

THE MORAL HIGH GROUND:
PERCEIVED MORAL VIOLATION AND MORAL EMOTIONS
IN CONSUMER BOYCOTTS

by

JOHNNY CHEN

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Department of Marketing
and the Graduate School of the University of Oregon
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

September 2010

University of Oregon Graduate School

Confirmation of Approval and Acceptance of Dissertation prepared by:

Johnny Chen

Title:

"The Moral High Ground: Perceived Moral Violation and Moral Emotions in Consumer Boycotts"

This dissertation has been accepted and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in the Department of Marketing by:

Robert Madrigal, Chairperson, Marketing
Lynn Kahle, Member, Marketing
David Boush, Member, Marketing
Robert Mauro, Outside Member, Psychology

and Richard Linton, Vice President for Research and Graduate Studies/Dean of the Graduate School for the University of Oregon.

September 4, 2010

Original approval signatures are on file with the Graduate School and the University of Oregon Libraries.

© 2010 Johnny Chen

An Abstract of the Dissertation of

Johnny Chen for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in the Department of Marketing to be taken September 2010

Title: THE MORAL HIGH GROUND: PERCEIVED MORAL VIOLATION AND
MORAL EMOTIONS IN CONSUMER BOYCOTTS

Approved: _____
Dr. Robert Madrigal

Prior research has tended to focus on rational (e.g., collective social action and cost-benefit factors) rather than emotional processes when predicting boycott intention. The current dissertation proposes that both processes contribute to a boycotting decision and that each is premised on a perceived moral violation. A model is offered in which boycott intention is conceptualized as a consumer coping response. Three studies provide support that moral emotions and cost-benefit factors independently contribute to overall consumer boycott intention. In Study 1, online survey responses from active boycotters (N = 121) indicated that participants felt other-condemning moral emotions more acutely in symbolic boycotts than in non-symbolic boycotts. In Study 2, the theoretical relationship between perceived moral violation, boycott intention, and boycott behavior was established in a simple experiment (N = 201). In Study 3, experimental results from a real world consumer panel (N = 709) indicated that the key to diffusing consumer boycott intention is counter-message tactics aimed at reducing overall perceived moral

violation. Path analysis using the data from Study 2 and 3 provided additional insight into the structure of the proposed model. Other-condemning and self-conscious emotions, along with perceived boycott benefit (ability to make a difference and self-enhancement), contributed to boycott intentions whereas cost perceptions played a lesser role in predicting boycott intention. Comparisons between the hypothesized model and a set of alternatives supported the proposition that boycott intention may be conceptualized as a coping behavior. Finally, the results of a path analysis indicated that two individual difference variables were determinants of perceived moral violation: humanitarian-egalitarian orientation and negative attitude towards big businesses.

CURRICULUM VITAE

NAME OF AUTHOR: Johnny Chen

GRADUATE AND UNDERGRADUATE SCHOOLS ATTENDED:

University of Oregon, Eugene
Oregon State University, Corvallis

DEGREES AWARDED:

Doctor of Philosophy, Marketing, 2010, University of Oregon
Master of Business Administration, Marketing, 2000, University of Oregon
Bachelor of Science, Computer Science, 1994, Oregon State University

AREAS OF SPECIAL INTEREST:

Experiential Consumption (Sports and Entertainment)
Prosocial Consumer Behavior
Withholding Consumption
Structural Equation Modeling

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

Graduate Teaching and Research Fellow, Department of Marketing, Lundquist
College of Business, University of Oregon, Eugene, 2005-2010

Product Line Marketing Engineer, Sr., Intel Corporation, Hillsboro, Oregon,
2000-2005

Network Specialist, Corporate IT, Intel Corporation, Hillsboro, Oregon, 1994-
2000

GRANTS, AWARDS AND HONORS:

AMA Sheth Foundation Doctoral Consortium Fellow, Columbia, MO, 2008
Merle King Smith Marketing Scholars Award, 2005-2010
Calvin Reed Smith Research Grant, 2005

PUBLICATIONS:

- Gurel-Atay, E., Xie, G., Chen, J., & Kahle, L. R. (2010). Changes in social values in the United States, 1976-2007: "Self-respect" is on the upswing as "sense of belonging" becomes less important. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 50(1), 57-67.
- Madrigal, R., Chen, J., LaBarge, M., & Sagara, N. (2009). Consumers' Response to Advocacy Advertising: A Process Model of Consumer Skepticism, Empathic Response, and Prosocial Behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 36, 731-732.
- Madrigal, R., & Chen, J. (2008). Moderating and mediating effects of team identification in regard to causal attributions and summary judgments following a game outcome. *Journal of Sport Management*, 22(6), 717-733.
- Chen, J., & Madrigal, R. (2008). A Bibliographic Survey of Experiential Consumption Research. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 35, 976-977.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my committee members—Bob Madrigal, Dave Boush, Lynn Kahle, and Robert Mauro—for sharing with me their time, experience, and insight to help steer my dissertation in the right direction. Their kindness and encouragement made this dissertation a fantastic experience. I owe a special debt of gratitude to my advisor, chair, and mentor, Bob Madrigal, for shepherding me through the doctoral process from day one. He has been a role model for me since I first met him in the MBA sports marketing program.

I would like to thank my fellow doctoral cohorts Ian Parkman, Courtney Boerstler, and Namika Sagara for a phenomenal shared doctoral experience. I would also like to thank my fellow co-authors Monica LaBarge, Eda Gurel Atay, and Guang-Xin Xie for the pleasure of collaborating on some very impactful research. These fellow travelers help defined a period of my life full of happiness and purpose.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	8
Consumer Boycotts	8
Consumer Boycott Models	11
Emotions and Boycott Intention	17
Hypothesized Model	24
Alternative Models.....	26
Counter-Messaging Tactics	28
III. METHODOLOGY	31
Overview.....	31
Key Model Variables	32
Individual Difference Variables.....	36
Model Testing and Alternative Models	38
Study 1: Exploratory Online Study of Active Boycotters	41
Study 2: Conceptual Model Testing	43
Study 3: The Effect of Counter-Messaging on Boycott Intention	46
IV. RESULTS	48
Study 1	48
Study 2	60
Study 3	76
V. DISCUSSION	97
Perceived Moral Violation.....	100
Moral Emotions	103
An Affect-Driven Model.....	104
Limitations and Future Research	107
Postscript.....	110

Chapter	Page
APPENDICES	111
A. SUMMARY OF PRIOR BOYCOTT RESEARCH	111
B. STUDY 1 SURVEY INSTRUMENT	113
C. STUDY 2 SURVEY INSTRUMENT & STIMULI	123
D. STUDY 3 SURVEY INSTRUMENT, PRO-BOYCOTT MESSAGE, AND COUNTER-MESSAGES.....	139
E. MEDIATION WITH CONTINUOUS MEDIATOR AND DICHOTOMOUS OUTCOME (SPSS CODE).....	158
F. STUDY 2 ML AND BAYESIAN PARAMETER ESTIMATES.....	161
G. STUDY 3 ML PARAMETER ESTIMATES	164
 BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	 167

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. A two-process consumer boycott model.....	25
2. Hypothesized model.....	27
3. Affect-driven model.....	27
4. Reasoning-driven model.	28
5. Alternative models.	39
6. Source of boycott recruitment.....	51
7. Likelihood of ending boycott if target concedes to demands.	52
8. Boycott intention mediates perceived moral violation.	68
9. Path diagram for hypothesized process model and estimated path coefficients.	70
10. Path diagram for individual process components (Study 2).	75
11. Profile of manipulation check indices for counter-message tactics.....	86
12. Effect of counter-messages on boycott intention (BI) and perceived moral violation (PMV).....	88
13. Path analysis of hypothesized process model using Study 3 data.	89
14. Structural configuration of alternative models (Study 3)	92
15. Path analysis of individual emotional and cost-benefit factors (Study 3).	95
16. Best fitting alternative model (Model 5).....	105

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Perceived Moral Violation Measure	32
2. Boycott Intention Measure.....	33
3. Moral Emotions Measure.....	33
4. Cost-Benefit Factors	35
5. Humanitarian-Egalitarian Scale	37
6. Product Category Stimuli Presented to Participants	44
7. Sample Characteristics (Study 1-3)	49
8. Individual Differences (Study 1)	50
9. Boycott Targets and Motivations.....	54
10. Differences in Key Measures for Instrumental vs. Symbolic Boycotts.....	57
11. Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix (Study 2).....	63
12. Means Comparisons for Non-Boycotters and Boycotters (BOYCOTT).....	64
13. Logistic Regression for Perceived Moral Violation and Boycott Intent as Predictors of Boycott Behavior.....	66
14. Fit Statistics for Boycott Behavior Models.....	66
15. Observed and Predicted Frequencies of Boycott Behavior (BOYCOTT).....	67
16. Decomposition of Indirect Effects from Path Analysis (Study 2)	72
17. Alternative Models Fit Statistics (Study 2).....	73
18. Descriptive Statistics (Study 3).....	80
19. Experimental Conditions and Counter-Message Tactics.....	82

Table	Page
20. Summary of Manipulation Check Indices, Items, and Corresponding Tactics	84
21. Means for Counter-Message Manipulation Indices (CM1-4).....	85
22. Summary of Planned Contrasts for Boycott Intention (BI)	87
23. Decomposition of Indirect Effects from Path Analysis (Study 3)	90
24. Alternative Models Fit Statistics (Study 3).....	93

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Emotions and Consumer Boycotts

Consumer boycotts represent a threat to consumer brands. Activist groups can organize and execute effective boycotts with remarkable ease against large multinational brands using the Internet and mass media (Sen, Gurhan-Canli, & Morwitz, 2001; N. C. Smith, 2005). John and Klein (2003) proposed that boycotts in the United States have increased about fourfold from the mid-1980s to the mid-1990s. Klein et al. (2004) estimated that 42% of leading companies and 52% of major brands were facing consumer boycotts of one form or another. Companies worry about boycotts because one third of boycotted firms have conceded to boycott demands (Klein, et al., 2004). A boycott threatens not only a firm's sales and stock prices (Miller & Sturdivant, 1977; Pruitt & Friedman, 1986; Pruitt, Wei, & White, 1988), it also damages brand equity and requires firms to divert managerial and financial resources for public relations and damage control (Kozinets & Handelman, 1998). Worse, the damage to the brand lingers beyond the direct effects of the boycott because both boycotters and non-boycotters are likely to devalue their perception of the brand (Klein, et al., 2004).

Boycotts are collective social actions that use the marketplace to apply social, economic, and political pressures against an offending party. Consumers participate in boycotts against a person, a firm, an industry, or even a nation to remedy a personal or

social injustice. Historically, boycotts have been powerful tools for unions and political activists. Famous examples of historical boycotts include the American tea boycott of 1773 (which led to the Boston “Tea Party”), Gandhi’s British textiles boycott, and the Montgomery bus boycott. However, the Internet and mass media have dramatically changed the nature of modern consumer boycotts (Friedman, 1999; N. C. Smith, 1990).

Unlike historical boycotts, modern boycotts are increasingly symbolic, prosocial, and emotional. In addition, they rely on voluntary participation by initially disinterested consumers (Friedman, 1999). Symbolic boycotts highlight social injustices and utilize moral pressure in addition to economic or political pressure to force the offending party to take corrective action. The most common type of symbolic boycott is a media-oriented boycott that supports a prosocial or altruistic cause. The goal of these boycotts is to help underrepresented victims or the environment. Symbolic boycotts are very different from union-sponsored boycotts, which primarily benefit those who initiated and participated in the boycott. By contrast, symbolic boycotts are designed to benefit others. Some examples of symbolic boycotts include the Stop Killer Coke campaign, Global Exchange’s slave chocolate boycott, and PETA’s fur boycott. The act of withholding consumption in this context is a conspicuous prosocial action similar to charitable giving or volunteering. Consumers become emotionally involved in the welfare of others through boycotting. Thus, boycotting is often a deeply emotional and personal experience.

Three perspectives on individual consumer decisions to participate in boycotts exist in the marketing literature: purchase votes (Dickinson & Hollander, 1991),

collective social actions (John & Klein, 2003; Klein, et al., 2004; Sen, et al., 2001), and individual emotive (Kozinets & Handelman, 1998). The purchase vote perspective suggests that consumers aggregate their “purchase” votes to reward firms that maximize societal interests. This form of collective action is consistent with ethical consumption (Cooper-Martin & Holbrook, 1993). The vote analogy is predicated on a self-correcting free market system where firms that do not maximize societal interests will be punished. This view addresses the ethical dimension of boycott participation but is fundamentally economic in nature.

Collective action suggests that consumers make an economic assessment of personal cost and benefit to decide whether to participate in a boycott. So long as benefits outweigh costs, it is beneficial to act collectively toward boycott goals. This stream of research views boycotting as a form of prosocial behavior. The final perspective considers boycotting as an individual emotive expression. The only research that has directly addressed the fundamental issue of moral violation and the expression of emotions is a netnography by Kozinets and Handelman (1998). Two emergent themes challenged the previous views that boycotting is a collective social action. Kozinets and Handelman found boycotting was a “morally transforming behavior” and “a personal, rather than communal, act” (p. 477). Little empirical research has followed up on the emotional view of individual motivation to participate in consumer boycotts. This is surprising considering the most successful boycotts tend to be “cognitively simple and emotionally appealing” (Friedman, 1999, p. 198).

The different boycott models need not be mutually exclusive. Like other consumer decisions, it is likely that a combination of moral, emotional, and economic factors motivate consumers to participate in boycotts. The collective social economic models and the emotional and morally transformative models may be integrated because a moral violation or transgression is usually at the heart of a consumer boycott. Sen et al. (2001) and Klein et. al (2004) empirically established that moral transgressions as a result of a company's egregious actions are antecedent to cost-benefit evaluations and boycott intention. Klein et al. (2004) defined this transgression as "the belief that a firm has engaged in conduct that is strikingly wrong and that has negative and possibly harmful consequences for various parties (e.g., workers, consumers, society at large)" (p. 96). This definition coincides with the definition of perceived moral violation, a cognitive appraisal also known as legitimacy, norm/self concept comparability, and normative and moral comparability (Johnson & Stewart, 2004; Lazarus, 2001; Mauro, Sato, & Tucker, 1992; Roseman & Smith, 2001; Scherer, 1997; C. A. Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; C. A. Smith & Lazarus, 1993). Perceived moral violations elicit moral emotions, which in turn lead to the formation of coping intentions and responses (Haidt, 2003). Boycott behavior may be conceptualized as one such consumer coping behavior (Duhachek, 2005) because it is motivated by consumers' appraisal of perceived moral violation and emotional reactions in response to an act perpetrated by a company or brand. Thus, a consumer's perception of moral violation is related to two complementary processes that may result in the same behavior.

Research Objectives

The current research attempts to advance three main ideas in consumer boycott research. First, the increased popularity of symbolic boycotts requires a reevaluation of current definitions of boycott participation because the traditional economic definition of withholding purchase does not fully represent the range of actions used by boycott participants. Consumers are likely to participate in boycotts through a mix of actions that includes private discussion of dissatisfaction, consideration and intentions to boycott, actual withholding purchase and consumption, brand switching, public discussion of dissatisfaction, and activism (boycott promotion and recruitment). Questions that identify specific boycott actions should replace ambiguous statements such as “*how likely are you to boycott*” that are often used in research. The current research conceptualizes a broader view of consumer boycott intention that is applicable to a greater variety of boycotts.

Second, John and Klein (2003) framed non-rational factors in boycott (for example, emotions) in purely economic terms, but there may be insights gained by examining emotional and cost-benefit processes separately. Emotional expression and rational cost-benefit factors are complementary mechanisms in a wide variety of psychological processes, and each is likely to contribute to a consumer’s willingness to participate in a boycott. Thus, a two-process model that encompasses emotional and cost-benefit factors may be a better model for describing consumer boycott participation.

Third, boycott intention is conceptualized here to be a form of emotional coping that is triggered by a moral evaluation of an unfair or unjust situation that affects someone else. Prior literature has linked the moral emotions of outrage and guilt to

boycotts (see Appendix A). Applying Haidt's (2001, 2003) moral emotion framework to boycott situations may identify additional moral emotions that are relevant to boycotting. Further, the investigation of moral emotions provides new avenues for consumer research in the domains of ethical consumption and corporate social responsibility.

Three studies are presented to test a two-process model for consumer boycott participation. First, an exploratory survey was used to assess how perceived moral violations, emotions, and cost-benefit factors are represented in real world boycotts. Second, participants are asked to attend to their emotions or cost-benefit evaluation of several boycott scenarios in an experiment in order to examine the structure of a proposed conceptual model. In the final study, the marketing application of the conceptual model was assessed. A consumer panel was employed to test the effectiveness of a variety of counter-messages on reducing boycott intention.

