Boycotting or Buycotting? An Investigation of Consumer Emotional Responses towards Brand Activism

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BOYCOTTING OR BUYCOTTING? AN INVESTIGATION OF CONSUMER
EMOTIONAL RESPONSES TOWARDS BRAND ACTIVISM
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This dissertation investigated the emotive and attitudinal antecedents of consumer boycotting and buycotting behaviors in the context of brand activism. Public support was introduced as a potential moderator interacting with (a) attitude consistency, and (b) discrete emotions, in terms of their impact on attitudinal and behavioral outcome variables. The dissertation integrated the discrete emotion approach, as well as the theoretical framework of spiral of silence theory, the social loafing effect, and bystander effect. It was argued that not all discrete emotions impacted boycotting and buycotting behaviors equally. Furthermore, opposite moderation directions of public support were proposed based on two different theories: the spiral of silence theory focusing on the expressive nature of boycotting and buycotting behaviors, and the social loafing effect and bystander effect focusing on the instrumental nature of boycotting and buycotting behaviors.

The study proposed 10 sets of hypotheses and four research questions which were answered through two research studies: in Study 1, an online survey was conducted where participants recalled their recent boycotting or buycotting experiences; in Study 2, the consistency of participants' attitudes on sociopolitical issues compared to the target company, and magnitude of public support they received on their sociopolitical stance were manipulated in a hypothetical scenario.

Results showed that boycotters and buycotters differed significantly in terms of the emotions of anger, contempt, disgust, authentic pride, hope, gratitude, elevation, and happiness. Moreover, gratitude was found to significantly predict brand attitude and behavior intentions (i.e., boycott and buycott intentions). Furthermore, it was found that public support interacted with both (a) emotion (e.g., gratitude) and (b) attitude consistency on brand attitude. In general, the more public support individuals obtained on their sociopolitical stance, the more they were impacted by emotions and attitude-consistency. Such an interaction can potentially be explained by spiral of silence theory, in that it was found that significant differences existed among three public support conditions (as seen in Study 2) on fear of isolation, which is the primary mediator of this theory.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family. To my parents, Fei Hong and Jing Chen, thank you for your love and support. Your confidence in me made me feel fearless of any obstacles I encountered along the way. To my husband, Xiaoyang Zhang, your love and encouragement led me to discover my hidden potentials in my career. Ever since we met each other more than nine years ago, you have helped me become more confident and set my sights higher. To my lovely baby girl, Fiona Zhang, you have been making our life brighter and more joyful. I feel so lucky that you chose me as your mom. I feel grateful and blessed to have my family's support and love. They all made all the efforts worthwhile.

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Chapter One

Introduction

Many companies have been participating in public discussion of social and political issues, such as same-sex marriage, health care reform, gun control, and immigration (Dodd, 2015; Dodd & Supa, 2011, 2014; Fox, 2017; Garfield, 2018; Parry, 2017). During Super Bowl LI in 2017, several major brands, including Budweiser, Airbnb, 84 Lumber, Google Home, Audi, and Coca-Cola, ran ads to make statements on social and political issues (McDermott, 2017). When companies join activists to express their opinions about the society, this is termed "brand activism" (Kotler & Sarkar, 2017). With increasing numbers of companies taking a public stance on social-political issues, brand activism has become a prominent phenomenon for investigation in the fields of advertising and marketing (Clemensen, 2017; Freeman, 2010).

When companies engage in brand activism, they run the risk of being boycotted, as well as buycotted, by consumers (Dodd, 2015; Fox, 2017; Garfield, 2018). Specifically, boycotting is defined as purposive avoidance of a product/service supplied by a company, either because of the process through which the product is produced (e.g., harming the environment), or because the consumer does not agree with the company's social, ethical, or political values (Baek, 2010; Basci, 2014; Carr, Gotlieb & Shan, 2012). Buycotting in contrast is defined as purposive selection of a product/service from a company because of a desire, on the part of the consumer, to show his/her support for the company's stance on environmental, ethical, political, or social issues (Baek, 2010; Basci, 2014; Carr et al., 2012).

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An example can be found in the response to President Trump's executive order on immigration in early 2017. Companies such as Uber and Starbucks chose to take their own stance on this controversial issue, with Uber continuing to serve John F. Kennedy Airport during a taxi strike over the immigration ban, as a consequence of which #Deleteuber trended on Twitter. Starbucks was boycotted after it announced a plan to hire 10,000 refugees over the following five years, which led to a trending topic #BoycottStarbucks on social media (Parry, 2017). In contrast, Wegmans Food Markets, Inc., which sells Trump family products, has attracted an increasing number of Trump supporters to shop in the stores. Also, Under Armour's CEO Kevin Plank has praised Donald Trump as a "pro-business president," thus encouraging Trump supporters to buy from the brand, whilst simultaneously getting boycotted by Trump opponents (Abram, 2017).

What motivates consumers to boycott or buycott a company? Literature on these behaviors has identified a variety of antecedents, most notably: consumer perceptions, cognitions, and attitudes, as well as personality traits (e.g., Klein, Smith, & John, 2003, 2004; Neilson, 2010; Paek & Nelson, 2009). Given their definitions, both boycotting and buycotting behaviors can allow consumers to express their attitudes and emotions (Farah & Newman, 2009; John & Klein, 2003; Kam & Deichert, 2017; Makarem & Jae, 2016). For example, the recent mass shooting in Parkland, Florida generated feelings of anger and sadness amongst the public, in response to which many companies were forced to cut ties with the National Rifle Association; those who declined to do so, including Amazon, FedEx, and Apple, were boycotted and protested against with sitting demonstrations

(Garfield, 2018). Given such scenarios, emotional antecedents are important factors for investigation (Chen, 2012).

This dissertation focuses, therefore, on emotions in investigating boycotting and buycotting behaviors in the context of brand activism. Specifically, it aims to explore consumer emotions associated with, or predictive of, boycotting and buycotting behaviors. It is argued that the impacts of emotion on consumer behaviors depends on the various facets of the emotions in question, including valence, core relational themes, and whether or not the emotion is self-conscious. The core argument is that positive emotions are generally associated with buycotting behavior; and negative emotions are associated with boycotting behavior. In addition, various discrete emotions (both self-conscious and non-self-conscious) can indicate consumer relationships with a company, and therefore impact their action orientation (i.e., either being approach-oriented or avoidance oriented). Consequently, discrete emotion has been incorporated into this dissertation study. Boycotters and buycotters were found to differ in terms of emotions such as anger, disgust, contempt, elevation, happiness, hope, and authentic pride.

The antecedent impacts of emotions on boycotting and buycotting behaviors were initially investigated in Study 1, through means of a survey, along with the moderating impact of public support. Participants were asked to estimate the degree of public support they could gain for their sociopolitical stance, and to rate their perceived level of public support they have recieved. The interaction between gratitude and the magnitude of public support was supported; as was the impact of gratitude on brand attitude was more salient when magnitude of public support was higher.

To further investigate and confirm the causal relationship between emotions and boycotting and buycotting behaviors, an experiment was conducted (Study 2). The design was a 2 (consumers' attitude consistency with the company: consistent vs. inconsistent) × 3 (public support: opinion congruent with majority vs. congruent with minority vs. control condition) factorial experiment. Emotions were also measured and tested as antecedents.

The magnitude of public support, as a shared moderator in Study 1 and Study 2, was conceptualized as the number of people supportive of one's sociopolitical stance. In Study 1, this was measured by (a) asking participants to estimate a percentage number regarding size of American public who share with their sociopolitical stance; and (b) asking participants to rate the perceived level of public support. In Study 2, public support was manipulated.

In the context of boycotting and buycotting behaviors, the effect of public support can be explained by two clusters of theories: conformity and spiral of silence theory; and the bystander effect and social loafing effect. When consumers express their emotions and attitudes by letting others know of their boycotting/ buycotting of a company via social media, this is considered a form of public opinion expression. Therefore, spiral of silence theory can be used as a potential theoretical framework to examine this phenomenon. On the other hand, boycotting and buycotting behaviors can also be considered as helping behaviors, with collective goals (Copeland, 2014). Therefore, social loafing effect and bystander effect can be adopted as potential theoretical underpinning to investigate this phenomenon. The spiral of silence theory states people tend to not violate social consensus for fear of being isolated, with the result that when

the majority of consumers hold an opposite view from oneself, being in a minority, one tends to remain silent (Noelle-Neumann, 1974, 1977; Shanahan, Glynn, & Hayes, 2007). In contrast, the social loafing effect states that with increasing size of overall participation, one's personal sense of responsibility is reduced and consumers' incentive to 'free ride' also increases, leading to less likelihood of taking action (Klein et al., 2001).

The contribution of this dissertation covers three aspects. First, it makes an initial effort to thoroughly examine the relationship between various discrete emotions and consumer boycotting and buycotting behaviors. Emotions of gratitude, anger, elevation, and authentic pride were identified as significant predictors. Second, this dissertation investigates how public support moderates the impacts of emotion (Study 1) and attitudes (Study 2) on consumer boycotting and buycotting, in response to brand activism. Competing hypotheses are generated based on the social loafing effect, bystander effect, and spiral of silence theory. Third, with the increasing popularity of technology and digital media, increasing numbers of consumers are boycotting and/or buycotting companies by posting on social media; thus, these behaviors are not only instrumental, but also carry a degree of expression. By focusing on emotive antecedents and emotional experiences, the current study serves to better understand the expressive nature of boycotting and buycotting behaviors. The literature and theoretical framework for both research studies are discussed in Chapter two.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Boycotting and Buycotting

Conceptualization: boycotting and buycotting

Many aspects of boycotting and buycotting behaviors are considered inherently related. For example, Baek (2010) regarded both behaviors as forms of political consumption, which refers to "a consumer's decision either to punish (i.e., boycott) or reward (i.e., buycott) private companies by making selective choices of products or brands, based on social, political or ethical considerations" (Baek, 2010, p. 1066). Basci (2014) created a new classification of anti-consumption, in which anti-consumerist boycotting and anti-consumption buycotting are considered two of the five typical anti-consumptive activities. Specifically, anti-consumerist boycotting is defined as "punishing specific products and businesses for their unfavorable acts by performing non-consumption," whereas anti-consumerist buycotting refers to "supporting specific products and businesses by performing selective buying" (Basci, 2014; 166). Moreover, some scholars identified both boycotting and buycotting as conscious consumption, which is defined as "any choice about products or services made as a way to express values of sustainability, social justice, corporate responsibility, or workers' rights" (Carr, Gotlieb, & Shan, 2012, p. 224). Finally, some scholars regarded both boycotting and buycotting behaviors as ethical consumption. Even though price, quality and brand familiarity are more important purchasing criteria, consumers continue to punish a

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company's unethical behavior via boycotting, while rewarding ethical endeavors through buycotting (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001).

Due to the conceptual connection between boycotting and buycotting behaviors, some scholars treated boycotting and buycotting as two sides of a coin and thus measure them using one scale (Newman & Bartels, 2011). However, an increasing number of scholars have noticed and addressed the conceptual differences between boycotting and buycotting behaviors (Copeland, 2014; Friedman, 1991; Kam & Deichert, 2017). First, the key conceptual distinction between boycotting and buycotting behaviors is that the former is avoidance-oriented, conflict-oriented, and punishment-oriented. The latter is approach-oriented, coordination-oriented, and reward-oriented (Copeland, 2014; Elliot & Covington, 2001; Friedman, 1991; Kam & Deichert, 2017). Given that motivations for avoidance-oriented behavior are different from those for approach-oriented behavior, it can first be stated that boycotting and buycotting cannot be combined into one simple behavior (Elliot & Covington, 2001; Kam & Deichert, 2017). Second, boycotting behavior is more about dutiful citizen norms, whereas buycotting behavior is built on engaged citizen norms. Consequently, boycotting has been found to share key features with traditional interest-based politics, while buycotting has more features in common with civic participation (Copeland, 2014; Friedman, 1991). Third, previous studies argue that boycotters typically take actions by joining a collective social movement, whereas buycotting behavior is more individual-based (Copeland, 2014).

Based on the conceptual distinctions between boycotting and buycotting behaviors, scholars are able to categorize consumers into four groups: (a) boycotters (who have only had boycotting experiences but have never buycotted any company), (b) buycotters (who

have only had buycotting experiences but have never boycotted any company), (c)

dualcotters (who have had both boycotting and buycotting experiences), and (d)

noncotters (who have not participated in any of the above) (Copeland, 2014; Neilson,

2010). Studies have shown that boycotters and buycotters differ in demographic

characteristics such as gender and personality traits (e.g., buycotters are more altruistic

than boycotters) (Neilson, 2010). It is also argued that compared to boycotters, buycotters

have a higher level of trust in businesses. This is because they believe the organization

will be responsive and responsible (Copeland, 2014).

Building on previous research that have examined boycotting and buycotting

behaviors, this study investigates boycotting and buycotting as two separate behaviors,

instead of combining them into one single behavior. However, it is important to note that

in this study, only three groups of consumers can be formed: (a) boycotters, (b)

buycotters, and (c) noncotters. This is because this dissertation (study 1 and 2) only

focuses on one company at a time. It is impossible for consumers to be dualcotters as

they cannot boycott and buycott the same company at the same time. Furthermore, this

study classifies both boycotting and buycotting behaviors into two categories based on

behavioral purposes. One category is instrumental boycotting/buycotting behavior and

the other is expressive or non-instrumental boycotting/buycotting behavior. Instrumental

boycotting and buycotting behaviors aim to make a difference in the current situation or

company policy (Friedman, 1991; John & Klein, 2003; Klein et al., 2004). For instance,

consumers may initiate boycotting actions to punish a firm for its illegitimate or socially

irresponsible actions or policies (Gardberg & Newburry, 2009). Expressive or non-

instrumental boycotting and buycotting behaviors refer to the expression of consumers'

values, attitudes, individuality, and/or emotions (Farah & Newman, 2009; John & Klein, 2003; Kam & Deichert, 2017; Makarem & Jae, 2016). This distinction between instrumental and expressive behaviors has been developed based on Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) typology of coping styles. One of these styles is problem-focused coping, which aims to resolve the problem or at least to reduce its impact. The other is emotion-focused coping, which helps regulate emotional responses to the problem and thus alleviate negative emotions.

Consequences of boycotting and buycotting

Due to their conceptual differences and connections elaborated earlier, boycotting and buycotting behaviors have led to opposite business outcomes but similar societal impacts. At the macro-level, consumer boycotts and buycotts reflect a concern for the general good and can potentially impact the entire society (Yuksel, 2013). Studies have shown that boycotting can lead to economic losses in the target companies, including decreases in sales, cash flow and stock prices (Farah & Newman, 2009; Pruit, Wei, & White, 1988). Furthermore, it can be detrimental to the reputation or image of these companies (Klein et al., 2004). Conversely, buycotting behavior can enhance the company's financial performance (e.g., increased sales) and it can also have a positive impact on a company's reputation. Moreover, boycotting movements can negatively affect consumers' attitudes towards the company and cause a decrease in purchase intentions (Klein et al., 2003). However, buycotting behaviors can positively impact consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions (Kam & Deichert, 2017).

Antecedents of boycotting and buycotting

Previous scholars have identified various factors to predict consumers' boycotting and buycotting behaviors. This study classifies these predictors into several categories: (a) perception-related, (b) personality-related, (c) attitude-related, and (d) emotion-related factors.

A variety of consumers' perceptions have been found to impact boycotting and buycotting behaviors. Among them, perceived issue egregiousness refers to the consumers' belief that the firm has engaged in strikingly inappropriate conduct, which will lead to negative and possibly harmful consequences among various stakeholders (e.g., workers, consumers, etc.) (Klein et al., 2004). It has been argued that the higher the level of perceived issue egregiousness, the more likely consumers will take boycotting actions (Klein et al., 2003, 2004). In addition, consumer's perceived public support (Dalisay, 2012) and perceived public disagreement (Wojcieszak, 2011) have both been found to be predictors of public opinion expression (Shanahan et al., 2007). Based on the spiral of silence theory, people tend to refrain from violating social consensus, in fear of being isolated and ostracized. Thereby, individuals constantly monitor their surroundings to determine their public opinion expression (Noelle-Neumann, 1974, 1977; Shanahan et al., 2007). Expressive boycotting and buycotting behaviors are considered to be forms of public opinion expression. Consequently, research has shown that perceived public support will positively influence consumers' intention to boycott or buycott a company, while perceived public disagreement will have a negative impact. Another perception related to perceived public support and disagreement is termed the perceived presence of overall participation (Klein et al., 2001). This factor concerns the impact of other people's perceptions but is built on what is called the social loafing effect. This means

that when the size of overall participation increases, the likelihood of boycott success will be enhanced and consumers' incentives to "free-ride" will also increase (Klein et al., 2001). Free-riding is when people wait for others to initiate an action before they decide to participate. Consequently, when there is an increase in participation size, consumers will be less likely to either boycott or buycott. Both the social loafing effect and the spiral of silence theory will be revisited later in this literature review. This dissertation focuses on boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors in social media in reaction to brand activism and controversial sociopolitical issues. Since such behaviors have both expressive and instrumental characteristics, it is important to integrate both perspectives into the investigation.

In addition to perceived issue egregiousness and the perceived presence of overall participation mentioned above, a third perception that impacts boycotting and buycotting behaviors is what is known as perceived issue importance. The more important consumers perceive the focal issue to be, the more likely they will be to either boycott or buycott a company. A forth perception-related predictor is the consumers' perceived effectiveness of a boycott or the perceived likelihood that the activism will make a difference (Klein et al., 2003).

Another cluster of factors predicting consumers' boycotting and buycotting behaviors is related to their personalities. Buycotting behavior is considered to be a helping behavior (Copeland, 2014), whereas boycotting behavior is usually viewed as a coping behavior (Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2009). Based on the association between altruism and helping behavior, empirical evidence has found that consumers with higher levels of altruism will be more likely to boycott (Neilson, 2010) and buycott (Paek &

Nelson, 2009) a company. It has also been arugued that an allocentric/idiocentric tendency can moderate the effect that negative emotions (inward/outward) have on coping styles (revenge/avoidance) when individuals are offended by a company (Zourrig et al., 2009). Specifically, allocentric consumers are more likely to avoid conflict and are less willing to outwardly express their negative emotions; whereas idiocentric consumers are more likely to exert revenge behaviors and are socially encouraged to express their negative emotions outwardly (Zourrig et al., 2009). Thereby, allocentric consumers are less likely to take boycotting actions than idocentric consumers. Moreover, studies have shown that the need for self-enhancement is related to consumers' boycotting motivations (John & Klein, 2003).

In addition to perceptions and personality traits, consumers' attitudes can also predict boycotting and buycotting behaviors. Previous studies have identified the following consumer perspectives: (a) consumers' belief in advertising ethics (Paek & Nelson, 2009), (b) religious orientation and political inclinations (Farah & Newman, 2010), (c) general trust in others and political trust (Copeland, 2014) are important attitudinal antecedents of boycotting and buycotting behaviors. Moreover, when consumers boycott or buycott a company due to its position on social-political issues, their attitude/stance on the issue (Swimberghe, Flurry, & Parker, 2011) as well as prior attitudes towards the company are also essential antecedents to be considered.

While some studies have focused on consumers' motivations for boycotting or buycotting a company, other studies have examined factors that restrain one's incentive to boycott (John & Klein, 2003). In Yuksel's (2013) study, several factors that help rationalize consumers' non-participation decisions were identified: (a) irrelevance or a

perceived physical and social distance from the issue, (b) reactance and perceived threat to one's sense of freedom if one takes an action, (c) counterarguments, which may result in negative attributions of participation behaviors. In addition, Klein et al. (2004) argued that counterarguments are related to consumers' doubts about whether participation is necessary, especially when they believe that many others are already taking action.

Most prior research on boycotting and buycotting motivations has been grounded in cost-benefit analysis, focusing on consumers' rational motivations (Klein et al., 2003, 2004; James, 2010). However, little research has been conducted that focuses on consumer emotions as antecedents (James, 2010). Among studies that integrated emotions in investigating boycotting behaviors (Makarem & Jae, 2016; Farah & Newman, 2010; Lindenmeier, Schleer, & Price, 2012), it has been argued that boycotting behavior can help vent displeasure, anger or outrage towards the acts of the boycott target (Friedman, 1991). Chen's (2010) dissertation proposed and tested a theoretical model that includes both emotional and cost-benefit factors to describe consumers' boycott participation. To be specific, Chen (2010) examined two groups of moral emotions: other-condemning emotions including anger, contempt, and disgust; and self-conscious emotions including guilt, shame, and embarrassment. Meanwhile, Chen (2010) also measured related prosocial (hope, empathy, and sympathy) and retaliation (betrayal, trust, hatred, and suspicion) emotions. It was found that (a) emotions were rated higher in non-instrumental boycotts than in instrumental boycotts; (b) anger and guilt were strong indicators of boycott intentions. Specifically, consumers are likely to participate in boycotts because they are angry at the company's act or feel guilty about consuming

products that may cause harm to others. However, no research has been conducted to explore the affective antecedents of buycotting behaviors.

This dissertation, as mentioned earlier, aims to investigate consumers' emotional experiences and antecedents surrounding their decision to boycott and buycott a company. The next section will focus on reviewing emotions that are potentially relevant to these two behaviors.

Emotions and Consumers' Boycotting and Buycotting Behaviors

In examining people's emotional responses towards social problems, Kinnick, Krugman, and Cameron (1996) asked participants to relate their feelings of (a) being shocked or appalled, (b) anger or frustration, (c) fear, (d) helplessness, and so on. This current dissertation study aims to investigate the emotions that consumers have when facing corporate brand activism that deals with controversial sociopolitical issues. Therefore, their experienced emotions are likely to be similar to the emotions people feel when facing social problems in general. Such reasoning makes it more legitimate to examine the role of emotions in boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors as a response to brand activism.

Dimensional vs. discrete emotion approach

The definition of emotion has been a highly debated subject for many years (Barrett, 2006). After considerable deliberation, the consensus is that emotion is a psychological construct consisting of five components: (a) cognitive appraisal or evaluation of a situation, (b) physiological component of arousal, (c) motor expression, (d) a motivational component (including behavioral intentions or readiness), and (e) a subjective feeling state (Nabi, 2002). When it comes to basic units of emotions, however,

two different typologies have been formed: one is the dimensional approach and the other is the discrete approach (Nabi, 2002; Izard, 2007; Lazarus, 1991). Specifically, scholars taking a dimensional approach, regard emotion as a continuum variable and argue that emotions differ based on certain key dimensions (Russell, 1979; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Alternatively, discrete emotion typology argues that various emotions are distinct variables and that each emotion functions in its unique manner (Plutchik, 1980).

Two models have been widely used among scholars who take a dimensional approach (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Russell, 1979; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). One is a two-dimensional model (Russell, 1979), which argues that all emotions differ based on two dimensions—valence and arousal. Valence, grounded in a hedonic state, concerns the extent to which an individual incorporates pleasantness or unpleasantness into their conscious affective experiences (Broekens, 2012; Russell, 1979; 2003). Ratings of pleasure reflect an individual's tendency to approach an object, whereas displeasure indicates a tendency to withdraw from the encounter (Bradley & Lang, 1994). Arousal, grounded in stimulus intensity, is related to one's tendency to attend to the internal sensations associated with an affective experience (Broekens, 2012; Russell, 1979; 2003). The other model, the PAD (Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance) model of emotion, expands on the two-dimensional model by adding a third dimension which is dominance (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Bradley & Lang, 1994; Russell & Mehrabian, 1974). Dominance refers to people's feelings of submissiveness or dominance. In other words, it is about whether people feel they are controlling their surroundings or that they are being controlled by their surroundings (Bradley & Lang, 1994; Broekens, 2012; Jerram, Lee, Negrira, & Gansler, 2013). This dimension reflects the interactive relationship between the perceiver

and the perceived, with high dominance associated with having maximum control over the situation (Bradley & Lang, 1994). It must be noted that high dominance does not necessarily lead to approach behaviors, whereas low dominance does not automatically cause avoidance behaviors (Jerram et al., 2013). In addition, it has been stated that the dominance dimension of an emotion relates to an individual's ability to change the situation, and reflects characteristics of the situation (Broekens, 2012).

