might be interesting to see whether there are differences in CA between consumers living near the border, and consumers living elsewhere in Finland. Other demographic factors such as education, work status, and salary were also considered, but they were omitted as potentially too intrusive or private information. Concerning the fourth objective of the study, the following hypotheses are suggested:

H9: Age is positively and significantly correlated with consumer animosity.

H10: Older consumers perceive Russia's pre 2010s actions as harder to forgive than younger consumers.

H11: Consumers living in rural areas express more consumer animosity than consumers living in urban areas.

H12: Men will express more consumer animosity than women.

5.3. RESULTS

The survey was online from October 2 to October 13, in 2017. The survey was answered by a total of 149 respondents of which 92 (61.7%) were male, and 57 (38.3%) were female (see figure 20 on page 76). Given the method of gathering answers to the survey, and the gender of the researcher (male), the ratio of males and females is not unexpected to lean towards males. The average age of the respondents was 43,8 years, while the median age was 30 years. Figure 19 below presents more details of the age of respondents as a histogram, and as a box plot. From the histogram it is obvious that there are two major age groups (20-35, and 60-75) in the survey, with little respondents in the age group between them. Given the age of the researcher (29), and the probable age of those with children approximately in their early thirties, the results concerning age are not surprising either. 60 (40.3%) of the respondents stated Helsinki as their place of residence, while 40 (26.8%) stated Espoo. The rest of the respondents stated

other cities, none of which more than a total nine (Vaasa) respondents had in common (see figure 20 on page 76). Given the researcher's place of residence (Espoo), as well as Helsinki being the most populated city in Finland, the results concerning place of residence are not unexpected. The demographic variables in the survey were set as optional to answer, but all of the respondents answered to the question of gender (149, 100%), while 145 (97.3%) answered to the question of age, and 143 (96%) answered to the question of place of residence.

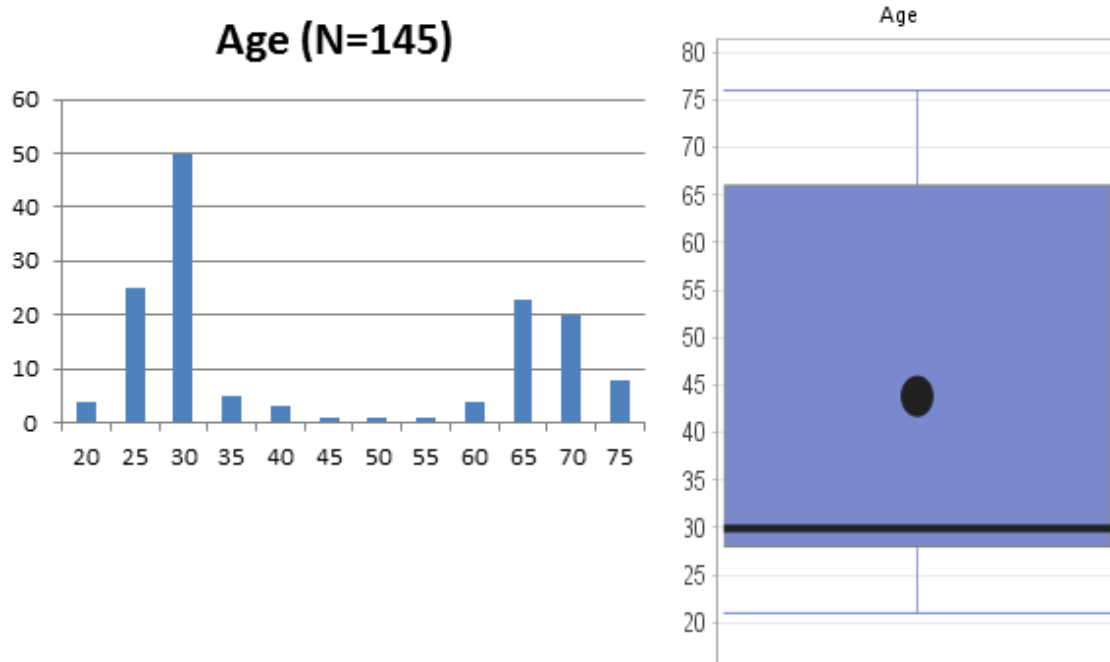


Figure 19. Age of the respondents presented as a histogram, and as a box plot.

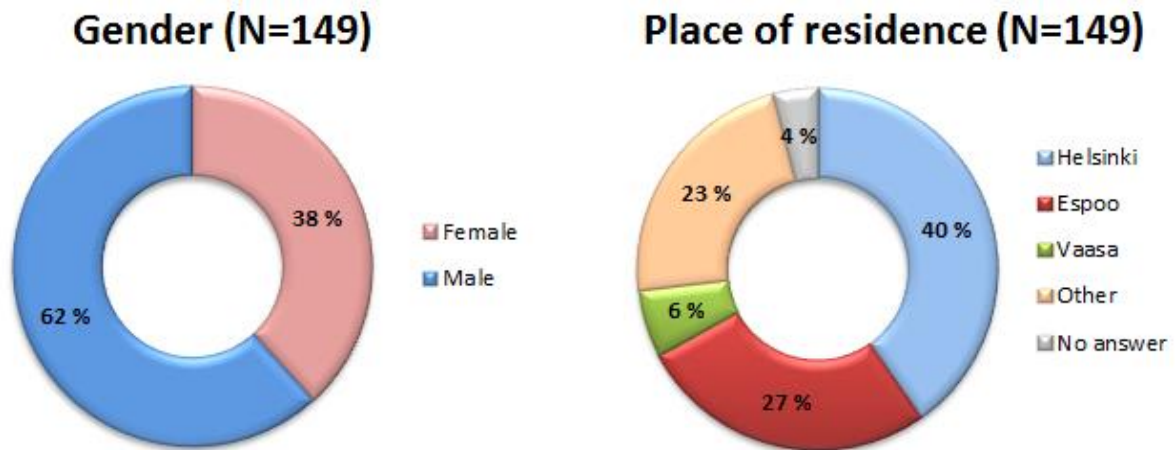


Figure 20. Gender and place of residence of the respondents illustrated as doughnut charts.