Organization of Dissertation

Chapter II describes existing consumer boycott models and discusses research related to the appraisal theory of emotion and the moral emotion framework. The chapter concludes by proposing a two-process model that extends current economic models by incorporating a complementary emotional process.

Chapter III describes the research design and execution of three studies, and provides a summary of key independent and dependent variables. Study 1 provided a descriptive profile of real world boycott participants based on key dependent variables that will be used in later studies. Study 2 examined the relationship between perceived

moral violations, boycott intention, and boycott behavior in an experiment. Study 3 examined the efficacy of counter-messages proposed by Klein et al. (2004) on real consumers. In addition, the experimental manipulations in Study 2 and Study 3 provided the needed variance in the data to model and test the proposed two-process model and alternative models using path analysis.

In Chapter IV, the results of each study as well as path analyses are presented. Chapter V concludes with a summary of key findings, theoretical and practical implications, limitations, and potential future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Consumer Boycotts

A consumer boycott is the purposeful withholding of consumption of a specific product, a category of products, or a brand to exert influence on an offending firm (Friedman, 1999; Sen et al., 2001; N. C. Smith, 1990). Boycotts are thought to be triggered when a consumer perceives a company's or industry's actions or practices as violating moral norms. In retaliation, consumers apply economic and social pressure on the offending business *en masse*. Collective action increases buyer power directed against a firm, an industry, or even a nation (John & Klein, 2003). Boycott success is declared if the boycott leads to a cessation or remedy of the egregious act or practice (N. C. Smith, 1990).

Boycotts can be either *instrumental* or *symbolic*. A marketplace-oriented boycott is primarily instrumental because it applies socioeconomic-political pressures and is typically instigated by members of the affected party. By contrast, symbolic boycotts differ from instrumental boycotts in three ways. First, a symbolic boycott is a moral expression of consumer disapproval and disassociation (N. C. Smith, 1990). Symbolic boycotts seek compliance through moral as well as socioeconomic-political pressure. They have historically been used as a weapon by the weak and are designed to promote

social justice, and to protect the rights of the powerless and disenfranchised segments of society (N. C. Smith, 1990). Second, symbolic boycotts have been hypothesized to reflect individual expressions of moral outrage (John & Klein, 2003). Symbolic boycotts principally serve to provide an avenue for the protesting organization and boycott participants to vent frustration, often with broad unspecified goals (Friedman, 1999). Finally, the primary emphasis of a symbolic boycott is to damage the target brand, its image, or corporate morale. Modern symbolic boycotts call attention to specific corporate practices instead of promoting specific sociopolitical goals.

However, as labor and consumer price boycotts recede into the past, boycotts have more recently focused less on economic necessities and more on prosocial or ethical concerns. The shift from instrumental to symbolic and from marketplace to media has had a profound effect on consumers' brand perceptions and their beliefs about what boycotts can accomplish (Friedman, 1999). Yet, in spite of this shift, most consumer research has focused on instrumental boycotts that seek sociopolitical or price changes (Friedman, 1991, 1999). Friedman (1991) suggested the need to turn attention to studying symbolic boycotts, as they have grown in prominence and popularity.

Symbolic boycotts are most often implemented through the media. Rather than drive short-term economic impact in the marketplace, the media is enlisted to damage brands, shift consumer sentiments, and distract corporate attention. However, it is possible for a symbolic boycott to affect an offending company's bottom line as a result of the long-term damage to the company's brand (N. C. Smith, 1990). Thus, activists favor using media-oriented boycotts against highly visible brands. Market leaders are

more vulnerable because they have more brand equity at stake (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001).

Most activist groups calling for consumer boycotts commit few, if any, resources to their execution in the marketplace. Instead, activist groups are increasingly adroit in implementing pro-boycott messaging through cost-effective media such as the Internet, press releases, and staged events (John & Klein, 2003). Media messages are designed to generate strong emotions that will motivate consumers to join the boycott. In most executions, people are asked to make a personal sacrifice by withholding consumption of a preferred brand as the morally correct thing to do. In response, modern companies are equally adept at managing public relations through counter-messaging. For example, Nike's public relations team grew by 70 members after Workers Rights Coalitions allegation of worker abuses and poor working conditions in its plants abroad and threatened to boycott (Beder, 2002). Not only did the company issue public release statements, but they also initiated a public relations campaign of its own to improve the perception of the company's actions in consumers' eyes.

Boycott actions represent a spectrum of related behaviors (Friedman, 1999; N. C. Smith, 1990). In previous consumer research, a boycott is often associated only with withholding purchase or is ambiguously defined (e.g., Klein et al., 2004; Sen et al., 2001). In reality, protest, complaint, word of mouth, and activism are actions equally crucial to boycott success. Differentiating between these actions is important in boycott research because each action requires a different level of commitment from consumers. Six distinct consumer boycott actions with escalating militancy are as follows:

1. Consumer discusses dissatisfaction in private.
2. Consumer considers and has intent to withhold patronage.
3. Consumer actually withholds patronage.
4. Consumer seeks out and buys competitors' products.
5. Consumer publicizes dissatisfaction with the target.
6. Consumer publicizes the boycott itself and persuades others to join.

Boycott behavior is different from exit and brand switching (A. O. Hirschman, 1970).

Consumers are buying from a competing brand to exert economic pressure and social censure. The decision to switch is deliberate and purposeful. Often, the consumer would resume patronage of the offending brand if the initial offense were remedied. A positive, or whitelist, boycott (also known as a *buycott*) is based on directing consumers to purchase a brand other than the target brand, therefore indirectly boycotting the offending brand.

Rather than viewing boycotting as a monolithic construct, modern boycotts are more complex because their objectives are symbolic rather than economic. Thus, the measurement and description of boycott behaviors need to be more than simply withholding purchase in order to fully capture the scope and range of modern boycott behaviors.

Consumer Boycott Models

Three different views have been presented in research on consumers' decision to participate in boycotts. First, consumers use purchase votes to favor firms with a

preferred societal impact (i.e., Dickinson & Hollander, 1991; Klein et al., 2004; Sen et al., 2001). Second, boycotts are collective social actions based on consumers' cost-benefit evaluations (i.e., Innes, 2006; John & Klein, 2003; Klein, et al., 2004; Sen, et al., 2001). Third, boycotts are individual emotive expressions (Kozinet & Handelman, 1998). All three views support the notion that morality plays a central role in a person's desire to participate in a boycott. The collective action and individual expression views also imply that there is an affective link between the perceived moral violation arising from the egregious act by a company and subsequent boycott intention. Yet, to date, little research has examined the nature of this affective link.

Purchase Votes

The *purchase vote* perspective suggests that consumers aggregate their "purchase" behavior to reward firms that maximize societal interests (Dickinson & Hollander, 1991; N. C. Smith, 1990). This view hints at the morality of boycott participation but uses an economic model to do so. The vote analogy is predicated on a self-correcting free market system where firms failing to maximize societal interests will be punished. This definition is problematic because it requires a vote be cast for one firm over another; yet, a third option to cast no vote for either firm is also available. When consumers simply abstain, it is unclear how this action will lead to the cessation of a specific firm's egregious behavior. Companies cannot be certain if a drop in sales is in response to an egregious act or other factors. Without specific ties between sales and unethical action, a company simply would not be aware that it has committed an

egregious act, or may interpret its actions as being ethical in the absence of specific protest or consumer response.

Although the vote analogy is more vivid, it does not adequately capture the essence of withholding purchase and consumption in the boycott context. The purchase votes analogy is more consistent with an active ethical consumption experience. Cooper-Martin and Holbrook (1993) differentiated between active and passive ethical consumption experiences. Purchase votes are akin to active ethical consumption experiences requiring the consumer's overt participation. Withholding consumption is a passive consumption experience that is a reactive response of pursuing good by *not* buying harmful items (Cooper-Martin & Holbrook, 1993). Purchase voting is more consistent with buycotts than with boycotts, and should potentially be treated as a separate set of behaviors.

Cost-Benefit Models

The collective action research views boycott participation as a consequence of deliberative and rational assessments of personal costs and benefits. So long as benefits outweigh costs, it is beneficial for consumers to act collectively toward boycott goals. Sen et al. (2001) conceptualized boycott participation using social dilemma theory. In a social dilemma, the interests of the individual are at odds with the interests of the group. Consumers must choose between maximizing either selfish or collective interests. In this model, three factors determine a consumer's decision to participate in a boycott: (a) the perceived likelihood that a boycott will be successful; (b) the perceived compliance and

participation of others; and (c) the associated boycott cost to the individual consumer weighed against the benefit to a group. Sen et al. (2001) concluded that people's uncertainty about boycott success was a key barrier to participation. Specifically, perceived success likelihood was found to mediate the direct effects of perceived efficacy, expectation of overall participation, and pro-boycott message frame on boycott likelihood.

Klein et al. (2004) extended Sen et al.'s (2001) model by conceptualizing social boycotts as a helping behavior. The authors proposed four cost-benefit factors that predict boycott participation: (a) making a difference, (b) self-enhancement, (c) counterarguments, and (d) constrained consumption. These factors incorporate Sen et al.'s factors. For example, Klein et al.'s factor for making a difference is consistent with Sen et al.'s perceived likelihood of success. The self-enhancement factor included elements of social normative influence (i.e., pressure of family/friends, uncomfortable if seen by others). Counterarguments and constrained consumption are consistent with social dilemma tensions outlined in Sen et al.'s model. Klein et al.'s unique contribution to the cost-benefit model was the inclusion of the self-enhancement factor, which combined the need to avoid guilt and the need to feel better. Klein et al. found that self-enhancement was positively related to perceived egregiousness and individual boycott participation. Participants were more likely to boycott if they believed they could make a difference and if they felt better about themselves by taking action. In addition, participants were less likely to boycott if strong counterarguments were made against

participation and if the constrained consumption costs were greater than the perceived benefit of boycotting.

Klein et al.'s (2004) Awareness-Egregiousness-Boycott (AEB) model was notable because the authors called attention to three important ideas. First, perceived egregiousness was the starting point for boycott consideration. Klein et al. defined egregiousness as a "belief that the firm has engaged in conduct that is strikingly wrong and has negative and possibly harmful consequences for various parties (e.g., works, consumers, society at large)" (p. 96). This definition is consistent with a moral or ethical violation (Haidt, 2003).

Second, Klein et al. noted that "consumers encounter an initial trigger event that engenders negative arousal" (p. 93). This suggests that the deliberative cost-benefit analysis associated with boycotting is the result of an affective trigger. Sen et al. (2001) also suggested that future research needs to examine if positive and negative affect moderates the decision to participate in boycotts.

Finally, Montada and Schneider (1989) found that prosocial action was often an emotional response to a social injustice. Despite framing boycotts as a form of prosocial behavior, emotions associated with prosocial behavior in prior research, such as anger (e.g., Bagozzi & Moore, 1994), guilt (e.g., Basil et al., 2006), empathy, and sympathy (e.g., Batson, 1998; Eisenberg, et al., 1989) have not been prominently featured in research on boycotting.

Individual Expression

The personal commitment to social justice and prosocial causes associated with symbolic boycotts suggests that emotions may play an important role in many boycott decisions. Kozinets and Handelman's (1988) online exploratory study suggested that the act of boycotting was a "complex emotional expression of individuality" (p. 475). The ethnography yielded two emergent themes that challenge the collective social action and purchase vote perspectives of boycott participation. First, boycotters consider their participation to be a personal rather than communal act. Boycott participation was valued for its ability to convey the boycotter's uniqueness and lack of conformity. Thus, the expression of an extended-self was achieved not only by what was purchased and consumed, but also by what was *not* consumed (Belk, 1988).

The second emergent theme viewed boycott participation as a morally transformative behavior. Boycott participation allows the participant to be differentiated from the mainstream and to stand above them morally. Both themes suggest that strong individual emotional responses are antecedent to a consumer's decision to withhold consumption. To date, no research has tested for this possibility.

Klein et al.'s (2004) AEB model provides the basic framework for consumer boycott behavior, but it does not fully acknowledge the crucial role that emotional expression plays in motivating consumer boycotts. Beyond economic reasons, consumers also express themselves emotionally in the marketplace (O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2003). Thus, it is possible that a consumer boycott model that includes ethics, cost-benefit evaluations, and emotional expressions as key contributors to boycott

intention may be more generalizable across a range of boycott situations than models that simply include economic factors.

Emotions and Boycott Intention

Emotions are responses to perceived changes, threats, or opportunities in the environment that guide behavior (Ekman, 1999; Frijda, 1988). In consumer research, emotions are thought to influence information processing, motivate or inhibit action, and contribute to experience or satisfaction (e.g., Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; E. C. Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Although considerable research has accumulated since Holbrook and Hirschman's (1982) call to examine the central role emotion plays in consumption, recent emphasis on cognitive appraisal theory is looking at the role emotion plays in consumer decisions in a more detailed and process-driven way. Emotions and the actions they elicit are linked as consumer coping responses (Duhachek, 2005; Duhachek & Iacobucci, 2005; Duhachek & Oakley, 2007). More importantly, the flexibility of the cognitive appraisal theory as a general theory of emotions provides a potential framework to link perceptions of moral violations, emotions, and boycott intention.

The process of cognitive appraisal encompasses three stages (Johnson & Stewart, 2004; Lazarus, 1991): (a) situational awareness, (b) appraisals and emotions, and (c) coping process. When confronted with a situation or event (i.e., boycott), a consumer evaluates (appraises) the event subjectively based on personal knowledge, goals, and idiosyncrasies. The consequences of these appraisals are discrete emotions (Lazarus, 2001; Roseman & Smith, 2001). Finally, behavioral tendencies associated with specific

emotions help a person to adapt to the situation or event. These tendencies may result in overt behaviors, given sufficient opportunity and capability. This last stage is known as the coping process. Boycott behaviors are proposed to be a mechanism for coping with emotions involved in the boycott situation. A description of each stage follows.

Situational Awareness

The antecedent to appraisal may be described as situational awareness, and may be thought of as the interaction between the environment or situation and individual knowledge, goals, and idiosyncrasies (Johnson & Stewart, 2004). This may explain why different people feel different emotions given the same situation. Two moderators thought to affect a consumer's situation awareness in the case of boycott decision making are humanitarian-egalitarian orientation and negative attitudes toward big companies.

In social justice research, Katz and Hass (1988) described "adherence to the democratic ideals of equality, social justice, and concern for the others' well-being" (p. 894) as the humanitarianism-egalitarianism (HE) orientation. This orientation varies from person to person and inherently colors a person's perception of what is fair and just. In studies related to racial equality issues, Katz and Hass suggested that an HE outlook created the commitment to justice and sympathy for the underdog. When confronted with a company's egregious act that harms those unable to protect themselves, people who hold a strong HE outlook should be more sensitive to the moral violation.

The corporate social responsibility literature suggests another moderator likely to affect situational awareness is a consumer's attitude toward big business (Webster, 1975).

Because boycotts typically target large multinational corporations, participants with negative attitudes toward big business may be more likely to perceive moral transgressions in the actions of big business and be more suspicious of big business communications in boycott situations. Therefore, people with negative perceptions of big business may be more likely to take actions against them.

Appraisal and Discrete Emotions

Cognitive appraisals are direct antecedents to discrete emotions (Madrigan, 2008; Roseman & Smith, 2001; Scherer, 1997, 2001). Emotions are differentiated by patterns of appraisals along a common set of dimensions. Although past research does not conclusively agree on the specific number and labels of appraisal dimensions, five dimensions appear consistent in the literature (Johnson & Stewart, 2004; MacInnis & de Mello, 2005; Mauro, et al., 1992; C. A. Smith & Ellsworth, 1985): (a) relevance, (b) goal congruence, (c) moral or normative comparability, (d) agency, and (e) future expectancy.

Relevance is the degree of importance a particular situation has for a person. The greater the relevance, the more likely a situation will elicit an emotional response. *Goal congruence* is the evaluation of a positive or negative outcome for a situation. Goal congruence typically determines the valence and intensity of an emotion (positive or negative). *Moral comparability* incorporates evaluations of fairness, justice, legitimacy, and social standards. The appraisal of moral comparability is especially important in differentiating moral emotions where the welfare of others is at stake (Johnson & Stewart, 2004). *Agency* incorporates the concepts of accountability and responsibility.

Specifically, blame or credit is given to the perceived cause of a given event or situation. *Future expectancy* is an assessment of how things will turn out, including effective and ineffective coping (Lazarus, 1991). In addition, future expectancy is related to certainty (Johnson & Stewart, 2005; MacInnis & de Mello, 2005) and controllability (Lazarus, 1991).