The discrete emotion typology states that each emotion has its unique appraisal patterns, motivational functions, and behavioral associations (Plutchik, 1980). Moreover, it has been argued that there are a small number of basic emotions and that all other emotions are compounds of these basic emotions (Izard, 2007; Plutchik, 1980). However, scholars have not reached an agreement regarding what the basic emotions are. For example, Ekman, Friesen and Ellsworth think anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness, and surprise are the basic emotions; and their inclusion criterion is universal facial expression. Plutchik (1980) identified fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, expectancy, and surprise as basic emotions. Arnold, based on the relation to action tendencies, argued that the basic emotions are anger, aversion, courage, dejection, desire, despair, fear, hate, hope, love, and sadness (Ortony & Turner, 1990; Plutchik, 1980).

It is necessary to consider the persuasive impact of each emotion to be discrete when one agrees that a primary purpose of the emotional system is to "engender adaptive responses to distinct situational appraisals through modifications of mental processing, motivation and physiological responses" (Desteno, Petty, Rucker, Wegener, & Braverman, 2004, p. 43). In fact, different discrete emotions are found to (a) relate to various core relational themes (Lazarus, 1991), (b) lead to various cognitive and

motivational processes (Desteno et al., 2004), and (c) produce distinct effects on a variety of persuasive outcomes (Dillard & Meijnders, 2002).

As mentioned earlier, boycotting is avoidance-oriented behavior and buycotting is approach-oriented behavior. Research has also shown that positive emotions are related to approach motivation, whereas negative emotions are related to avoidance motivation (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Therefore, it is legitimate to investigate the valence of emotions as related to consumers' boycotting and buycotting behaviors. However, this does not mean the dimensional typology of emotion can fully capture the affective antecedents of boycotting and buycotting behaviors.

This dissertation argues that it is more appropriate to adopt discrete emotion typology to investigate boycotting and buycotting behaviors. First, boycotting and buycotting are not only related to approach-avoidance motivations. Different emotion types, even if they share the same valence, indicate different relation statuses between the focal person and the environment, and thus lead to different behavioral responses. For example, both anger and fear are negative emotions. However, anger indicates that the surroundings have exerted a demeaning offense against the self. Thus, people who are angry tend to actively approach the target to diminish their unpleasant feelings. Alternatively, fear indicates a thought that the surroundings will cause concrete and sudden danger or imminent physical harm; therefore, people who are frightened tend to take an avoidance approach to escape from the perceived harm.

Additionally, discrete theorists have noticed and investigated various types of moral emotions (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011). Moral emotions are defined as those emotions "that are linked to the interests or welfare either of society as a whole or at least of

persons other than the judge or agent" (Haidt, 2003, p. 276). These emotions play important roles in moral judgment and decision making (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011; Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007; Ugazio, Lamm, & Singer, 2012), and therefore are considered relevant to consumers' ethical and political consumption behaviors—boycotting and buycotting (Chen, 2010). Meanwhile, it has been argued that moral emotions can be categorized into two groups: other-condemning and self-condemning emotions (Chen, 2010). Within each group, emotions are distinct from each other in terms of appraisals, motivations and consequences (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011). In summary, discrete emotion typology is more appropriate in the setting of this dissertation study.

Discrete emotions, boycotting, and buycotting

To investigate the relationship of discrete emotion with boycotting and buycotting behaviors, a list of potentially relevant emotions is first hypothesized. The nature of boycotting is avoidance-oriented, whereas buycotting is approach-oriented. Therefore, it is reasonable to include both positive and negative emotions (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Following the typology of self-condemning vs. other-condemning in moral emotion literature, it is reasonable to categorize the examined emotions based on whether they are self-directed or other-directed. Thereby, emotions examined in this study can be categorized based on two dimensions—one being valence (positive vs. negative) and the other being self-consciousness vs. non-self-consciousness. Self-conscious emotions are derived from an individual's self-evaluation and reflection; whereas non-self-conscious emotions come from one's evaluation of the surroundings and others (Tangney et al., 2007). Discrete emotion theorists make efforts to distinguish between self-conscious and

non-self-conscious emotions based on three appraisals: relevance, goal congruence, and attribution of causality (Tracy & Robins, 2004, 2006).

After reviewing the literature, a list of emotions has been identified as potentially related to boycotting and buycotting behaviors: (a) negative and non-self-conscious emotions including anger, disgust, and contempt; (b) negative and self-conscious emotions including shame, and guilt; (c) positive and self-conscious emotions including pride; and (d) positive and non-self-conscious emotions including happiness, hope, elevation, and gratitude.

Anger, disgust, and contempt. Anger, disgust, and contempt are all negative, non-self-conscious and other-focused emotions (Tangney et al., 2007). However, there are also distinctions among the three emotions. Anger is usually evoked by "appraisals of self-relevance", disgust is related to "appraisals that a person is morally untrustworthy" and contempt refers to one's "judgment that someone is incompetent or unintelligent." (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011, p. 733). Differences among the three emotions also lie in various ethical domains where they are elicited. Anger is elicited when there is "violation of autonomy (individual freedom, rights)", contempt occurs in response to the "violation of the ethics of the community (respect, duty, hierarchical relations)", and disgust is experienced in reaction to the "violation of the ethics of divinity (purity, beauty)" (Fischer & Roseman, 2007, p.103). Therefore, anger is an emotion that usually leads to immediate action, whereas disgust and contempt do not evoke such immediacy (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011). In addition, studies have found that anger and disgust are both negative emotions but have opposite motivational directions; anger contains approach motivation whereas disgust contains withdrawal motivation (Ugazio et al.,

2012). Moreover, both anger and disgust have a fundamental orthogonal dimension of morality; however, contempt is related to competence. (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011, 734). As for the difference between anger and contempt, it has been found that anger is more likely to arise when a certain amount of control over the other is expected, whereas contempt is more likely to occur when less control is expected (Fischer & Roseman, 2007). Furthermore, anger usually motivates individuals to change the other's behavior through attacking; in other words, angry consumers tend to induce the companies to change their behavior with the hope of sustaining relationships with the companies. However, contempt is more likely to develop into long-term rejection of the relationship, meaning consumers intend to ultimately disengage from the firms (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Romani, Grappi, & Bagozzi, 2013). In summary, it is expected that people who are angry are more likely to boycott a company; whereas contempt and disgust are likely to reduce an individual's intention to take actions. Therefore, hypotheses regarding the influence of anger, disgust, and contempt can be drawn:

H1-1: Boycotters have a significantly higher level of anger than buycotters.

H1-2: Consumers' emotions of anger positively impact boycott intention.

H2-1: Boycotters have significantly higher levels of (a) disgust and (b) contempt than buycotters.

H2-2: Consumers' emotions of (a) disgust and (b) contempt negatively impact their boycott intention.

Shame and guilt. Shame, guilt and embarrassment consists of a triad of negative and self-conscious emotions (Tangney et al., 2007). Based on Lazarus' (1991) cognitive-motivational-relational theory, they share the same core relational theme as "having

transgressed a moral imperative." However, there still are some differences between them. For example, embarrassment was found to be related to transgressions of convention that govern public interaction, shame was associated with one's failure to meet important personal standards, and guilt was found to be about actions that do harm to others or violate duties (Keltner & Buswell, 1996).

Guilt is a gnawing feeling that one has done something wrong. It arises from one's violation of an internalized moral, ethical, or religious code and leads to one's intention to atone for the wrongdoing (Nabi, 2002). The individual feels as though "I *did* the things wrong" (Tangney et al., 2007). Shame is more of a "public" emotion arising from public exposure and disapproval of one's transgression. It is based on others' evaluation of one's self or identity. In this instance, the individual feels as though "*I* did the things wrong" (Tangney et al., 2007). Therefore, the emotion of guilt is directed at an event-specific behavior; however, the emotion of shame is more directed at one's core self, regardless of events or situations (Tangney et al., 2007).

Furthermore, empirical research has found that external, unstable, and controllable attributions were related to guilt, whereas shame is related to internal, stable, and uncontrollable attributes (Tangney et al., 2007; Tracey & Robins, 2006). Therefore, in the context of persuasion, guilt-appeal will be more efficient in changing attitude and behavior when the message receiver's response efficacy is increased. In contrast, shame-appeal will be more effective if the message contains information that enhances the message receiver's self-efficacy (Tangney et al., 2007). Both guilt and shame lead to self-regulation and coping behaviors, but with slight differences. Guilt is associated with problem-focused coping and therefore consumers react to guilty feelings by regulating

their behaviors and shame is associated with emotion-focused coping, meaning

consumers focus more on regulating their emotional experiences (Antonetti & Maklan,

2014).

Based on previous studies, it is reasonable to argue that consumers who experience

guilt and shame are both likely to take boycotting actions as forms of self-regulation.

However, guilt is more likely to lead to instrumental behaviors, whereas shame is more

likely to result in expressive behaviors. Therefore,

H3: Consumers' emotion of guilt positively impacts their boycotting intention.

H4: Consumers' emotion of shame positively impacts their boycotting intention.

Pride. A positive affect generally leads people to feel pleasant and access and

engage the emotion stimuli (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). However, there have been few

studies that have examined the positive emotions and persuasion, compared to negative

emotions (Nabi, 2001). As one of the essential positive emotions to be investigated, pride

is a self-conscious emotion people experience when they ascribe personal credit (i.e.,

abilities or efforts) to their achievement or when they take credit for an achievement that

someone with whom one identifies makes (Lazarus, 1991; Nabi, 2002). Contrary to

happiness, which is only related to enjoying positive outcomes, pride can help enhance

one's perceived self-worth (Antonetti & Maklan, 2014). There are generally two types of

pride. One is achievement-oriented or authentic pride and it is caused by a specific

achievement. The other is hubristic pride, which is characterized by an unconditional,

positive view of oneself (Antonetti & Maklan, 2014; Bodolica & Spraggon, 2011). In

terms of attributions, hubristic pride requires individuals to attribute to a stable and global

image of the self; whereas authentic pride requires attributing to an unstable and specific aspects of the self (Bodolica & Spraggon, 2011).

In general, pride is a self-conscious emotion, that will be felt when people perceive they can control and influence positive outcomes (Antonetti & Maklan, 2014). Furthermore, people experiencing the emotion of pride tend to dream of further achievement and are motivated for future success (Williams & Desteno, 2008). In the context of consumer buycotting, it can be expected that, in general, pride will enhance consumers' buycotting intentions.

H5-1: Buycotters have significantly higher levels of pride than boycotters.

H5-2: Consumers' emotion of pride positively impacts their buycotting intention.

Happiness. Happiness is typically used interchangeably with joy (Nabi, 2002). It is a state of gaining or making progress toward what one desired (Izard, 1977; Lazarus, 1991) or "making reasonable progress towards the realization of our goals" (Lazarus, 1991). It leads to a feeling of confidence, expansiveness and openness and it promotes trusting and sharing (Nabi, 2002). In the context of consumer boycotting and buycotting, it is expected that happiness is an emotion buycotters will experience. This is because when they buycott a company, they are expressing their favorable attitudes towards the advocated issue and the company; meanwhile, they are making contributions to and progress towards a positive outcome. One thing that remains to be discovered is whether boycotters will experience happiness. It is reasoned in this study that boycotters should also experience happiness because by boycotting the company, they are also making progress to the desired end.

H6: Consumers' emotion of happiness positively impacts both their (a) boycotting intention, and (b) buycotting intention.

Hope. Hope is a positive emotion that is felt in a negative circumstance (Lazarus, 1991; Nabi, 2002). It represents a desire for a better situation than that which currently exists (Nabi, 2002) and therefore is considered to be non-self-conscious. The emotional appeal called "Hope-appeal" generally leads to an approach response and motivates behaviors by focusing one's thoughts on future rewards and punishments (Nabi, 2002). It results from one's appraisal of a future outcome as consistent with a goal that leads to a better future. Similar to other positive emotions, little research has been conducted about the emotion of hope. In one study, Roseman, Abelson, and Ewing (1986) found that hope-appeals were successful for those with self-reported predispositions to experience fear, but not the disposition to experience pity or anger. In the context of consumer boycotting and buycotting behaviors, hope is expected to be related to boycotting behaviors. This is because boycotts occur when people perceive the circumstance negatively. They take actions to change the situation and strive for a better future. In this instance, they are likely to experience the emotion of hope.

H7: Consumers' emotion of hope positively impacts their boycotting intention.

Elevation and gratitude. Elevation and gratitude are considered to be both positive and other-oriented (non-self-conscious) emotions (Tangney et al., 2007). Elevation arises when individuals observe others behaving in a virtuous way (Haidt, 2000, 2003; Tangney et al., 2007). It is a warm and pleasant feeling that motivates them to conduct prosocial behaviors themselves (Haidt, 2003; Haidt et al., 2002; Tangney et al., 2007). Similar to elevation, feelings of gratitude also result from the moral behaviors of others and can

increase one's moral motivations (Tangney et al., 2007). One key difference between gratitude and elevation is that people who experience the emotion of gratitude are the recipients of others' benevolence. Based on their conceptual definitions, it is argued that both elevation and gratitude are related to one's buycotting intentions.

H8-1: Buycotters have significantly higher levels of (a) elevation and (b) gratitude.

H8-2: Consumers' emotion of (a) elevation and (b) gratitude positively impact their buycotting intention.

Consumers make decisions about boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors not only based on what they think and feel, but also under the influence of social impact. Social impact is defined as any influence on an individual's feelings, thoughts, or behaviors that is exerted by the real, implied, or imagined presence or actions of others (Latene, 1981; Nowak, Szamrej, & Latane, 1990). This dissertation also investigates how the presence of others influences consumers' boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors. Specifically, the presence of others is operationalized as the magnitude of public support consumers gain for their stance on the sociopolitical issue.

As mentioned earlier, boycotting and buycotting behaviors can be instrumental, aiming to effect a change in the current situation or company policy (Friedman, 1991; John & Klein, 2003; Klein, Smith, & John, 2004). Boycotting and buycotting can also be expressive, which means they serve to express consumers' values, attitudes, individuality, and/or emotions (Farah & Newman, 2009; John & Klein, 2003; Kam & Deichert, 2017; Makarem & Jae, 2016). Based on their expressive nature, boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors in reaction to brand activism can be a method of expressing public opinion. Therefore, literature regarding conformity, public opinion expression, and the spiral of

silence theory will be reviewed. Following this logic, the magnitude of public support

will impact how likely the focal person is to express his/her opinion in public through the

actions of either boycotting or "buycotting." In addition, based on their instrumental

nature, boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors can also be regarded as helping behaviors

(Copeland, 2014; Neilson, 2010; Paek & Nelson, 2009) that contribute to collective goals

(Copeland, 2014). From this perspective, the magnitude of public support is likely to

influence how much the focal person wants to make his/her own contribution through

boycotting or "buycotting" behaviors. Consequently, literature regarding social loafing

and the bystander effect will also be reviewed below.

Presence of others and Magnitude of Public Support: Conformity, Social Impact Theory, and Spiral of Silence

Consumers boycott or buycott to express their opinions, attitudes, and emotions

towards sociopolitical issues as a response to brand activism (Farah & Newman, 2009;

John & Klein, 2003; Kam & Deichert, 2017; Makarem & Jae, 2016). Moreover, whether

or not and how to express their private attitudes in public are not only impacted by their

attitudes per se, but also by their surroundings, which has been elaborated in social

impact theory (Latane, 1981; Nowak, Szamrej, & Latane, 1990). In the setting of brand

activism, companies take stances on controversial sociopolitical issues that draw

polarizing opinions among the public. Consequently, it is necessary to investigate how

minority viewpoints maintain or fail to maintain themselves in the face of opposing

majorities (Nowak et al., 1990). In their computer simulation, Nowak et al. (1990) tested

and identified the following antecedents for an individual's likelihood of being

influenced by opposing opinions: (a) attitude, (b) ability to persuade people with

opposing beliefs to change their minds, (c) supportiveness as the ability to provide social

support to people with similar beliefs, and (d) location in the social structure. This study primarily focuses on supportiveness in the polarization process when investigating consumers' likelihood to boycott or buycott.

To further understand the process, literature regarding social consensus and conformity will be reviewed. Asch's (1951, 1956) conformity experiment found that people will conform to the majority opinions under social pressure (Bond & Smith, 1996; Fujita & Mori, 2017). It is argued that when majorities exert social impact, individuals tend to publicly accept the majority viewpoint while privately retaining their own viewpoints. Following Asch's classic conformity research, other scholars have empirically tested how characteristics such as a sense of unity (Fujita & Mori, 2017), culture, sex and response condition (Bond & Smith, 1996) impacted conformity to majority opinions. Factors that were found moderating the conformity effect include (a) size of the majority, (b) proportion of female participants, (c) existence of out-group members in the majority and (d) stimuli used in the experimental study (Bond & Smith, 1996). In this current study, size of the majority is the focus of investigation. This is because it indicates the magnitude of public support one receives on one's stance on a sociopolitical issue. Therefore, it will potentially influence one's likelihood to express private attitudes through boycotting or "buycotting" behaviors.

The tendency of conforming to majority viewpoints can be explained by several frameworks. For instance, in exploring an individual's tendency to reciprocate and conform, Romano and Balliet (2017) found that people tended to conform when they had high reputational concern, but they reciprocated more when the level of concern was low. Another group of scholars stated that people resort to perceptions of social consensus and

familiarity when making a judgement of a belief (Weaver, Garcia, Schwarz, & Miller, 2007; Schwarz, Sanna, Skurnik, & Yoon, 2007). Following this line of logic, Weaver et al. (2007) established that people depend on two sources of information when estimating the prevalence of an opinion: First, when perceivers have prior knowledge of a group, they are likely to know the actual extensity of the opinion or the percentage of group members who support it; second, one's subjective sense of familiarity can serve as information that will aid in estimating the extensity of the opinion. The latter reasoning is based on the impact that metacognitive experiences (e.g., processing fluency) have on judgment making; if many believe it, there is probably something to it (Festinger, 1954).

Given that this study investigates consumers' responses and attitudes towards controversial sociopolitical issues, the impact of metacognitive experiences on opinion distribution estimation is limited. Instead, people are more likely to rely on the percentage of group members who support their own stances. Consequently, this study argues that in the context of boycotting and "buycotting," consumers may conform to the majority due to their desire to not appear deviant compared to the majority (Bond & Smith, 1996; Turner, 1991), or, according to the spiral of silence theory, they may have a fear of being isolated (Salmon & Glynn, 2008). The spiral of silence theory is a theoretical framework used to explain an individual's public opinion expression at the societal level (Salmon & Glynn, 2008).

There are two states of public opinion expression based on the spiral of silence theory: one is the static state and the other is the dynamic state (Salmon & Glynn, 2008). The static state talks about the phenomenon that people tend to express their opinions in public if their opinions are shared with the majority. On the other hand, if their opinions

are shared with the minority, they tend to keep silent (Dalisay, 2012; Salmon & Glynn, 2008). The dynamic state of the spiral of silence theory refers to a longitudinal investigation of the phenomenon. In the long run, the majority's opinion will eventually become the mainstream, whereas the minority's opinion will disappear because it does not gain vocal support (Salmon & Glynn, 2008). It has been argued that the underlying mechanism of the spiral of silence is people's fear of social isolation (Noelle-Neumann, 1974, 1977; Salmon & Glynn, 2008) however, limited empirical evidence has been provided to support this argument.

Based on the spiral of silence theory, it is hypothesized that if an individual's opinion is congruent with the minority, or in other words, if one gains limited public support for their opinion/stance, he/she will experience an increased fear of isolation, and will therefore be less likely to express his/her private attitude through boycotting or buycotting behavior. However, if one shares an opinion with the majority, or in other words, if one gains a significant amount of public support for their opinion/stance, he/she will be more likely to express his/her stance freely through the consumption behaviors of boycotting or buycotting.

Bystander and Social Loafing Effect

Consumers boycott or buycott to make a difference about the current situation or company policy (Friedman, 1991; John & Klein, 2003; Klein, Smith, & John, 2004). That is why boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors can also be regarded as a helping behavior that contributes to the collective good. To better understand the influence of others and public support in such a context, literature on the bystander effect and the social loafing effect will be reviewed below.

When passive bystanders are present in a critical situation, an individual's likelihood of helping decreases, which is a phenomenon that has been termed the bystander effect (Darley & Latane, 1968; Fischer, Krueger, Greitemeyer, Vogrincic, Kastenmuller, & Frey, 2011; Latane & Darley, 1968, 1970). Prior research has identified three different psychological processes to explain the bystander effect (Fischer et al., 2001; Latane & Darley, 1970). The first explanation is diffusion of responsibility, which refers to the notion that as the number of people present in a situation increases, the individual will feel less responsible to help (Darley & Latane, 1968; Fischer et al., 2001; Garcia, Weaver, Moskowitz, & Darley, 2002; Latane & Darley, 1970). On the other hand, pluralistic ignorance explains the tendency to rely on other's reactions when defining and evaluating a situation; if others are simply standing by, one will not intervene or step in to help (Fischer et al., 2011; Garcia et al., 2002). Other explanations include evaluation apprehension (i.e., the fear of being judged by others when acting publicly) (Fischer et al., 2011) and confusion of responsibility (i.e., the fear of being perceived as the perpetrator of the victim's pain and suffering) (Garcia et al., 2002).

Among the various explanations, diffusion of responsibility has been widely accepted and will be adopted in this study. Previous studies have shown that as the number of others present increases (whether the others are directly related to the situation or not), one will feel a lower sense of personal accountability or responsibility, and will therefore be less likely to take action and help (Garcia et al., 2002; Wiesenthal, Austrom, & Silverman, 1983). Therefore, sense of responsibility will be measured and examined as a potential mediator in this study. An essential question is: When individual consumers

have a low sense of responsibility to advocate for their sociopolitical stance, will they be less likely to boycott or buycott a company?

Prior research has investigated the bystander effect together with factors that enlarge or inhibit such an effect (Fischer et al., 2011). The classic bystander research studies one's likelihood to help and take actions by focusing on the number of bystanders (Garcia et al., 2002; Fischer et al., 2011). The linear relationship between the number of bystanders and willingness to help has been well-established (Garcia et al., 2002; Fischer et al., 2011). Additionally, in their meta-analysis, Fischer et al. (2011) have identified a series of moderators, including (a) emergent vs. non-emergent situation, (b) whether the intervening person expects increased physical costs, (c) field vs. lab setting, (d) male vs. female bystanders, and (e) perpetrator present or not. In other words, factors that enhance the perceived danger level will inhibit the bystander effect and increase helping responses (Fischer et al., 2011). In this study, however, only the number of bystanders will be studied and integrated. Specifically, the number of bystanders indicates the magnitude or size of public support one gains for their stance on sociopolitical issues.