In terms of **hypothesis number one** (H1: Finnish consumers will express moderate to high levels of animosity towards Russia), it is notable that that 48.3% of the respondents either agreed, or strongly agreed with the first animosity measuring item “I dislike Russia”, while 26.8% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed, and 24.8% expressed a neutral opinion. The average value for this item was 3.29 (5-point likert scale). The corresponding percentages for the second animosity measuring item “I feel angry towards Russia” were 34.9% (agree or strongly agree), 38.3% (disagree or strongly disagree), and 26.8% (neutral). The average value for this item was 2.93 (5-point likert scale). See figure 21 below for the results presented as pie charts. The correlation coefficient (R) between the two items was 0.6, with a P-value of 0 (statistically significant). While the definition of “moderate to high” animosity is scientifically vague, it can be said that the amount of animosity expressed by Finnish consumers towards Russia is high enough to examine CA’s effects and correlations to other variables in this research. Also, the fact that only 26.8% of consumers disagreed with disliking Russia, and 38.3% disagreed with being angry at Russia, seem to give support for the consumer animosity level of Finnish consumers towards Russia being at least on a moderate level. Thus, hypothesis one (H1) is supported.

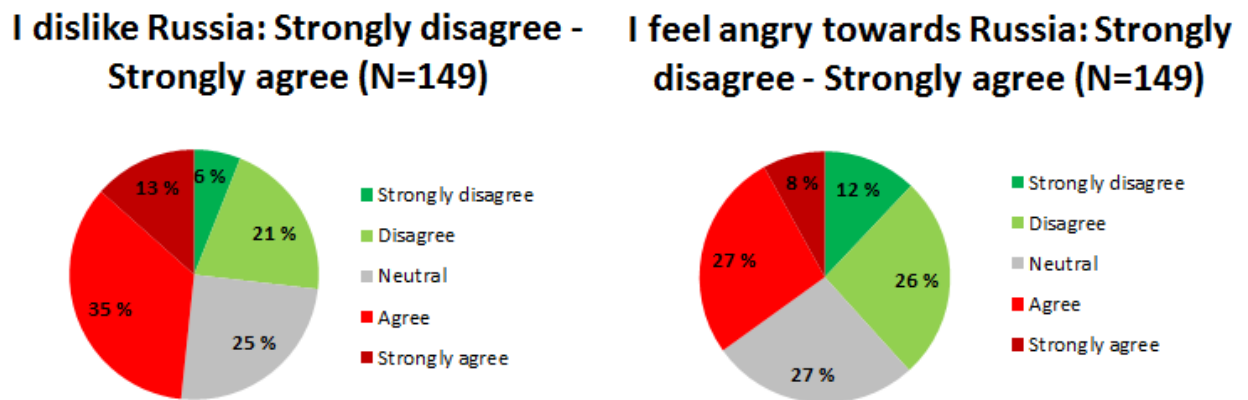


Figure 21. Pie charts illustrating Finnish CA towards Russia.

Hypothesis number two (H2) assumed consumer animosity to be negatively and significantly correlated with willingness to buy Russian goods. The results of the survey show that both CA-items (dislike and angry) correlate strongly with avoidance to buy Russian products and services. The correlation coefficients are 0.58 (dislike) and 0.47 (angry), both with P-values of 0, indicating strong statistical significance. Thus, hypothesis number two (H2) is supported.

Hypothesis number three (H3) assumed consumer animosity to be positively and significantly correlated with willingness to pay 10% extra for a corresponding product/service, in order to avoid buying Russian. The results of the survey show that both of the CA-items indeed correlate with willingness to pay more in order to buy Russian. The correlation coefficients are 0.49 (dislike) and 0.38 (angry), both correlations being statistically significant ($P=0$). Thus, hypothesis number three (H3) is supported as well.

Hypothesis number four (H4) suggested that consumer animosity is negatively and significantly correlated with the interest to travel to Russia as a tourist. The animosity items both correlate with the interest to travel to Russia with R values of -0.51 (dislike)

and -0.38 (angry). Both correlations are statistically significant ($P=0$). Thus, the hypothesis four (H4) is supported by the results.

Hypothesis number five (H5) suggested that consumer animosity is negatively and significantly correlated with quality judgment of Russian products. This hypothesis is supported, as both the CA-items correlate with product judgment of Russian products with R-values of -0.41 (dislike) and -0.26 (angry). Both correlations are statistically significant with a P-value of 0.

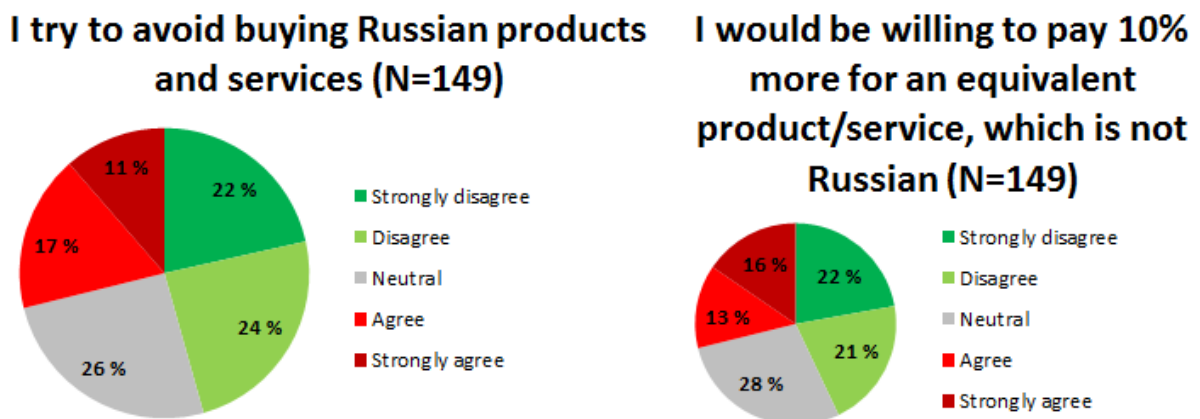


Figure 22. Pie charts illustrating Finnish consumers' (un)willingness to buy Russian goods.