The appraisal of moral comparability deserves special attention in the boycott context. At the heart of a consumer boycott is the perception of a moral violation or transgression committed by the company. This is especially true for symbolic boycotts that seek compliance through moral pressure. Without a strong sense of moral violation or transgression, insufficient moral anger or guilt exists to provide the “heat” needed to trigger an intention to boycott. The individual moral emotions require an additional explanation because they provide clues to how some emotions may be expressed through certain boycott behaviors.

Moral emotions. Moral emotions are a subset of general emotions that are linked to the prosocial interest or welfare of society as a whole, a group, or a third party (Haidt, 2003). Often, moral emotions provide the “motivational force” to do good and avoid doing bad (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). In boycotts that seek to redress social ills or to help others, moral emotions are a guiding mechanism in altruistic and helping behaviors. It follows then that moral emotions will be antecedent to an intention to participate in a boycott.

Moral emotions can be differentiated into two groups based on the appraisal of agency: other-condemning and self-conscious. The other-condemning family includes

anger, contempt, and disgust. The self-conscious group includes guilt, shame, and embarrassment. Of these, anger and guilt represent the most prototypical moral emotions leading to greater prosocial action tendency in the support of another (Haidt, 2003). Anger is a function of other-blame with the attributes of being motivationally relevant but incongruent and predicated on the accountability of a third party (C. A. Smith, Haynes, Pope, & Lazarus, 1993). Guilt is a function of self-blame with the attributes of being motivationally relevant but incongruent and predicated on self-accountability (C. A. Smith, et al., 1993). A description of each follows.

Anger in this context may be better described as *moral anger* or *moral outrage* as a result of a violation of fairness and justice. Anger motivates direct retaliation against the party responsible for the perceived egregious act, even if a person has no ties to the victimized group (Haidt, 2003). The need for revenge, humiliation, attack, and punishment are examples of retaliatory tendencies arising from righteous anger. Oppression, exploitation, and racism are well-known examples of situations where righteous anger is expressed. Thus, anger should be a predictor of the intention to boycott (Friedman, 1999; Klein et al., 2004; N. C. Smith, 1990).

Guilt in the context of boycotting refers to an awareness of one's own actions that violate moral rules that cause harm and suffering to others (Haidt, 2003; Hoffman, 1987). As such, it may be better described as moral guilt. Moral guilt is the only self-conscious moral emotion that motivates helping behavior (Haidt, 2003). Tangney et al. (2007) suggested that moral guilt facilitates empathic processes and encourages the use of constructive strategies for coping with anger and reducing aggressive behaviors. Guilt-

related action tendencies favor avoidance, withdrawal, or reparation rather than attack or punishment.

An emotion closely related to guilt is regret. Whereas guilt refers to harming another, regret is self-blame for harming oneself. It is possible that guilt and regret are confounded in boycott situations where consumption of a product by a company that has committed an egregious act against others can be perceived as not only harmful for others but also harmful to one's self-esteem or beliefs, especially in the context of modern consumers who believe their consumption is sustainable or ethical. Because both guilt and regret are negative emotions with very similar coping outcomes (Passyn & Sujan, 2006), it may be useful to examine guilt and regret together in the boycott situation.

Coping Responses

Coping is the final stage of the appraisal process. Boycott behaviors are considered a form of coping in the current research. According to Lazarus (1991), "Coping is the psychological analogue of action tendencies" (p. 830). Coping occurs in response to emotional stress because of situational or environmental change. Consumers employ coping strategies to deal with emotionally stressful consumption situations. Duhachek (2005, 2007) and Duhachek & Iacobucci's (2005) meta-analysis of the coping literature resulted in three categories of consumer coping strategies: (a) active coping, (b) expressive support-seeking, and (c) avoidance.

When consumers utilize *active coping*, they take action both cognitively and behaviorally, including "engaging in rational thinking" (Duhachek, 2005). Boycott

behaviors consistent with active coping include seeking out substitutes, speaking out, activism (consumers publicize the boycott and recruit peers to join the boycott), and public displays of dissatisfaction. In this case, withholding purchase is an active coping mechanism where the intention is to punish. *Expressive support-seeking* engages social resources and emotional venting. This includes both public and private discussions. *Avoidance* coping seeks ways to avoid the stressor. Moral guilt may be expressed as a form of avoidance coping. Boycott participants are likely to discuss privately, reflect on the issues, and withhold consumption to avoid feeling guilt or as a way to begin making reparation.

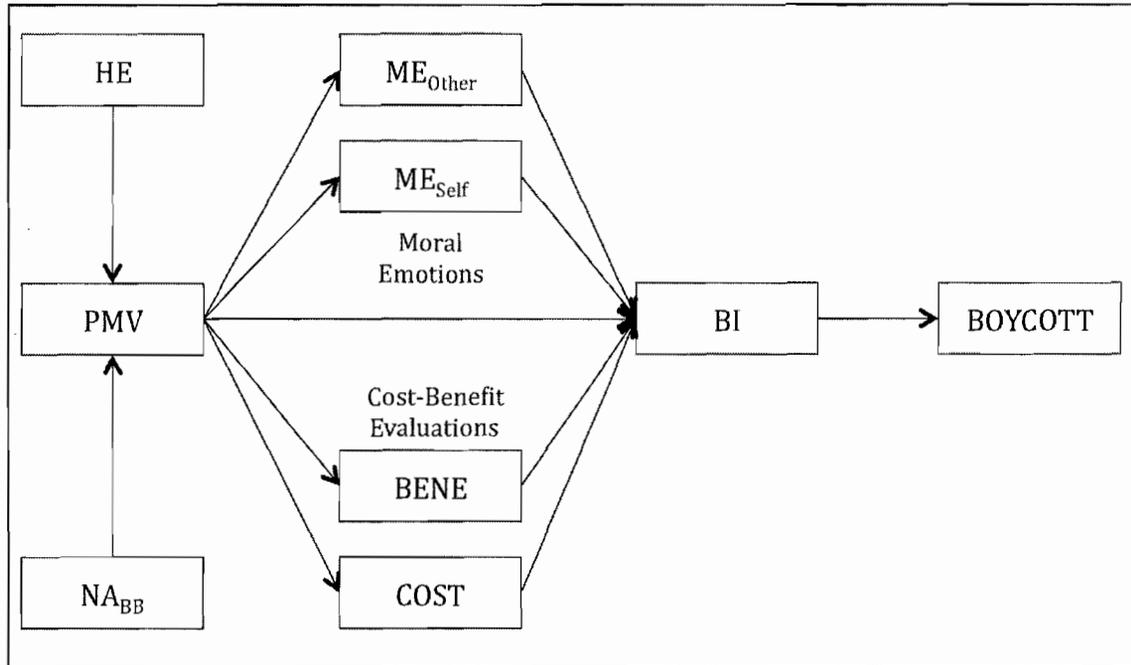
In summary, the cognitive appraisal process suggests that consumer interpretation of a boycott situation elicits an emotional response. These emotions can engender a variety of behavioral intentions. The stronger the emotions, the more likely will be the consumer's need to express or cope with the emotion. Thus, emotions provide a viable process linking perceived moral violations to subsequent boycott intention.

Emotions and emotional processes are natural extensions of cost-benefit models like the Klein et al.'s (2004) AEB model. In prior research, moral outrage (Friedman, 1985, 1991, 1996, 1999; N. C. Smith, 1990) and guilt (Klein et al., 2004; Kozinets & Handelman, 1998; N. C. Smith, 2005) provided an unspecific and vague precondition to boycotting, while cost-benefit factors were identified as direct contributors to boycott intention. However, little research has investigated the direct contribution of emotions to boycott intention. In addition, emotions are important because they provide another way to reconcile moral judgments into the overall boycott model.

Hypothesized Model

Sen et al.'s (2001) and Klein et al.'s (2004) collective action models provide the foundation for the proposed two-process model tested in the current dissertation. Specifically, the perceived moral violation arising from a company's actions was positively related to consumer boycott intention by Klein et al. (2004), whereas Sen et al. (2001) demonstrated that boycott intention was positively related to boycott behaviors. The two-process model proposed here incorporates these effects, but also includes the intervening variables of moral emotions and cost-benefit processes between perceived moral violation and boycott intention. Consequently, the hypothetical model shown in Figure 1 proposes that intention to boycott is the result of both an emotional and a rational process. Specifically, an appraisal of moral violation elicits both other-condemning and self-conscious moral emotions (Haidt, 2003), and both types of moral emotions are predicted to increase intention to boycott.

When a consumer perceives that a company's actions have violated a moral norm, the consumer is expected to make a reasoned decision to dissociate from the company after a cost-benefit analysis (John & Klein, 2003; Klein, et al., 2004; Sen, et al., 2001). Perceived moral violation is proposed to be positively related to benefit and negatively related to cost. It is likely that consumers perceive greater benefit to boycott participation when they perceive a boycott situation as unjust as opposed to a situation where there is little social injustice. Similarly, unless the boycott situation is perceived as unfair or unjust, participating in an extended boycott of a preferred brand represents an unnecessary cost to the consumer.



Note: HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses; PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions; BOYCOTT = Boycott Behavior.

Figure 1. A two-process consumer boycott model.

Two distinct perceived benefits were identified in Klein et al.'s model.

Consumers will perceive greater benefit if they feel that they can make a difference and have a positive impact on the situation or influence the company in some way by boycotting. In addition, consumers will perceive greater benefit if they can enhance their own self-image through boycotting. The greater the perceived benefit, the more likely consumers will form pro-boycott intention.

Constrained consumption and counterarguments represent perceived costs to consumers in the cost-benefit models. Doing without a preferred brand or product introduces both psychological and utilitarian costs. Counterarguments suggest that

boycotting may actually do more harm (to others, to the self) than benefit. For example, participation in the chocolate boycott may actually drive down global cacao bean prices and force already poor cacao farmers to increase the use of slavery. Consistent with Klein et al. (2004), perceived costs and boycott intention are inversely related. Consumers are more likely to boycott when the perceived costs are low; conversely, consumers are less likely to boycott when perceive personal costs are high.

Figure 1 also features two individual difference measures that are thought to influence the perception of moral violation. A person with a higher humanitarian-egalitarian orientation is likely to be more sensitive to moral violations. Katz and Irwin (1988) suggested that people who hold strong humanitarian-egalitarian orientation are concerned with equality, social justice, and others' wellbeing. In a boycott context, people with strong humanitarian-egalitarian orientations are therefore likely to perceive greater moral violation when a company's actions harm workers, consumers, or others. Webster (1975) found that a negative attitude toward the power of big business was a characteristic of socially conscious consumers. Thus, people who have a negative attitude toward big businesses may also be more likely to judge a company's actions as being unfair and perceive greater moral violation when confronted with a boycott situation.

Alternative Models

The sequencing of variables shown in Figure 1 assumes a parallel configuration in which moral emotions and cost-benefit evaluations are each affected by perceived moral evaluation, and both predict boycott intention. This hierarchy is simplified in Figure 2.

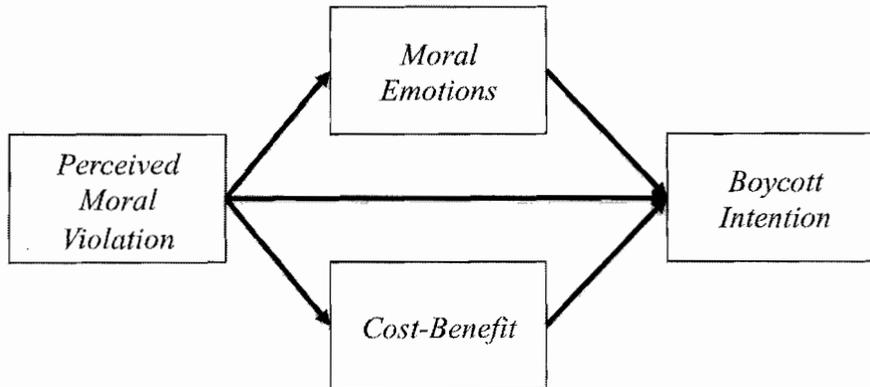


Figure 2. Hypothesized model.

However, it is also possible that alternative models exist that might better explain the data. For example, one alternative is that emotions lead to a greater elaboration of personal costs and benefits (see Figure 3). Kahneman's (2003) two-system model posits that the rapid affect characterized by System 1 processing precedes the more deliberative System 2 processing. Consistent with this perspective is Haidt's (2001, 2003) theory of moral intuition, which suggests that people's initial response to a situation is affective and these feelings are subsequently rationalized. Thus, the sequencing shown in Figure 3 suggests that the deliberation of costs and benefits may in itself be a form of emotional coping (Duhachek, 2005; Duhachek & Iacobucci, 2005).

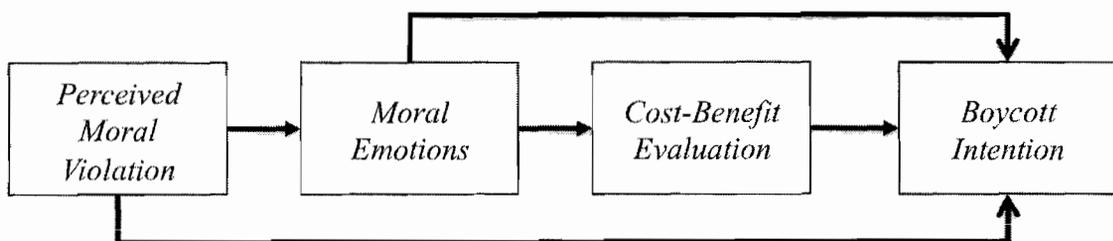


Figure 3. Affect-driven model.

In contrast, it is also possible that consumers engage in greater evaluation of the personal costs and benefits associated with a boycott when confronted with a perceived moral violation. These deliberations would in turn elicit an emotional response that would directly influence an intention to boycott. Such a sequence is shown in Figure 4.

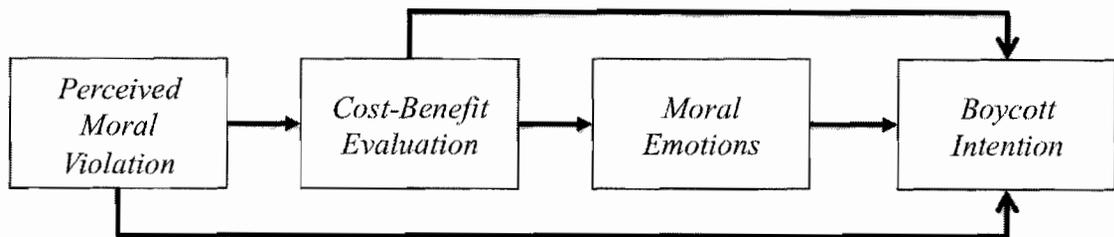


Figure 4. Reasoning-driven model.

The three models featured in Figures 1, 2, and 3 by no means exhaust all of the possibilities for alternative models presented by four variables. However, they do provide a set of competing conceptualizations. Consistent with the goal of this dissertation, comparing the performance of each of these models will provide a deeper understanding of how emotions and cost-benefit deliberations complement each other in consumer boycott situations.

Counter-Messaging Tactics

The most common response to a consumer boycott is for a company to issue a counter-message in the form of a press release. Klein et al. (2004) proposed that counter-messaging could be effective in reducing consumer boycott intentions. The authors recommended that firms can minimize consumer perceptions of moral violation by (a)

publicly acknowledging its action immediately, (b) providing a convincing explanation for the firm's practices, and (c) publicizing the firm's ameliorating actions. Further, Klein et al. prescribed three specific counter-messaging tactics to reduce the likelihood of boycott participation:

1. The firm should acknowledge that it has heard the consumer's concern, explain its actions, then stand firm on the decision to continue its course of action. The objective of this type of message is to reduce the perception that consumers can make a difference; thereby reducing the overall perceived benefit associated with any consumer action.
2. Firms should convey the negative repercussions of boycotting. This tactic provides counterarguments to consumers and seeks to minimize the ability for consumers to feel better about themselves as a result of participating in boycott activities. The objective of this tactic is to increase the perceived costs associated with a boycott and to reduce the perceived benefits of such an action.
3. Boycotted firms should continue to promote the positive aspects of their product in an effort to increase the perceived costs associated with a boycott.