Another related and relevant theoretical framework is the social loafing effect. To be specific, the social loafing effect describes the situation in which teams of people working together are unmotivated to make individual contributions to achieve a collective goal (Karau & Williams, 1993; Klein et al., 2004). Previous scholars have provided several theoretical explanations of the social loafing effect (Karau & Williams, 1993). The social impact theory (Latene, 1981) and arousal reduction (Jackson & Williams, 1985) explanations, argue that the presence of other group members signals the co-targets of an outside source of social impact, and therefore reduces one's intention to

contribute (Karau & Williams, 1993). Additionally, studies on evaluation potential (Harkins, 1987) and self-attention (Mullen, 1983) have indicated that individuals lose their identity and self-awareness in the crowd and are thus less motivated to make individual contributions (Karau & Williams, 1993).

As with the bystander effect, diffusion of responsibility also plays a role in explaining the social loafing effect; when the responsibility of completing the collective task becomes dispersed among group members, each individual member will put forth less effort (Barron & Yechiam, 2002; Karau & Williams, 1993; Lewis, Thompson, Wuensch, Grossnickle, & Cope, 2004; Williams, Harkins, & Latane, 1981). In this regard, individual contribution decreases with an increase in group size (Barron & Yechiam, 2002). In the context of boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors in reaction to brand activism, group size is operationalized as the magnitude of public support consumers gain from their sociopolitical stance. There are two possible conditions based on the explanation of diffusion of responsibility. One is that people believe their behaviors will have a minimum impact because their contributions are too small to be noticed (John & Klein, 2003; Klein et al., 2004). Second, people may believe that their actions are not necessary because they can free-ride on other's contributions (Klein et al., 2004). Regardless of the specific condition, diffusion of responsibility argues that one's sense of responsibility towards the collective goal mediates the process of social loafing (Karau & Williams, 1993). Consequently, based on the bystander effect and the social loafing effect, sense of responsibility is proposed as mediating the impact of public support magnitude on boycott and buycott intentions.

The linear relationship between group size and social loafing has also been well-supported (Karau & Williams, 1993). Previous studies have identified other antecedents or moderators of the social loafing effect, including task complexity, expectation of co-worker performance, uniqueness of individual contributions, gender, culture, and so on (Karau & Williams, 1993). As mentioned in the literature review when discussing the bystander effect, this study will only integrate the number of other group members as an operationalization of the magnitude of public support that one gains for their stance on sociopolitical issues.

Based on the above reasoning, two competing hypotheses can be generated, which both propose a moderation effect. The first hypothesis is regarding the interaction between the magnitude of public support and attitude consistency as explained by the fear of isolation based on spiral of silence theory. It is argued that magnitude of public support can impact fear of isolation. Whereas the second hypothesis is regarding the interaction between the magnitude of public support and attitude consistency based on the social loafing effect and the bystander effect. Potential mediators that are proposed to be influenced by magnitude of public support include sense of responsibility, perceived likelihood of success, responsibility allocation between oneself and group members, and perceived contribution of oneself and others.

H9-1: The magnitude of public support moderates the impact of attitude consistency on (a) brand attitude, (b) boycott intention, (c) buycott intention, and (d) behavior intention: when public support level is high, participants whose opinions are consistent with the opinions of the target company are more likely to (a) form positive brand attitude, (b) buycott the company, (d) take behavior actions, and less likely to (c) boycott

the company, compared to participants who have an attitude that is inconsistent with that of the company. When public support level is low, there is no significant difference between an attitude consistent condition and an attitude inconsistent condition.

H9-2: The magnitude of public support moderates the impact of attitude consistency o on (a) brand attitude, (b) boycott intention, (c) buycott intention and (d) behavior intention: when the public support level is low, participants who have a consistent attitude with the company are more likely to (a) form positive brand attitude, (b) buycott the company, (d) take behavior actions, and less likely to (c) boycott the company, compared to participants who have an inconsistent attitude. When public support level is high, there is no significant difference between an attitude consistent condition and an attitude inconsistent condition. Such an interaction is mediated by a sense of responsibility.

H10-1: Magnitude of public support significantly impact fear of isolation.

H10-2: Magnitude of public support significantly impact (a) sense of responsibility, (b) social loafing, (c) perceived likelihood of success, (e) responsibility allocation between oneself and other group members, (e) difference of perceived contribution between oneself and other group members.

The reasoning discussed above is mostly built on how the external factor (i.e., public support) interacts with one's internal motivation (e.g. attitude) to influence consumers' boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors. Emotions, as elaborated on earlier in this manuscript, also regard one's internal motivation and potentially drive consumers' boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors. Therefore, this dissertation hypothesizes that the mediated moderation effects between public support and attitude consistency may still

stand when looking at the impact of emotions. A series of research questions can be asked accordingly:

RQ1: How does magnitude of public support moderate the impacts of various emotions, including (a) anger, (b) disgust, (c) contempt, (d) guilt, (e) shame, (f) pride, (g) happiness, (h) hope, (i) elevation, and (j) gratitude, on consumers' brand attitude?

RQ2: How does magnitude of public support moderate the impacts of various emotions, including (a) anger, (b) disgust, (c) contempt, (d) guilt, (e) shame, (f) pride, (g) happiness, (h) hope, (i) elevation, and (j) gratitude, on consumers' intention to boycott?

RQ3: How does magnitude of public support moderate the impacts of various emotions, including (a) anger, (b) disgust, (c) contempt, (d) guilt, (e) shame, (f) pride, (g) happiness, (h) hope, (i) elevation, and (j) gratitude, on consumers' intention to buycott?

RQ4: How does magnitude of public support moderate the impacts of various emotions, including (a) anger, (b) disgust, (c) contempt, (d) guilt, (e) shame, (f) pride, (g) happiness, (h) hope, (i) elevation, and (j) gratitude, on consumers' behavior intention?

Control, Power, and Efficacy

Public support means the influence that is exerted by others. Additionally, the amount of actual or perceived control that consumers have can also impact their behaviors (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Obhi et al., 2012). Another reason that the concepts of control, power and efficacy have been included in this study is that based on a literature review of various discrete emotions, an individual's control over a situation and/or over oneself is an important feature that can help distinguish discrete emotions (Antonetti & Maklan, 2014; Hofmann & Fisher, 2012).

Control, power, self-efficacy: Avoidance and approach

Power and control are often interchangeable concepts. Power is defined as "the ability to control resources, own and others', without social interference" (Galinsky et al., 2003, p. 454). The approach/inhibition theory of power argues that having power will increase one's tendency to approach and decrease the tendency to inhibit (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Keltner et al., 2003). It is empirically supported that when people gain control over resources, they are more likely to experience positive emotions and perceive rewards, and less likely to experience negative emotions and perceive threats (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002). Moreover, elevated power is associated with increased rewards and thus activates approach-related tendencies; whereas reduced power relates to increased threat and punishment, and therefore activates inhibition-related tendencies (Keltner et al., 2003).

Based on the approach/inhibition theory of power, it is reasonable to argue that increasing control can enhance one's action intentions. For example, Galinsky et al. (2003) found that people who are primed with high power are more likely to act towards desired end states, which can either serve self-interest or the public interest. In addition, Obhi, Swiderski, and Brubacher (2012) found that power can reduce the sense of urgency for action outcomes, leading to a significant difference in intentional binding between low-power priming and high-power priming.

The association between power and consumer behaviors towards the company has been empirically supported by prior research. Huit and Bateson (1991) found that consumers' perceived control in a service experience can positively enhance emotional

pleasure, exerting a positive impact on one's desire to stay and affiliate with the brand.

Grégoire, Laufer, and Tripp (2010) found that consumers with more power are less

fearful of counter-retaliation and are therefore more inclined to engage in direct revenge.

Madrigal and Boush (2008) argued that consumers reward corporations in order to

empower themselves. In addition, Sweetin, Knowles, Summey, & McQueen (2013)

found that empowered consumers are also willing to punish corporations for their socially

irresponsible actions. As a result, it is reasonable to conclude that the level of perceived

control will enhance both boycotting and "buycotting" intentions.

Control over self vs. others, avoidance vs. approach

Not only the level of control can have an impact on consumer behaviors, the target

of control, meaning control over oneself vs. control over others is also relevant to

boycotting and "buycotting" behaviors. One reason for this is that based on literature that

discusses discrete emotions, one dimension that categorizes various emotions is the

typology of self-conscious vs. non-self-conscious or self-directed vs. other-directed. Such

a dichotomy corresponds with two types of control, which are the ability to control (a)

one's own resources and (b) others' resources (Galinsky et al., 2003). For example, pride

and guilt, as self-conscious emotions, are not only self-evaluative consequences of

previous self-control performance, but can also shape future self-control performance

(Hofmann & Fisher, 2012). To be specific, individuals experience guilt when they

perceive their own behavior as "a transgression of relevant self-control standard;" and

people will feel pride "to the extent that they perceive their own behavior as exceeding a

relevant self-regulatory standard" (Hofmann & Fisher, 2012, p. 2012). Additionally,

pride can also involve the perception of having control over the circumstances (Antonetti

& Maklan, 2014). Furthermore, one difference between guilt and shame is that guilt is associated with controllable, unstable, and internal attributions, whereas shame is related to uncontrollable, stable, and internal attributions (Tangney et al., 2007; Tracey & Robins, 2006).

The typology of control over oneself vs. others follows a similar logic to the two-process model of perceived control (Rothbaum, Weisz, & Snyder, 1982; Weisz, Rothbanm, & Blackburn, 1984). In this model, it is argued that there are two paths to a feeling of control. One is primary control where individuals exert influence on existing realities (i.e., other people, environmental circumstances, etc.); the other is secondary control which concerns one's accommodation to existing realities by changing the psychological impact of realities on the self (Rothbaum et al., 1982; Weisz et al., 1984). It is reasoned that individuals are more likely to take actions when they are at the primary control stage or when they have control over their surroundings and others' resources.

The personality trait of locus of control shares the same logic of typology of control as being control over oneself vs. others. Specifically, an internal locus of control refers to the belief that the event is contingent on one's own behavior or one's relatively permanent characteristics, whereas an external locus of control refers to the belief that the event is a result of luck, chance, and fate, and is under the control of powerful others (Rotter, 1966, Ajzen, 2002). Prior research argued that activists typically have a high level of internal locus of control and who believe in their own ability to change the situation (Levenson, 2010; Ramos-McKay, 1977; Rotter, 1966). Therefore, it makes sense to measure and control this personality trait in the study.

Based on the reasoning above, this study measures several control-related variables as covariates, including self-efficacy, response efficacy (Ajzen, 2002; Sheeran & Orbell, 1999; Sparks, Guthrie, & Shepherd, 1997), and locus of control (Levenson, 2010; Ramos-McKay, 1977; Rotter, 1966). Specifically, response efficacy concerns perceived ease or difficulty in performing the behavior, whereas perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's abilities to exercise control over oneself and over events that affect one's life (Ajzen, 2002).

Based on the preceding discussion, the following model is presented that explains the hypotheses and research questions proposed (see Figure 1)

Chapter Three and Four addressed the research methodologies employed to test the model and answer the research questions through two research studies. Results of both research studies were also reported.

Chapter Three

Study One

To test the hypotheses and answer the research questions, two studies were

designed. Methods and results of Study 1 will be presented in Chapter Three and Study 2

will be presented in Chapter four. Study 1 was a survey in which participants were asked

to recall their recent boycotting or buycotting experiences due to shared or opposing

stances with the target company. In the first study, perceived public support was

measured. The survey design allowed for examining relationships between discrete

emotions, perceived public support, and behavioral variables based on participants' real

experiences. It provided empirical evidence to test Hypotheses 1-1 through 8-2 and

answer the research questions.

Measures

Study 1—the survey—included measured of different discrete emotions (i.e., shame,

guilt, contempt, anger, disgust, elevation, pride, gratitude, happiness, hope), issue-related

variables (i.e., problem recognition, constraint recognition, involvement recognition,

referent criterion), public support (measured as perceived public support and opinion

climate estimate), efficacy-related variables (i.e., response efficacy, self-efficacy),

personality-related variable (i.e., locus of control), as well as attitudinal response variable

(brand attitude) and behavioral response variable (boycotting and buycott intentions). All

study measured were adopted from previous research and adapted to fit in the context of

the present study.

Emotions of shame, guilt, anger, and contempt were measured using Izard's (1971)

seven-point Likert-scale. Specifically, shame (α = .925) was measured by asking the

degree of feeling "ashamed," "humiliated," and "disgraced;" guilt (α = .910) was scaled

by asking the degree of feeling "repentant," "guilty," and "blameworthy;" contempt (α

= .963) was measured by asking the degree of feeling "contemptuous," "scornful" and

"disdainful;" and finally, anger (α = .938) was measured by asking about the degree of

being "angry," "enraged," and "mad." Feeling of elevation (α = .910) was measured on a

scale from (did not feel at all) to 9 (felt very strongly) on the following items: "moved",

"uplifted", "optimistic about humanity", "warm feeling in chest", "want to help others",

and "want to become a better person" (Schnall, Roper, & Fessler, 2010).

Emotions of authentic pride (α = .963) and hubristic pride (α = .956) were measured

by adapting Tracey and Robins (2007)'s 7-point Likert scale in measuring state pride. To

be specific, authentic pride, which refers to attribution of success to internal, unstable and

controllable causes, was measured by seven items including "feel accomplished" "feel

like I am achieving" "feel fulfilled" and so on. in their specific experience. Hubristic

pride, on the other hand, refers to attribution of success to internal, stable, and

uncontrollable causes. It was measured by seven items, such as "feel arrogant" "feel

egotistical" and "feel smug." Feeling of gratitude (α = .992) was measured on a three-

item seven-point Likert scale (Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006), including "I feel grateful

towards the company" "I feel appreciative toward the company" and " I feel positive

toward the company."

Emotion of disgust (α = .955) was measured by 7-point Likert scale with three items

(Izard et al., 1974; Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, 1999). These items are "In recalling

my experience, I now experience feeling of distaste" "I now feel disgusted" and "I now

experience feeling of revulsion." Happiness (α = .976) was measured by three-item 7-

point Likert scale (Izard et al., 1974), including "In recalling my experience, I now feel delighted" "I now feel happy" and "I now feel joyful." Hope ($\alpha = .963$) was measured by two items, including "I now feel hopeful" and "I now feel optimistic" (Izard et al., 1974).

Valence ($\alpha = .937$) was measured through Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) six-item semantic scale. The six pairs of endpoints were unhappy vs. happy, annoyed vs. pleased, unsatisfied vs. satisfied, melancholic vs. contented, despairing vs. hopeful, and bored vs. relaxed. The dimension arousal ($\alpha = .812$) was measured by Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) six-item semantic scale, with the six pairs of endpoints as relaxed vs. stimulated, calm vs. excited, sluggish vs. frenzied, dull vs. jittery, sleepy vs. wide awake, unaroused vs. aroused.The dimension dominance ($\alpha = .832$) was measured through Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) scale of dominance. Specifically, six pairs of endpoints were used as 7-point semantic scale, including controlled vs. controlling, influenced vs. influential, cared for vs. in control, awed vs. important, submissive vs. dominant, and guided vs. autonomous.

To measure perceived public support, participants were asked to give a percentage estimate regarding how large is the share of Americans supporting their own stance on the issue (Zerback & Fawzi, 2016). In addition, perceived public support was as also measured using one of Dalisay's (2012) three-item 7-point Likert scale: "my family share my opinion on the issue".

There were three dependent measures: (1) brand attitude ($\alpha = .990$) measured by four-item semantic scale with four pairs of endpoints as "good vs. bad" "like vs. dislike" "favorable vs. unfavorable" and "positive vs. negative" (Meuhling & Laczniak, 1988), (2) boycott intentions and (3) buycott intentions (Stolle, Hooghe, & Micheletti, 2005).

The latter two were simply measured by asking participants' likelihood of taking boycotting and buycotting actions.

A series of variables were measured as control variables. As issue-related variables, problem recognition ($\alpha = .636$) was measured by three-item seven-point Likert scale (Kim et al., 2012), including "I think there is something missing about this issue" "The current situation surrounding the issue differs from my expectations" and "I feel that something needs to be done to improve the situation for this issue." Due to its low reliability, problem recognition was not used in further data analysis. Constraint recognition ($\alpha = .922$), which refers to people's perception of obstacles that prevent them from doing something about a problematic situation, was measured by two-item seven-point Likert scale (Kim et al., 2012), including "I can do something to make a difference in the way this issue is handled" and "I can affect the way the issue is eventually solved if I want to." Involvement recognition ($\alpha = .791$), defined as a perceived connection between individuals and the problematic situation, was measured by three-item 7-point Likert scale, including "In my mind, I can see a connection between myself and this issue" "I believe this issue can involve me or someone close to me at some point" and "I believe this issue affects or could affect me personally." (Kim et al., 2012). And lastly, referent criterion ($\alpha = .702$), which is about prior knowledge, experience, and subjective judgmental rules that one uses to solve present problem, was measured by three items as well, such as "I know how I should behave regarding this issue" (Kim et al., 2012).

Perception-related variables include response efficacy and self-efficacy. Among them, response efficacy ($\alpha = .930$) was measured using Umphrey's (2004) three-item seven-point Likert scale, including "what I did is highly effective in improving the

situation" "what I did could significantly affect the situation" and "what I did is an effective method for making the current situation better." Self-efficacy (α = .901) was measured by five items, including Sparks et al. (1997) two-item seven-point Likert scale, Bandura's (2006) one-item seven-point Likert scale, and Sparks et al. (1997) three-item seven-point Likert scale. Example items include "For me, to change the current situation in my desired direction would be easy" and "I am certain that I can change the current situation in my desired direction." As a personality-related control variable, locus of control was measured using an adapted scale from Lumpkin (1985). Example items are "What happens to me is my own doing" for internal locus of control (α = .645) and "Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me" of external locus of control (α = .757).

Demographic characteristics including gender, age, educational background, political stance, and religious belief were also asked in the survey questionnaire. Detailed information about the survey questionnaire can be found in the Appendix A.

Data Collection

An online questionnaire was created using Qualtrics, and was distributed on the Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) website. MTurk has been identified as a source of obtaining high-quality yet inexpensive data for social science studies and previous studies also suggested similarity between MTurk participants and traditional samples (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013). Besides, previous researchers argued that the demographic data collected via MTurk in general resember patterns of data from other internet research, but with a higher reliability and slightly greater diversity (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). This makes

MTurk an idea venue to collect data for study one as the survey aims to capture a full spectrum of political stances from people who are active on the internet.

On MTurk, requesters usually post human intelligence tasks (HITs) to recruit participants, who will be given a small amount of monetary incentives for their participation. Besides, requesters are able to approve or disapprove a specific HIT based on its quality. In this survey, a randomly generated code was prompted upon completion of the survey to verify participation. Moreover, Mason and Suri (2012) suggested the adoption of 90% and above approval rate of tasks as a criterion to recruit participants on MTurk. This study followed the suggestion and requested an approval rate of 90% and above from workers, with their location being the United States only.

In addition, one screening question was adopted: if participants claimed that they had never boycotted or boycotted a company due to brand activism on sociopolitical issues, they were opted out of the survey automatically. To ensure the quality of the data, three attention check questions were included in the questionnaire (those who did not pass the attention check were excluded from further data analyses). What's more, the worker IDs and respondents' IP addresses were carefully monitored to ensure there is no duplicate participation. As a result, out of 661 participants who were initially recruited, a final sample of 310 was retained, generating an effective response rate 46.9%.

Participants

Among the participants included in the final sample, 133 (42.9%) were male and 174 (56.1%) were female. The average age was 37.15 (SD = 12.10). The majority of them were Caucasian (n = 237, 76.5%), followed by African American (n =24, 7.7%). Most of them had a bachelor's degree (44.5%), followed by some college (29%). More

than half of them (57.7%) claimed that they are not member of any religious group. Among those who have religious affiliations, most of them (35.8%) are Christians. As for the annual income, most had an income between $20,001 and $40,000 (25.2%), followed by an income under $20,000 (24.5%). On average, the participants were relatively liberal (M = 4.82, SD = 1.82). More detailed information can be found in Table 3.1

Procedure

In the survey study, participants first read a brief description of the study. If they chose to participate, they were directed to the survey. In the survey questionnaire, participants were first asked to read about six controversial social-political issues in the United States. Afterwards, participants were asked to select one controversial issue that is related to their recent boycotting or buycotting experience. Then they were provided with definitions of boycotting and buycotting behaviors, with explanations of instrumental and expressive behaviors. Based on their selection of choice for the socio-political issue, participants were asked to write in detail about their boycotting or buycotting experiences. In detailing their experiences, they answered the following questions: (a) what happened to cause you to boycott/buycott the company; (b) what you said, if anything, and how you said it (Tangney, 1990). The purpose of asking these questions is to make participants get immersed into recollection of the specific events, so that they can recapture the richness of real and naturally occurring reactions. (Tangney, 1990). Then participants were directed to a series of questions about their experiences, including measures of discrete emotions, three dimension of emotions (i.e., valence, dominance, arousal), issue-related variables (i.e., constraint recognition, issue involvement, and referent constraint), perceived public support, estimated percentage of public supporting

their stance, efficacy-related variables (i.e., response efficacy, self-efficacy, internal vs.

external locus of control), their likelihood of boycotting and buycotting in the near future,

and demographic information.

Results

Hypothesis 1-1, Hypothesis 2-1(a) and (b), Hypothesis 5-1, Hypotheses 8-1(a) and

(b) asked about the differences between boycotters and buycotters on various discrete

emotions they experienced, including anger, disgust, contempt, pride, elevation and

gratitude. To test these hypotheses, a series of independent-paired t-test was conducted,

with the recalled experience type (i.e., boycott vs. buycott) as grouping variable and

discrete emotions (i.e., shame, guilt, contempt, anger, disgust, elevation, authentic pride,

hubristic pride, gratitude, happiness and hope) as dependent variables respectively.

Among the 310 participants, 95 of them chose to recall buycotting experience (i.e.,

buycotters) whereas 215 of them chose to recall boycotting experience (i.e., boycotters).

Results showed that boycotters and buycotters did not significantly differ on shame

$t(308) = -.917$, $p = .36$, guilt $t(308) = .262$, $p = .794$, or hubristic pride $t(308) = -.167$, p

$= .868$.

However, significant differences were found on other emotions. Boycotters and

buycotters differed significantly on negative emotions including contempt, anger, and

disgust. Specifically, boycotters ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.89$) scored significantly higher than

buycotters on contempt ($M = 1.62$, $SD = 1.89$), $t(302.68) = -6.013$, $p < .001$, therefore

H2-1(b) was supported.. Boycotters ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 1.72$) scored significantly higher

than buycotters (M= 2.17, SD = 1.47) on anger $t(208.468) = -7.585$, $p < .001$, thus **H1-1**

was supported. Boycotters (M = 3.53, SD = 1.91) scored significantly higher than

buycotters (M = 1.94, SD = 1.37) on disgust $t(246.277) = -8.343$, $p < .001$, therefore **H2-1(a) was supported**.

On the other hand, buycotters and boycotters were also found to differ significantly on emotions of elevation, authentic pride, gratitude, happiness, and hope. To be specific, buycotters (*M* = 4.62, *SD* = 1.41) were found to have higher level of elevation than boycotters (*M* = 3.96, *SD* = 1.42), $t(308) = 3.728$, $p < .001$, **supporting H8-1(a).** Also, buycotters (*M* = 4.87, *SD* = 1.39) scored significantly higher than boycotters (*M* = 4.40, *SD* = 1.44) on authentic pride, $t(308) = 2.702$, $p < .001$. However, such difference was not significant on hubristic pride, $t(308) = -.167$, $p = .868$. therefore **H5-1 was partially supported**. Moreover, buycotters (*M* = 5.60, *SD* = 1.64) rated the emotion of gratitude significantly higher than boycotters (*M* = 1.62, *SD* = 1.19) as well, $t(139.798) = 21.362$, $p < .001$, **supporting H8-1(b)**. Buycotters (*M* = 4.26, *SD* = 1.52) were found significantly happier than boycotters (*M* = 3.44, *SD* = 1.67), $t(196.249) = 4.292$, $p < .001$. They also differed on the emotion of hope, with buycotters (*M* = 4.65, *SD* = 1.67) higher than boycotters (*M* = 4.00, *SD* = 1.75), $t(308) = 3.018$, $p = 003$. Details about the differences between boycotters and buycotters on various emotions can be found in Table 3.2.