In total, 28.9% of Finnish consumers stated that they avoid (at least to some extent) buying Russian goods. On the other hand, almost half (45.6%) of the respondents disagreed (at least to some extent) with avoiding to buy Russian goods. The avoidance of buying Russian goods, and willingness to pay more in order to avoid Russian goods were strongly correlated with each other (R-value of 0.68, and P-value of 0). This is not unexpected, as they both basically measure unwillingness to buy. The average values for these items were 2.73 (avoid) and 2.79 (pay more to avoid). It could be said that it is surprising for the “pay more to avoid” item to generate a higher average value, than the “avoid” item. However, the difference in values is minuscule, and the pie charts illustrating the answers concerning the items are very similar to each other (see figure 22 above).

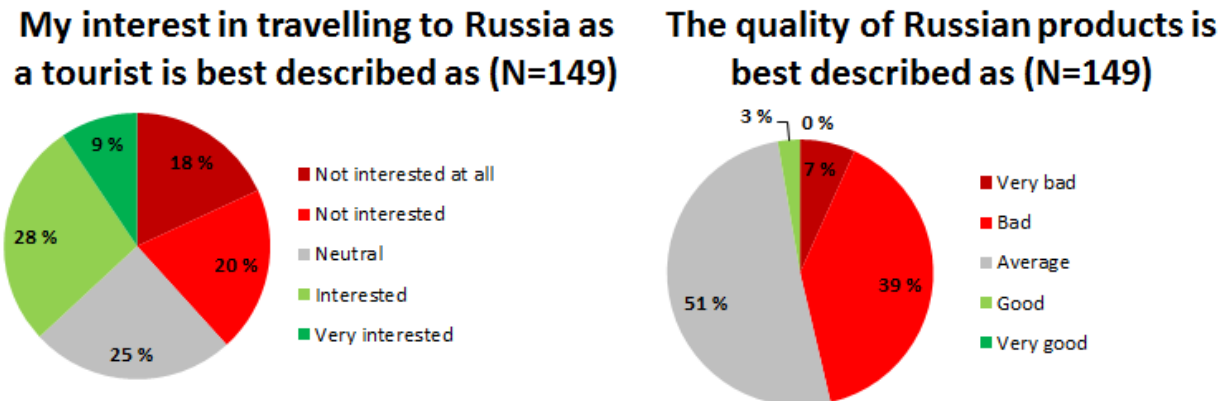


Figure 23. Finnish consumers' expressed interest in travelling to Russia as a tourist, and their quality perceptions of Russian products.

The results show that 46.3% of Finnish consumers believe Russian products to be of bad or very bad quality. Approximately half of the respondents (51%) see Russian products being of average quality, while 2.7% think of them as good. None (0%) of the respondents saw the quality of Russian products as very good. Despite the modest judgment of product quality, Finnish consumers expressed a much more neutral attitude towards travelling to Russia as a tourist, with 38.3% not interested (at least to some extent), 24.8% neutral, and 39.9% interested (at least to some extent) in going. The results measured from the whole sample are illustrated as pie charts in figure 23 above.

Concerning the **hypothesis number six** (H6), it was assumed that Russia's military actions against Finland (pre 2010s actions) are still seen as harder to forgive, than Russias 2010s actions. The results show that the pre 2010s item generated an average value of 3.39 (measured by a 5-point likert scale), while the 2010s item generated an average value of 4.01 (also 5-point likert scale). As for the pre 2010s actions, 48.3% of the respondents perceived them as hard to forgive (to some extent), 22.8% expressed a neutral opinion, and 28.9% did not (to some extent) perceive them as hard to forgive. However, a vast majority of the respondents (74.5%) found the 2010s actions hard to forgive, while 17.4% expressed a neutral view, and only 8.1% thought that the actions are not hard to forgive. Consequently, the results of the survey are clearly in

contradiction with hypothesis six. Thus, H6 is not supported. The attitudes of Finnish consumers towards both items are illustrated as pie charts in figure 24 below.

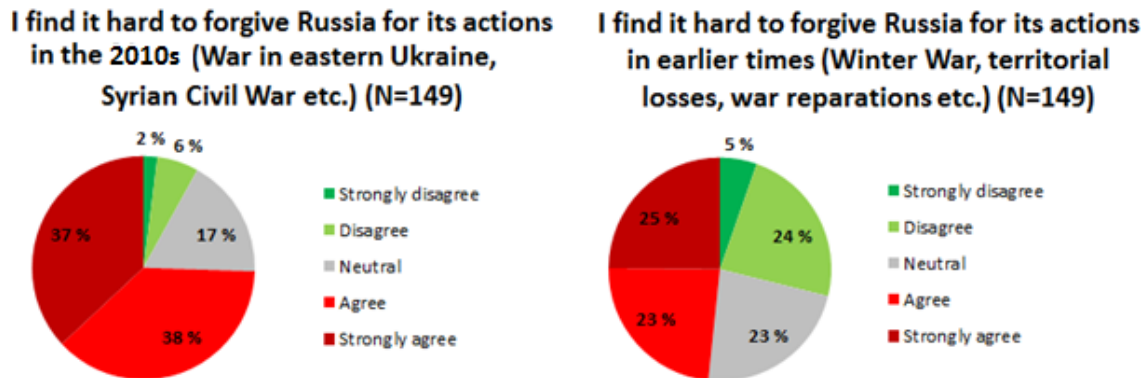


Figure 24. Finnish consumers' attitudes towards 2010s actions, and pre 2010s actions of Russia.