The effectiveness of these counter-messages has not been empirically tested. The hypothesized model suggests that it is likely that counter-messaging that addresses the initial consumer perception of moral violation may be more effective than messaging that subsequently addresses individual costs and benefits. Perceived moral violation is a common antecedent to both emotional and deliberative processes. Reducing overall moral violation should also reduce the impact of moral emotions and cost-benefit factors

on boycott intention. Thus, corporate public relations should focus first and foremost on managing perceived moral violation in the media. Study 3 will test the effectiveness of the counter-messages based on Klein et al.'s (2004) recommendations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

Very little consumer boycott research has explicitly measured perceived moral violation and emotions in boycott situations. As a result, the majority of consumer boycott models have either omitted emotions entirely or addressed them obliquely. Thus, a goal of this dissertation was to identify and measure emotions that contribute to the formation of a boycott intention. The primary variables in the hypothesized model were perceived moral violation, moral emotions, cost-benefit factors, and boycott intention. Two individual difference variables were also measured across all studies: humanitarian-egalitarian orientation and negative attitude toward big businesses. Path analysis was the primary tool used to examine the hypothesized relationships between variables, to assess model fit, and to test alternative models. Data that included both emotions and cost-benefit factors were modeled simultaneously to demonstrate a parallel two-process model. Model variables and a description of the path analyses that were conducted are discussed in detail below.

Key Model Variables

The variables measured across all three studies were perceived moral violations, boycott intention, moral emotions, and cost-benefit factors. Each of these measures will now be described.

Appraisal of Perceived Moral Violation

Perceived moral violation was measured directly after respondents' exposure to the boycott stimuli using a scale created from Montada and Schneider's (1989) research on justice and emotional reactions to the disadvantaged and Mauro et al.'s (1992) items for legitimacy. Table 1 presents the four-item measure that uses a 7-point Likert scale to state disagreement and agreement (1 = *disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*).

Table 1. Perceived Moral Violation Measure

Variable		Items
Perceived Moral Violation (PMV)	1	This situation is <i>unfair</i> for those affected.
	2	I consider this issue a social <i>injustice</i> .
	3	I believe the company's actions are <i>egregious</i> .
	4	I regard the company's actions as <i>unethical</i> .

Boycott Intention

Boycott intention represents a spectrum of activities that reflect an escalating path of militancy (Friedman, 1999; N. C. Smith, 2005). Table 2 presents the measure for boycott intention. Each action indicator is a single-item scale using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *not likely*, 7 = *very likely*).

Table 2. Boycott Intention Measure

Variable	Items	
Boycott Intention (BI)	1	Discusses my dissatisfaction with regards to the company in private.
	2	Consider and think about withholding purchase of the company's products.
	3	Actually withhold purchasing the company's products.
	4	Seek out and purchase a competitor's products.
	5	Publicly discuss my dissatisfaction with the company.
	6	Publicly discuss boycott and attempt to persuade other people to join.

Moral Emotions

Table 3 presents a list of moral emotions (Haidt, 2001). Each of the emotions was measured using a single-item 7-point Likert scale. Participants were asked to rate the degree they felt an emotion in reaction to the boycott situation (1 = *did not feel at all*, 7 = *felt very strongly*). The measure for other-condemning moral emotion (ME_{Other}) used in the analysis was created by calculating the mean of three moral emotions: anger, contempt, and disgust. The self-conscious moral emotion (ME_{Self}) construct was calculated as the mean of guilt, regret, shame, and embarrassment.

Table 3. Moral Emotions Measure

Variable	Moral Emotions	
Other-condemning Moral Emotion (ME_{Other})	1	Anger
	2	Contempt
	3	Disgust
Self-Conscious Moral Emotion (ME_{Self})	1	Guilt
	2	Regret
	3	Shame
	4	Embarrassment

Consumer boycotts are closely associated with prosocial and helping behavior (Klein, et al., 2004; Sen, et al., 2001) and customer retaliation (Gregoire & Fisher, 2007). To build a more comprehensive list of emotions associated with consumer boycotts, related prosocial (hope, empathy, and sympathy) and retaliation (betrayal, trust, hatred, and suspicion) emotions were also measured. The presence of these emotions provides further evidence of the role emotions play in consumer boycott. Further, these emotions represent future research opportunities.

Cost-Benefit Factors

Cost-benefit factors represent deliberative assessments of perceived benefits and costs associated with boycotting. Klein et al.'s (2004) cost and benefit factors each had two dimensions. Sub-scales for counterarguments and constrained consumption represented perceived costs. Sub-scales for making a difference and self-enhancement represented perceived benefits. Klein et al.'s (2004) measures were used verbatim except for three items that were specific to the boycott context used in their study. The fourth counterargument item ("I don't boycott [company] because it is a [country] company and boycotting would lead me to buy foreign products") was replaced with a statement regarding non-productive negotiation with the company, another type of counterargument proposed by Friedman (1999). The constrained consumption items were adapted in each study to be product and brand specific to the boycott stimuli. Each subscale is a multiple-item construct rated on a 10-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 10 = *strongly agree*). Table 4 summarizes the scale items used in this dissertation. For purposes of the

analysis, the benefit factor (BENE) measure was created by calculating the mean of the items *make a difference* and *self-enhancement*. The cost factor (COST) measure was created by calculating the mean of *counterargument* and *constrained consumption*.

Table 4. Cost-Benefit Factors

Variables		Items	
Benefit (BENE)	Make a Difference (MD)	1	Boycotts are an effective means to make a company change its actions
		2	Everyone should take part in the boycott because every contribution, no matter how small, is important
		3	By boycotting, I can help change [company's] decision
	Self-enhancement (SE)	1	I would feel guilty if I bought [company's] products
		2	I would feel uncomfortable if other people who are boycotting saw me purchasing or consuming [company] products
		3	My friends/family are encouraging me to boycott [company]
		4	I will feel better about myself if I boycott [company]
Cost (COST)	Counterarguments (CA)	1	I do not need to boycott [company]; enough other people are doing so.
		2	I do not buy enough [company] products for it to be worthwhile boycotting; it would not even be noticed.
		3	Boycotting may put this company's workers in danger or cause unforeseen harm to those who are not responsible for the situation.
		4	Boycotting may be counterproductive to negotiating an agreeable compromise with this company.
	Constrained Consumption (CC)	1	It would be difficult for me to give up [product]
		2	It would be difficult for me to give up [product] from [company]

Individual Difference Variables

Two individual difference variables are expected to have a significant relationship with perceived moral violation in the hypothesized model: humanitarian-egalitarian orientation (HE) and negative attitude towards big businesses (NA_{BB}). Humanitarian-egalitarian orientation describes an individual's sensitivity to unfairness and injustice (Katz & Irwin, 1988). Negative attitude toward big businesses is expected to influence a consumer's perceptions of a company's action (Webster, 1975). Although the two individual difference variables are related only to perceived moral violation in the hypothesized model, the variables will be treated as covariates in the path analysis. Therefore, both HE and NA_{BB} will be directed initially to each of the constructs in the model.

Humanitarianism-Egalitarianism Orientation

Humanitarian-egalitarian orientation (HE) varies from person to person and inherently colors a person's perception of what is fair and just. Katz and Irwin (1988) described HE as the "adherence to the democratic ideals of equality, social justice, and concern for the others' well-being" (p. 894). Accordingly, Katz and Irwin's research suggested that individuals who hold a strong HE may be more sympathetic to the plight of the underdog and more sensitive to moral violations. Table 5 presents the HE scale (p. 905, Katz & Irwin 1988), which is a multiple-item construct that includes 10 items rated on a 6-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree*).

Table 5. Humanitarian-Egalitarian Scale

Name		Items
Humanitarian- Egalitarian Orientation (HE)	1	One should be kind to all people.
	2	One should find ways to help others less fortunate than oneself.
	3	A person should be concerned about the well-being of others.
	4	There should be equality for everyone--because we are all human beings.
	5	Those who are unable to provide for their basic needs should be helped by others.
	6	A good society is one in which people feel responsible for one another.
	7	Everyone should have an equal chance and an equal say in most things.
	8	Acting to protect the rights and interests of other members of the community is a major obligation for all persons.
	9	In dealing with criminals the courts should recognize that many are victims of circumstances.
	10	Prosperous nations have a moral obligation to share some of their wealth with poor nations.

Negative Attitude Toward Big Businesses

The corporate social responsibility literature suggests that attitudes toward big business can shape consumer behaviors (Webster, 1975). Because symbolic boycotts typically target large multinational corporations, participants with a negative attitude toward big business may be more likely to perceive egregiousness in big business actions and be suspicious of a firm's communications in boycott situations. People with strong negative attitudes toward big businesses may be more likely to blame the company, perceive the company's actions to be disingenuous, and be more willing to protest the company (Friedman, 1996; N. C. Smith, 1990). People with a negative perception of big business may also be more likely to take actions against them. Using a 7-point Likert

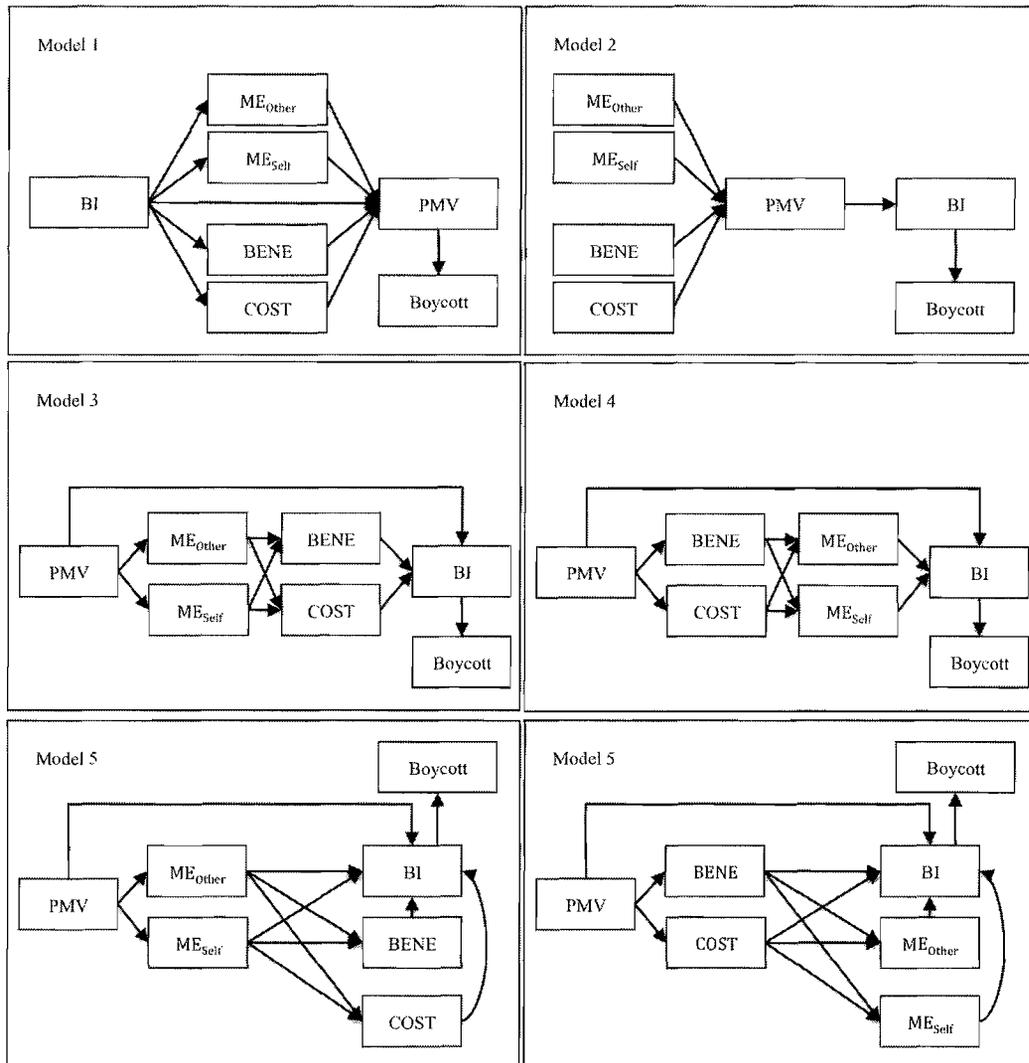
scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 7 = *agree a great deal*), Webster (1975) provided a single-item measure asking for the strength of agreement with the following statement: “Big business has too much power in this country.”

Model Testing and Alternative Models

Path analysis was used in Study 2 and Study 3 to evaluate the fit of the hypothesized model to the data. In addition, the hypothesized model was compared to alternative models to assess the directionality of relationships. Path analysis is a special instance of structural equation modeling (SEM) in which only observed indicators are used to examine the causal structure of the model. The primary advantage of SEM is that it permits the simultaneous estimation of all path coefficients instead of using a series of multiple regressions. In addition, many SEM software programs provide fit statistics to facilitate model specification and comparison. AMOS 7.0 was used for the path analyses conducted in Study 2 and Study 3.

It is considered good practice to identify alternative models *a priori*. Figure 5 illustrates the configuration of the alternative models to be tested. First, two diagnostic models (Models 1 and 2) were used to test the directional relationship of key variables. In Model 1, the placement of perceived moral violation (PMV) and boycott intentions (BI) was reversed. Because of the anticipated high correlation between these two variables, it is necessary to assess whether differences in the direction of relationships in the hypothesized model exist. Model 2 examines the possibility that moral emotions and cost-benefit evaluations predict PMV. This is consistent with earlier research in which

moral judgments are made at the end rather than at the beginning of the process of making a moral decision (Haidt, 2001).



Note: PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions; Boycott = Boycott Behavior (dichotomous)

Figure 5. Alternative models.

In Models 3 and 5, consistent with the configurations of coping models (Duhacheck, 2005; Haidt, 2001) and the two-system model (Kahneman, 2003), moral emotions were conceptualized as preceding cost-benefit factors in the causal sequence. In Models 4 and 6, cost-benefit factors were positioned before emotions to test for directionality in the causal sequence (the reverse of Models 3 and 5).

Multiple statistics were used as criteria for assessing model fit. In addition to the traditional chi-square (χ^2) test, Hu & Bentler (1995) proposed general guidelines for good fit to be the Comparative Fit Index (CFI > .95), root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA < .06), and standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR < .08). Models not meeting these criteria were considered a poor fit to the data. For model comparison, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1987; Anderson, Burnham, & White, 1998) was used to compare the fit of models relative to each other to determine which model was better performing.

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is a normed index (range 0–1) that compares the model fit between the hypothesized model and the null model while considering sample size (Bentler, 1990). The higher the value (> .95), the better fit of the model to the data. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) takes into account the errors of approximation and accounts for the decrease in fit of the hypothesized model and data due to the addition of parameters (i.e., lack of fit per df) (Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA values < .06 generally indicate a good fit to data. The standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) is the difference between standardized observed and predicted

covariance (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Thus, a value of zero would indicate a perfect fit of model to data. In general, values $< .08$ indicate a good fit of the model to data. Finally, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is used to indicate relative fit for different models estimated from the same data set (Akaike, 1987). AIC values are not directly interpretable. Instead, the model with the lower AIC value indicates a better relative fit between alternative non-nested models tested with the data.

Study 1: Exploratory Online Study of Active Boycotters

Study 1 was a descriptive study of real world boycotters. A mix of quantitative and qualitative data was gathered in Study 1 to measure emotional and cost-benefit variables in real boycott situations and to generate a descriptive profile of boycotters. The survey instrument is presented in Appendix B. Boycott participants from recognized campaigns were recruited from a special interest group on a well-known social network site (Facebook) to complete an Internet survey. In previous research, the cost-benefit variables were developed fully while measures of emotions were either omitted (i.e., Sen et al., 2001) or indirect (i.e., John & Klein, 2003; Klein et al., 2004). Gathering emotional measures in addition to cost-benefit measures provided information about which emotions, if any, were pertinent to boycott situations.

The survey gathered measures for key variables (emotions and cost-benefit factors), individual differences (i.e., humanitarian-egalitarian orientation), and attitudes (i.e., toward company, toward big businesses). In addition, participants were asked to identify their boycott motivation using John and Klein's (2003) proposed typology of

motivations for consumer boycotts. This typology included six categories: (a) perceived effectiveness and the illusion of control, (b) altruism, (c) a thrill of victory, (d) expressive, (e) punitive, and (f) clean hands.

The survey also asked respondents to elaborate on their participation through three open-ended questions. First, respondents were asked how they would respond if the boycott target conceded to boycotter demands. Second, they were asked how they became involved in the boycott. Finally, respondents were asked specifically if they felt that boycotting is a moral act and differentiates them from their peers, as described by Kozinets and Handelman (1998, 2004).

The open-ended responses were coded for content analysis. First, the boycott targets identified by participants were categorized into boycotts against a country, a firm (MNC), a single brand, an entire product category, or an individual. Second, responses regarding boycott recruitment were used to create categories for sources of boycott recruitment. Four sources were identified: social groups and affiliations, peers, sponsored announcements, and personal research. The open-ended question regarding what boycotters would do if boycott target conceded to demands was coded simply to specify whether the boycotter would end the boycott or continue to boycott. For the final open-ended question regarding whether boycotting differentiated participants from their peers, the answered were simply coded to confirm or disconfirm the moral differentiation from peers.