Besides, to further support the selection of discrete emotion approach, instead of dimensional approach, in this dissertation, a series of independent-sample t-test was also conducted on three emotion dimensions (i.e., valence, arousal, and dominance). Specifically, boycotters (M = 4.00, SD = 1.42) were found to score significantly lower than buycotters (M = 5.16, SD = 1.42) on the dimension of valence, $t(308) = 6.672$, p < .001. However, the differences between boycotters and buycotters on the dimension of

arousal, t(308)= -1.620, p = .106, and the dimension of dominance, t(308) = .098, p = .922 were both found nonsignificant.

Hypothesis 1-2, Hypothesis 2-2, Hypothesis 3, Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 5-2, Hypothesis 6, Hypothesis 7, Hypothesis 8-2(a), and Hypothesis 8-2(b) asked about the impacts of various emotions (i.e., anger, disgust, contempt, guilt, shame, pride, happiness, hope, elevation, gratitude) on boycotting and buycott intentions. To test these hypotheses, a series of hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Mean centering was used to minimize the collinearity problem in these multiple regressions. These analyses were deemed more appropriate than ANOVA test or t-test because the variance of control-related and issue-related continuous variables can be controlled in the regression equations. The independent variables in these regression analyses were all the discrete emotions, including shame, guilt, contempt, anger, disgust, elevation, authentic pride, hubristic pride, gratitude, happiness, and hope. Four hierarchical linear regression analyses were performed with rand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention being the dependent variable, respectively.

The hierarchical multiple regression was first performed with **brand attitude** as dependent variable. In the first block, the dependent variable—brand attitude—was regressed on the issue-related control variables (i.e., involvement recognition, referent criterion, and constraint recognition), which accounted for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .028$, F (3, 306) = 2.91, $p = .035$. It was shown that issue involvement was a significant and negative predictor, B = -.136, $t = -2.152$, $p = .032$. In the second block, it was found that control-related variables (i.e., personality of internal locus of control, personality of external locus of control, self-efficacy, and response efficacy) did not

account for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, ΔR^2 = .016, F (7,302) = 1.98, p =.057. However, self-efficacy was found a significant and negative predictor, B = -.137, t = -2.158, p = .032. In the third block, all the discrete emotions were added, which accounted for a significant additional amount of variance, ΔR^2 = .712, F (18,291) = 50.01, p < .001. Specifically, *gratitude* was found a significant positive factor, B = .854, t = 24.882, p < .001; meanwhile, *hope* was found a significant but negative factor, B = -.102, t = -2.106, p = .036. (see Table 3.3)

The hierarchical multiple regression was then performed with **boycott intention** as dependent variable. In the first block, the dependent variable—boycott intention—was regressed on the issue-related control variables (i.e., involvement recognition, referent criterion, and constraint recognition), which did not account for a significant amount of variance, R^2 = .132, F (3, 306) = 1.81, p = .145. In the second block, it was found that control-related variables (i.e., personality of internal locus of control, personality of external locus of control, self-efficacy, and response efficacy) did not account for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, ΔR^2 = .020, F (7,302) = 1.67, p =.116. However, self-efficacy was found a significant and negative predictor, B = -.189, t = -2.091, p = .037. In the third block, all the discrete emotions were added, which accounted for a significant additional amount of variance, ΔR^2 = .761, F (18,291) = 63.95, p < .001. Specifically, *gratitude* was found a significant negative factor, B = -.846, t = -27.141, p < .001. (see Table 3.4)

The third hierarchical multiple regression was performed with **buycott intention** as dependent variable. In the first block, the dependent variable—buycott intention—was regressed on the issue-related control variables (i.e., involvement recognition, referent

criterion, and constraint recognition), which did not account for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .015$, F (3, 306) = 1.55, $p = .202$. However, referent criterion was found a negative and significant predictor, B = -.13, t = -2.015, $p = .045$. In the second block, it was found that control-related variables (i.e., personality of internal locus of control, personality of external locus of control, self-efficacy, and response efficacy) did not account for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .028$, F (7,302) = 1.94, $p = .064$. In the third block, all the discrete emotions were added, which accounted for a significant additional amount of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .594$, F (18,291) = 28.42, $p < .001$. Specifically, *gratitude* was found a significant positive factor, B = .750, t = 17.951, $p < .001$. (see Table 3.5)

The final hierarchical multiple regression was performed with **behavior intention** as dependent variable, with higher value indicating higher likelihood of buycotting and lower value indicating lower likelihood of boycotting. In the first block, the dependent variable—behavior intention—was regressed on the issue-related control variables (i.e., involvement recognition, referent criterion, and constraint recognition), which did not account for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .010$, F (3, 306) = .984, $p = .400$. In the second block, it was found that control-related variables (i.e., personality of internal locus of control, personality of external locus of control, self-efficacy, and response efficacy) did not account for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .009$, F (7,302) = .809, $p = .58$. In the third block, all the discrete emotions were added, which accounted for a significant additional amount of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .700$, F (18,291) = 41.21, $p < .001$. Specifically, *gratitude* was found a significant positive factor, B = .828, t = 22.462, $p < .001$. (see Table 3.6)

Correlation among the four dependent variables—brand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention—was also conducted. Results show that brand attitude is positively and significantly related to buycott intention and behavior intention, but negatively and significantly related to boycott intention. Behavior intention was significantly positive related to buycott intention, but negatively and significantly related to boycott intention. The correlation between boycott intention and buycott intention was significant but negative. Details about their correlation strength can be found in Table 3.7.

As a conclusion, a series of hierarchical multiple regression showed that (a) Hypothese1-2, Hypothesis 2-2(a) and (b), Hypothesis 3, Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 5-2, Hypothesis 6, Hypothesis 7, Hypothesis 8-2 (a) were all not support. However, **Hypothesis 8-2(b) was supported**. In fact, gratitude was a significant impactor on all the four dependent variables.

To answer the research question regarding interaction between perceived public support and emotions (RQ1-3), a series of hierarchical linear regression analysis was conducted, with brand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention as dependent variables separately. Given that previous results revealed the significant impact of gratitude on all the dependent variables, only gratitude was included in the data analysis as emotive antecedent. An interaction term was computed first before performing the data analysis. It was the multiplication results of gratitude and opinion climate estimate. All values are centered. Three blocks were included in data analysis: in the first block, constraint recognition, involvement recognition, and referent criterion were entered as issue-related variables; in the second block, self-efficacy, response

efficacy, internal and external locus of control were entered; and in the third block, gratitude, opinion climate estimate number, and the interaction term were entered.

Based on the results, the interaction was found significant only on the dependent variable of brand attitude. To be specific, the first block accounted for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .010$, F (3, 276) = 3.061, $p = .029$. The second block did not account for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .017$, F (7,272) = 1.986, $p = .057$. The third block accounted for a significant additional amount of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .697$, F (10,269) = 78.96, $p < .001$. Both the main effect of gratitude, B = .852, t = 26.87, $p < .001$, and the interaction was significant, B = .082, t = 2.00, $p = .047$. Specifically, the interaction showed that when participants perceived a higher percentage of supporters on their side, the impact of gratitude on brand attitude was more salient than when participant perceived a lower percentage of supporters (see Figure 2)

A similar set of hierarchical linear regression analysis was conducted by integrating perceived public support as a potential moderator. Same as opinion climate estimate, its moderating effect was also found significant on brand attitude only. To be specific, the first block accounted for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .028$, F (3, 306) = 2.912, $p = .035$. The second block did not account for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .016$, F (7,302) = 1.983, $p = .057$. The third block accounted for a significant additional amount of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .712$, F (10,299) = 92.68, $p < .001$. The main effect of gratitude, B = .857, t = 29.24, $p < .001$, the main effect of perceived public support, B = -.079, t = -2.615, p = .009, and the interaction, B = .057, t = 1.992, $p = .047$ were all significant. Specifically, the interaction showed that when

participants perceived a higher level of public support, the impact of gratitude on brand attitude was more salient than when participant perceived a lower level of public support (see Figure 3).

Summary

Results of Study 1 revealed that consumers with boycotting experiences differed from those with buycotting experiences on a list of discrete emotions, including contempt, anger, disgust, elevation, authentic pride, gratitude, happiness, and hope. Moreover, regression results showed that among all the discrete emotion, gratitude was found to significantly impact brand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention. Hope was also found significantly but negatively impacting brand attitude. Furthermore, significantly interaction effects were identified between gratitude and magnitude of public support (both when it was measured by asking participants to estimate the percentage of the public who support their stance and when it was measured by asking them to rate the perceived level of public support) on brand attitude. Specifically, when the magnitude of public support was high, the impact of gratitude on brand attitude became more salient.

Chapter Four

Study Two

To further explore antecedent roles of emotions, attitudes, and public support in predicting boycotting and buycotting behaviors, an online experiment was designed as a second study. Public support was manipulated in the second study in a fictitious scenario. Study 2 further tested the antecedent impacts of discrete emotions. Meanwhile, it served to test competing Hypotheses 9a and 9b, and Hypotheses 10a and 10b.

Specifically, the Study 2 examined individuals' boycotting and buycotting intentions under the influence of public support, attitude and emotions through an online experiment. In a 2 (consumers' attitude consistency with the company: consistent vs. inconsistent) × 3 (public support: opinion congruent with majority vs. congruent with minority vs. control group) experiment, participants were given the chance to indicate their intention to boycott or buycott a company that expresses its sociopolitical stance.

Manipulation and Stimuli

Ben and Jerry's stance on gun issue (i.e., supporting gun control) was used as the stimuli. Gun issue was selected based on the results of Study 1. Among the six sociopolitical issues, gun issue was recalled with the second highest frequency (n = 89, 28.75) (Among the initially recruited participants, gun issue was recalled with the highest frequency). Besides, due to the recent shooting tragedy in south Florida, gun issue was considered as a timely topic to investigate and thus used in Study 2.

To measure attitude consistency, participants were asked to identify themselves as (a) supporting gun control, or (b) supporting gun right, or (c) uncertain on the gun issue. Participants who chose the third option were filtered out of the study. Using such a

categorical measurement, participants automatically fell into two groups: (a) attitude consistency with Ben and Jerry's and (b) attitude inconsistency with Ben and Jerry's.

Magnitude of public support was operationalized and manipulated as opinion congruency with majority vs. minority vs. equal proportion of American public. Participants were told the percentage of public who shared with their stance on gun issues based on a fictitious poll survey conducted by a fictitious institution. Specific number was given in the stimuli: (a) Participants in the "congruence with majority" group read that their opinion was shared with 87% of people in the poll survey; (b) participants in the "congruence with minority" group read that their opinion were shared with only 17% of people in the poll survey; and (b) participants in the control group read that their opinion were with 49.1% of people in the survey.

Measures

The manipulation check question of public support was selected from the scale developed by Dalisay (2012). Specifically, participants were asked to indicate to what extent they think the majority of the society share their opinion on the issue. As in Study 1, four dependent variables were measured. First, brand attitude ($\alpha = .985$) measured by four-item semantic scale with four pairs of endpoints, including good vs. bad, like vs. dislike, favorable vs. unfavorable, positive vs. negative (Meuhling & Laczniak, 1988). Boycott intention ($\alpha = .962$) was measured by asking (a) how likely the participants would boycott the company to change its stance and (b) how likely the participants would boycott the company to express their attitudes and/or emotions on the issue. Buycotting intention ($\alpha = .986$) was measured by asking (a) how likely the participants would buycott the company to support its stance, and (b) how likely the participants would

buycott the company to express their attitudes and/or emotions on the issue. (Stolle, Hooghe, & Micheletti, 2005). Behavior intention was a one-item measurement, with one endpoint as "buycott a great deal", the other endpoint as "boycott a great deal," and "take no action" in the middle.

To test the competing hypotheses, fear of isolation (α = .906) was measured using a six-item Likert-scale adapted from Shoemaker, Breen, & Stamper, 2000). Example statements are "When I am talking to someone (about my stance in this issue), I worry about what they may be thinking about me" and "I worry about seeming foolish to others when I take such actions on this issue." Perceived likelihood of success was measured by asking participants how likely they think their actions can make a difference (Sen, Gürhan-Canli, & Morwitz, 2001). Sense of responsibility was measured by asking participants their perceived responsibility towards the current situation. Responsibility allocation was measured by asking participants to allocate 100 responsibility points to themselves and the others who share same sociopolitical stance (Forsyth, Zyzniewski, & Giammanco, 2002). Difference of distribution was calculated based on rated contributions of oneself and others to the current gun policy situation (Forstyth et al., 2002). Perceived social loafing (α = 903) was measured by 11-item seven-point Likert scale adapted from Goerge (1992) and Mulvey and Klein (1998). Example items are "Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues are free-riders, who rely too much on others to do their share of work" and "some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues defer responsibilities they should assume to other people."

As in Study 1, response efficacy and self-efficacy were measured in Study 2 as covariates. Response efficacy (α = .961) was measured using Umphrey's (2004) three-

item seven-point Likert scale, including "what I did is highly effective in improving the situation." Self-efficacy ($\alpha = .928$) was measured by five items, including Sparks et al. (1997) two-item seven-point Likert scale, Bandura's (2006) one-item seven-point Likert scale, and Sparks et al. (1997) three-item seven-point Likert scale. Example items include "For me, to change the current situation in my desired direction would be easy" and "I am certain that I can change the current situation in my desired direction." In addition, brand familiarity ($\alpha = .910$) as another covariate was measured by Kent and Allen's (1994) three-item seven-point semantic scale. Participants were asked to rate their previous brand experience on three pairs of polar points: familiar vs. unfamiliar, inexperienced vs. experienced, and knowledgeable vs. not knowledgeable. Finally, participants were asked to indicate how frequently they have engaged into expressive boycotting, instrumental boycotting, expressive buycotting, and instrumental buycotting in the past six months. Prior boycotting experience ($\alpha = .955$) and prior buycotting experience ($\alpha = .963$) were computed respectively.

To further confirm results founded in Study 1, discrete emotions including shame ($\alpha = .978$), guilt ($\alpha = .955$), anger ($\alpha = .959$), contempt ($\alpha = .979$), disgust ($\alpha = .958$), feeling of elevation ($\alpha = .948$), authentic pride ($\alpha = .965$), hubristic pride ($\alpha = .983$), gratitude ($\alpha = .976$), happiness ($\alpha = .967$) and hope ($\alpha = .971$) were also measured. The same scales were used and were all highly reliable. The same demographic information was collected, including gender, age, educational background, political stance, and religious belief. All questions are presented in Appendix B.

Data Collection

Qualtrics was also used to create an online experiment in Study 2. A link was created and distributed via the Amazon Mechanical Turk website. A total of 219 responses were collected. Study 2 used the same qualification standard as in Study 1 in recruiting workers (i.e., workers need to have 90% and above approval rate of task, with the location of United States) (Mason & Suri, 2012).

To ensure the quality of data, three attention check questions were included. Those who missed these questions were excluded in the final sample. What is more, the worker IDs and respondents' IP addressed were carefully monitored to exclude duplicate participations. After filtering through all the exclusion criteria, a final sample of 185 effective responses were retained, generating an effective response rate of 84.47%.

Participants

Among the participants included in the final sample, 91 (49.2%) were male and 93 (50.3%) were female, with one participant preferring not to say. The average age was 38 (SD = 12.78). The majority of them were Caucasian (n = 145, 78.4%), followed by Asian/Pacific Islander (n =15, 8.1%). Most of them had a bachelor's degree (n = 80, 43.2%), followed by some college (n = 54, 29.2%). More than half of them (n = 116, 62.7%) claimed that they are not member of any religious group. Among those who have religious affiliations, most of them (n = 61, 33%) are Christians. As for the annual income, equal percentages of participants had an income between $20,001 and $40,000 (n = 49, 26.5%) and an income between $40,001 and $60,000 (n = 49, 26.5%). On average, the participants were relatively liberal (M = 4.61, SD = 1.82). More detailed information can be found in Table 4.1.

Procedure

A 2 ×3 online experiment was conducted. Independent variables include (a) consumers' attitude consistency with the company (consistent vs. inconsistent), and (b) public support (opinion congruent with majority vs. congruent with minority vs. control). In the experiment study, participants first read a brief description of the study. If they chose to participate, they were directed to the survey. Then they were randomized to one of the public support conditions: majority vs. minority vs. control. After reading about the poll survey and how many percentages of the public are with them, participants were directed to a series of questions about fear of isolation, sense of responsibility, perceived likelihood of success, self-efficacy, response efficacy, social loafing, responsibility allocation to oneself and others, and perceived contribution made by oneself and others. After that, participants were asked about their brand familiarity of the brand Ben and Jerry's. Then they read about Ben and Jerry's stance on gun issues (i.e., support gun control). Afterwards, they were directed to questions regarding their experienced emotions, brand attitude, boycotting and buycott intentions, and prior boycotting and buycotting experiences. Demographic information was collected at the end of the survey.

Results

The first eight hypotheses and four research questions were primarily answered through an online survey (Study 1) where participants recalled their recent boycotting or buycotting experience. In the survey, magnitude of public support was measured. As a follow-up, an online experiment (Study 2) was conducted. In this study, attitude consistency was measured and magnitude of public support was manipulated. Antecedent

roles of various emotions and the moderating effect of public support were both further

tested in Study 2.

Pretest. A pretest was conducted before conducting the main experiment to check

the manipulation of public support in study 2. A total of 30 participants were randomized

to three conditions of public support: control group (n = 10), majority group (n = 10), and

minority group (n = 10). One-way Analysis of Variance was conducted with perceived

public support as dependent variable, and condition as independent variable. It was found

that the difference on perceived public support was significant $F(2,27) = 18.51, p < .001$.

Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that participants in the majority condition (M =

6.20, SD = .92) rated perceived public support as significantly higher than participants in

the minority group (M = 2.30, SD = 2.00), p < .001, and in the control group (M = 3.50,

SD = 1.27), p < .001. However, there was no significant difference between control group

and minority group, p = .079. To further test the difference among three conditions, One-

way Analysis of Variance was also conducted on credibility ($\alpha = .977$). The difference

was significant, $F(2, 27) = 6.302, p = . 006$. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that

participants in the majority condition (M = 4.96, SD = 1.46) scored significantly higher

than participants in the minority group (M = 2.49, SD = 1.40), p = .005, and in the control

group (M = 3.19, SD = 1.90), $p = .051$. However, the difference was not significant

between control group and minority group, $p = .598$.

Manipulation check. Given the results in the pretest, revisions were made in the

main experiment when manipulating public support (e.g., more descriptions of the poll

survey results were provided; decimals were added in manipulating the control

condition). As a result, the manipulation of public support in the main experiment was

successful. Same as in the pretest, one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted with perceived public support as dependent variable, and condition as independent variable. The difference was significant, F(2,182) = 143.603, p < .001. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that participants in the majority condition rated (M = 6.12, SD = 1.11) public support as significantly higher than those in the minority condition (M = 2.13, SD = 1.56), p < .001, and those in the control condition (M= 3.16, SD = 1.30), p = .002. Moreover, the difference between control condition and minority condition was also significant, p < .001. The difference on credibility was also significant, F(2,182) = 28.027, p < .001. Similar to the results of perceived public support, participants in majority condition (M = 4.91, SD = 1.53) scored credibility as significantly higher than participants in minority condition (M = 2.95, SD = 1.41), p < .001, and participants in control condition (M = 3.99, SD = 1.39), p = .002. The difference between participants in minority condition and control condition was also found significant, p < .001.

Hypotheses testing. Hypothesis 9-1 and Hypothesis 9-2 were two competing hypotheses that both proposed a significant interaction between attitude consistency and magnitude of public support. To test the proposed hypotheses and find out the direction of interaction, four analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) tests were conducted. Brand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention served as the dependent variables respectively. Covariates were response efficacy, self-efficacy, prior brand familiarity, prior boycotting experience and prior buycotting experience. Attitude consistency and magnitude of public support were the two fixed factors.

For the dependent variable of brand attitude, the significant main effect of attitude consistency was supported, F (1,174) = 64.99, p < .001. Meanwhile, interaction between

attitude consistency and magnitude of public support was also found significant, F(2, 174) = 3.618, p = .029. Specifically, in control condition, participants with consistent attitude (M = 6.10, SD = 1.19) rated brand attitude as significantly higher than participants with inconsistent attitude (M = 5.23, SD = 1.73), p = .015; in majority condition, consistent attitude (M = 6.46, SD = 1.04) also led to more positive brand attitude than inconsistent attitude (M = 3.82, SD = 1.77), p < .001; in the minority condition, consistent attitude (M = 6.28, SD = 1.15) was also found leading to higher level of brand attitude than inconsistent attitude condition (M = 4.36, SD = 1.96), p < .001. However, the difference in majority condition (M_{diff} = 2.516) was the highest, followed by minority condition (M_{diff} = 1.879) and then control condition (M_{diff} = 1.001). When checking the simple effects, it was also found that for participants with consistent attitude with the brand Ben and Jerry's, there was no significant difference among the three conditions of public support. However, when participants had inconsistent attitude with the brand, there was significant difference between majority and control conditions, p = .010, with control condition (M = 5.23, SD = 1.73) leading to more positive brand attitude than majority condition (M = 3.82, SD = 1.77). (see Figure 4)

To test potential mediators of the interaction effects, a series of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed, with fear of isolation, sense of responsibility, perceived likelihood of success, rating of self-contribution, responsibility points assigned to oneself versus. others, as dependent variables respectively. Corresponding to the interaction identified earlier, fear of isolation was the only dependent variable that differed significantly based on magnitude of public support. Therefore, **H9-1(a) was supported.**

Similar ANCOVA test was also performed on boycott intention, but no significant interaction was found, $F(2, 174) = .072, p = .931$. Attitude consistency was still found a significant predictor, $F(1, 174) = 36.962, p < .001$. Moreover, the ANCOVA results with buycott intention as dependent variable showed that the interaction was still not significant, $F(2,174) = .309, p = .735$, but that the main effect of attitude consistency was significant, $F(1,174) = 38.003, p < .001$. Finally, when behavior intention was entered as dependent variable, there was also no significant interaction, $F(2,174) = .581, p = .560$. However, the main impact of attitude consistency was significant, $F(1,174) = 42.26, p < .001$. **Therefore, H9-1(b)(c)(d) and H9-2(a)(b)(c)(d) were all not supported.**

To help explain the significant interaction between attitude consistency and magnitude of public support on brand attitude, two sets of competing hypotheses were generated (Hypothesis 10-1 and Hypothesis 10-2). To test the hypotheses, several one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted with magnitude of public support as independent variable, and fear of isolation, sense of responsibility, social loafing, perceived likelihood of success, responsibility allocation between oneself and other group members, difference of perceived contribution between oneself and other group members as dependent variables respectively. Before performing the data analysis, responsibility allocation was calculated first, which is the ratio between responsibility points participants assigned to themselves and points they assigned to others who share the same political stance with them. Difference of perceived contribution between oneself and other group members was computed by deducting the rated contribution score of other group members from the score for oneself.