Hypothesis number seven (H7) suggested that war related reasons will be the most commonly expressed source of animosity. This was measured using a multiselection type of question, where respondents could tick zero to all (0-5) of the five offered options. The offered options represented war animosity, economic animosity, politic animosity, people animosity, and ecological animosity. The results of the study show that war animosity was the most commonly expressed source of animosity with 85.9% of the respondents choosing it. The close second was politic animosity with 81.9%, followed by ecological animosity (33.6%) and people animosity (24.8%). The least common source was economic animosity with mere 6.7% of the respondents choosing it. Consequently, war animosity was indeed the most commonly expressed source of animosity towards Russia, thus supporting hypothesis seven (H7). However, it is notable that the gap between war animosity and politic animosity is rather small. The results concerning animosity sources are illustrated below in figure 25 as a bar chart.

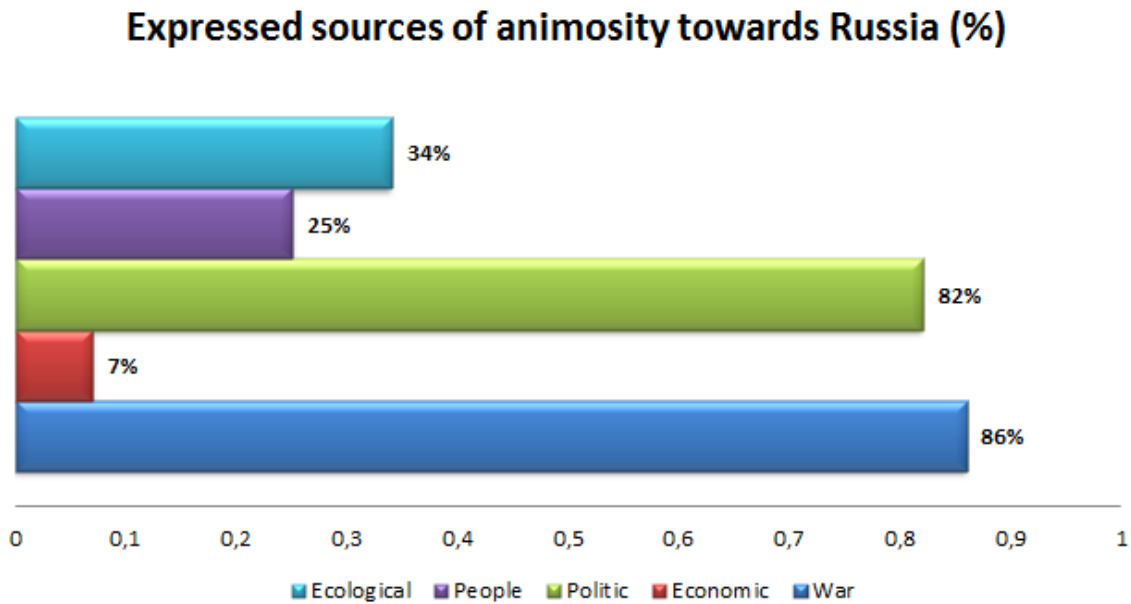


Figure 25. Bar chart illustrating Finnish consumers' animosity sources towards Russia.

Hypothesis number eight suggested that respondents expressing people animosity are less likely to show interest in travelling to Russia as a tourist. The group of respondents which expressed people animosity (hereinafter “PA-group”) generated an average value of 2.54 (out of five) for their interest in travelling to Russia. The group of respondents not expressing people animosity (hereinafter “NPA-group”) generated an average interest value of 3.02 (out of five). The chart below (figure 26) illustrates how PA-group members were less likely to be interested (73.2% of NPA) or very interested (50.4% of NPA) in travelling to Russia. Conversely, the PA-group was more likely to not be interested (230.9% of NPA) or not interested at all (127.1% of NPA). Moreover, correlation analysis shows that people animosity is negatively correlated with willingness to travel to Russia as a tourist. The correlation coefficient (R) between the two is -0.16, while the P-value is 0.045 indicating statistical significance as $0.045 < 0.05$. None of the other four sources of animosity (war, politic, economic, and ecological) had a statistically significant correlation with interest to travel to Russia as a tourist. Thus, the results seem to give support for hypothesis eight (H8).

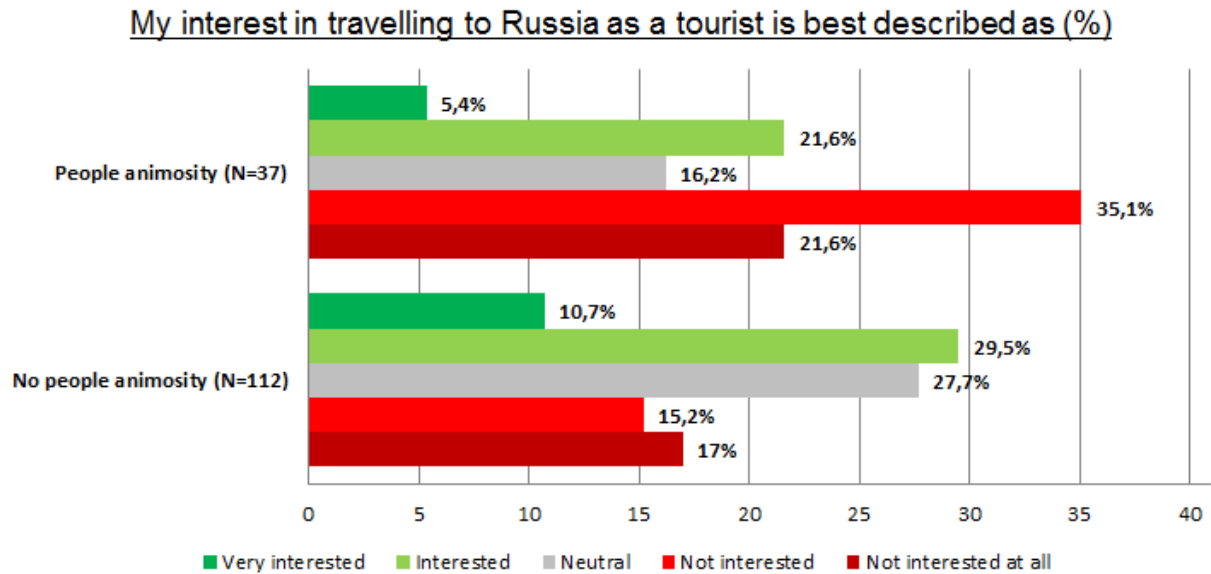


Figure 26. The effect of people animosity on willingness to visit Russia as a tourist.