Study 2: Conceptual Model Testing

The primary purpose of Study 2 was to examine the sequencing between perceived moral violation, boycott intention, and boycott behavior. Klein et al. (2004) found that perceived moral violation affected boycott intention (appraisal → intentions), while Sen et al. (2001) provided empirical support for the effect of boycott intention on actual boycott behavior (intention → behavior). Study 2 measures each of these variables in the same experiment and explores their hierarchical ordering, along with moral emotions and cost-benefit factors as outlined in the hypothesized model shown in Figure 1.

Data were collected for Study 2 in three separate stages to reduce demand and carryover effects. In the first stage, in an unrelated study, respondents provided information on their brand preferences and participated in an online shopping simulation. In the online simulation, participants were presented with seven product categories as part of a shopping list. The survey randomly presented each product category with two dominant national brands. For each product category, participants were asked to choose their preferred brand to include in their shopping basket to fulfill the requirements of the shopping list—this choice was used to indicate the participant's preferred brand for a product category. Respondents were also given a “no purchase” option.

The brand preference information from the first stage was used to randomly assign student participants into one of three product boycotts in the second stage of the study. The three product categories were selected to be common, frequently purchased, and easily substitutable products. These are characteristic of products that are commonly

boycotted (Friedman, 1996). To help disguise the intent of the study, participants were asked to provide their reaction to three types of articles presented in random order: positive, negative (boycott), or incidental. Each of the articles had approximately the same number of words. Positive and incidental articles provided positive or neutral information about a single brand that did not involve a preference derived from the first session's data collection. In contrast, boycott recruitment articles referred to the participant's preferred brand from the first stage of data gathering.

Participants were sent customized invitations keyed to the brand they chose to put in their shopping basket in the first stage. The key corresponded to the specific product boycott condition (Table 6). For example, if a student was assigned into the battery boycott condition, he or she would receive a link to the Condition 3 sequence and receive the boycott recruitment stimuli specific to the brand chosen in the first portion of the study. A summary of the order of articles shown to participants is provided in Table 6.

Table 6. Product Category Stimuli Presented to Participants

Product	Condition 1	Condition 2	Condition 3
Chocolate	<i>Boycott (Negative)</i>	Positive	Incidental
Toothpaste	Incidental	<i>Boycott (Negative)</i>	Positive
Batteries	Positive	Incidental	<i>Boycott (Negative)</i>

The actual experimental manipulations appeared only for the boycott recruitment article in the second stage of the study. Study 2 used a 3 (Cost-Benefit Perspective vs.

Emotional Perspective vs. Control) x 2 (Positive Framing vs. Negative Framing) between-subjects design. Students ($N = 201$) participated in the study in exchange for class credit. For the negative boycott recruitment article, participants were randomly assigned to read one of six boycott stimuli for the brand they preferred. Sen et al. (2001) manipulated pro-boycott message framing either to highlight the positive or negative outcomes of the boycott. Participants were assigned to read a message framed in either positive or negative terms regarding the outcome of boycott activity. Next, participants assigned to the cost-benefit perspective were asked to read each article with a rational and objective viewpoint, paying special attention to the costs and benefits to themselves (i.e., *“read the article from an objective and rational perspective and consider the economic impact on you”*). Participants assigned to the emotional perspective were asked to read the article, eschewing costs and benefits to themselves, and to attend to their feelings (i.e., *“read the article paying special attention to your feelings and how you feel about the situation”*). The final condition was a control condition and provided no prompt for how to read the article. Measures for perceived moral violation, boycott intention, emotions, and cost-benefit factors, as well as manipulation checks were gathered after reading the boycott recruitment stimuli.

In the final data gathering session two to five days after the administration of the boycott stimuli, participants were asked to complete a second online shopping simulation similar to that in the first stage to see whether purchase behaviors had changed. The three product categories that were being boycotted were randomly shown with four new

product categories as part of the shopping list. The student participants were then debriefed. All survey instruments and stimuli for Study 2 are presented in Appendix C.

Study 3: The Effect of Counter-Messaging on Boycott Intention

The purpose of Study 3 was to test the effectiveness of the four counter-message options proposed by Klein et al. (2004) using a non-student sample. The endogenous variable in this study was boycott intention (BI). The most effective counter-message should demonstrate the greatest decrease in the BI measure. The study focused on a single real-world boycott (Global Exchange chocolate boycott) and used a leading U.S. chocolate company as the boycott target. A commercial consumer panel was recruited to participate in Study 3 to improve external validity and demonstrate immediate market application. The format of the study was an online survey.

Study 3 was a simple random group design. Participants were randomly assigned to either a control condition that did not receive a counter-message or one of five counter-message conditions (all stimuli for Study 3 are presented in Appendix D). All participants were asked to read a pro-boycott message in the form of a press release issued by a fictitious prosocial group. Participants reading one of the counter-messages received a second press release after reading the first that contained one of the following counter-message tactics proposed by Klein et al. (2004) and written specifically for Study 3:

1. *Acknowledge action and communicate positive changes.* The tactic attempted to reduce perceived moral violation by acknowledging wrongdoing and communicating ameliorating changes and practices.

2. *Reduce perception of boycott efficacy.* The second tactic attempted to reduce the perception of boycott efficacy by standing firm on the company policy and practices, and by creating the perception that consumer actions would not make a difference, thereby reducing the overall benefit of boycotting.
3. *Explain negative repercussions of consumer's boycott action.* The third tactic tried to increase counterarguments by elaborating on the negative repercussions of boycotting. The overall effect sought was to increase perceived boycott cost (counterargument) and decrease benefit (self-enhancement).
4. *Emphasize the positive aspects of the brand and product.* The tactic attempted to increase constrained consumption by promoting the positive benefits of the product and the brand.

The actual response from the offending company was also included as a condition.

5. *Denial and communicate leadership.* Rather than acknowledge wrongdoing, the original response denied allegations of slaves used for harvesting cacao. The press release provided counter-factual evidence and provided statements of positive company action. The original message essentially attempted to divert attention away from the claims of slave labor and reframe the situation to put the company in a favorable position.

Participants were asked to complete a counter-message manipulation check and measurements of key dependent variables immediately after being shown the stimuli. The survey instrument is presented in Appendix D.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Study 1

Sample Characteristics

Individualized survey invitations were sent electronically to 400 people, selected from a boycott interest group on a well-known social networking site. The interest group had approximately 4,000 members. Participants were screened based on two criteria. First, they had to have posted one or more comments to the interest group forum. Second, they had to have identified a specific boycott target in their posting. The response rate of usable online surveys was 30.2% (N = 121). This response rate was similar to rates reported in previous Internet survey research in marketing and advertising (i.e., 29.7% in Morrison & Haley, 2006; 29% in Reast, Palihawadana, & Shabbir, 2008).

The sample characteristics for all studies are presented together in Table 7 for comparison purposes. The typical online boycotter in the sample appeared to be Caucasian, college-educated men and women in their early twenties with positive attitudes toward boycotting and negative opinions of large businesses. In addition, they held strong humanitarian-egalitarian viewpoints (see Table 8). Although unions have traditionally been very active in organizing boycotts, very few of the boycotters belonged to a union (n = 16, 13.2%). The general description of modern boycotters provided by the sample was consistent with findings in earlier boycott research (Friedman, 1999; N. C.

Smith, 1990). Specifically, boycotters tended to be socially conscious consumers who were white, pre-middle aged adults of moderate-to-high socio-economic status (N. C. Smith, 1990, p. 178).

Table 7. Sample Characteristics (Studies 1-3)

Demographics	Study 1 (N = 121)		Study 2 (N = 201)		Study 3 (N = 709)	
	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Sex (Female)	60	(49.6%)	84	(41.8%)	338	(47.7%)
Age						
16-19	12	(9.9%)	5	(2.5%)	18	(2.5%)
20-24	88	(72.7%)	184	(91.5%)	126	(17.8%)
25-34	21	(17.4%)	12	(6.0%)	136	(19.2%)
35-44					181	(25.5%)
45-54					194	(27.4%)
55+					54	(7.6%)
Race						
White/Caucasian	88	(72.7%)	157	(78.1%)	575	(81.1%)
Middle Eastern	22	(18.2%)			12	(1.7%)
Hispanic					32	(4.5%)
African/African American	9	(7.4%)	2	(1.0%)	35	(4.9%)
Asian/Pacific Islander	5	(4.1%)	27	(13.4%)	49	(6.9%)
Other	7	(5.8%)	10	(5.0%)	6	(0.8%)
Education						
Primary					10	(1.4%)
Secondary	12	(9.9%)			112	(15.8%)
Tertiary (College/University)	86	(71.1%)	176	(87.6%)	471	(66.4%)
Graduate/Professional	23	(19.0%)	25	(12.4%)	116	(16.4%)
Union Member	16	(13.2%)			167	(23.6%)

Table 8. Individual Differences (Study 1)

	<i>Scale</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Attitude			
Big Business (NA _{BB})	1-7	5.43	1.13
Boycott	1-7	6.08	1.38
Unions	1-10	7.83	1.46
Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation (HE)	1-6	5.35	0.32

Individual Boycott Participation

Three open-ended questions were asked to ascertain how respondents were recruited to participate in a boycott, their willingness to end the boycott, and if they felt their actions differentiated them from peers. For each of the questions, two student assistants coded the responses for analysis based on the categories and labels established by the primary researcher. Inter-rater agreement was .96 (Rust & Cooil, 1994); the primary researcher used personal judgment to resolve coding differences for analysis.

As shown in Figure 6, the common ways that participants became aware of potential boycotts were through social groups and affiliations ($n = 61$, 50.4%), peers ($n = 40$, 33.1%), sponsored and public announcements ($n = 17$, 14.0%), and personal research ($n = 3$, 2.5%). Social groups and affiliation included any organized groups and affiliations a person belonged to, including unions, clubs, political organizations, online groups, etc. For many, individual peer-to-peer conversations provided much of the background for recruitment and participation in boycotts. Advertisements and public service announcements from unaffiliated groups provided the point of recruitment for the

remaining participants. For personal research, a few participants noted they initiated their own boycotts through investigative research and shared their findings with others.

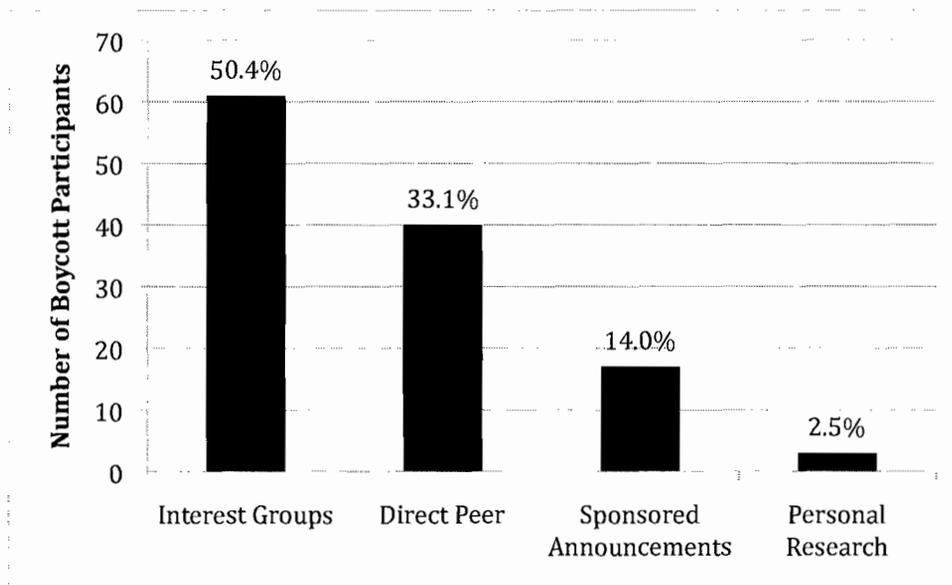


Figure 6. Source of boycott recruitment.

Figure 7 illustrates how boycotters would react if the boycott target conceded to boycott demands. Most boycott participants ($n = 57, 47.1\%$) stated that as long as the boycott target made suitable reparations to the affected parties (and put in place processes to end the egregious acts), they would be willing to end the boycott. However, a large number of boycott participants were unwilling to end their boycott even if the target remedied the situation ($n = 49, 40.5\%$). Of those unwilling to end the boycott, eight (6.6%) noted that they would continue to boycott with the goal of “putting the company out of business because there is no recourse for their immoral actions.” So, worse than simple exit behavior, the initial act of boycotting contributed to continued activism

against a target. About 12.4% ($n = 15$) of boycotters were uncertain or did not specify whether they would end their individual boycott. Almost all participants had already found alternatives and were happy with the alternatives or were able to do without products from the boycott target ($n = 115, 95.0\%$).

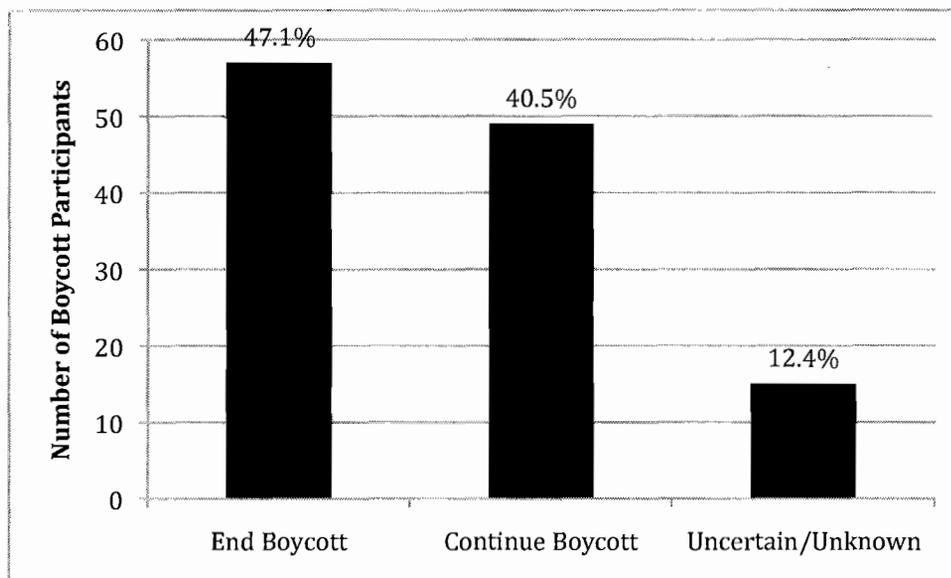


Figure 7. Likelihood of ending boycott if target concedes to demands.

Only 59 (48.8%) respondents provided information on the final open-ended question regarding whether their boycott actions differentiated them from their peers. Four identified their actions as differentiating themselves from their peers, as suggested by Kozinets and Handelman (1998). The remainder only sought differentiation from people outside the peer or affiliation group that recruited them into the boycott. Boycott participants felt more alike or connected with people in their boycott group and felt rewarded by their likeness or solidarity. For example, one respondent noted, “Through

my actions, I want to demonstrate that my friends and I are more responsible than the average consumer who is pretty much clueless.”

The results of the open-ended responses suggested that current boycotts are an action of *both* first and last resort that is spread primarily by peers and word of mouth. Although boycotting may be a form of individual moral expression, attention to a target’s egregious act is often guided by group affiliations (e.g., political party). Further, many boycotters continue to boycott as a punitive measure even if the target takes corrective action. The implication is that practitioners must handle boycotters delicately. Boycotted firms cannot assume remedies will automatically end boycott actions and repair negative attitude and feelings toward the firm, and must woo boycotters back as new customers again.

Boycott Targets and Motivations

The reported boycott targets were coded into six categories, defined as boycotts against (a) a country, (b) a multinational corporation (MNC) or global firm, (c) a single brand, (d) a single product category or industry, or (e) an individual. Each participant was also asked to self-select the primary motivation from a choice of six motivations: (a) control/effectiveness, (b) altruism, (c) thrill of victory, (d) expressive, (e) punitive, and (f) clean hands. The six motivations were further grouped into instrumental (control/effectiveness, altruism, and the thrill of victory) and symbolic (expressive, punitive, and clean hands) boycotts (John & Klein, 2003). Table 9 summarizes respondent boycott motivations and the target of the boycott.

Table 9. Boycott Targets and Motivations

Motivation	Boycott Target					Total
	Country	Firm (MNC)	Single Brand	Product Category	Individual	
Instrumental						
Control/Effectiveness		7 (5.8%)			1 (.8%)	8 (6.6%)
Altruism	1 (.8%)	21 (17.4%)	2 (1.7%)	1 (.8%)		25 (20.7%)
Thrill of Victory		2 (1.7%)				2 (1.7%)
Symbolic						
Expressive		20 (16.5%)	1 (.8%)	3 (2.5%)		24 (19.8%)
Punitive	5 (4.1%)	25 (20.7%)	7 (5.8%)	2 (1.7%)		39 (32.2%)
Clean Hands	8 (6.6%)	8 (6.6%)	6 (5.0%)		1 (.8%)	23 (19.0%)
<i>Total</i>	14 (11.6%)	83 (68.6%)	16 (13.2%)	6 (5.0%)	2 (1.7%)	121 (100%)

Note: $\chi^2(20) = 41.7, p < .01$.