Results showed that there was significant difference on fear of isolation, $F(2, 182) =$ 3.227, $p =. 042$. Specifically, participants in the majority group (M = 2.60, SD = 1.34) had significantly lower level of fear of isolation than participants in the minority group (M = 3.24, SD = 1.39), $p = .013$. Therefore, **H10-1 was supported.** However, the difference was not significant on sense of responsibility, $F(2, 182) = .811$, p = .446; social loafing, F (2, 182) = .20, $p = .981$; likelihood of success, F(2, 182) = 1.349, p = .262; responsibility allocation, F(2, 180) = .733, p = .482; difference of perceived contribution, F(2, 182) = .832, p = .437. **Thereby, H10-2(a)(b)(c)(d)(e) were all not supported.**

To further investigate and test the results of Study 1 regarding the antecedent roles of emotions. A series of hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. Mean centering was used to minimize the collinearity problem in these multiple regressions. The independent variables in these regression analyses were all the discrete emotions, including shame, guilt, contempt, anger, disgust, elevation, authentic pride, hubristic pride, gratitude, happiness, and hope. Four dependent variables were also brand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention, respectively. In the first block, prior boycotting and buycotting experiences, prior brand familiarity, response efficacy and self-efficacy were entered as covariates. In the second block, all the discrete emotions were entered.

When **brand attitude** was the dependent variable, the first block accounted for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .066$, F (5, 179) = 2.536, $p = .030$. It was shown that prior boycotting experience was a significant and negative predictor, B = -. 217, $t = -$ 2.153, $p = .033$. Brand familiarity was a significant and positive predictor, B = .159, $t =$

2.186, $p = .030$. In the second block, it was found that emotions accounted for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .642$, F (16, 168) = 25.478, $p < .001$. Significant emotion antecedents were *disgust*, B = -.298, $t = -2.316$, $p = .022$; and *gratitude*, B = .562, t = 6.53, $p < .001$. (see Table 4.2)

When **boycott intention** was the dependent variable, the first block accounted for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .095$, F (5, 179) = 3.758, $p = .003$. It was shown that prior boycotting experience was a significant and positive predictor, B = -.312, $t = 3.150$, $p = .002$. Prior brand familiarity was a significant and negative predictor, B = .163, $t = -.2.270$, $p = .024$. In the second block, it was found that emotions accounted for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .551$, F (16, 168) = 19.166, $p < .001$. Significant emotion antecedents were *anger*, B = .423, $t = 2.805$, $p = .006$; and *gratitude*, B = -.411, t = -4.339, $p < .001$. Therefore, **Hypothesis 2-1 was supported**. (see Table 4.3)

When **buycott intention** was the dependent variable, the first block accounted for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .545$, F (5, 179) = 11.11, $p < .001$. It was found that response efficacy was a significant and positive predictor, B = .434, $t = 3389$, $p = .001$. Prior buycotting experience was also a significant and positive predictor, B = .325, $t = 3.531$, $p = .001$. In the second block, it was found that emotions accounted for a significant additional amount of variance for the dependent variable, $\Delta R^2 = .308$, F (16, 168) = 12.561, $p < .001$.Significant emotion antecedents were *elevation*, B = .232, $t = 2.479$, $p = .014$; *authentic pride*, B = -.178, $t = -2.282$, $p = .024$, and *gratitude*, B = .265, t = 2.463, $p = .015$. Therefore, **Hypothesis 5-2 was partially supported, and Hypotheses 8-2(a) and (b) were both supported.** (see Table 4.4)

When **behavior intention** was the dependent variable, the first block accounted for a significant amount of variance, $R^2 = .158$, $F(5, 179) = 6.737$, $p < .001$. Response efficacy was a significant and positive predictor, $B = .329$, $t = 2.445$, $p = .015$. Prior buycotting experience was also a significant and positive predictor, $B = .340$, $t = 3.513$, $p = .001$. In the second block, emotions accounted for a significant additional amount of variance, $\Delta R^2 = .402$, $F(16, 168) = 13.407$, $p < .001$. Significant emotion antecedent was *gratitude*, $B = .075$, $t = .148$, $p = .883$. (see Table 4.5)

Compared to results of Study 1, Study 2 identified additional emotion antecedents including disgust, anger, elevation, and authentic pride. Therefore, moderating role of public support was further examined by computing interaction terms between the identified emotions and magnitude of public support. First, magnitude of public support was contrast coded, with -1 = minority condition, 0 = control condition, and 1 = majority condition. Interaction between contrast-coded public support and the emotions of gratitude, disgust, anger, elevation, and authentic pride were computed respectively and regressed on the corresponding dependent variables.

On brand attitude, the interaction between gratitude and public support magnitude, $B = .131$, $t = 2.375$, $p = .019$, as well as the interaction between disgust and public support magnitude, $B = -.399$, $t = -7.245$, $p < .001$, were both found significant. Same as in study 1, it was found that when one perceived as having higher public support (majority condition), the impact of gratitude on brand attitude is enhanced, with the difference between high-gratitude-level and low-gratitude-level being the most salient. Visualized illustration can be found in Figure 5. For the emotion of disgust, it was found that for

participants in the minority condition, the impact of disgust was larger than participants in the majority condition. Visualized illustration can be found in Figure 6.

On boycott intention, the interaction between anger and public support magnitude, B = .083, t = 1.33, p = .184, as well as the interaction between gratitude and public support magnitude, B = .028, t = .460, p = .646, were both found nonsignificant. On buycott intention, the interaction between gratitude and public support magnitude, B = -.013, t = -.169, p = .866, the interaction between elevation and public support magnitude, B = -.052, t = -.572, p = .568, as well as the interaction between authentic pride and public support magnitude, B = -.038, t = -.563, p = .574, were all nonsignificant. On behavior intention, the interaction between gratitude and public support was not significant, B= -,004, t = -.080, p = .936.

Same as in Study 1, correlation analysis among the four dependent variables was performed. Results also showed that brand attitude is positively and significantly related to buycott intention and behavior intention, but negatively and significantly related to boycott intention. Behavior intention was positively related to buycott intention, but negatively and significantly related to boycott intention. The correlation between boycott intention and buycott intention was significant but negative. Details about their correlation strength can be found in Table 4.6.

Based on the results of Study 1 and Study 2, some of the proposed hypotheses were supported while some were not. Detailed information can be found in Table 4.7.

Summary

Results of Study 2 showed that attitude consistency interacted with magnitude of public support to impact consumers' brand attitude. Specifically, when the magnitude of

public support was higher, the difference between attitude consistency condition and attitude inconsistency condition in terms of brand attitude was more salient compared to when the magnitude of public support was lower. What's more, it was found that consumers with different levels of public support differed on fear of isolation, but not on potential mediators derived from social loafing effect and bystander effect (e.g., perceived social loafing, perceived self-responsibility).

As a comparison to results of Study 1, more discrete emotions were identified as antecedents in a controlled setting of Study 2. Specifically, disgust and hope were both found significantly impacting brand attitude; anger and gratitude were both found significantly influencing boycott intention; elevation, authentic pride, and gratitude were found to significantly impact buycott intention. Similar pattern of interaction between gratitude and magnitude of public support was found on brand attitude.

Chapter Five

Discussion

This dissertation introduces a model of emotional antecedents that incorporates emotive and attitudinal antecedents, behavioral outcomes, and the moderating influence of public support, into the understanding of boycotting and buycotting behaviors in the context of brand activism (see Figure 7). It proposed the moderating role of public support under two theoretical frameworks that lead to opposing prediction directions: given the expressive nature of boycotting and buycotting behaviors, spiral of silence theory has been adopted as a theoretical framework; and social loafing and the bystander effect were introduced to help explain the instrumental nature of these behaviors. (see Figure 7)

Brand activism, as a response to sociopolitical issues, has become a timely and important phenomenon of study (Clemensen, 2017; Freeman, 2010). With increasing numbers of companies engaging in the public debate, consumers may react either positively or negatively in terms of brand attitude and behaviors (Dodd, 2015; Fox, 2017). Then the question becomes: what makes individual consumers respond differently to brand activism? To answer this overarching question, the dissertation integrated emotive and attitudinal antecedents and examined the impact of public support.

This study employed two research projects in order to answer the question, and has three main findings contributing uniquely to the literature. First: boycotters and buycotters differ in their experienced emotions; and certain discrete emotions directly impact boycotting and buycotting behaviors. Second: public support is found to moderate the impacts of (a) emotions and (b) attitude consistency regarding the sociopolitical issue

on the outcome variable—brand attitude. The direction of such a moderating effect can be explained by spiral of silence theory. Third: self-efficacy and response efficacy, though controlled as covariates in both research studies, are also found to have significant impact on consumer attitudes and behaviors. This chapter discusses each of these findings in detail.

Emotion, Boycotting and Buycotting

Boycotting vs. buycotting. Previous research has taken different approaches in defining boycotting and buycotting behaviors (Copeland, 2014; Friedman, 1991; Newman & Bartels, 2011; Kam & Deichert, 2017). Some scholars have regarded them as two endpoints of one behavior (Newman & Bartels, 2011), with boycotting being seen as a punishing behavior, and buycotting a rewarding behavior (Baek, 2010). In contrast, some regard boycotting and buycotting as conceptually different behaviors, that need to be measured separately (Copeland, 2014; Elliot & Covington, 2001; Kam & Deichert, 2017). This study incorporates both approaches, integrating measurement that takes the two behaviors separately, and measurement that takes them as single variable—behavior intention, measured as "boycotting a great deal" and "buycotting a great deal" as the two endpoints, with "no action" falling between them. The findings of this dissertation support the notion there are conceptual differences between boycotting and buycotting behaviors. The different emotive antecedents of boycotting and buycotting behaviors were identified by measuring them separately, which would not have been possible by combining them into one measurement scale item. Specifically, in Study 2, gratitude and anger were found to significantly impact boycotting intentions when intention was measured separately; and elevation, authentic pride, and gratitude were all found to be

significant factors in buycott intention. However, when the two behaviors were measured using just one scale item, only gratitude was found to be a significant antecedent.

Dimensional vs. discrete emotions. The results of Study 1 confirmed that discrete emotion is an appropriate measurement for investigating the emotive antecedents of boycotting and buycotting behaviors. Emotion is treated separately by different scholars, according to what is regarded as the basic units of emotion. One 'camp' argues that emotion is a continuum variable, differing in terms of key dimensions (e.g., dominance, valence), and that each dimension is a basic unit (Russell, 1979; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). The other camp argues that emotions are discrete variables unique in themselves, and that various specific emotions are the basic units (Izard, 2007; Plutchik, 1980; Ortony & Turner, 1990). This dissertation found that boycotters and buycotters differ significantly on the dimension of valence, but not on the other two dimensions—arousal and dominance. In contrast, boycotters and buycotters were found to differ in terms of discrete emotions, including contempt, anger, disgust, elevation, authentic pride, gratitude, happiness, and hope. Therefore, it is legitimate and reasonable to conclude that discrete emotion approach, compared to dimensional emotion approach, can is able to capture more differences in the experiences of boycotters and buycotters.

Boycotters vs. buycotters. Of the discrete emotions investigated in this dissertation, no significant differences between boycotters and buycotters were found in shame, guilt, or hubristic pride. Guilt is defined as a gnawing feeling arising from violation of internalized moral, ethical, or religious codes (Nabi, 2002); whereas shame refers to a feeling resulting from public disapproval of one's identity or self (Tangeney et al., 2007). One possible reason for nonsignificant differences between the two groups in terms of

these two emotions is that guilt and shame are both self-conscious emotions, experienced because of one's own moral or ethical transgression (Tangney et al., 2007). Boycotting and buycotting, however, are other-directed behaviors, in response to a company's actions. Therefore, the linkage between the two emotions and the two behaviors is not obvious. This argument is also supported by the finding that neither guilt nor shame significantly predict boycotting and buycotting behaviors.

Boycotters and buycotters were found to not differ in terms of hubristic pride. Hubristic pride is about individual's unconditional positive view of themselves (Antonetti & Maklan, 2014; Bodolica & Spraggon, 2011). Such an emotion is usually attributed to a stable and global aspect of oneself, independent of specific events. Boycotting and buycotting behaviors are usually targeted at a specific event or object. Consequently, it is reasonable to find boycotters and buycotters do not differ in their experienced hubristic pride.

Emotions. Of all the discrete emotions measured, gratitude was the only emotion found to significantly impact all the four dependent variables (i.e., brand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention) in both Study 1 and Study 2. Gratitude is defined as appreciation of other's moral behaviors as a recipient of such benevolence (Tangney et al., 2007). In the context of boycotting and buycotting behaviors, consumers who experience higher level of gratitude are more likely to form a positive brand attitude and support the company in question by purchasing its products; furthermore, they are less likely to take boycotting actions. Such a finding has empirical support from both academic and practical studies. For example, Bonchek (2015) stated that gratitude is the emotional cornerstone of consumer loyalty and repeat-purchase

behavior. This is because the emotion of gratitude leads to a 'return' of kindness. This argument is also supported by empirical evidence: feelings of gratitude can promote consumer reciprocation (Kim, Smith, & Kwak, 2017), and increase purchasing intentions and sales (Palmatier, Jarvis, Bechkoff, & Kardes, 2009).

Though not supported by both Study 1 and Study 2, some discrete emotions were found to significantly impact brand attitude or behavioral intentions. Hope (in Study 1) and disgust (in Study 2) were found to be significant but negative predictors of brand attitude. Anger (in Study 2) was found to be a significant and positive predictor of boycott intention. Hope is a positive emotion, but one which occurs in a negative situation (Lazarus, 1991; Nabi, 2002). In other words, it signals a need to strive for a better situation (Nabi, 2002) and that the status quo is not ideal. Thereby, in this case, it reinforces a negative attitude toward the brand in question. Anger and disgust are both negative, non-self-conscious, other-focused emotions (Tangney et al., 2007). Disgust was found to impact brand attitude; whereas anger was found to influence boycott intention. Such findings support the argument that anger usually results in immediate action and contains within it approach motivation (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011; Ugazio et al., 2012). Disgust, on the other hand, is associated with withdrawal motivation, rather than immediacy (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011; Ugazio et al., 2012). Consequently, it is reasonable to find that anger is associated with behavioral outcome variable, whereas disgust was found associated with attitudinal outcome variables. Contempt, as another negative and non-self-conscious emotion, was not found to be significant with any outcome variables. One possible reason for this is that people experiencing contempt usually disengage from the relationship (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Romani et al., 2013),

which in this case diminishes any impact it might have on attitudinal and behavioral variables related to companies.

Elevation was found to significantly and positively predict buycott intention. Elevation is a warm and pleasant feeling, that arises when people observe virtuous behavior in others (Haidt, 2000, 2003; Tangney et al., 2007). Previous studies have linked such an emotion with prosocial behavior (Haidt et al., 2002). Buycotting behavior, defined as a helping behavior with collective goals, is also regarded as prosocial behavior (Copeland, 2014). Therefore, it is reasonable that elevation impacts buycott intention. Authentic pride was found significantly and negatively related to buycott intention. Authentic pride, as distinct from hubristic pride, concerns taking credit for achievement based on a specific event (Bodolica & Spraggon, 2011). The linkage between authentic pride and buycott intentions supports the argument that pride diminishes individuals' actions toward goal-achievement (Antonetti & Maklan, 2014; Williams & Desteno, 2008) through collective buycotting behaviors.

An additional note to make is that even though data analysis revealed the antecedent roles of discrete emotions on behavior intentions, the relationships were actually correlations instead of causality relationships.

Public Support: Spiral of Silence vs. Social Loafing and Bystander Effects

In investigating the antecedents of boycotting and buycotting behaviors, this dissertation also introduces the variable of public support. The purpose is to explore how the magnitude of public support individuals obtain on their sociopolitical stance moderates the impact of (a) emotions and (b) attitude (issue-related) in terms of their brand attitude and behaviors. The magnitude of public support was operationalized in

different ways in the two research studies. In Study 1, it was measured by directly asking

participants to self-report their perceived level of public support on a seven-point Likert

scale; and also by asking them to provide a percentage number estimate for public

support of their stance. In Study 2, the magnitude of public support was manipulated, and

involved three conditions: (a) the majority of the public supporting one's sociopolitical

stance; (b) the minority of the public supporting one's stance; (c) an equal proportion of

the public supporting and not supporting the stance.

The moderating role of public support was found to be significant in both studies on

the outcome variable brand attitude. In Study 1, it was found that public support (both the

estimated percentage number and the self-reported perceived degree of public support)

moderated the impact of gratitude on brand attitude: the higher the level of public

support, the greater the impact of gratitude on brand attitude. In Study 2, it was also

found that public support moderated the impact of gratitude on brand attitude.

Additionally, significant interaction was also found between public support and disgust

on brand attitude. Moreover, public support was found to moderate the impact of attitude

consistency on brand attitude: the impact of attitude consistency on brand attitude was

most salient when the majority of the public were supporting one's sociopolitical stance.

These findings show that when public support magnitude is high, the impact of

emotions and issue-related attitude on brand attitude will be magnified. Such findings are

in line with spiral of silence theory, which is used to explain the expression of public

opinion at the societal level (Salmon & Glynn, 2008). This theory states individuals are

inclined to not violate social consensus when expressing opinions in public (Noelle-

Neumann, 1974, 1977; Shanahan et al., 2007). The underlying mechanism to explain this

reactance is fear of isolation (Noelle-Neumann, 1974, 1977; Shanahan et al., 2007).

Boycotting and buycotting behaviors are expressive in nature in that they are concerned

with expression of one's values, attitudes, and/or emotions (Farah & Newman, 2009;

John & Klein, 2003; Kam & Deichert, 2017; Makarem & Jae, 2016), which are made

prominent in the context of brand activism and with the popularity of social networking

sites. Therefore, use of spiral of silence theory can be said to be legitimate in this area.

Importantly, the results (Study 2) showed that when the magnitude of public support is

higher, individuals feel significantly lower levels of fear of isolation compared to when

public support is lower.

Differences were not found to be significant regarding the variables related to the

social loafing effect or bystander effect (e.g., sense of responsibility, social loafing). One

possible reason is that consumers as boycotters or buycotters are loosely organized; their

collective goals of boycotting or buycotting a company is not as firm and strong as those

set, for example, in the workplace (where the social loafing effect is often found) (Barron

& Yechiam, 2002; Karau & Williams, 1993; Lewis et al., 2004; Williams, Harkins, &

Latane, 1981), or in philanthropic settings (where the bystander effect can often be

observed) (Darley & Latane, 1968; Fischer, Krueger, Greitemeyer, Vogrincic,

Kastenmuller, & Frey, 2011; Latane & Darley, 1968, 1970). The social loafing and

bystander effects were initially introduced as potential theoretical models because of the

instrumental nature of boycotting and buycotting behaviors. The nonsignificant findings

may indicate that in the context of brand activism, consumers regard boycotting and

buycotting more as a way to express themselves, rather than a way to change the

company's stance on sociopolitical issues.

Another interesting finding is that the significant interaction effect did not extend from brand attitude to behavioral outcome variables. In other words, public support can moderate the impact of (a) attitude consistency, and (b) emotion on brand attitude, but not on behavioral intentions. The results show that brand attitude, boycott intention, buycott intention, and behavior intention were all significantly correlated (both in Study 1 and Study 2), but that the moderating effect of public support was limited to brand attitude. One possible explanation could be that participants did not perceive public support as directly related to the progress of collective boycotting or buycotting movements. In other words, their boycotting and buycotting behavior decisions were unlikely to be based on the degree of support for their sociopolitical opinions, but rather, on how many people were already taking actions.

Self-efficacy and Response Efficacy

Self-efficacy, response efficacy, and the internal vs. external locus of control were regarded as covariates in the data analysis. However, self-efficacy was only found to significantly impact brand attitude (negatively) and boycotting intentions (negatively) in Study 1. Response efficacy was found to significantly influence behavioral intentions in Study 2. The issue of the internal vs. external locus of control was not found to be significant predictors of boycotting and buycotting behaviors.

Linkage between self-efficacy, response efficacy, and behaviors was significant, indicating that there does exist a relationship between power and a consumer's behaviors toward a company (Grégoire et al., 2010; Huit & Bateson, 1991; Madrigal & Boush, 2008). The higher the level of self-efficacy, the more likely it is the consumer is empowered to take actions regarding a company and the current sociopolitical situation.

However, inconsistent findings were obtained regarding the relationship between self-efficacy, response efficacy, and behavioral intentions. This may have been due to differences in how participants understood the target of control; some may have thought of the control target as the company per se, and others as the sociopolitical situation in general.

As elaborated upon in Chapter Two, the target of control – over oneself vs. others – may impact an individual's approach and avoidance behaviors. In this dissertation, the locus of control (internal vs. external) was measured and included as a proxy for the control target. However, no significant impact was found. One possible reason for this could have been that personality trait enquired about perceived power in general. As a consequence, participants may not have related the questions to the sociopolitical situation or the brand per se, which would potentially have diminished the impact of control target (oneself vs. others).

Practical Implications

There are several practical implications associated with this dissertation's findings. First, its two research studies supported the antecedent roles of several discrete emotions (e.g., gratitude, anger) on brand attitude, and boycott intention, and buycott intention, confirming that certain types of emotions can directly lead to boycotting or buycotting behaviors. Consequently, it is important for practitioners to monitor conversations and emotions expressed by consumers on social media. Brands need to be cautious regarding the public and negative emotions, but could, in contrast, exploit positive emotions among consumers to nurture long-term relationships. Second, the significant impacts of gratitude on brand attitude, buycott intention and boycott intention makes it worthwhile for brands

to do something good to consumers and cultivate gratitude emotion among them. By doing so, companies may be able to attract more loyal consumers.

When companies take their sociopolitical stances through brand activism, they will be boycotted. The findings of this research (in particular Study 2) confirm this concern is legitimate: an attitude consistent with a company on sociopolitical issues on the part of a consumer leads to a more positive brand attitude, a higher likelihood of buycotting, and a lower likelihood of boycotting. Brands are therefore recommended to 'do their homework' regarding their target consumer base before 'picking a camp' on controversial sociopolitical issues – or run the risk of lost business and market share. Public support is found to moderate the impact of attitude consistency on brand attitude. Brands may need to actively manage their reputation with their target consumer base by researching the sociopolitical news sources their target audiences refer to in gathering updated information.

Finally, this dissertation also offers practical implications from the perspective of boycotters and buycotters. For example, the nonsignificance of the social loafing effect and bystander effect signal that boycotters and buycotters are not organized in as orderly a fashion as other types of organizations (e.g., groups of employees). In fact, participants indicated they often perceived others as having more responsibility for changing a given situation: Descriptive results showed that responsibility points attributed to participants themselves ($M = 35.13$, $SD = 23.35$) were lower than those attributed to others ($M = 64.87$, $SD = 23.35$). Furthermore, participants rated themselves as less important contributors ($M=3.33$, $SD=1.71$) than others ($M=4.93$, $SD=1.44$). Consequently, for more productive mobilization, boycotters and buycotters might do well to emphasize the

expressive purposes of their actions, rather than simply their contribution to a collective goal.

Limitations and Future Research

This dissertation has various limitations. First, emotions were measured through self-reported scales in both research studies. However, emotions are by their nature unsteady and temporary; and self-reporting is not considered a particularly accurate way of capturing discrete emotions. Furthermore, participants may not have been able to accurately indicate their experienced emotions using the adjective words provided in the scale, especially when the adjectives were highly related to each other. Both research studies were conducted online and took participants a relatively long time to complete, meaning the researchers were not able to control other factors in the participants' surroundings (unrelated to the study), which might have impacted their responses and emotions.

In addition, even though Study 1 asked about consumers' actual boycotting and buycotting behaviors, Study 2 measured these two behaviors by simply asking about behavioral intentions. This could have been problematic, in that there could be potential disconnection between behavioral intentions and actual behaviors—that is, it is possible, even likely, that participants who claimed an intention to boycott a brand might actually continue to use it. Future research might consider employing actual behavioral measures, such as allocating money to be spent on a specificitem.