Hypothesis number nine suggested that age is positively correlated with CA, meaning that older respondents express more animosity than younger respondents. The results of the survey show that this indeed seems to be true. A correlation analysis between age and the CA-items gives results of $R=0.24$ and $P=0.003$ for the dislike-item, and $R=0.33$ and $P=0$ for the angry-item. For the sake of comparison it was seen fit to create age groups as well. The “young group” was selected to be up to 40 year olds, and the “old group” was selected to be above 40 years old (as in 41 and older). Thus the young group consists of 87 respondents, and the old group consists of 58 respondents. The four (4) respondents who chose not to answer the age-question were omitted from the comparison. A correlation analysis based on the age grouping gave almost identical results of $R=0.21$ and $P=0.003$ for the dislike-item, and $R=0.33$ and $P=0$ for the angry-item. Only 41.4% of the young group expressed dislike (at some level) towards Russia, while the old groups result was 58.6%. Similarly, only 24.1% of the “young group” expressed anger (at some level) towards Russia, while the old groups result was 51.7%. Thus, age is indeed significantly and positively correlated to consumer animosity, supporting hypothesis nine (H9). Figures 27 and 28 below provide more details concerning differences between the age groups in terms of CA.

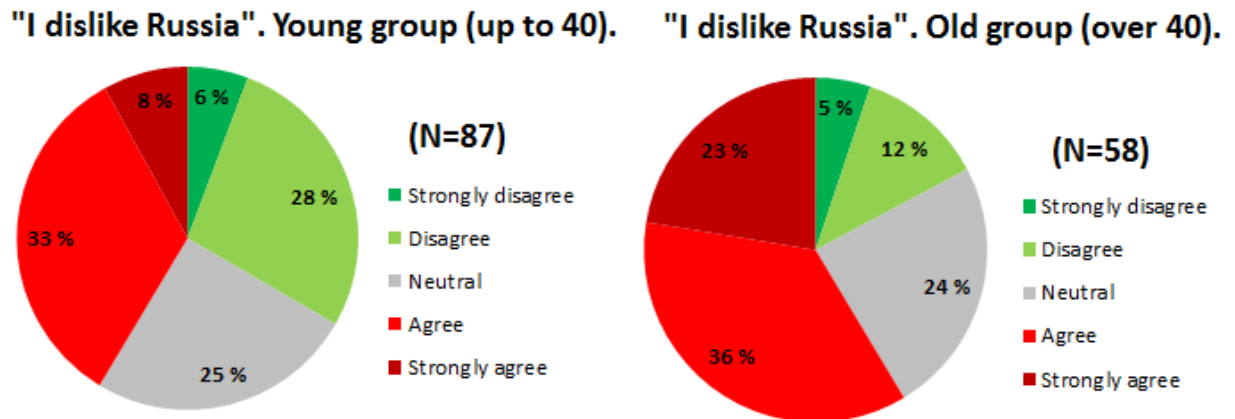


Figure 27. Pie charts illustrating the differences in CA (dislike-item) towards Russia between younger and older Finnish.

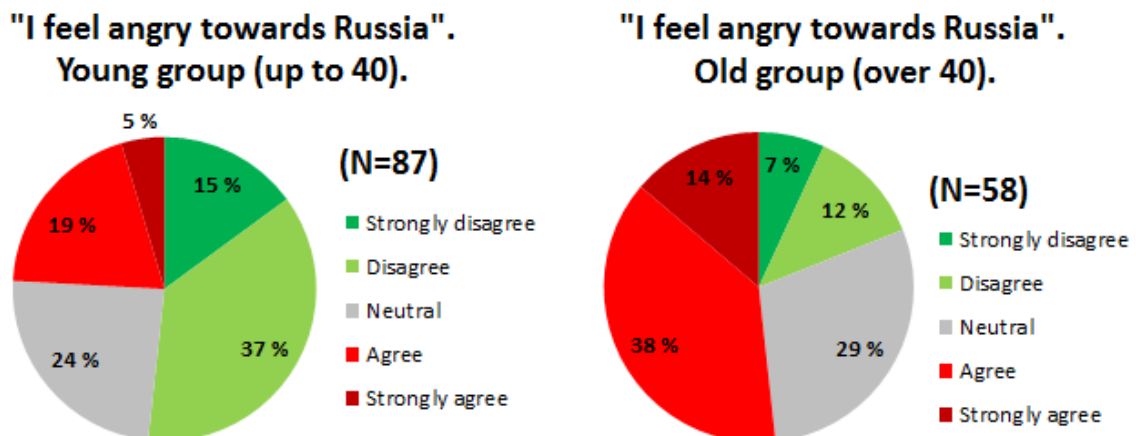


Figure 28. Pie charts illustrating the differences in CA (angry-item) towards Russia in younger and older Finnish.

It was seen of importance to find out whether the two age groups differed significantly from each other in terms of demographic variables gender, and place of residence. The below pie charts (figures 29 and 30) show that while there are some minor differences, the two groups are relatively similar to each other both in terms of gender and place of residence. The biggest difference between the two groups seems to be that the younger group involves more respondents from Espoo, while the older group's respondents come more from other cities within Finland. The amounts of respondents from Helsinki

are proportionally rather similar (40% and 44%). The possible impacts of gender and place of residence on CA will be presented later in this results-section.