The frequency of primary motivation for boycotting across target categories is consistent with prior research. Boycotts against large MNCs and global firms (for example, Coca-Cola, Nestle, Unilever) accounted for greater than two thirds of the reported boycott targets ($n = 83, 68.6\%$). It appeared that symbolic motivations ($n = 86, 71.1\%$) outnumbered instrumental motivations ($n = 35, 28.9\%$). These results were consistent with assertions by Friedman (1999) and Kozinets and Handelman (1998) that modern boycotts were more often symbolic than instrumental. The primary motivation for instrumental boycotts appeared to be altruism ($n = 25, 20.7\%$), which was consistent with the notion that modern boycotts are often prosocial in nature (i.e. Sen et al., 2001; Smith, Klein, & John; 2004). The most frequently cited motivation for symbolic boycotts

was punitive ($n = 39$, 32.2%), followed by expressive ($n = 24$, 19.8%) and clean hands ($n = 23$, 19.0%).

The frequency of altruism, expressive, punitive, and clean hands as primary motives is suggestive that boycott intention is the result of an emotional process. Altruism has often been linked to coping behaviors related to empathy and sympathy (Batson, 1998; Eisenberg et al., 1989), moral judgment and empathic emotions (Hoffman, 1987), and moral emotions (Haidt, 2003). The punitive and clean hand motivations are closely associated with other-condemning and self-conscious moral emotions (Haidt, 2003). Therefore, emotional expression may be as much a part of boycotting as cost-benefit factors.

Cost-Benefit and Emotional Characteristics

Comparisons were made between instrumental and symbolic boycotts to identify basic patterns for key emotional and cost-benefit variables. These variables included multiple facets of perceived moral violation, emotions, and cost-benefit factors. The one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was selected to make comparisons because initial inspection of data indicated non-normal distributions and unequal group sizes. The K-S test is a non-parametric test used to see whether two data sets differ significantly; the test makes neither assumption about the distribution of the data nor sizes of independent data sets. The following analysis used the K-S test in two ways. First, the K-S test determined whether means differed significantly from scale midpoints to qualitatively assess “high” and “low” patterns for key variables in the reported boycotts. Second, the

K-S test was used to compare means between instrumental ($n = 45$) and symbolic ($n = 86$) boycott groups to examine if there were patterns of differences. Table 10 presents the summary of two sets of tests.

All means except for counterargument were significantly different from the scale midpoint (all $ps < .05$). The means for embarrassment ($M = 1.58, SD = .62$) and shame ($M = 2.38, SD = 1.31$) were low compared to guilt and regret. Benefits appeared to be evaluated to a greater extent than costs in the sample. Both make a difference ($M = 6.77, SD = 1.47$), and self-enhancement ($M = 6.86, SD = 1.57$), $p < .05$, appeared to have a greater role than cost factors. Counterarguments did not appear to have figured greatly into the reported boycotts ($p > .05$) and the mean for constrained consumption was low ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.08$). However, it is likely that most boycotts were for easily substitutable goods and services and the reason constrained consumption might have been low relative to other factors.

The comparisons between instrumental and symbolic boycotts yielded notable results. The importance of perceived moral violation and cost-benefit evaluations were consistent across both types of boycotts and little difference was found (all $ps > .05$); however, significant differences were found for other-condemning emotions, prosocial emotions, betrayal, suspicion, and hatred (all $ps < .05$). The patterns suggest that higher means for other-condemning emotions and prosocial emotions differentiate symbolic from instrumental boycotts. It appeared that emotions are a necessary component for symbolic boycotts whereas cost-benefit factors alone suffice for explaining boycott intention in traditional instrumental boycotts.

Table 10. Differences in Key Measures for Instrumental vs. Symbolic Boycotts

	Compared to Scale Midpoint			Instrumental vs. Symbolic <i>K-S (Sig.)</i>
	Combined <i>M (S.D.)</i>	Instrumental <i>M (S.D.)</i>	Symbolic <i>M (S.D.)</i>	
Perceived Moral Violation (7-point Likert scale)				
Injustice	5.91 (1.02)	5.60 (.98)	6.03 (1.01)	<i>ns</i>
Unfair	6.52 (.50)	6.43 (.50)	6.56 (.50)	<i>ns</i>
Unethical	6.06 (.83)	5.91 (.74)	6.12 (.86)	<i>ns</i>
Egregious	6.30 (.72)	6.29 (.75)	6.30 (.70)	<i>ns</i>
Moral Emotions (7-point Likert scale)				
<i>Other-condemning</i>				
Anger	5.93 (1.07)	5.29 (1.20)	6.20 (.89)	***
Contempt	5.77 (1.09)	5.37 (.94)	5.93 (1.12)	**
Disgust	4.01 (1.65)	2.89 (2.01)	4.47 (1.22)	***
<i>Self-Conscious</i>				
Embarrassment	1.58 (.62)	1.46 (.51)	1.63 (.65)	<i>ns</i>
Shame	2.38 (1.31)	2.17 (.92)	2.47 (1.42)	<i>ns</i>
Guilt	5.75 (1.41)	5.40 (1.93)	5.90 (1.11)	<i>ns</i>
Regret	4.85 (1.57)	4.91 (1.79)	4.82 (1.48)	<i>ns</i>
Cost-Benefit (10-point Likert scale)				
<i>Benefit</i>				
Make a difference	6.77 (1.49)	6.97 (1.51)	6.68 (1.49)	<i>ns</i>
Self-enhancement	6.86 (1.14)	6.78 (1.48)	6.89 (.97)	<i>ns</i>
<i>Cost</i>				
Counterargument	5.09 (1.01) ^{<i>ns</i>}	5.24 (1.18) ^{<i>ns</i>}	5.03 (.94) ^{<i>ns</i>}	<i>ns</i>
Constrained consumption	3.75 (1.08)	3.89 (1.10)	3.69 (1.07)	<i>ns</i>
Related Prosocial Emotions (7-point Likert scale)				
Hope	4.69 (1.27)	4.09 (1.12)	4.94 (1.25)	*
Empathy	5.41 (1.38)	4.60 (2.08)	5.73 (.76)	*
Sympathy	5.70 (1.14)	5.14 (1.73)	5.93 (.66)	**
Related Feelings (7-point Likert scale)				
Betrayal	5.02 (1.27)	4.37 (1.19)	5.28 (1.20)	**
Suspicion	4.55 (1.71)	4.09 (2.02) ^{<i>ns</i>}	4.74 (1.54)	*
Trust	1.97 (.87)	2.14 (.77)	1.90 (.90)	<i>ns</i>
Hatred	5.03 (1.67)	4.43 (2.4)	5.28 (1.17)	***

Note: All comparisons to scale midpoint significant $p < .05$ unless specified. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, *ns* = non-significant.

Anger and contempt were the two most prominent other-condemning moral emotions reported. Anger was higher in symbolic ($M = 6.20, SD = .89$) than in instrumental boycotts ($M = 5.29, SD = 1.20$), $p < .001$. This was consistent with the majority of prior literature that lists moral outrage as a foundation of consumer boycotts (i.e., Friedman, N. C. Smith). Contempt was also higher for symbolic ($M = 5.93, SD = 1.12$) than for instrumental boycotts ($M = 5.77, SD = 1.09$), $p < .01$. The importance of disgust was unclear and may require additional research, as it had less of an effect in instrumental boycotts ($M = 2.89, SD = 2.01$) than in symbolic boycotts ($M = 4.47, SD = 1.22$).

The data suggested that prosocial emotions also mattered in boycott situations. The conceptualization of boycotts as being driven by altruism is supported by the high ratings for prosocial emotions such as hope, empathy, and sympathy scores ($M_s = 4.69, 5.41, 5.70, SD_s = 1.27, 1.38, 1.14$, respectively). In addition, hope was higher for symbolic ($M = 4.94, SD = 1.25$) than instrumental boycotts ($M = 4.09, SD = 1.12$), $p < .05$. Further, empathy and sympathy were greater for symbolic ($M = 5.73, 5.93, SD_s = .76, .66$) compared to instrumental groups ($M = 4.60, 5.14, SD_s = 2.08, 1.73$), $ps < .05, .01$.

Emotions such as betrayal, suspicion, trust, and hatred as outlined in the corporate social responsibility literature were also relevant for boycotting behavior (Gregoire & Fisher, 2007). Although these emotions were not the central focus of the present research, they help form a more global list of boycott-related emotions and represent potential future research topics. The emotion of betrayal was felt more keenly by symbolic ($M =$

5.28, $SD = 1.20$) than instrumental boycotters ($M = 4.27$, $SD = 1.19$), $p < .01$. Similarly, the visceral emotion of hatred was more acute in symbolic ($M = 5.28$, $SD = 1.17$) than instrumental boycotts ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 2.40$), $p < .001$. Finally, boycotters that cited symbolic motivation tended to be more suspicious ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.54$) than those with instrumental motivations ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 2.02$), $p < .05$. Unsurprisingly, distrust was uniform between groups ($M_s = 2.14, 1.90$, $SD_s = .77, .90$), $p < .05$. These additional negative emotions further support the notion that many consumer boycotts involve emotion and should therefore be considered individually in future research.

Summary

The exploratory study suggested that an emotional process was central to consumer boycotts in three ways. First, although affective motives have been mentioned in prior research (Friedman, 1999; Klein et al., 2004; Sen et al., 2001; N. C. Smith, 1990), this was the first study to measure and survey how multiple discrete emotions differed depending on boycotting motives. Notably, symbolic boycotts—expressive, punitive, and clean hand motivated boycotts—were differentiable emotionally from instrumental boycotts. In addition, the frequency of altruistic motives, along with the importance of prosocial emotions, supported the notion that boycotting is a helping behavior. Finally, perceived moral violation was a critical component of both symbolic and instrumental boycotts.

Second, the comparison between symbolic and instrumental boycotts was not intended to specifically test for differences between the two types of boycott motivations,

but, rather, to demonstrate that variability exists for moral and prosocial emotions in different boycott situations. The results suggested the existence of variables that have been ignored in earlier research. For example, participants in symbolic (vs. instrumental) boycotts demonstrated higher other-condemning and prosocial emotions. Therefore, it is important to include emotions as a distinct and separate contributor to the boycotting phenomenon. Extensive research has already provided linkages between empathy and sympathy to prosocial behavior (e.g., Batson, 1998; Madrigal, LaBarge, & Chen, 2007), so moral emotions were the primary focus of the next two studies.

Third, this study established a list of emotions that can be used for future boycott research. The relationship between corporate social responsibility and betrayal, trust, hatred, and suspicion (see Gregoire & Fisher, 2007) provides fertile ground for future work but is well beyond the scope of the current dissertation. Further, a list of boycott-related emotions might provide practitioners with insights into a greater variety of tactics and options for pro- and counter-boycott messaging and promotions.

Study 2

Study 2 attempted to establish the relationship between perceived moral violation, boycott intention, and boycott behavior. A series of logistic and linear regressions tested the basic assumption that perceived moral violation was a predictor for boycott intention and behavior, and boycott intention was a predictor of boycott behavior. A mediation test was used to determine whether boycott intention mediated the effects of perceived moral violation on boycott behavior. In addition, Study 2 attempted to provide initial support

that consumer boycott decisions have both emotional and cost-benefit dimensions. To demonstrate that boycotting can be conceptualized as a consumer coping behavior, path analyses were used to examine the relationship between perceived moral violation (PMV) and boycott intention (BI) by incorporating moral emotions and cost-benefit factors as intervening variables. A coping behavior pattern was established by demonstrating the following path (Tangney et al., 2007): *appraisal* (perceived moral violation) → *emotion* → *intentions* (boycott intention) → *coping behavior* (boycott behavior). Finally, a secondary path analysis attempted to identify individual discrete emotions and cost-benefit factors that contributed directly to boycott intention and behavior.

Sample Characteristics

A total of 201 student participants provided complete and usable responses to a three-part online survey. Eligible participants had to complete all three surveys and pass manipulation checks that verified the product category and boycott target brand name at the end of the second survey. The online survey randomly assigned participants into 1 of 12 conditions based on perspective, framing, and boycott stimuli. Table 7 (previous section) provides the combined summary of sample characteristics. A student sample was selected because the demographic characteristics were similar to the group of active participants in Study 1 for race (Caucasian = 157, 78.1%), education ($M = 15.3$, $SD = 1.70$), and age (the median age was 21).

Descriptive Statistics

Table 11 summarizes the descriptive statistics and provides the correlation matrix of the variables in the model. Data for different product categories were combined to generalize across product categories. The aim of the manipulations was to create variance in the data for path analysis using structural equation modeling (Brown & Dacin, 1997). The outcome variable was whether the respondent intended to withhold consumption during the shopping experience, referred to here as boycott behavior (BOYCOTT). Consistent with Sen et al.'s (2001) second study, the variable was coded as potential "boycott" (1) if the participant changed brands or withheld purchase, and "no boycott" (0) if the participant continued to purchase the same brand. In addition, the data were centered by subtracting the variable mean from each variable to attempt to minimize multicollinearity issues. Because several variables are hypothesized to be mediators in the model, multicollinearity may be problematic in regressions for variables that both directly and indirectly influence a dependent variable. Finally, the experimental manipulations were dummy coded along with interaction terms for inclusion into the analysis to account for the effects of experimental manipulations. With the exception of individual difference variables, correlations between all variables in the model were significant (all $ps < .05$) and consistent with the valence suggested by the hypothesized model (see Table 11). Both humanitarian-egalitarian orientation (HE) and negative attitude toward large corporations (NA_{BB}) were significantly correlated with perceived moral violation (PMV), $r = .32, .23$, respectively, both $ps < .01$.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix (Study 2)

	<i>Behavior</i>	<i>Intention</i>	<i>Appraisal</i>	<i>Moral Emotions</i>		<i>Evaluations</i>		<i>Individual Differences</i>	
	BOYCOTT	BI	PMV	ME _{Other}	ME _{Self}	BENE	COST	HE	NA _{BB}
BOYCOTT	1								
BI	.51**	1							
PMV	.32**	.59**	1						
ME _{Other}	.31**	.54**	.59**	1					
ME _{Self}	.20**	.31**	.32**	.50**	1				
BENE	.44**	.68**	.57**	.52**	.30**	1			
COST	-.14**	-.24**	-.21**	-.23**	-.15*	-.32**	1		
HE	.22**	.32**	.38**	.28**	.19**	.33**	-.04	1	
NA _{BB}	.08	.23**	.26**	.10	.11	.16*	-.09	.27**	1
n		201	201	201	201	201	201	201	201
M		3.72	5.57	4.21	3.20	5.50	4.04	4.60	4.81
(SD)		(1.54)	(1.11)	(1.27)	(1.40)	(2.21)	(0.85)	(0.68)	(1.51)
# Items	1	6	4	3	4	7	6	10	1
α	--	0.88	0.89	0.7	0.84	0.88	0.73	0.88	--

Notes: * $p < .05$; ** $p < 0.01$ level; BOYCOTT = Boycott shopping behavior; BI = Boycott Intent; PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions (Anger, Contempt, Disgust); ME_{Self} = Self-conscious Moral Emotions (Guilt, Regret, Shame, Embarrassment); BENE = Benefit Evaluation (Make a differences, Self-enhancement); COST = Cost Evaluation (Counter-argument, Constrained Consumption); HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses.

An initial comparison based on the BOYCOTT dichotomy (non-boycotters vs. boycotters) using t-tests indicated that boycott participants were more likely to exhibit greater boycott intention (BI), perceived moral violation (PMV), and other-condemning (MEOther) and self-conscious (MESelf) moral emotions (see Table 12). BI was higher for potential boycotters ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 1.31$) than non-boycotters ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.33$), $t(199) = 8.43$, $p < .001$. Similarly, PMV was greater for potential boycotters ($M = 5.95$, $SD = 1.09$) than non-boycotters ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 1.03$), $t(199) = 4.79$, $p < .001$. In addition, the values for moral emotions were higher for potential boycotters ($MMEOther = 4.65$, $MMESelf = 3.50$, $SDs = 1.12$, 1.36 , respectively) than for non-boycotters ($MMEOther = 3.85$, $MMESelf = 2.95$, $SDs = 1.28$, 1.39 , respectively), $t(199) = 4.65$, 2.82 , $ps < .001$, $.01$.