Moreover, it should be noted that predictors other than what were examined in the dissertation could also potentially influence consumers' behavior intentions. For example, when the products serve consumers' functional needs, it is very likely that

consumers will not boycott the product no matter what sociopolitical stance this brand takes. More research is needed to investigate the interplay between rational and emotional antecedents of boycotting and buycotting behaviors.

Another limitation of this dissertation is that just six controversial sociopolitical issues were examined in Study 1; and one in Study 2. Issues highly emotive for participants may not have been addressed, therefore, when they were asked to recall their boycotting or buycotting experiences. Further studies (involving, for example, focus groups, or in-depth interviews) could be conducted to search for more sociopolitical issues that tend to attract the attention of boycotters and buycotters.

Finally, efficacy-related variables (i.e., self-efficacy, response efficacy, external vs. internal locus of control) were all analyzed as covariates in both research studies. However, the level and target of the control can also directly predict consumer behaviors. Therefore, future studies could be conducted by manipulating consumers' target of control (over themselves vs. over the company) and level of control. It would be interesting to investigate the moderating role of (a) level of control, and (b) target of control, in the antecedent relationship between emotions, attitude consistency, and boycotting/buycotting behaviors.

Another direction for future research could be gratitude and consumer behaviors, given that gratitude is a significant predictor in the context of brand activism. More studies could be done to help establish and support the link between gratitude and consumer loyalty, and to buycotting behaviors in the context of brand activism.

Finally, this dissertation identified several emotive antecedents of boycotting and buycotting behaviors (e.g., hope, anger, elevation, gratitude). Meanwhile, boycotters and

buycotters were identified as differing significantly on several discrete emotions (e.g., anger, contempt, happiness). Based on these findings, future studies could focus on the effectiveness of different emotion-appeals in driving consumer behaviors. For example, would gratitude-appeal message motivate consumers to support the company more.

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Table 3.1. Demographics and descriptive statistics for Study 1.

		%	N
Age (M = 37.15, SD = 12.10)			
Political stance (M = 4.82, SD = 1.82)			
Gender			
	Male	42.9%	133
	Female	56.1%	174
	I prefer not to say	0.3%	1
	Non-binary/third	0.6%	2
	Prefer to self-describe	0	0
Ethnicity			
	African/American	7.7%	24
	Asian/Pacific Islander	6.5%	20
	Caucasian/White	76.5%	237
	Latino/Hispanic	7.1%	22
	Native American/American Indian	0.3%	1
	Other	1%	3
	Prefer not to say	1%	3
Education			
	No college	5.5%	17
	Vocational level	7.7%	24
	Some college	29%	90
	A bachelor's degree	44.5%	138
	A master's degree	10%	31
	A doctoral degree	3.2%	10
	Prefer not to say	0	0
Religion			
	Yes	39%	121
	Christian	35.8%	111
	Islam	0.6%	2
	Hindu	0.3%	1
	Individual	0	0
	Other	1.9%	6
	No	57.75%	179
	Used to be joining	3.2%	10
Income			
	$20,000 or under	24.5%	76
	$20,001 to $40,000	25.2%	28

$40,001 to $60,000	20.3%	63
$60,001 to $80,000	12.9%	40
$80,001 to $100,000	7.4%	23
$100,001 and higher	6.8%	21
Prefer not to say	2.9%	9

Table 3.2. Differences in Discrete Emotions between Boycotters and Buycotters (Study

1)

	Boycotters	Buycotters	t	df
Shame	1.50(0.90)	1.40(0.74)	-.917	308
Guilt	1.43(0.78)	1.45(.75)	.262	.794
Contempt	2.60(1.89)	1.62(1.89)	-6.013***	302.68
Anger	3.61(1.72)	2.17(1.47)	-7.585***	208.468
Disgust	3.52(1.91)	1.94(1.37)	-8.343***	246.277
Elevation	3.96(1.42)	4.62(1.41)	3.728***	308
Authentic pride	4.40(1.44)	4.87(1.39)	2.702***	308
Hubristic pride	1.62(0.85)	1.60(0.81)	-.167	308
Gratitude	1.62(1.19)	5.60(1.64)	21.362***	139.798
Happiness	3.44(1.67)	4.26(1.52)	4.292***	196.249
Hope	4.00(1.75)	4.65(1.67)	3.018**	308

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Table 3.3. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Brand Attitude Dependent Variable in Study 1

Predictors	DV: Brand Attitude	
	$B(\beta)$	t
Issue block		
Involvement recognition	-.136 (-.136)	-2.152*
Referent criterion	-.095 (-.095)	-1.491
Constraint recognition	-.059 (-.059)	-.890
Efficacy block		
Self-efficacy	.178 (.178)	1.98*
Response efficacy	-.063(-.063)	-.677
Internal locus-of-control	-.052(-.052)	-.780
External locus-of-control	-.018(-.018)	-.288
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	-.008(-.008)	-.163
Guilt	-.041(-.041)	-.805
Contempt	-.016(-.016)	-.396
Anger	0.75(0.75)	1.398
Disgust	-.060(-.060)	-1.055
Elevation	.039(.039)	.882
Authentic pride	.034(.034)	.774
Hubristic pride	-.008(-.008)	-.232
Gratitude	.854(.854)	24.882***
Happiness	.056(.056)	1.284
Hope	-.102(-.102)	-2.106*
	R^2	
Total R^2 of issue block	.028*	
Incremental R^2 of efficacy block	.016	
Incremental R^2 of discrete emotion block	.712***	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

Table 3.4. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Boycott Intention as Dependent Variable in Study 1

Predictors	DV: Boycott Intention	
	$B(\beta)$	t
Issue block		
Involvement recognition	.091(.091)	1.435
Referent criterion	.099(.099)	1.534
Constraint recognition	.065(.065)	.971
Efficacy block		
Self-efficacy	-.189(-.189)	-2.091[*]
Response efficacy	.104(.104)	1.112
Internal locus-of-control	.045(.045)	.671
External locus-of-control	.078(.078)	1.231
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	-.039(-.039)	-.867
Guilt	.067(.067)	1.445
Contempt	-.023(-.023)	-.647
Anger	.091(.091)	1.864
Disgust	.043(.043)	.834
Elevation	-.028(-.028)	-.696
Authentic pride	.005(.005)	.113
Hubristic pride	-.012(-.012)	-.376
Gratitude	-.846(-.846)	-27.141[***]
Happiness	-.022(-.022)	.577
Hope	.068(.068)	1.548
R^2		
Total R^2 of issue block	.017	
Incremental R^2 of efficacy block	.020	
Incremental R^2 of discrete emotion block	.761[***]	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

[*]$p < 0.05$; [**]$p < 0.01$; [***]$p < 0.001$

Table 3.5. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Buycott Intention as Dependent Variable in Study 1

Predictors	DV: Buycott Intention	
	$B(\beta)$	t
Issue block		
Involvement recognition	-.025(-.025)	-.387
Referent criterion	-.130(-.130)	-2.015[*]
Constraint recognition	-.059(-.059)	-.879
Efficacy block		
Self-efficacy	.173(.173)	1.927
Response efficacy	-.021(-.021)	-.230
Internal locus-of-control	-.014(-.014)	-.208
External locus-of-control	-.082(-.082)	-1.310
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	.021(.021)	.353
Guilt	.-.028(-.028)	-.453
Contempt	-.037(-.037)	-.761
Anger	-.125(-.125)	-1.915
Disgust	.070(.070)	1.008
Elevation	.044(.044)	.813
Authentic pride	-.023(-.023)	-.427
Hubristic pride	-.049(-.049)	-1.167
Gratitude	. 750(.750)	17.951[***]
Happiness	.042(.042)	.800
Hope	-.063(-.063)	-1.058
	R^2	
Total R^2 of issue block	.015	
Incremental R^2 of efficacy block	.028	
Incremental R^2 of discrete emotion block	.594[***]	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

[*]$p < 0.05$; [**]$p < 0.01$; [***]$p < 0.001$

Table 3.6. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Behavior Intention as Dependent Variable in Study 1

Predictors	DV: Behavior Intention	
	$B(\beta)$	t
Issue block		
Involvement recognition	-.076(-.076)	-1.200
Referent criterion	-.061(-.061)	-.945
Constraint recognition	-.081(-.081)	-1.199
Efficacy block		
Self-efficacy	.116(.116)	1.276
Response efficacy	-.070(-.070)	-.740
Internal locus-of-control	-.002(-.002)	-.036
External locus-of-control	-.054(-.054)	-.845
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	.039(.039)	.751
Guilt	.-.071(-.071)	-1.302
Contempt	-.037(-.037)	-.857
Anger	-.049(-.049)	-.855
Disgust	.008(.008)	.132
Elevation	.003(.003)	.070
Authentic pride	.037(.037)	.786
Hubristic pride	-.045(-.045)	-1.228
Gratitude	.828(.828)	22.462[***]
Happiness	.064(.064)	1.377
Hope	-.090(-.090)	-1.717
	R^2	
Total R^2 of issue block	.010	
Incremental R^2 of efficacy block	.009	
Incremental R^2 of discrete emotion block	.700[***]	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

[*]$p < 0.05$; [**]$p < 0.01$; [***]$p < 0.001$

Table 3.7. Correlation among Dependent Variables in Study 1

	Brand Attitude	Behavior Intention	Boycott Intention	Buycott Intention
Brand Attitude	--	.808**	-.854**	.741**
Behavior Intention		--	-.887**	.838**
Boycott Intention			--	-.783**
Buycott Intention				--

Note. **p < .01

Table 4.1. Demographics and descriptive statistics for Study 2.

		%	N
Age (M = 38, SD = 12.78)			
Political Stance (M = 4.61, SD = 1.82)			
Gender			
	Male	49.2%	91
	Female	50.3%	93
	I prefer not to say	.5%	1
	Non-binary/third gender	--	--
	Prefer to self-describe	--	--
Ethnicity			
	African/American	7%	13
	Asian/Pacific Islander	8.1%	15
	Caucasian/White	78.4%	145
	Latino/Hispanic	4.3%	8
	Native American/American Indian	--	--
	Other	1.6%	3
	Prefer not to say	0.5%	1
Education			
	No college	4.9%	9
	Vocational level	14.1%	26
	Some college	29.2%	54
	A bachelor's degree	43.2%	80
	A master's degree	8.1%	15
	A doctoral degree	0.5%	1
	Prefer not to say	--	--
Religion			
	Yes	35.1%	65
	Christian	33%	61
	Islam	.5%	1
	Hindu	--	--
	Individual	--	--
	Other	1.6%	3
	No	62.7%	116
	Used to be joining	2.2%	4
Income			
	$20,000 or under	22.2%	41
	$20,001 to $40,000	26.5%	49

$40,001 to $60,000	26.5%	49
$60,001 to $80,000	11.4%	21
$80,001 to $100,000	5.9%	11
$100,001 and higher	6.5%	12
Prefer not to say	1.1%	2

Table 4.2. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Brand Attitude Dependent Variable in Study 2

Predictors	DV: Brand Attitude	
	$B(\beta)$	t
Control block		
Self-efficacy	-.241(-.241)	-1.702
Response efficacy	.177(.177)	1.246
Prior boycotting experience	-.217(-.217)	-2.153[*]
Prior buycotting experience	.160(.160)	1.571
Brand familiarity	.159(.159)	2.186[*]
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	.048(.048)	.509
Guilt	.130(.130)	1.535
Contempt	-.035(-.035)	-.379
Anger	-.228(-.228)	-1.663
Disgust	-.298(-.298)	-2.316[*]
Elevation	-.045(-.045)	-.601
Authentic pride	-.027(-.027)	-.427
Hubristic pride	.032(.032)	.600
Gratitude	.562(.562)	6.530[***]
Happiness	.094(.094)	.928
Hope	-.142(-.142)	-1.489
	R^2	
Total R^2 of control block	.028[*]	
Incremental R^2 of discrete emotion block	.756[***]	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

[*]$p < 0.05$; [**]$p < 0.01$; [***]$p < 0.001$

Table 4.3. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Boycott Intention as Dependent Variable in Study 2

Predictors	DV: Boycott Intention	
	B(β)	*t*
Control block		
Self-efficacy	.164(.164)	1.179
Response efficacy	-.019(-.019)	-.139
Prior boycotting experience	.312(.312)	3.150**
Prior buycotting experience	-.191(-.191)	-1.901
Brand familiarity	-.163(-.163)	-2.270*
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	-.081(-.081)	-.787
Guilt	.-076(-.076)	-.809
Contempt	.027(.027)	.263
Anger	.423(.423)	2.805**
Disgust	.204(.204)	1.441
Elevation	.065(.065)	.789
Authentic pride	.032(.032)	.462
Hubristic pride	.049(.049)	.842
Gratitude	-.411(-.411)	-4.339***
Happiness	.005(.005)	.049
Hope	.093(.093)	.885
	R²	
Total R² of control block	.095**	
Incremental R² of discrete emotion block	.551***	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

Table 4.4. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Buycott Intention as Dependent Variable in Study 2

Predictors	DV: Buycott Intention	
	B(β)	*t*
Control block		
Self-efficacy	-.216(-.216)	-1.687
Response efficacy	.434(.434)	3.389**
Prior boycotting experience	.073(.073)	.799
Prior boycotting experience	.325(.325)	3.531**
Brand familiarity	.018(.018)	.275
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	-.023(-.023)	-.200
Guilt	.016(.016)	.148
Contempt	.009(.009)	.074
Anger	.085(.085)	.496
Disgust	-.008(-.008)	-.050
Elevation	.232(.232)	2.479*
Authentic pride	-.178(-.178)	-2.282*
Hubristic pride	-.031(-.031)	-.475
Gratitude	.265(.265)	2.463*
Happiness	.132(.132)	1.049
Hope	.157(.157)	1.316
	R^2	
Total R^2 of control block	.237***	
Incremental R^2 of discrete emotion block	.308***	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

Table 4.5. Summary of Regression Analysis Results: Behavior Intention as Dependent Variable in Study 2

Predictors	DV: Behavior Intention	
	$B(\beta)$	t
Control block		
Self-efficacy	-.126(-.126)	.936
Response efficacy	.329(.329)	2.445*
Prior boycotting experience	-.106(-.106)	-1.103
Prior buycotting experience	.340(.340)	3.513**
Brand familiarity	.121(.121)	1.744
Discrete emotion block		
Shame	.140(.140)	1.214
Guilt	.-078(-.078)	-.748
Contempt	-.060(-.060)	-.521
Anger	-.194(-.194)	-1.154
Disgust	.024(.024)	.155
Elevation	.156(.156)	1.704
Authentic pride	-.050(-.050)	-.657
Hubristic pride	.024(.024)	.371
Gratitude	.382(.382)	3.619***
Happiness	.075(.075)	.605
Hope	.017(.017)	.148
	R^2	
Total R^2 of control block	.158***	
Incremental R^2 of discrete emotion block	.402***	

Note: Numbers in the parentheses are standard betas.

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

Table 4.6 Correlation among Dependent Variables in Study 2

	Brand Attitude	Boycott Intention	Buycott Intention	Behavior Intention
Brand Attitude	--	-.726**	.403**	.613**
Boycott Intention		--	-.215**	-.493**
Buycott Intention			--	.764**
Behavior Intention				--

Note. **p < .01

Table 4.7. Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypotheses	Findings
H1-1: Boycotters have significantly higher level of anger than buycotters.	Supported
H1-2: Consumers' emotion of anger positively impacts boycott intention.	Supported
H2-1: Boycotters have significantly higher levels of (a) disgust and (b) contempt than buycotters.	Supported
H2-2: Consumers' emotions of (a) disgust and (b) contempt negatively impact their boycott intention.	NS
H3: Consumers' emotion of guilt positively impacts their instrumental boycott intention.	NS
H4: Consumers' emotion of shame positively impacts their expressive boycott intention.	NS
H5-1: Buycotters have significantly higher level of pride than boycotters.	Partially supported
H5-2: Consumers' emotion of pride positively impacts their buycott intention.	Partially supported
H6: Consumers' emotion of happiness positively impacts both their (a) boycott intention, and (b) buycott intention.	NS
H7: Consumers' emotion of hope positively impacts their boycott intention.	NS
H8-1: Buycotters have significantly higher levels of (a) elevation and (b) gratitude.	Supported
H8-2: Consumers' emotion of (a) elevation and (b) gratitude positively impact their buycott intention.	Supported
H9-1: Magnitude of public support moderates the impact of attitude consistency on (a) brand attitude, (b) boycott intention, and (c) buycott intention: when public support level is high, participants having consistent attitude with the company are more likely to (a) form positive brand attitude, (b) buycott the company, and less likely to (c) boycott the company, compared to participants having inconsistent attitude. When public support level is low, there is no significant difference between attitude consistent condition and attitude inconsistent condition on the four dependent variables.	Supported

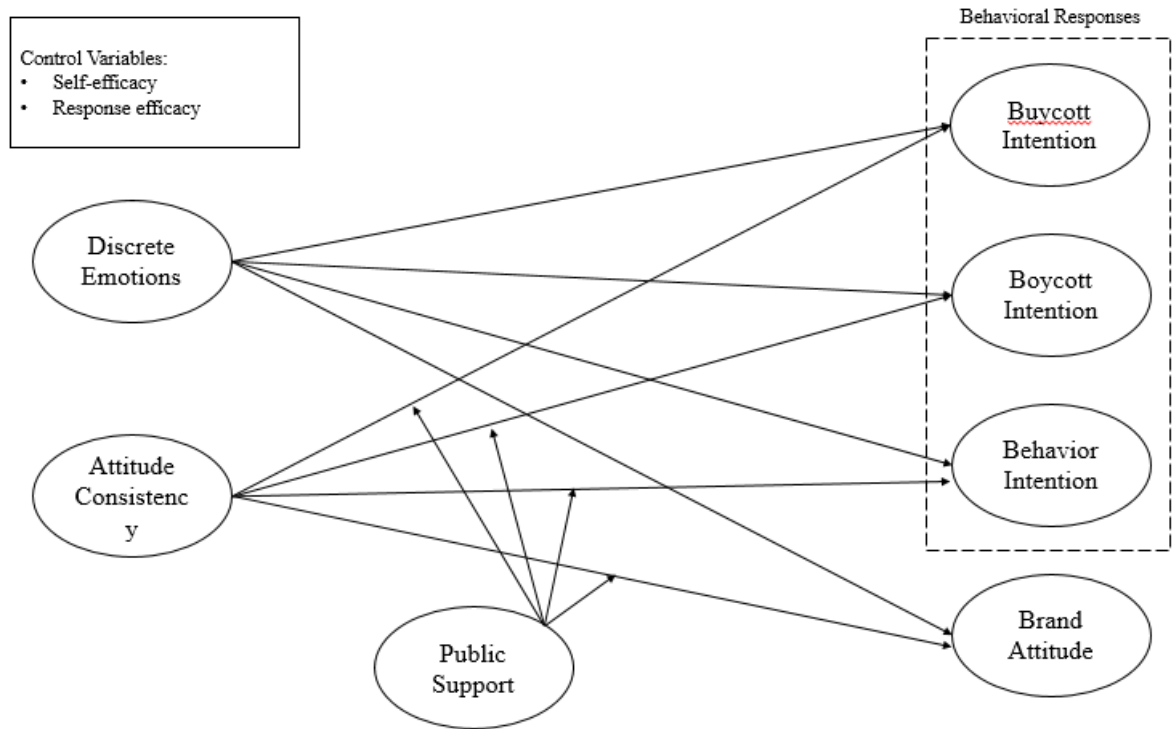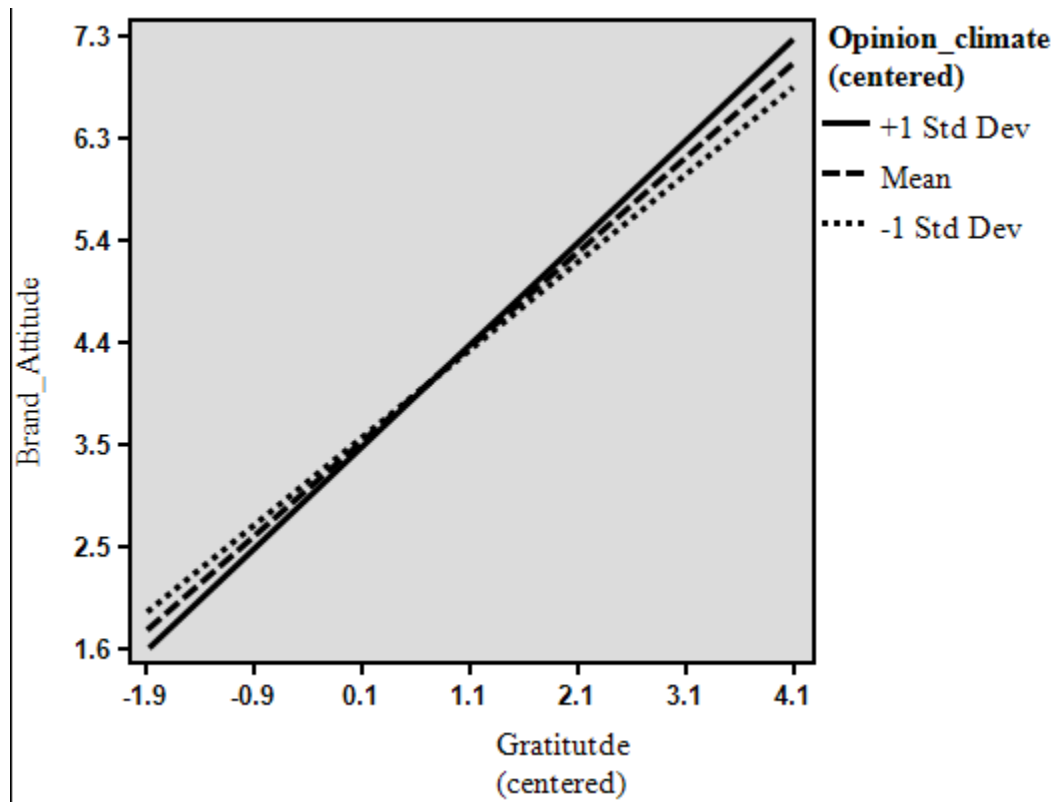|	
H9-2: Magnitude of public support moderates the impact of attitude consistency on (a) brand attitude, (b) boycott intention, and (c) buycott intention: when public support level is low, participants having consistent attitude with the company are more likely to (a) form positive brand attitude, (b) buycott the company, and less likely to (c) boycott the company, compared to participants having inconsistent attitude. When public support level is high, there is no significant difference between attitude consistent condition and attitude inconsistent condition on the four dependent variables.	NS
H10-1: Magnitude of public support significantly impact fear of isolation.	Supported
H10-2: Magnitude of public support significantly impact (a) sense of responsibility, (b) social loafing, (c) perceived likelihood of success, (e) responsibility allocation between oneself and other group members, (e) difference of perceived contribution between oneself and other group members.	NS