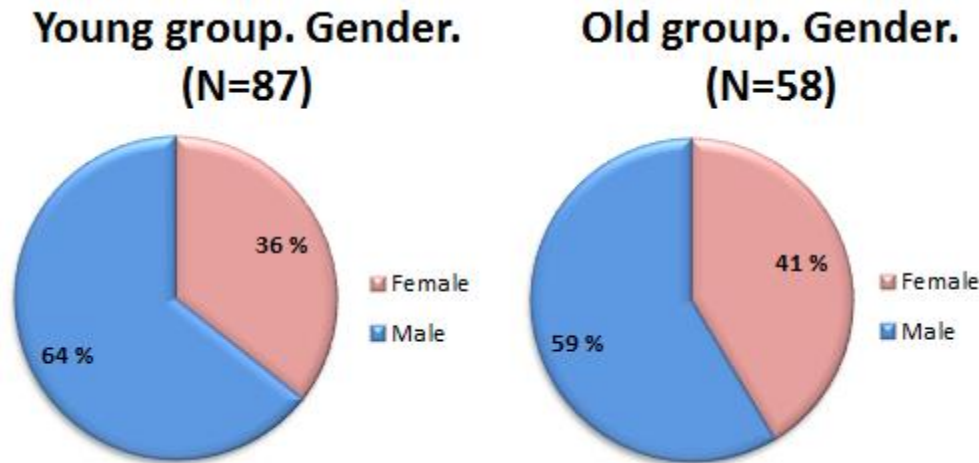


Figure 29. Illustration of gender distribution in both age groups.

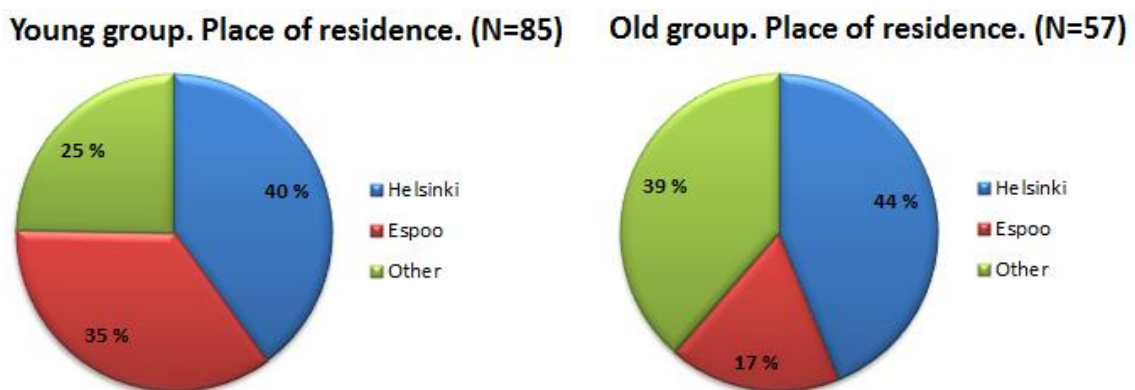


Figure 30. Illustrating place of residence of respondents in both age groups.

Hypothesis number ten (H10) suggested that older consumers will perceive Russia's pre 2010s actions as harder to forgive than younger consumers. This hypothesis is supported, as correlation analysis (based on the age groupings) suggests that age is indeed significantly correlating with perceiving Russia's pre 2010s actions as hard to forgive, with an R-value of 0.38 ($P=0$). The average value of the old group for the pre 2010s item was 3.93, while the young group's corresponding value was 2.98.

Additionally, an interesting finding was that the older respondents also perceived the 2010s actions of Russia as much harder to forgive (an average value of 4.59) than the younger respondents (an average value of 3.66). Figures 31 and 32 below illustrate the views of both age groups on the items more in detail.

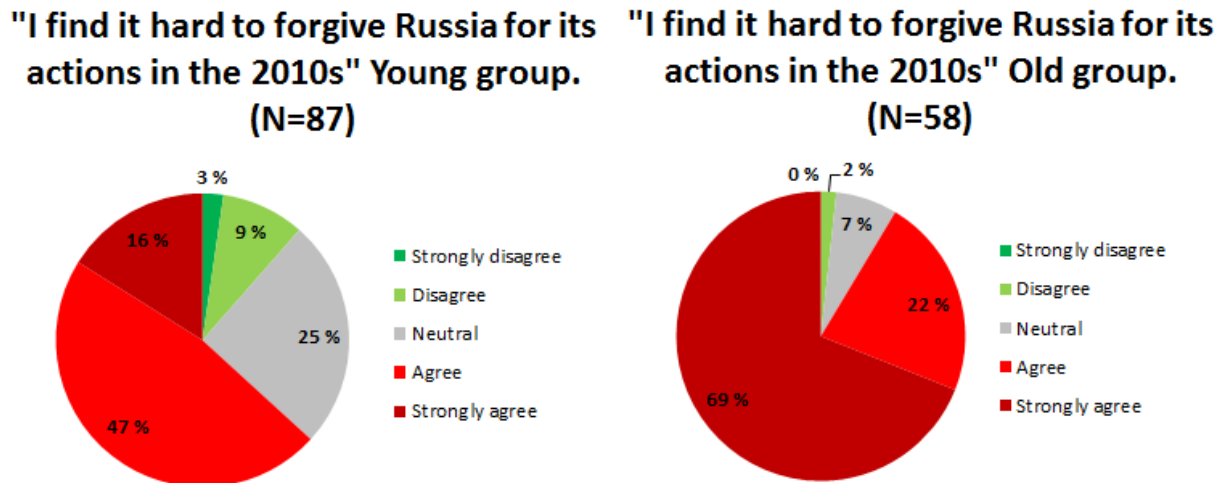


Figure 31. Pie charts illustrating the difference between age groups concerning Russia's actions in the 2010s.