Table 12. Means Comparisons for Non-Boycotters and Boycotters (BOYCOTT)

	No Boycott (n = 109)		Boycott (n = 92)		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Perceived Moral Violation	5.24	1.03	5.95	1.09	4.79***
Boycott Intentions	2.99	1.33	4.57	1.31	8.43***
Moral Emotions					
Other-Condempning	3.85	1.28	4.65	1.12	4.65***
Self-Conscious	2.95	1.39	3.5	1.36	2.82**
Cost-Benefit Factors					
Benefit	4.61	2.07	6.55	1.9	-6.87***
Cost	4.15	1.92	3.91	1.74	-2.07*
Individual Differences					
HE	4.70	1.63	4.95	1.35	3.21**
NA _{BB}	4.46	1.69	4.76	1.64	1.13

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The results were also consistent with prior cost-benefit literature. People who boycotted ($M = 6.55$, $SD = 1.90$) judged the overall benefit to be greater than non-boycotters ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 2.07$), $t(199) = 6.87$, $p < .001$; conversely, it was not surprising that non-boycotters perceived greater cost ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 4.15$) than boycotters ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .74$), $t(199) = 2.07$, $p < .05$.

Finally, people that held stronger humanitarian-egalitarian orientations were more likely to boycott. The individual difference rating for boycotters ($M = 4.95$, $SD = 1.35$) was significantly higher than non-boycotters ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 1.63$), $t(199) = 3.21$, $p < .001$. However, no significant differences were found for attitude toward big businesses, $t(199) = 1.13$, *ns*.

Appraisal, Intention, and Behavior

The proposed model (see Figure 1) suggested that there is a direct relationship between perceived moral violation (PMV), boycott intention (BI), and boycott behavior (BOYCOTT). Logistic and linear regressions ascertained if BI was a strong predictor of BOYCOTT and if BI mediated the influence of PMV on BOYCOTT. This relationship was important to establish before adding additional process variables between PMV and BI because the BI scale used in Study 2 is different than those used by Sen et al. (2001) and Klein et al. (2004). It was important to demonstrate that the BI variable in the current study behaved in a similar manner compared to previous studies, and that PMV, BI, and BOYCOTT were measured together in the same study. Table 13 provides the results of logistic and linear regressions and Table 14 provides the associated fit statistics.

Table 13. Logistic Regression for Perceived Moral Violation and Boycott Intent as Predictors of Boycott Behavior

Model: Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>e^b</i>
Model 1						
Constant	-.21	.15	1.92	1	.17	.81
PMV	.67	.15	18.89	1	<.001	1.95
Model 2						
Constant	-.25	.17	2.28	1	.13	.78
BI	.87	.14	41.05	1	<.001	2.38
Model 3						
Constant	-.25	.17	2.30	1	.13	.78
PMV	.08	.19	.18	1	.67	1.08
BI	.83	.16	28.85	1	<.001	2.30

Table 14. Fit Statistics for Boycott Behavior Models

Model	Predicted Correct	Model summary						Goodness-of-fit		
		χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Likelihood ratio	Cox & Snell <i>R</i> ²	Nagelkerke <i>R</i> ²	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
1	71.1%	22.3	1	<.001	254.9	.105	.140	19.6	8	0.01
2	71.1%	59.6	1	<.001	217.6	.257	.343	6.48	8	0.59
3	70.6%	59.8	2	<.01	217.4	.257	.344	5.5	8	0.71

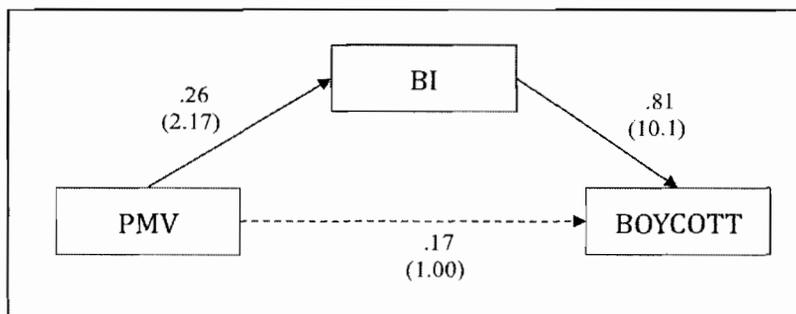
PMV was a significant predictor of whether someone chose to boycott or not (BOYCOTT) in Model 1, $\chi^2(1) = 22.3, p < .001$, correctly classifying 71.1% of observations (see Table 15). Consumers exhibiting higher (vs. lower) PMV demonstrated greater boycott behavior in the simulated shopping scenario, $B = .67, SE = .15, Wald = 18.89, p < .001$. However, a significant Hosmer-Lemeshow (HL) goodness-of-fit statistic, $\chi^2(8) = 19.6, p < .05$, suggested a less than ideal fitting model. A significant Hosmer-Lemeshow (HL) value suggests that we reject the null hypotheses that there was no

difference between observed and predicted values. BI was also a significant predictor of BOYCOTT (Model 2), $\chi^2(1) = 59.6, p < .001$, also accounting for 71.1% of correct predictions (see Table 15). Unsurprisingly, BI was greater for boycotters than non-boycotters, $B = .87, SE = .14, Wald = 41.1, p < .001$. The HL goodness-of-fit statistic was non-significant, $\chi^2(8) = 7.93, p > .45$, suggesting that boycott intention provided a better-behaving model of boycott shopping behavior than perceived moral violation. A final logistic regression model combined PMV and BI in the same model (Model 3), $\chi^2(2) = 59.79, p < .001$, correctly accounting for 70.6% of observations. The HL goodness-of-fit statistic was non-significant, $\chi^2(8) = 5.46, p > .71$.

Table 15. Observed and Predicted Frequencies of Boycott Behavior (BOYCOTT)

Observed	Predicted		% Correct
	No Boycott	Boycott	
Model 1			
No Boycott	82	27	75.2%
Boycott	31	61	66.3%
Overall % Correct			71.1%
Model 2			
No Boycott	82	27	75.2%
Boycott	31	61	66.3%
Overall % Correct			71.1%
Model 3			
No Boycott	80	29	73.4%
Boycott	30	62	67.4%
Overall % Correct			70.6%

The path between PMV and BOYCOTT ceased to be significant with the inclusion of BI (illustrated in Figure 8). This pattern of significant paths suggested that BI potentially mediated the relationship between PMV and BI and was a more proximal predictor of BOYCOTT than PMV (Baron & Kenny, 1986). To test for mediation, linear regression was first used to test the relationship between the PMV and BI. The overall model was significant, $R^2 = .34$, $F(1, 199) = 103.7$, $p < .001$. Next, a mediation test with a continuous mediator and a dichotomous outcome (Mackinnon & Dwyer, 1993; see Appendix D Exhibit 1 and 2 for SPSS Code and complete computations for determining z score) determined that BI fully mediated the effect of PMV on BOYCOTT, Sobel $z(197) = 2.15$, $p < .05$. Measuring boycott behavior in the real world may be difficult because it is difficult to ascertain if a consumer decision at the point of purchase was due to boycott or other factors. Thus, a potential proxy for actual boycott behavior in research may be to measure boycott intention.



Note: PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; BI = Boycott Intentions; BOYCOTT= Boycott Behavior (dichotomous). All path reported as standardized coefficients; T-values are shown in parentheses; paths denoted by solid lines are significant at $p < .05$ or better;

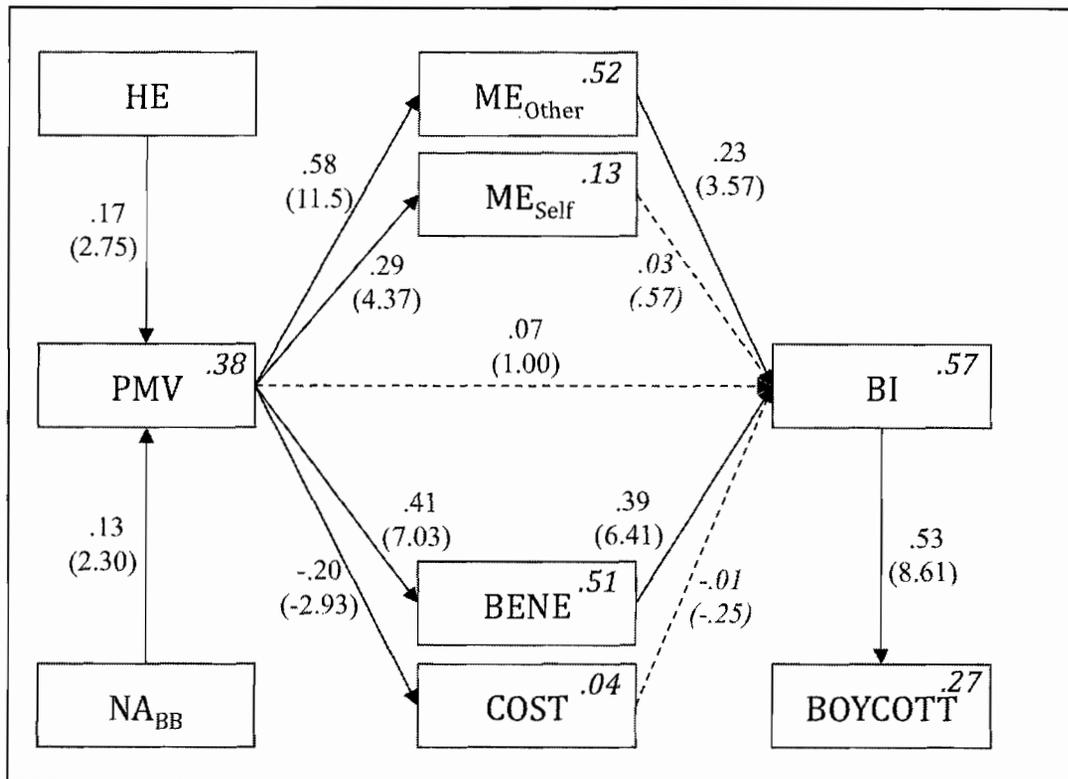
Figure 8. Boycott intention mediates perceived moral violation.

Model Testing

The hypothesized model was tested using path analysis in SEM. Generally, SEM relies on maximum likelihood estimates (ML) that require continuous and normally distributed variables; however, the indicator for boycott behavior (BOYCOTT) was dichotomous. Dichotomous endogenous indicators violate the requirement for normal distribution for SEM using ML (Byrne, 2010). Although the general analytic strategy is to consider the dichotomous variable as an instance of a continuous variable or to use biserial correlation matrices, Bayesian SEM provides a potential alternative (for a complete discussion, see Byrne, 2010, pp. 148–160). The primary path analysis will use ML estimation but Bayesian parameter estimates will be used to cross-validate the ML parameter estimates.

The process model in Figure 9 was specified for path analysis in AMOS 7.0 using both ML and Bayesian estimation procedures. In addition to specifying the relationships outlined in the model, dummy-coded experimental manipulations were included as exogenous variables directed to each of the endogenous indicators (excluding HE and NA_{BB}, which are also exogenous variables in the model). Placing these constraints on the model ensures statistical control for any differences attributable to the manipulations. The model was trimmed after the initial fit assessment. All non-significant paths between the manipulation dummy codes and endogenous variables that were not part of the hypothetical model (as determined by the C.R. > 1.96) were eliminated from the model. Model trimming is permissible when not used for ad hoc model development. However, all paths in the hypothesized model were retained, even if the path was non-

significant. Figure 9 illustrates the path model but excludes the manipulation dummy-coded variables for clarity. The ML parameter estimates are presented in Figure 6. A complete list of ML and Bayesian parameter estimates is presented in Appendix F.



Note: All path reported as standardized coefficients; T-values are shown in parentheses, paths denoted by solid lines are significant at $p < .05$ or better; *italics* = R^2 . HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses ; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions; BOYCOTT = Boycott Behavior (dichotomous).

Figure 9. Path diagram for hypothesized process model and estimated path coefficients.

The AMOS maximum likelihood (ML) results suggested that the hypothesized model provided an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 73.7$, $df = 50$, $p < 0.05$; RMSEA =

0.05; 90% CI = .02, .07; CFI = 0.96; SRMR = 0.083). The model accounted for 57% of the variance in boycotting intention (BI) and 27% of the variance in boycott behavior (BOYCOTT). Regarding the Bayesian model, the posterior predictive p-value = .41 for the Bayesian model suggested the model fit was acceptable (Arbuckle, 2008). In Bayesian models, a p-value of .50 suggests strong evidence of an exact model, whereas models with a p-value of .05 indicate a poor fit. Models with p-values between these two points suggest that the data fit portions of the model. The deviation from .50 in the current hypothesized model ($p = .41$) may be attributable to the retention of two non-significant paths in the hypothesized model. The two techniques demonstrated that model fit was acceptable. More important, parameter estimate values were consistent across both ML and Bayesian techniques.

All but three of the paths in the hypothesized model were significant ($ps < .05$). The path analysis indicated that greater levels of humanitarianism-egalitarianism orientation (HE) and negative attitude toward big business (NA_{BB}) were positively related to perceived moral violation (PMV) in boycott situations. People with greater humanitarian-egalitarian orientation were more likely to feel greater perceived moral violation in the boycott situation. Similarly, people with a greater negative attitude toward big business were also likely to feel greater perceived moral violation when confronted with the company's egregious actions. The results also suggested that people were more likely to feel greater other-condemning moral emotions (e.g., anger, contempt, disgust) and to perceive greater benefit to boycotting when they perceived greater moral violation. PMV was positively related to other-condemning emotions (ME_{Other}) and

benefit evaluation (BENE), which in turn was positively related to boycott intention (BI). Consistent with the previous logistic regressions, BI increased the likelihood of boycott behaviors (BOYCOTT). Thus, people who felt greater other-condemning moral emotions and perceived greater benefit to boycotting were more likely to demonstrate greater boycott intention and more likely to take boycott action. Self-conscious moral emotions (ME_{Self}) were not predictive of boycott intention. In addition, perceived costs (COST), although in the predicted direction, did not significantly contribute to BI.

The coefficient and significance of the indirect effects were estimated using bootstrapping in order to compare the direct and indirect effects with multiple mediators. Bootstrapping is necessary in order to generate *SEs* for indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). AMOS provides the bootstrap estimation of indirect effects and *SEs* as part of the overall SEM output, so a separate analysis was not required (the default bootstrap iteration was 200). Table 16 provides a summary of indirect effects in the hypothesized model.

Table 16. Decomposition of Indirect Effects from Path Analysis (Study 2)

Standardized Indirect Effect	HE	NABB	PMV	ME_{Other}	BENE
ME_{Other}	.10	.08			
ME_{Self}	.05	.04			
BENE	.07	.06			
COST	-.03	-.03			
BI	.06	.05	.31		
BOYCOTT	.03	.03	.20	.12	.21

All $ps < .01$

There were significant indirect effects on BOYCOTT from PMV ($b = .20, SE = .04, p < .01$), ME_{Other} ($b = .12, SE = .04, p < .01$), and BENE ($b = .21, SE = .05, p < .01$). The mediated path through ME_{Other} (appraisal → emotions → intentions → behavior) supported the proposition that boycotting may be conceptualized as a consumer coping behavior.

Alternative Models

Study 2 data were used to model each of the alternative models shown in Figure 5. Humanitarian-egalitarian orientation (HE) and negative attitude toward big business (NA_{BB}) were included in the models but are not shown in the diagram. These individual differences were modeled as exogenous variables related to perceived moral violation (PMV) in all models. Table 17 summarizes the fit statistic for each of the models.