Figure 1. Proposed Model

Figure 2. Two-way interaction between gratitude and opinion climate estimate on brand attitude (Study 1)
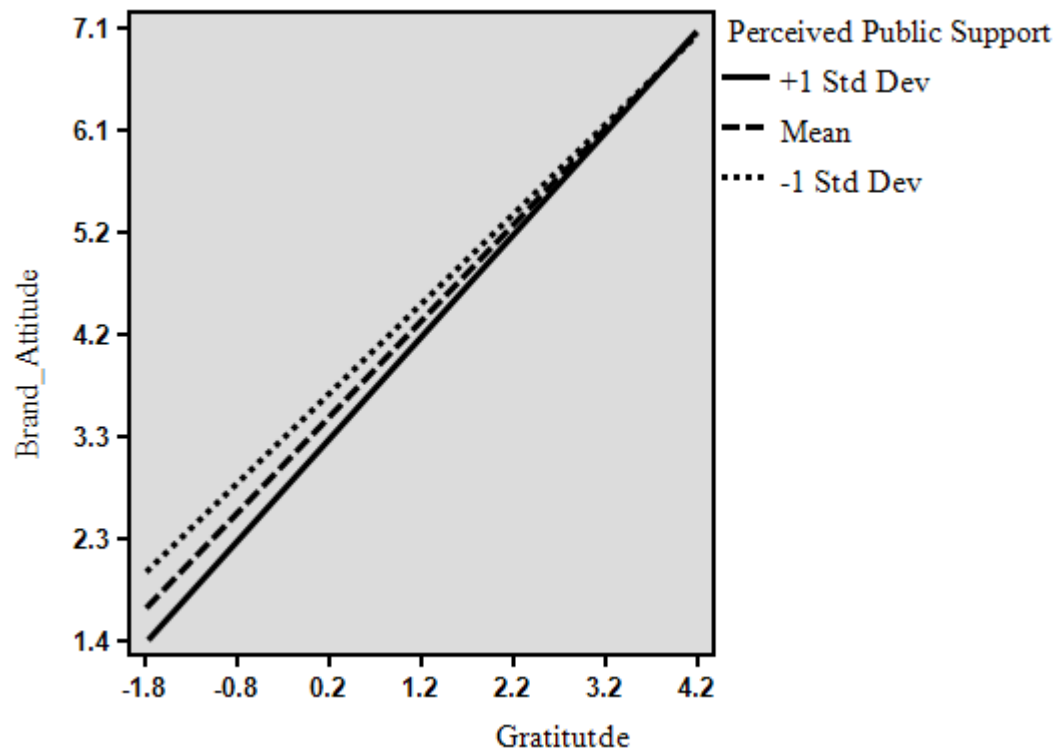
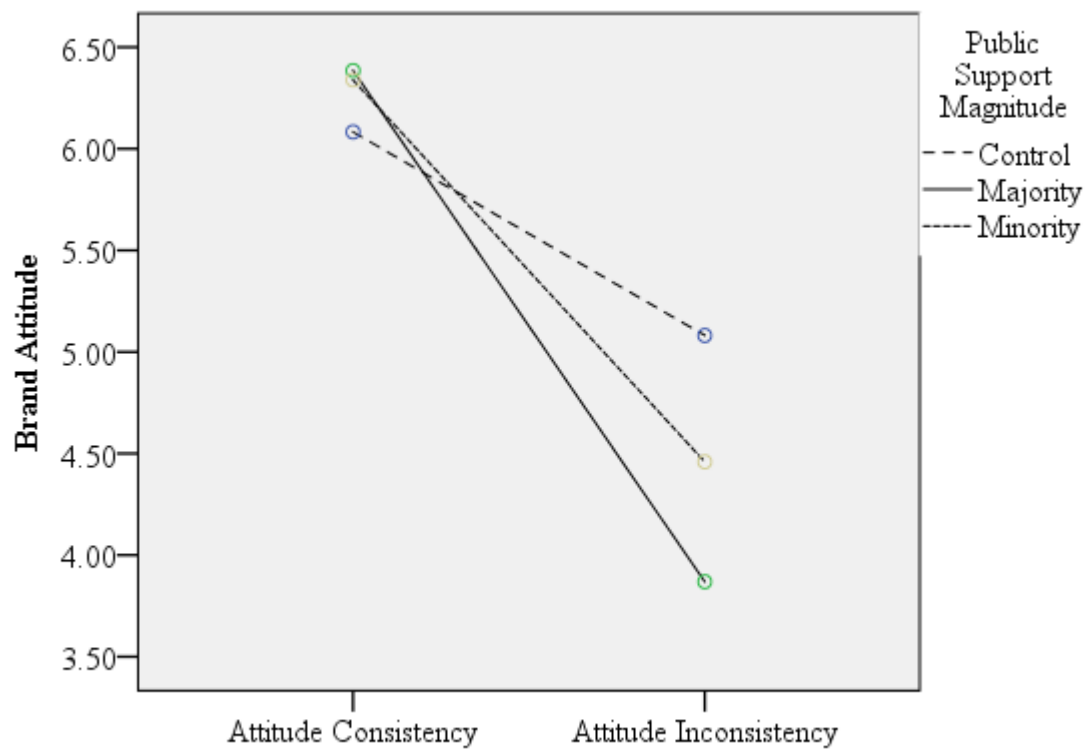Figure 3. Two-way interaction between gratitude and perceived public support on brand attitude (Study 1)

Figure 4. Two-way interaction between attitude consistency and public support

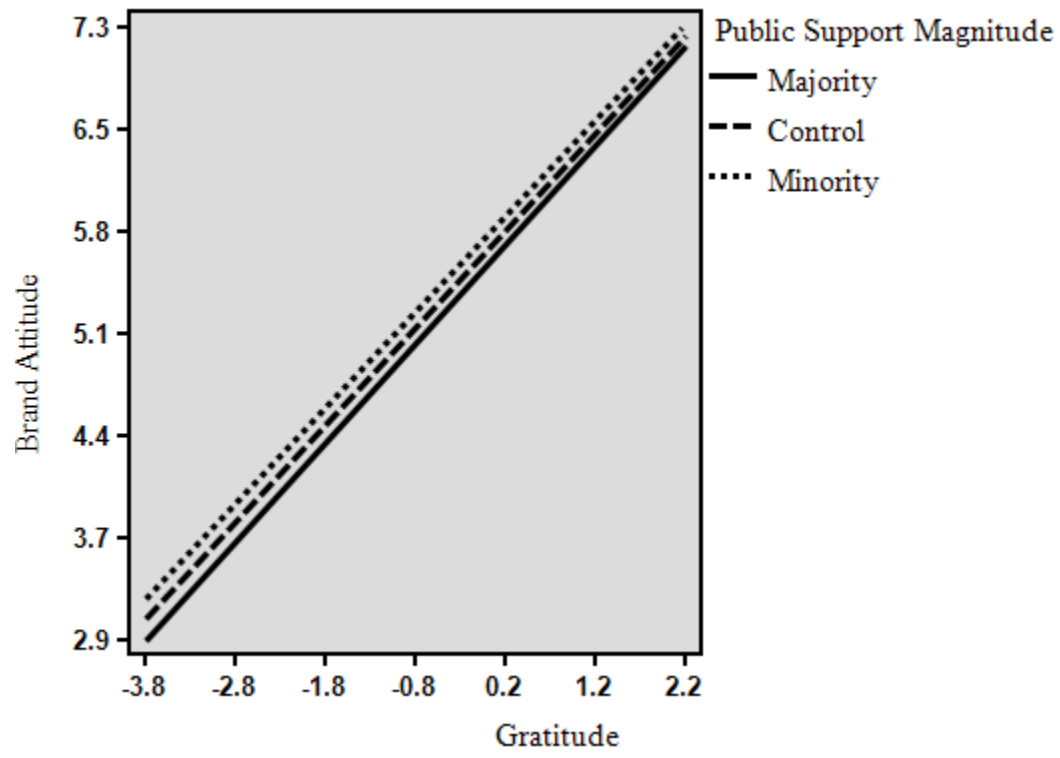magnitude (manipulated) on brand attitude in Study 2.

Figure 5. Two-way interaction between gratitude and public support magnitude
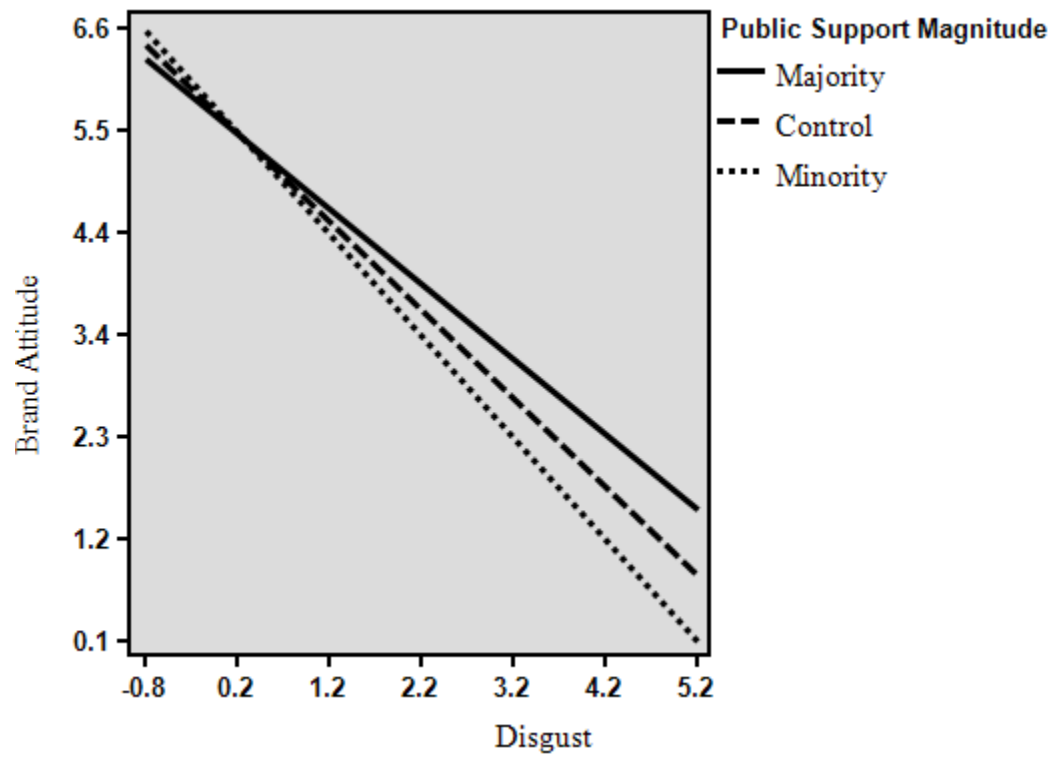
(manipulated) in Study 2.

Figure 6. Interaction between disgust and public opinion magnitude (manipulated) on brand attitude (Study 2).
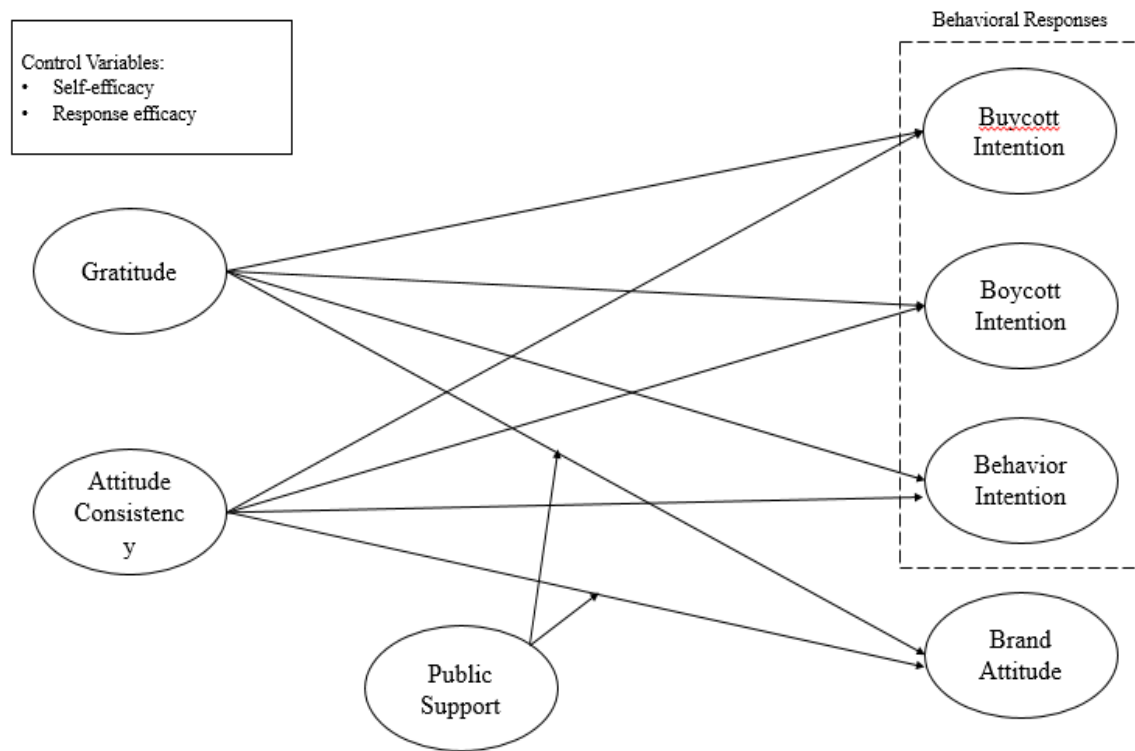
Figure 7. Tested Model

Appendix A. Survey Questionnaire

Purpose & Procedures: The purpose of this study is to examine participants' responses to controversial social issues and companies' brand activism on these issues. You will be asked to select a social-political issue and then write about your experiences of boycotting or buycotting a company because of its stance on that issue. After that, you will be asked a few questions about your emotions, attitudes, and behaviors. The study will take about 20 -25 minutes to complete.

Requirements: You have to be older than 18 years old to participate in the study.

Risks: The risks and discomfort associated with participation in this study are no greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during other online activities.

Benefits: There is no direct benefit to you. However, your participation could help us better understand human behavior and preferences.

Compensation: You will be paid $1.00 for full participation in this study. There are attention check questions in the survey. Failure of these questions will only give you partial compensation in the amount of $0.40. There is also a filter question in the beginning. Failure to pass the filter question means no compensation will be given.

Voluntary Participation: Your participation is voluntary. You may discontinue participation at any time during the research activity.

Confidentiality: The investigators and their assistants will consider your records confidential to the extent permitted by law. The U.S Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) may request to review and obtain copies of your records. Your records may also be reviewed for audit purposes by authorized University or other agents who will be bound by the same provisions of confidentiality.

The data captured for the research does not include any personally identifiable information about you. The data will be stored on password protected computers and accounts.

By advancing beyond this screen you confirm that you are 18 years old or older, that you have read and understood the instructions above, and that you are willing to participate in this study.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please contact Dr. Cong Li at (305) 284-2355 or congli@miami.edu and Ms. Cheng Hong at c.hong1@umiami.edu or (305)-284-8702. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact the University of Miami, Human Subject Research Office at hsro@med.miami.edu or 305-243-3195.

Instruction:

Below you will read six controversial sociopolitical issues. This means, people in the U.S. have heavily divided opinions when it comes to this issue. With the society being increasingly polarized, companies are also participating into the sociopolitical issue debate and expressing their own stances. Consequently, companies get buycotted or boycotted by consumers who either share or disagree with the company's stance.

For the purpose of concept clarification, **boycotting** is defined as one' purposive avoidance of the product/service from a company because the consumer does not agree with the company's social, ethical or political values. On the other hand, **buycotting** is defined as one's purposive purchase of the product/service from a company because the consumer wants to show his/her support towards the company's environmental, ethical, political or social stance.

This section asks about your previous boycotting and buycotting experiences IN GENERAL. Please indicated your frequency of boycotting and buycotting in the past six months on the following scales.

In the past 6 months, I have _____ **boycotted** a company with the purpose of changing its stance on a controversial issue.
1. Never
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Very often
5. Always

In the past 6 months, I have _____ **boycotted** a company with the purpose of expressing my attitude and/or emotion on its stance on the controversial issue.
1. Never
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Very often
5. Always

In the past 6 months, I have _____ **buycotted** a company with the purpose of changing its stance on a controversial issue.
1. Never
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Very often
5. Always

In the past 6 months, I have _____ **buycotted** a company with the purpose of expressing my attitude and/or emotion on its stance on the controversial issue.
1. Never

2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Very often
5. Always

Based on the descriptions and conceptualizations provided above, **please recall your recent boycotting and/or buycotting experiences**. Please note that such an experience **MUST (1) be due to shared or opposite stances compared with the target company; (2) be related to the controversial sociopolitical issue that is listed and described below.**

Section I. Issue-related questions

1. Gun rights.
United States has a very high gun ownership rate and Americans are highly divided on gun laws and regulations. People who support individuals' right of owning a gun list self-protection and safety as the top reason. Furthermore, owing a firearm is tied to their sense of personal freedom. Most of these gun owners were found saying that more guns can actually reduce crime rate. The majority of them also said that stricter access to guns would not decrease mass shootings.

2. Travel ban/Muslim ban.
Muslim ban or the travel ban was an executive order issued by President Donald Trump. It was in effect from 27 January 2017, until 16 March 2017. It lowered the number of refugees to be admitted into the United States in 2017 to 50,000, suspended the U.S. Refugee Admissions Program (USRAP) for 120 days, suspended the entry of Syrian refugees indefinitely, directed some cabinet secretaries to suspend entry of those whose countries do not meet adjudication standards under U.S. immigration law for 90 days, and included exceptions on a case-by-case basis. Homeland Security lists these countries as Iran, Iraq, Libya, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, and Yemen.

3. Trump's Presidency.
With the election of Mr. Trump as the president, the society has become an increasingly partisan political environment. Americans who support and oppose the President share opposite opinions on Trump's presidency and policies such as immigration, boarder security, etc. Corporations are also forced to pick a camp, which lead to consumer boycotts. For example, Donald Trump's supporters have responded with outrage on social media to Nordstrom's decision to stop carrying Ivanka Trump's clothing line shortly after the inauguration. When Under Armour CEO Kevin Plank praised Donald Trump as a "pro-business president" and "a real asset to the country" during an CNBC interview, social media erupted with outrage, threatening boycotts of the brand.

4. Affordable Care Act.
The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, known as Obamacare or the ACA, is the largest overhaul of the US healthcare system since the 1960s. It aims to extend health insurance coverage to some of the estimated 15% of the US population who lack it.

Those people receive no coverage from their employers and are not covered by US health programs for the poor and elderly. Republicans say the law imposes too many costs on business, with many describing it as a "job killer". On the other hands, the uninsured rate has dropped by 5% since the program began.

5. DACA

The DACA program was formed through executive order by former President Barack Obama in 2012 and allowed certain people who came to the U.S. illegally as minors to be protected from immediate deportation. Recipients, called Dreamers, were able to request "consideration of deferred action" for a period of two years, which was subject to renewal. In September 2017, the Trump administration officially announced its plan to phase out DACA – which provides a level of amnesty to certain undocumented immigrants, many of whom came to the U.S. as children – with a six-month delay for recipients. Nearly 800,000 undocumented youth are under the program's umbrella.

6. Same-sex marriage

Same-sex marriage was established in all 50 states, as a result of the ruling of the Supreme Court of the United States. It was held that the right of same-sex couples to marry on the same terms and conditions as opposite-sex couples, with all the accompanying rights and responsibilities. However, public are still split over same-sex marriage. For example, even though support for same-sex marriage has been rising, only 62% of U.S. adults are now in favor of allowing gay and lesbian couples to marry legally. Americans are even divided over whether businesses must provide wedding services for same-sex couples.

Please choose a controversial issue from above that is related to your recalled boycotting/buycotting experience. Again, please note that such an experience MUST be due to shared or opposite stances on the issue of your choice compared to the target company.

The issue I choose is
1. Gun rights
2. Travel ban
3. Trump's Presidency
4. Affordable Care Act
5. DACA
6. Same-sex marriage

Please pick a sociopolitical issue among the above that is related to your recent boycotting or buycotting experience. The experience I am thinking about related to the issue of my choice is a _____ experience.
1. Boycotting
2. Buycotting
3. No action taken

4. None of the above

Please answer the following questions regarding your attitude and opinion towards the issue of your choice.

Perceived climate of opinion estimates
Adapted from Zerback, & Fawzi, (2016)
If you have to give a percentage estimate, how large is the share of Americans supporting this issue? Please enter a number _____.

Problem Recognition
Adapted from Kim, Ni, Kim, & Kim (2012).
People recognize a problem when they realize that there is a dilemma concerning a situation and that there is no immediately applicable solution).
1) To what extent do you think there is something missing about this issue?
2) How much does the current situation surrounding the issue differ from your expectations?
3) How strongly do you feel that something needs to be done to improve the situation for this issue?

Constraint Recognition
Adapted from Kim, Ni, Kim, & Kim (2012).
Constraint recognition refers to people's perception of obstacles that prevent them from doing something about a problematic situation (Grunig, 1997, 2003; Grunig & Hunt, 1984)
4) Please consider whether you, personally, could do anything that would make a difference in the way this issue is handled. If you wanted to do something, would your efforts make a difference? (R)
5) To what extent do you believe that you could affect the way the issue is eventually solved if you wanted to? (R)

Involvement Recognition
Adapted from Kim, Ni, Kim, & Kim (2012).
Involvement recognition is defined as a perceived connection between individuals and the problematic situation (Grunig, 1997; Kim et al., 2010). This connection is perceptual rather than actual (Kim & Grunig, 2011).
6) In your mind, how much of a connection do you see between yourself and this issue?
7) To what extent do you believe this issue could involve you or someone close to you at some point?
8) How much do you believe this issue affects or could affect you personally?

Referent Criterion

Adapted from Kim, Ni, Kim, & Kim (2012).

A referent criterion is prior knowledge, experience, and subjective judgmental rules that one uses to solve present problems (Grunig, 1997; Grunig & Disbrow, 1977; Higgins, 1996). It is more a cognition than a perception. It can include the objective component of prior knowledge and the subjective thought frame of willful or wishful thinking about the ways or outcomes of problem solving.

9) I know how I should behave regarding this issue.

10) I strongly support a certain way of resolving this issue.

11) Past experience has provided me with guidelines for resolving this issue.

Perceived Public Support

Adapted from Dalisay, F. S. (2012).

All items are measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree

My family shares my opinion on the issue

My friends share my opinion on the issue

The present majority of the society shares my opinion on the issue

Section II. Experience Recall

Please think about your experience and write about it. Specific questions are asked. Please answer them one by one with details. Note: the reasons why you engage in boycotting or buycotting is due to the company's stance on the controversial social-political issue you picked.

Adapted from Flanagan's (1954) and Gremler's (2004) critical incident technique (CIT).

(a) What specifically happened to cause you to boycott/buycott this company? In other words, what social-political stance does this company take on the issue of your selection?

(b) What you said, if anything, and how you said it? Did you say that on social media, or in person, or both?

Attention check question 1:

Please answer this true-or-false question. If you fail the question, you will be directly opted out of the survey and not receive the whole incentive for your participation.

True or False:

Buycotting is defined as one' purposive avoidance of the product/service from a company because the consumer does not agree with the company's social, ethical or political values

Section III. Emotion-related questions

Please rate on the following 7-point Likert-scale regarding your experienced emotions during the boycotting/buycotting process. With 1 being strongly disagree, 4 being neutral, and 7 being strongly agree.

Shame
Adapted from Izard, Dougherty, Bloxom, & Kotsch (1974), Mosher & White (1981)
After recalling my experience, I now feel ashamed.
After recalling my experience, I now feel humiliated.
After recalling my experience, I now feel disgraced.

Guilt
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974)
After recalling my experience, I now feel repentant.
After recalling my experience, I now feel guilty.
After recalling my experience, I now feel blameworthy.

Contempt
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974) and Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, (1999).
After recalling my experience, I now feel scornful.
After recalling my experience, I now feel contemptuous.
After recalling my experience, I now feel disdainful.

Anger
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974) and Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, (1999).
After recalling my experience, I now feel angry.
After recalling my experience, I now feel enraged.
After recalling my experience, I now feel mad.
After recalling my experience, I now feel very annoyed.