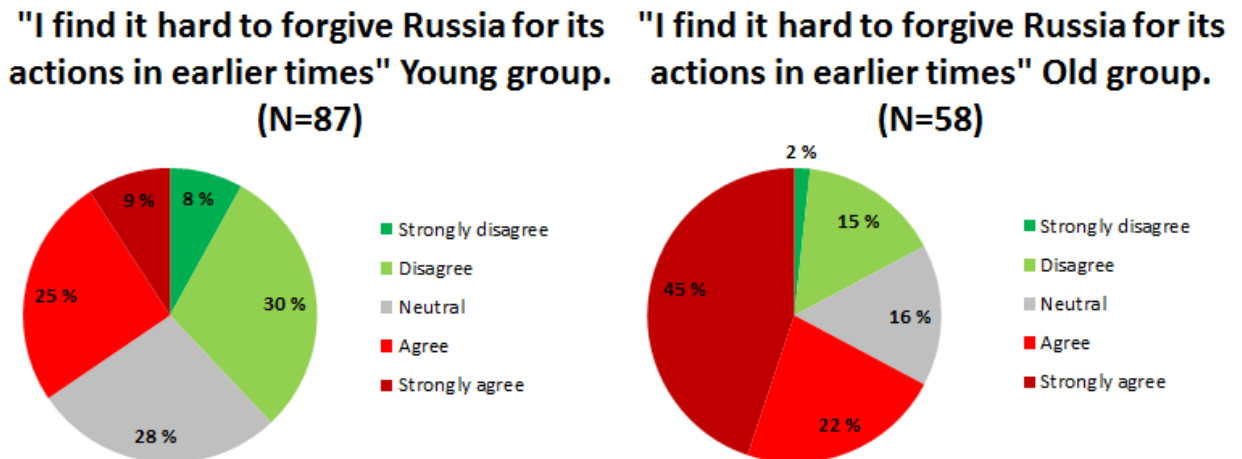


Figure 32. Pie charts illustrating the difference between age groups concerning Russia's actions in earlier times.

Hypothesis number eleven (H11) suggested that consumers living in rural areas will express more consumer animosity than consumers living in urban areas. Given the

sample size of the survey (N=149), and the sample size in terms of respondents to place of residence (N=143), it would seem that the only viable option for comparison is to use respondents from Helsinki (N=60) as one group, and respondents from elsewhere as the other (N=83). However, as some of the respondents are currently located abroad, and have marked a city outside of Finland as their place of residence, it is seen most suitable to limit those respondents outside this comparison. Thus, the “Other cities in Finland” group’s N=73. The results of the comparison show that “Helsinki” group’s (hereinafter referred to as “Capital” group) average values of the CA-items are 3.18 (dislike) and 2.88 (angry). The corresponding average values of the “Other cities in Finland” group (hereinafter referred to as “Outside capital” group) are 3.34 (dislike) and 2.95 (angry). The medians of capital group are 3 (dislike) and 3 (angry), while outside capital group’s are 4 (dislike) and 3 (angry). The modes of capital group are 3 (dislike) and 2 (angry), while outside capital groups modes are 4 (dislike) and 4 (angry). These results are presented in the table below (figure 33). It would seem that these results give some support for the hypothesis eleven.

<u>DISLIKE</u>			<u>ANGRY</u>		
	Capital	Outside Capital		Capital	Outside Capital
Average	3.18	3.34	Average	2.88	2.95
Median	3	4	Median	3	3
Mode	3	4	Mode	2	4

Figure 33. Illustrating differences in CA levels within respondents from the capital, and outside of it.

Finally, the **hypothesis number twelve** (H12) assumed that men will express more consumer animosity than women. The results show that there is no statistically significant correlation between gender and either of the CA-items. In fact, in comparison with men, women showed an average of 0.05 higher values on “dislike” (3.32 and 3.27), and 0.02 lower values on “angry” (2.91 and 2.93). The corresponding correlation coefficients and P-values are -0.02 and 0.82 for “dislike”, and 0.01 and 0.91 on “angry”. Turns out, that theoretically women actually expressed more consumer

animosity towards Russia than men, but the results present no statistical significance, and the correlations are extremely weak. Thus, gender did not have an impact on consumer animosity, and hypothesis twelve is not supported.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This research has found consumer animosity to decrease willingness to buy products from the animosity country, in coherence with previous CA literature (see section 4.1.). Additionally, it was found out that consumers with feelings of animosity are indeed often willing to pay more (at least 10%) for an alternative product or service, in order to avoid buying from their animosity country. The research has also supported previous research in that CA decreases willingness to visit the animosity country as a tourist (see section 4.2.). Interestingly, it was also found out that people animosity in particular causes unwillingness to travel as a tourist. In other words, consumers who feel animosity stemming from bad experiences with people from a specific country, are especially unwilling to travel to that country as a tourist. Moreover, this research has contributed to current CA theory by adding robustness to the still somewhat unclear results on the impact of CA to product quality judgments. The survey found strong support for CA decreasing consumers' perception of product quality. In other words, consumers who have feelings of animosity towards a country, will perceive products originating from that country as having worse quality.

The study found out that in the context of Finnish consumers CA relationship towards Russia, older consumers express significantly more animosity. In other words, age is indeed significantly and positively correlated with CA in this case. It was also found out that consumers living in the capital of Finland (Helsinki) express slightly less animosity towards Russia, than those consumers living outside the capital. Interestingly, gender had no impact on CA towards Russia in Finnish consumers. By far the most commonly expressed reasons for animosity towards Russia were matters related to war and politics. Interestingly, it was discovered that despite of relatively recent war history between Finland and Russia, Finnish consumers saw Russia's actions in the 2010s as much harder to forgive than Russia's actions in earlier times. Moreover, even older consumers saw the more recent actions of Russia as harder to forgive. The results of the study are summarized in the following tables.

Consumer animosity's effects based on the empirical study:

- 1) Decreases willingness to buy from animosity target
- 2) Increases willingness to pay more in order to avoid buying from animosity target
- 3) Decreases willingness to travel to animosity target as a tourist (people animosity in particular)
- 4) Lowers quality judgment of products originating from animosity target

In the context of Finnish consumers towards Russia:

- 1) Older consumers express more animosity than younger consumers
- 2) Consumers outside the capital express more consumer animosity than those living in the capital
- 3) Gender has no effect on the level of consumer animosity
- 4) War and politics related matters are the main source of consumer animosity

Consumer animosity related answers based on the empirical study:

Item	(Strongly) agree	Neutral	(Strongly) Disagree
"I dislike Russia"	48 %	25 %	27 %
"I feel angry towards Russia"	35 %	27 %	38 %
"Avoid Russian products"	28 %	26 %	46 %
"Pay more to avoid Russian"	29 %	28 %	43 %
"Hard to forgive 2010s actions"	75 %	17 %	8 %
"Hard to forgive earlier actions"	48 %	23 %	29 %
	(Very) interested	Neutral	Not interested (at all)
"Interest in travelling to Russia"	37 %	25 %	38 %
	(Very) good	Average	(Very) bad
"Quality of Russian products"	3 %	51 %	46 %

From a managerial standpoint, the results of this study seem to suggest that companies selling Russian products or services should prioritize young and urban consumers, as they are least likely to have feelings of animosity towards Russia. Consequently, they are also least likely to avoid or boycott Russian goods. This might be of interest for both Russian companies, as well as Finnish companies selling Russian goods. In practice, companies can prioritize these customer segments e.g. by targeting their marketing campaigns to consumers in Helsinki (and possibly other urban areas), as well as using other modern tools of targeting young consumers e.g. through online marketing. Companies might also want to consider downplaying the country related cues of

Russian products, as even younger generations clearly possess animosity levels that could lower their willingness to buy Russian products. Moreover, companies do not have anything to gain from quality related country cues either, as Russian products were perceived as having bad quality by Finnish consumers. Thus, there is no dilemma for Finnish consumers between CA and quality cues of Russian products (see figures 17 and 18 on page 61). Finally, it should be stated that also travel agencies, tour operators, as well as other companies related to Russian tourism could prioritize the same customer segment, as CA also lowers interest to visit Russia as a tourist.

6.1. LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The sample for the research was 149 respondents. It would be interesting to see another study researching some of the same matters, in order to verify for sampling variability. Both genders participated to the survey rather equally, but there was lack of respondents roughly between the ages of 40 and 60. The sample also did not include very young consumers (under 20), although most of them might not be relevant from a managerial standpoint (as kids rarely make a lot of purchases on their own anyway). Also, it would be interesting to see a study that had a sample where more consumers from near Russia would be included (eastern Finland). Naturally, an even bigger sample in general would not hurt the reliability of the study. Additionally, the means of gathering data could be questioned, as the respondents are not completely random. Other demographic factors such as education, foreign travel, work status, and salary (which were omitted as likely too private or intrusive in this study) could also be implemented to a similar study. It has been suggested (Cai, Fang, Yang and Song, 2012) that respondents in CA studies might alter their answers because “they may think that expressing animosity is not good in modern society”. This was taken into account in this study by trying to boost the privacy and confidentiality of the survey. In practice e.g. the demographic questions were set as voluntary to answer (so that no respondents would shy away from the survey, or alter their answers in fear of being identified e.g. due to being the only respondent from a small city etc.). It has also been suggested that consumers responses

might not always match their actions very well. This has been brought up e.g. in the context of green gap, as the gap between how consumers intend to behave, and how they actually behave (Gleim and Lawson, 2014). In this context, one might question will consumers truly avoid buying Russian goods as much as they intend to according to the survey. Also, it has been suggested that reminders of negative or animosity evoking matters can temporarily boost or trigger a respondent's animosity level towards the perceived cause of those matters (Russell and Russell, 2006). This was taken into account in this survey by asking to answer the CA-measuring items before mentioning anything negative done by Russia. Finally, in future research it would be interesting to see how CA towards Russia ranks in comparison with other countries Finnish consumers might feel animosity towards.

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APPENDIX

1. Sukupuoli

- ☐ Nainen
☐ Mies

2. Ikä

3. Asuinkaupunki

4. En pidä Venäjästä. *

Valtiona.

Täysin eri mieltä 1 2 3 4 5 Täysin samaa mieltä
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5. Olen vihainen Venäjälle. *

Valtiona.

Täysin eri mieltä 1 2 3 4 5 Täysin samaa mieltä
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6. Koen Venäjän toimet 2010-luvulla vaikeasti anteeksi annettaviksi. *

Esim. Itä-Ukrainan sota, Syyrian sisällissota jne.

Täysin eri mieltä 1 2 3 4 5 Täysin samaa mieltä
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7. Koen Venäjän toimet aiemmilta ajoilta vaikeasti anteeksi annettaviksi. *

Esim. Talvisota, aluemenetykset, sotakorvaukset jne.

Täysin eri mieltä 1 2 3 4 5 Täysin samaa mieltä
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8. Pyrin välttämään venäläisten tuotteiden ja palveluiden ostamista. *

Täysin eri mieltä 1 2 3 4 5 Täysin samaa mieltä
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

9. Olisin valmis maksamaan 10% enemmän vastaavasta tuotteesta/palvelusta, joka ei ole venäläinen.

Täysin eri mieltä 1 2 3 4 5 Täysin samaa mieltä
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

10. Kiinnostustani matkustaa Venäjälle lomailutarkoituksessa kuvaa parhaiten. *

En lainkaan kiinnostunut 1 2 3 4 5 Erittäin kiinnostunut
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

11. Venäläisten tuotteiden laatua kuvaa mielestäni parhaiten. *

Erittäin huono 1 2 3 4 5 Erittäin hyvä
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

12. Minussa pahennusta Venäjää kohtaan aiheuttaa erityisesti. *

Valitse 0-5.

- ☐ Sodat tai sotimiseen liittyvät syyt
☐ Taloudelliset syyt
☐ Poliittiset syyt
☐ Kokemukset tai mielikuvat venäläisistä ihmisistä
☐ Ilmasto- tai ympäristöön liittyvät syyt

Appendix 1. The questionnaire form used for the empirical study.