Disgust
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974) and Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, (1999).
After recalling my experience, I now experience feeling of distaste.
After recalling my experience, I now feel disgusted.
After recalling my experience, I now experience feeling of revulsion.

Elevation
Adapted from Schnall, Roper, and Fessler (2010)
After recalling my experience, I now feel moved.
After recalling my experience, I now feel uplifted.
After recalling my experience, I now feel optimistic about humanity.
After recalling my experience, I now have warm feeling in my chest.
After recalling my experience, I now want to help others.
After recalling my experience, I now want to become a better person.

Pride
Adapted from Tracey and Robin (2007)
Authentic pride items (attribution of success to internal, unstable, and controllable causes) (make effort contribution):
After recalling my experience, I now feel accomplished
After recalling my experience, I now feel like I am achieving

After recalling my experience, I now feel confident
After recalling my experience, I now feel fulfilled
After recalling my experience, I now feel productive
After recalling my experience, I now feel like I have self-worth
After recalling my experience, I now feel successful

Hubristic pride items (attribution of success to internal, stable, and uncontrollable causes) (make ability attribution):
After recalling my experience, I now feel arrogant
After recalling my experience, I now feel conceited
After recalling my experience, I now feel egotistical
After recalling my experience, I now feel pompous
After recalling my experience, I now feel smug
After recalling my experience, I now feel snobbish
After recalling my experience, I now feel stuck-up

Gratitude
Adapted from Bartlett and DeSteno (2006).
After recalling my experience, I feel grateful toward the company.
After recalling my experience, I feel appreciative toward the company
After recalling my experience, I feel positive toward the company.

Happiness
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974)
After recalling my experience, I now feel delighted.
After recalling my experience, I now feel happy.
After recalling my experience, I now feel joyful.

Hope
After recalling my experience, I now feel hopeful.
After recalling my experience, I now feel optimistic.

Please recall your experience and answer the following cognition-related questions.
Self-efficacy
Adapted from Sparks et al. (1997), Bandura (2006)
For me, to change the current situation in my desired direction would be easy.
I am certain that I can change the current situation in my desired direction.
I have confidence in improving the situation through my actions.
It is mostly up to me whether or not I change the current situation in my desired direction.
I have control over the current situation.

Response efficacy
Adapted from Umphrey (2004)
What I did is highly effective in improving the situation.

What I did could significantly affect the situation.
What I did is an effective method for making the current situation better.
<u>Dimensional Emotion: Valence, Arousal, and Dominance</u>
Modified from Mehrabian and Russell (1974)
Please indicate on a five-point semantic differential scale your feelings and emotions when reading the social media posts.

I feel _____ when I recall my experience

Dimension of valence
unhappy 1 2 3 4 5 happy
annoyed 1 2 3 4 5 pleased
unsatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 satisfied
melancholic 1 2 3 4 5 contented
despairing 1 2 3 4 5 hopeful
bored 1 2 3 4 5 relaxed

Dimension of arousal
relaxed 1 2 3 4 5 stimulated
calm 1 2 3 4 5 excited
sluggish 1 2 3 4 5 frenzied
dull 1 2 3 4 5 jittery
sleepy 1 2 3 4 5 wide awake
unaroused 1 2 3 4 5 aroused

Dimension of dominance
controlled 1 2 3 4 5 controlling
influenced 1 2 3 4 5 influential
cared for 1 2 3 4 5 in control
awed 1 2 3 4 5 important
submissive 1 2 3 4 5 dominant
guided 1 2 3 4 5 autonomous

Attention check question 2:
I am paying attention to every single question. Please choose Strongly Disagree.

Section IV. Brand Related

Brand attitude
Adapted from Meuhling and Laczniak (1988)
Semantic differential scale
I think Ben and Jerry's is
good 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 bad (reversed)
My attitude towards Ben and Jerry's is

like 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 dislike (reversed)
favorable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 unfavorable (reversed)
positive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 negative (reversed)

Boycotting/buycotting intention
Adapted from Stolle, Hooghe, & Micheletti (2005)
After recalling my experience, I intend to _____ this company in the near future.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Boycott			Do nothing			Buycott

After recalling my experience, I intend to BOYCOTT this company in the near future.
After recalling my experience, I intend to BUYCOTT this company in the near future.

Section V. Personality Questions

The following questions are asked regarding your personality traits. Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following items on a seven-point Likert-scale.

Locus of control
Adapted from Lumpkin (1985)
<u>Internal control</u>
When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
Getting people to do the right things depends upon ability; luck has nothing to do with it.
What happens to me is my own doing.
<u>External control</u>
Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.

Section VI. Demographics

The final session deals with your demographic information.
1. What is your age?
2. What is your gender?   M   F
3. What is your race/ethnicity?
   African American/Black
   Asian/Pacific Islander
   Caucasian/White
   Latino/Hispanic
   Native American/American Indian
   Other (please specify)
   Prefer not to say
4. What is the highest educational degree you have achieved so far?
   No college (secondary education or below)
   Vocational level (including diploma, higher diploma, and associate degree)
   Some college

A bachelor's degree
A master's degree
A doctoral degree
Prefer not to say

5. Religious belief:
5.1 Are you the member of any religious group?
a) Yes   b) No   c) Used to be joining

5.2 What religious group is this? If not, were you brought up in the beliefs of a religious group?
a) Christian
b) Islam
c) Hindu
d). Individual
e). Other
6. In terms of political stance, you are _____
Very conservative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very liberal
7. What is your annual income?
$20,000 or under (1)
$20,001 to $40,000 (2)
$40,001 to $60,000 (3)
$60,001 to $80,000 (4)
$80,001 to $100,000 (5)
$100,001 and higher (6)

Appendix B. Experiment Questionnaire

Purpose & Procedures: The purpose of this study is to examine participants' responses to controversial social issues and companies' brand activism on these issues. You will be asked to read about a company's stance on a sociopolitical issue. After that, you will be asked a few questions about your emotions, attitudes, and behaviors. The study will take about 20 -25 minutes to complete.

Requirements: You have to be older than 18 years old to participate in the study.

Risks: The risks and discomfort associated with participation in this study are no greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life or during other online activities.

Benefits: There is no direct benefit to you. However, your participation could help us better understand human behavior and preferences.

Compensation: You will be paid $1.00 for full participation in this study. There are attention check questions in the survey. Failure of these questions will only give you partial compensation in the amount of $0.40. This is also filter question in the begining of the survey. If you fail the filter question, you will receive no compensation.

Voluntary Participation: Your participation is voluntary. You may discontinue participation at any time during the research activity.

Confidentiality: The investigators and their assistants will consider your records confidential to the extent permitted by law. The U.S Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) may request to review and obtain copies of your records. Your records may also be reviewed for audit purposes by authorized University or other agents who will be bound by the same provisions of confidentiality.

The data captured for the research does not include any personally identifiable information about you. The data will be stored on password protected computers and accounts.

By advancing beyond this screen you confirm that you are 18 years old or older, that you have read and understood the instructions above, and that you are willing to participate in this study.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please contact Dr. Cong Li at (305) 284-2355 or congli@miami.edu and Ms. Cheng Hong at c.hong1@umiami.edu or (305)-284-8702. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact the University of Miami, Human Subject Research Office at hsro@med.miami.edu or 305-243-3195.

Section I. Independent Variables

Please identify yourself on gun issues.

1. supporting gun control

2. supporting gun right

3. uncertain

Thank you very much for sharing with us your sociopolitical stance on gun issues. The latest opinion poll of 2,002 adults, conducted in January 2018 by New Horizon Political Research Institute, revealed the percentage of American citizens who **share with your stance on gun issues.**

Note: New Horizon Political Research Institute is a nonpartisan research center that conducts public opinion polling, demographic research, content analysis and other data-driven social science research.

Please allow some time to calculate the percentage.

Participants will be randomly assigned to one of the following three conditions (opinion congruency: congruent with majority vs. congruent with minority vs. control). (see Appendix C)

Manipulation Check

Perceived Public Support
Adapted from Dalisay, F. S. (2012).
My family shares my opinion on the issue
My friends share my opinion on the issue
The present majority of the society shares my opinion on the issue

Credibility
The poll survey was believable
The poll survey was fair
The poll survey was accurate
The poll survey was comprehensive
The poll survey was credible
The poll survey was trustworthy
The poll survey was informative

Section II. Mediators Variables

Please answer the following cognition-related questions.
Fear of isolation
Adapted from Shoemaker, Breen, & Stamper (2000).
1) When I am talking to someone (about my actions on this issue), I worry about what they may be thinking about me.

2) I worry about seeming foolish to others when I take such actions on this issue.
3) I worry about what people will think of me even when I know it doesn't make any difference.
4) I become tense and jittery if I know someone is sizing me up based on my actions on this issue.
5) Other people's opinions of me based on my actions on this issue do not bother me. (Reversed)
6) I often worry that people who are important to me won't think very much of me because what I do on this issue.

Perceived likelihood of success
Adapted from Sen, Gurhan-Canli, & Morwitz (2001)
My actions are likely to make a difference to the current situation.

Self-efficacy
Adapted from Sparks et al. (1997), Bandura (2006)
For me, to change the current situation in my desired direction would be easy.
I am certain that I can change the current situation in my desired direction.
I have confidence in improving the situation through my actions.
It is mostly up to me whether or not I change the current situation in my desired direction.
I have control over the current situation.

Response efficacy
Adapted from Umphrey (2004)
What I did is highly effective in improving the situation.
What I did could significantly affect the situation.
What I did is an effective method for making the current situation better.

Attention check questions 1
If you are reading this, please choose Strongly Disagree.

Perceived social loafing
Adapted from George (1992) and Mulvey and Klein (1998).
1) People who share the same stance with me on gun issues are all trying as hard as they can. (reversed)
2) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues are free-riders, who rely too much on others to do their share of work.
3) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues are contributing less than I anticipated.
4) Given the abilities, all people who share the same stance with me on gun issues are doing the best they can (reversed)

5) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues defer responsibilities they should assume to other people.
6) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues put forth less effort than the rest when we work together to change the current situation.
7) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues do not do their share of work.
8) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues spend less time working on changing the current situation, if others are present to handle the job.
9) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues avoid helping others change the current situation as much as possible.
10) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues work with less effort and finish their portion of work with low quality.
11) Some people who share the same stance with me on gun issues are less likely to make substantive contribution if others are available to do this.

Attention check question 2:

If you are reading this, please select Disagree.

Sense of responsibility

We measured group members' perceptions of responsibility by asking them to allocate 100 responsibility points to themselves and the other members of the group. These allocations indicated that members felt less responsible as their groups became larger and larger.

We also measured group members' perceptions of responsibility by asking them to rate each members' contribution to the collective effort on a scale from 1 (not a contributor) to 5 (large contributor).

<div align="center">

Section III Attitude Consistency

</div>

Brand Familiarity
Adapted from Kent & Allen (1994)
Regarding the brand Ben and Jerry's, I am _____.
familiar 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 unfamiliar (reversed)
inexperienced 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 experienced
knowledgeable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 not knowledgeable (reversed)

Participants will first read and learn about Ben and Jerry's stance on gun issues.

<div align="center">

Ben and Jerry's Support for Gun Control

</div>

> How will we move our commitment to peace-building forward?
> As a company, we will continue to consciously be a part of the peace-building community by **supporting gun control** and maintaining dynamic relationships with relevant individuals and organizations. We will look for opportunities to assist in the "re-branding" of the peace movement globally as a more positive, practical and mainstream **"peace-building" movement**.
> Through our business, partnerships and advocacy, we will seek ways to organize, educate and mobilize citizens at the grassroots level in support of peace-building efforts, and to celebrate peace-building efforts around the world.

Attention check question 3: Ben and Jerry's stance on gun issues is

1. Support gun control

2. Support gun rights

3. Not sure

Section IV. Emotions

Please rate on the following 7-point Likert-scale regarding your experienced emotions during the boycotting/buycotting process. With 1 being strongly disagree, 4 being neutral, and 7 being strongly agree.
Shame
Adapted from Izard, Dougherty, Bloxom, & Kotsch (1974), Mosher & White (1981)
After recalling my experience, I now feel ashamed.
After recalling my experience, I now feel humiliated.
After recalling my experience, I now feel disgraced.

Guilt
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974)
After recalling my experience, I now feel repentant.
After recalling my experience, I now feel guilty.
After recalling my experience, I now feel blameworthy.

Contempt
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974) and Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, (1999).
After recalling my experience, I now feel scornful.
After recalling my experience, I now feel contemptuous.
After recalling my experience, I now feel disdainful.

Anger
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974) and Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, (1999).
After recalling my experience, I now feel angry.
After recalling my experience, I now feel enraged.
After recalling my experience, I now feel mad.

After recalling my experience, I now feel very annoyed.

Disgust
Adapted from Izard et al. (1974) and Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, (1999).
After recalling my experience, I now experience feeling of distaste.
After recalling my experience, I now feel disgusted.
After recalling my experience, I now experience feeling of revulsion.

Elevation
Adapted from Schnall, Roper, and Fessler (2010)
After recalling my experience, I now feel moved.
After recalling my experience, I now feel uplifted.
After recalling my experience, I now feel optimistic about humanity.
After recalling my experience, I now have warm feeling in my chest.
After recalling my experience, I now want to help others.
After recalling my experience, I now want to become a better person.

Pride
Adapted from Tracey and Robin (2007)
Authentic pride items (attribution of success to internal, unstable, and controllable causes) (make effort contribution):
After recalling my experience, I now feel accomplished
After recalling my experience, I now feel like I am achieving
After recalling my experience, I now feel confident
After recalling my experience, I now feel fulfilled
After recalling my experience, I now feel productive
After recalling my experience, I now feel like I have self-worth
After recalling my experience, I now feel successful

Hubristic pride items (attribution of success to internal, stable, and uncontrollable causes) (make ability attribution):
After recalling my experience, I now feel arrogant
After recalling my experience, I now feel conceited
After recalling my experience, I now feel egotistical
After recalling my experience, I now feel pompous
After recalling my experience, I now feel smug
After recalling my experience, I now feel snobbish
After recalling my experience, I now feel stuck-up

Gratitude
Adapted from Barlett and DeSteno (2006).
After recalling my experience, I feel grateful toward the company.
After recalling my experience, I feel appreciative toward the company
After recalling my experience, I feel positive toward the company.

Happiness

Adapted from Izard et al. (1974)
After recalling my experience, I now feel delighted.
After recalling my experience, I now feel happy.
After recalling my experience, I now feel joyful.

Hope
After recalling my experience, I now feel hopeful.
After recalling my experience, I now feel optimistic.

Emotion Valence, Arousal, and Dominance
Modified from Mehrabian and Russell (1974)
Please indicate on a five-point semantic differential scale your feelings and emotions when reading the social media posts.

I feel _____ when I read these social media posts.
Dimension of valence
unhappy 1 2 3 4 5 happy
annoyed 1 2 3 4 5 pleased
unsatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 satisfied
melancholic 1 2 3 4 5 contented
despairing 1 2 3 4 5 hopeful
bored 1 2 3 4 5 relaxed

Dimension of arousal
relaxed 1 2 3 4 5 stimulated
calm 1 2 3 4 5 excited
sluggish 1 2 3 4 5 frenzied
dull 1 2 3 4 5 jittery
sleepy 1 2 3 4 5 wide awake
unaroused 1 2 3 4 5 aroused

Dimension of dominance
controlled 1 2 3 4 5 controlling
influenced 1 2 3 4 5 influential
cared for 1 2 3 4 5 in control
awed 1 2 3 4 5 important
submissive 1 2 3 4 5 dominant
guided 1 2 3 4 5 autonomous

Section V. Dependent Variables

Brand attitude
Adapted from Meuhling and Laczniak (1988)
Semantic differential scale
I think Ben and Jerry's is
good 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 bad (Reversed)
My attitude towards Ben and Jerry's is

like 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 dislike (Reversed)
favorable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 unfavorable (Reversed)
positive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 negative (Reversed)

Boycotting/buycott intention
Adapted from Stolle, Hooghe, & Micheletti (2005)
After reading about Ben and Jerry's stance on gun issues, I intend to _____ this company.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Boycott			Do nothing			Buycott

Degree of agreement with the following statements.
I will boycott this company in the near future.
I will buycott this company in the near future.

Section VI. Control Variables
Brand Familiarity, Boycotting/Buycotting Experiences

This section asks about your previous boycotting and buycotting experiences IN GENERAL. Please indicated your frequency of boycotting and buycotting in the past six months on the following scales.
In the past 6 months, I have _____ **boycotted** a company with the purpose of changing its stance on a controversial issue.
1. Never
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Very often
5. Always

In the past 6 months, I have _____ **boycotted** a company with the purpose of expressing my attitude and/or emotion on its stance on the controversial issue.
1. Never
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Very often
5. Always

In the past 6 months, I have _____ **buycotted** a company with the purpose of changing its stance on a controversial issue.
1. Never
2. Rarely
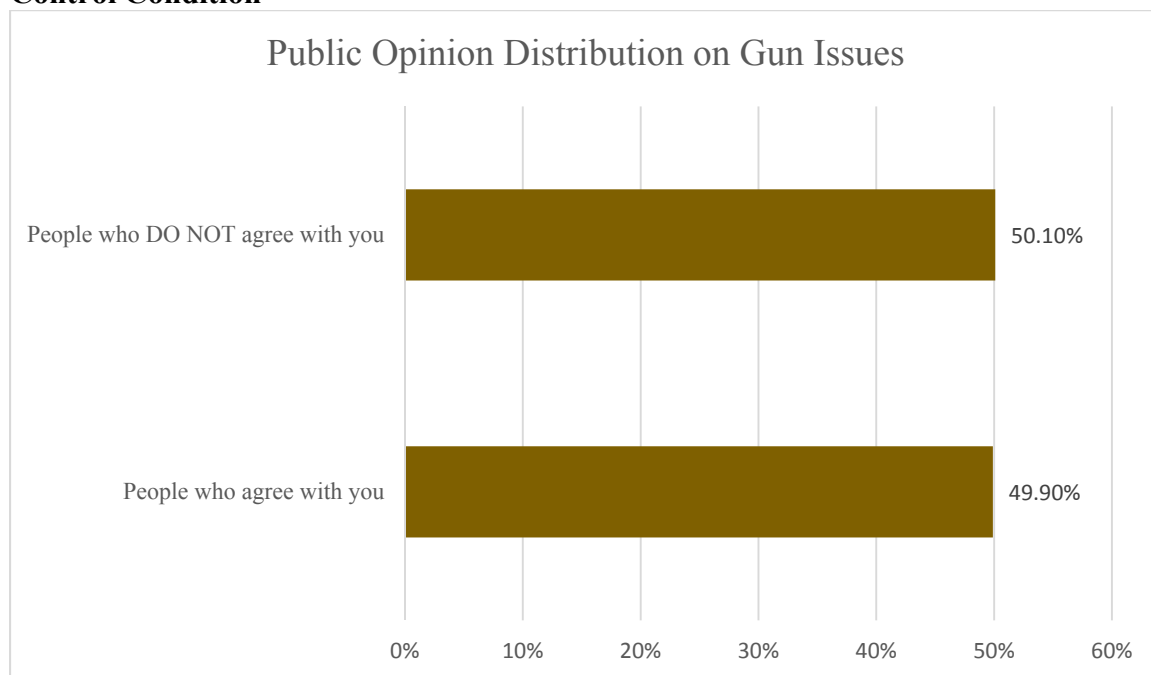3. Sometimes
4. Very often
5. Always

Section VII. Demographics

The final session deals with your demographic information.
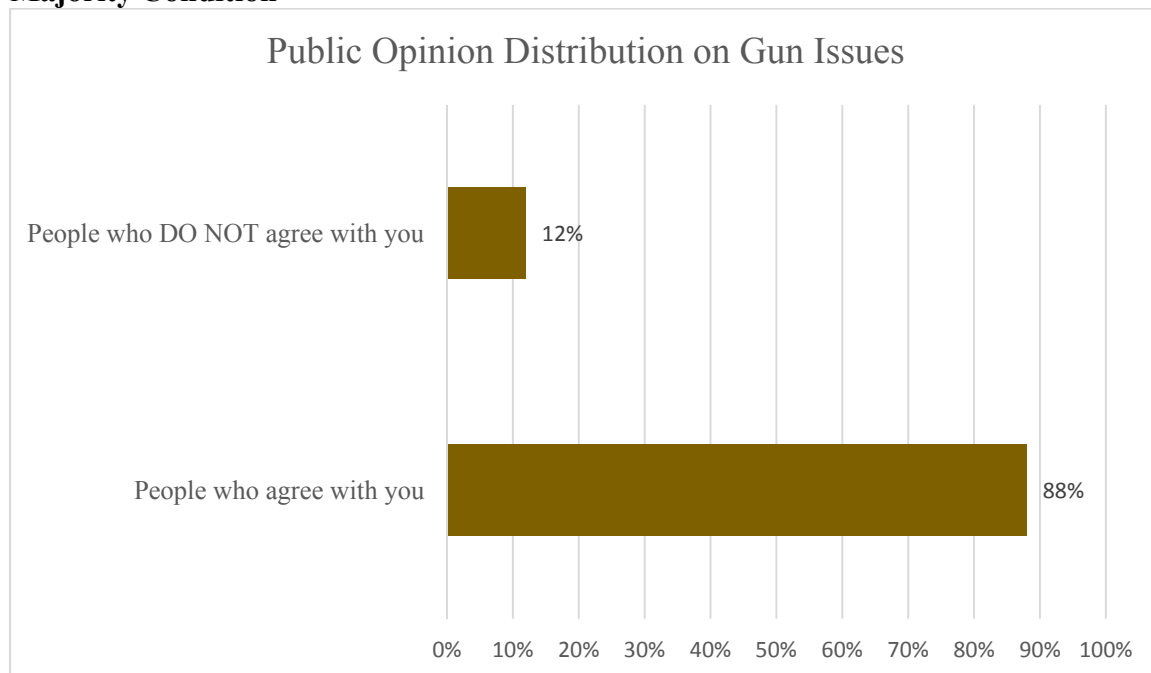1. What is your age?
2. What is your gender?   M   F
3. What is your race/ethnicity?
       African American/Black
       Asian/Pacific Islander
       Caucasian/White
       Latino/Hispanic
       Native American/American Indian
       Other (please specify)
       Prefer not to say
4. What is the highest educational degree you have achieved so far?
      a) No college (secondary education or below)
      b) Vocational level (including diploma, higher diploma, and associate degree)
      c) Some college
      d) A bachelor's degree
      e) A master's degree
      f) A doctoral degree
      g) Prefer not to say
      h)
5. Religious belief:
5.1 Are you the member of any religious group?
a) Yes   b) No   c) Used to be joining
5.2 What religious group is this? If not, were you brought up in the beliefs of a religious group?
a) Christian
b) Islam
c) Hindu
d). Individual
e). Other
6. In terms of political stance, you are _____
Very conservative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very liberal
7. What is your annual income?
$20,000 or under (1)
$20,001 to $40,000 (2)
$40,001 to $60,000 (3)
$60,001 to $80,000 (4)
$80,001 to $100,000 (5)
$100,001 and higher (6)

Appendix C. Experimental Stimuli

Control Condition

Public Opinion Distribution on Gun Issues

People who DO NOT agree with you — 50.10%

People who agree with you — 49.90%

Majority Condition

Public Opinion Distribution on Gun Issues

People who DO NOT agree with you — 12%

People who agree with you — 88%

Minority Condition

Public Opinion Distribution on Gun Issues

People who DO NOT agree with you — 88%

People who agree with you — 12%

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%