Table 17. Alternative Models Fit Statistics (Study 2)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	AIC	Fit Assessment	
Base	64.7	48	<i>ns</i>	.98	.04	.01; .07	.07	176.7	Good
1	111.2	48	< .001	.92	.08	.06; .10	.09	223.2	Poor
2	196	52	< .001	.81	.12	.10; .14	.14	299.5	Poor
3	73.3	49	< .05	.97	.05	.02; .07	.07	183.3	Good
4	122	49	< .001	.90	.09	.07; .11	.09	231.8	Poor
5	56.7	47	<i>ns</i>	.99	.03	.01; .06	.07	170.7	Good
6	82.6	47	< .001	.95	.06	.04; .08	.07	196.6	Moderate

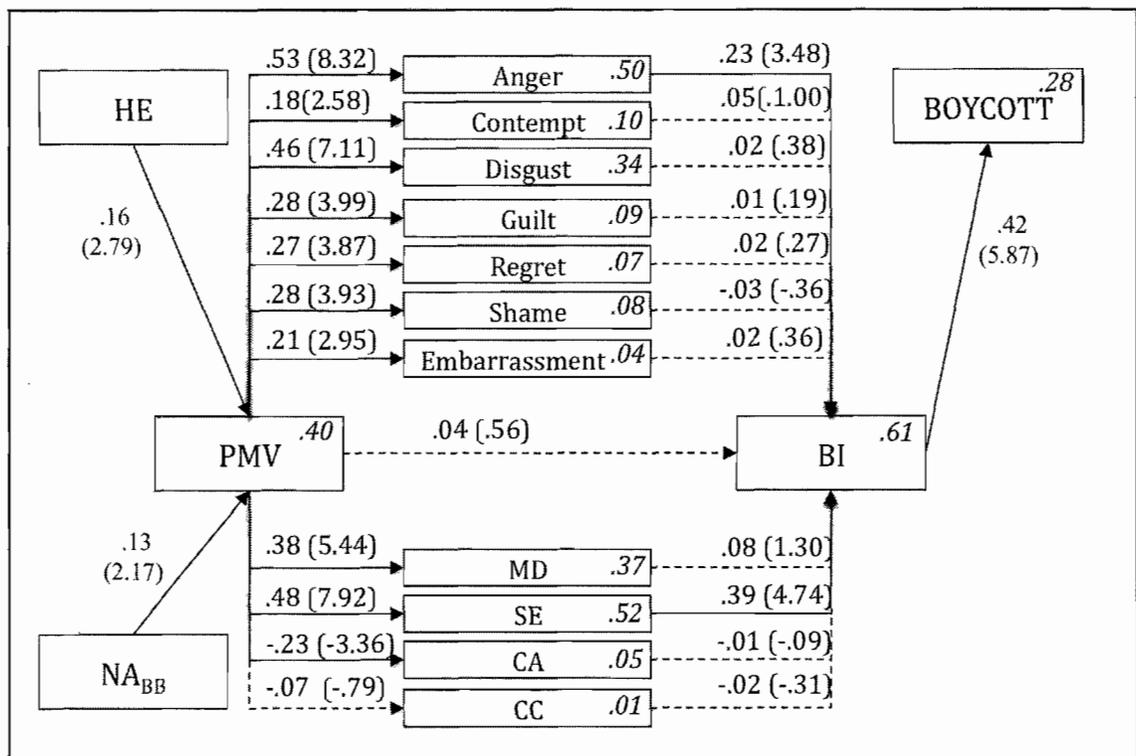
Based on the fit criteria established *a priori*, two models were viable alternatives: Model 3 and Model 5. Model 3 demonstrated good model fit, $\chi^2(49) = 73.3, p < .05$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .07, AIC = 183.3. Model 5 provided superior fit statistics compared to the hypothesized model, $\chi^2(47) = 56.7, ns$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03, SRMR

= .07, AIC = 170.7. Model comparison between the hypothesized model (AIC = 176.7), Model 3 (AIC = 183.3), and Model 5 (AIC = 170.7) suggested that Model 5 potentially provides a superior performing competing model. In general, it appeared that models that had the sequence *moral emotions* → *cost-benefit evaluations* (Model 3 and Model 5) demonstrated a better fit to the data than the reverse, and suggested that an affect-driven model provided a superior configuration for the variables in the model.

Path Analysis of Individual Process Components

Bayesian SEM was used to estimate path coefficients due to the large number of indicators and the modest sample size. Even so, interpretation of path coefficients should be interpreted with some caution. The path diagram in Figure 10 was specified in AMOS 7.0. According to the results, other-condemning moral emotions (ME_{Other}) as well as benefits (BENE) were the most significant predictors of boycott intention (BI). Consistent with the descriptive data in Study 1, the data in Study 2 suggested that anger and self-enhancement were the key predictors of boycott intention. In Study 2, boycotting was an expression of moral anger and a way to publicly identify oneself as a moral person. This perspective was reminiscent of Kozinets and Handelman's (1998) description of boycotting as a morally transforming experience. Even though self-enhancement was considered a benefit evaluation, an examination of the items comprising the self-enhancement scale suggested that it may be better described as an affective response than a cognitive response (i.e., boycott to relieve guilt, to feel better, etc.). The data suggested that little attention was placed on self-conscious emotions (e.g.,

guilt, shame). Instead, fault was directly placed on the boycott target resulting in greater other-condemning emotions. Other-condemning moral emotions (e.g. anger) appeared contribute directly to BI. In addition, neither counterarguments nor constrained consumption contributed appreciably to BI. The variance accounted for by the cost variables were very low (5% and 1%, respectively). These findings were consistent also with the low rating for counterarguments and constrained consumption in Study 1.



Note: All path reported as standardized coefficients; T-values are shown in parentheses, paths denoted by solid lines are significant at $p < .05$ or better; *italics* = R^2 . HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses; PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions; BOYCOTT = Boycott Behavior (dichotomous). MD = Make a difference; SE = Self-enhancement; CA = Counter-argument; CC = Constrained Consumption

Figure 10. Path diagram for individual process components (Study 2).

Summary

The data in Study 2 provided initial support for the conceptualization of boycotting as a form of consumer coping behavior. The results supported the assertion people with higher humanitarian-egalitarian orientation and a more pronounced negative attitude toward big businesses were more likely to perceive greater perceived moral violation in boycott situations. Perceived moral violation was found to predict moral emotions and cost-benefit factors associated with boycott intention. The participant's boycott intention was reflected in potential boycott behavior in an online shopping situation. However, only other-condemning moral emotions and perceived benefit provided significant paths from perceived moral violation to boycott intention. More specifically, people tend to boycott when they are angry and to feel better about themselves. The data did not support a causal link from either self-conscious moral emotions or costs to boycott intention. Finally, comparisons of alternative models suggested that an affect-driven model fit the data better; consequently, this provided additional support that boycotting can be better conceptualized as a consumer coping behavior rather than a cost-benefit evaluation.

Study 3

The purpose of Study 3 was to investigate the extent to which a firm could use counter-messaging to reduce the likelihood that consumers would take boycott action as a result of pro-boycott messaging, considering how simple it is for any organization to issue pro-boycott messages in the media (e.g., Internet). Klein et al. (2004) proposed four

boycott counter-messaging tactics: (a) acknowledge actions and communicate positive changes, (b) stand firm on course of action, (c) convey the negative repercussions of consumer boycott action, and (d) focus on the positive aspects of the brand. However, little is known about the effectiveness of each of these proposed tactics.

In Study 3, counter-message effectiveness was defined by a reduction in consumers' boycott intention (BI). BI was the most proximal indicator of boycott behavior in Study 2. For practitioners, minimizing BI should be the primary focus of messaging efforts. From a practical messaging execution perspective, it may be difficult to address all of the factors that influence BI simultaneously. Each of the proposed counter-message tactics addresses specific processes that influence BI. The most sensible approach is to attempt to manage the common antecedent in the model. In Study 2, perceived moral violation (PMV) was a significant predictor of BI, mediated by multiple emotional and cost-benefit factors. The hypothesized model proposes that the key to deterring consumer boycott intention is to minimize PMV. Therefore, it is likely that the Klein et al. (2004) tactic based on acknowledging actions and communicating positive changes to reduce PMV should perform better than other tactics.

The analysis for Study 3 begins with a detailed manipulation check for the counter-message press releases presented to participants. A set of diagnostic indices was created to verify that the counter-message attributes identified by Klein et al. (2004) were present and corresponded to a specific press release. Once the counter-message stimuli were deemed to possess the attributes proposed by Klein et al., the counter-message condition was used as the independent variable in an ANOVA with BI as the dependent

variable. Finally, Study 3 replicated all of the path analyses in Study 2 to gain greater insight into the hypothesized and alternative models.

Sample Characteristics

A professionally managed consumer panel (U.S. only) provided the participants for Study 3. A total of 709 online surveys were usable after the data were screened. The participants were screened in three ways for inclusion into the data set. First, proprietary vendor attention and completion checks were included in the online survey. Only participants that completed the survey and correctly answered the attention check were included. Second, participants had to correctly answer a manipulation check question regarding the target of the boycott at the end of the survey. Third, only participants that have a positive attitude toward the boycott target ($M = 6.20$, $SD = 1.06$) and had recently purchased branded products from the boycott target were included in the study. On average, participants were frequent purchasers of chocolate products produced by the boycott target (number of products purchased in the last month: $M = 7.76$, $SD = 3.83$). The mean age ($M = 34.6$, $SD = 11.7$) was higher than prior samples. The greater range in age potentially makes the finding of Study 3 more generalizable to a broader population. Education and race were similar to prior studies (please refer to Table 7 in Study 1). For example, participants were predominantly white Caucasians ($n = 575$, 81.1%) and college educated ($n = 471$, 66.4%).

Descriptive Statistics

Table 18 summarizes the descriptive statistics and provides the correlation matrix for the variables included in the model. All variables were significantly correlated (all $ps < .05$). The reliability of all scales was acceptable; the Cronbach α for all scales was $> .90$ except for perceived cost (COST), Cronbach $\alpha = .74$. Pearson correlations ranged from $.08$ to $.90$. The strongest relationship existed between boycott intention (BI) and perceived moral violation (PMV), other-condemning moral emotions (ME_{Other}), self-conscious emotions (ME_{Self}), and perceived benefit (BENE), $r = .71, .82, .86, .90$, respectively. Both moral emotion groups (ME_{Other} and ME_{Self}) were highly correlated ($r = .85$). A strong relationship also existed between BENE and ME_{Other} ($r = .79$) and ME_{Self} ($r = .83$). This was not surprising considering that a key indicator in the BENE scale was a desire to feel less guilt. In addition, PMV was highly correlated with BENE ($r = .70$), ME_{Other} ($r = .72$), and ME_{Self} ($r = .63$). All other variable relationships were below $.50$.

Conditions and Stimuli

The Global Exchange slave chocolate boycott was used as the boycott context for Study 3. The experimental stimuli were a pro-boycott message and five counter-messages presented as press releases. Participants were randomly assigned into one of six conditions (summarized in Table 19). All press releases are presented in Appendix D. In the control condition (Condition 1), participants read only the pro-boycott press release. The press release called attention to the use of child slaves in the harvest of cacao beans used by a leading chocolate company for American consumption.

Table 18. Descriptive Statistics (Study 3)

N = 709	<i>Intention Appraisal</i>		<i>Moral Emotions</i>		<i>Evaluations</i>		<i>Individual Differences</i>	
	BI	PMV	ME _{Other}	ME _{Self}	BENE	COST	HE	NA _{BB}
BI	1							
PMV	.71**	1						
ME _{Other}	.82**	.72**	1					
ME _{Self}	.86**	.63**	.85**	1				
BENE	.90**	.70**	.79**	.83**	1			
COST	-.18**	-.16**	-.14**	-.08*	-.16**	1		
HE	.41**	.46**	.45**	.42**	.43**	-.09*	1	
NA _{BB}	.42**	.46**	.38**	.37**	.43**	-.11**	.33**	1
M	4.08	5.02	4.21	3.87	5.65	5.33	5.01	5.44
(SD)	(1.97)	(1.26)	(1.82)	(1.86)	(2.92)	(1.72)	(0.80)	(1.51)
Items	6	4	3	4	7	6	10	1
α	0.96	0.92	0.90	0.94	0.96	0.74	0.92	--

Notes: * $p < .05$; ** $p < 0.01$ level; BI = Boycott Intent; PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions (Anger, Contempt, Disgust); ME_{Self} = Self-conscious Moral Emotions (Guilt, Regret, Shame, Embarrassment); BENE = Benefit Evaluation (Make a differences, Self-enhancement); COST = Cost Evaluation (Counter-argument, Constrained Consumption); HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses.

In the remaining conditions, participants were asked to read the pro-boycott press release followed by one of five press releases issued by the targeted chocolate company, which responded to the initial pro-boycott press release. In Condition 2, participants received the original press release issued by the chocolate company. This condition was used as a benchmark for the experimental counter-messages.

For Condition 3, the objective of the press release was to attempt to reduce the consumer PMV by acknowledging its egregious practices and to communicate ameliorating future actions. In Condition 4, the press release explained the situation and declared that the company stood firm on its continued actions. The primary message objective was to communicate to the consumers that the firm had heard their protests but that the consumers' actions would not make a difference on company actions and practices.

An alternate tactic was to convey the negative repercussions of consumer boycott action (Condition 5). Based on Klein et al.'s (2004) model, the primary objective of the press release was to provide convincing counterarguments (to increase perceived cost) and removed the potential ability of consumers to feel good about themselves by boycotting. By enumerating potentially unexpected negative consequences to the affected party, the boycott action was framed to have unexpected high perceived costs with very little self-enhancement benefits. The final condition (Condition 6) focused consumer attention on the positive aspect of the firm and products and bypassed discussion regarding any egregious action (Treatment 6). By drawing consumer attention to the positive aspect of the brand, this counter-message sought to increase the perceived value

and reliance on the brand, and thereby increase the perception of constrained consumption (Klein et al., 2004).

Table 19. Experimental Conditions and Counter-Message Tactics
Counter-Message

Condition	Tactic	Objective	Attributes
1	None	<i>Control</i>	n/a
2	Denial and communicate leadership	<i>Original Press Release</i>	n/a
3	Acknowledge actions and communicate ameliorating changes	Reduce PMV by acknowledging actions and communicating positive changes	1) communicate changes in the firm's practice, 2) provide an explanation for practices, 3) communicate positive actions it has taken to make the situation better
4	Stand firm and explain course of action	Decrease the ability for consumers to make a difference	1) communicate they have heard consumer concerns, 2) have chosen the best course of action, 3) will not change their decision/practice?
5	Convey negative repercussions of consumer action	Increase counterarguments; decrease self-enhancement	1) convey negative repercussions of the boycott, 2) credibly explain potential negative outcome for large scale boycott, 3) reduce the ability for the consumers to feel good about himself
6	Promote positive aspect of firm and product	Increase constrained consumption	1) discuss positive aspect of the firm 2) discuss positive aspect of products

The experimental manipulation required participants to attend to the specific details in each of the press releases. To verify that each press release correctly executed

the intended tactic, manipulation checks were gathered immediately after the participants read the counter-message. The items presented in Table 20 were based on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Very ineffective*, 4 = *Moderately effective*, 7 = *Very effective*). Each manipulation check item corresponded to a specific counter-message tactic (Condition 3-6). The manipulation check items were combined to create set of summary diagnostic indices (CM1-4).

The manipulation check indices were analyzed separately to assess the success of the manipulations in the experiment. Ideally, the index that corresponded to a specific tactic should have the highest relative value compared to the other tactics. Table 21 provides the basic descriptive statistics of the created manipulation indices. Figure 11 provides a profile plot of each of the indices grouped by tactic. The control group was excluded in the manipulation check analysis because this group did not receive a counter-message. The profile for the original press release (Condition 2) was included for comparisons. Visual inspection suggested that the counter-message tactics appeared to have been executed successfully. The peak index values corresponded with the appropriate tactics.

As shown in Figure 11, the index that corresponded to acknowledging actions and communicating changes in practices (CM1) appeared to be highest for the corresponding counter-message tactic (Condition 3). A planned contrast suggested CM1 was higher for the acknowledge and communicate tactic relative to other tactics, $M = 5.03$, $SD = 1.35$, $t(587) = 2.86$, $p < .01$.

Table 20. Summary of Manipulation Check Indices, Items, and Corresponding Tactics

Index	Manipulation Check*	Tactic (Condition)
CM1	Communicate changes in [Company's] practices Communicate actions taken to make the situation better Communicate that [Company] has heard the consumers' concern	Acknowledge action and communicate ameliorating changes (Condition 3)
CM2	Provide an explanation for the [Company's] practices Indicated that [Company] has chosen the best course of action Indicated that [Company] will not change its action	Stand firm and explain course of action (Condition 4)
CM3	Convey negative repercussions of a boycott Explained the potential negative outcomes of a boycott Attempt to make [consumer] feel good [R]	Elaborate on negative repercussions (Condition 5)
CM4	Discuss the positive aspect of [Company] products Discuss the positive aspect of [Company]	Promote positive aspect of firm and product (Condition 6)

* 7-point Likert Scale: *Very ineffective—Moderately Effective—Very Effective*

Similarly, the peak value for CM2 was for the tactic associated with reducing the perceived efficacy of the consumer boycott against the company by standing firm on its course of action and its practices (Condition 4). The CM2 index indicated the degree to which the press release explained the firm's practices and stated that the firm would not change its course of action. A planned contrast suggested that CM2 was highest for the *reduce efficacy* tactic, $M = 4.88$, $SD = 1.24$, $t(587) = 3.25$, $p < .001$.

Table 21. Means for Counter-Message Manipulation Indices (CM1-4)

Counter-message	<i>n</i>	Index							
		CM1		CM2		CM3		CM4	
		Acknowledge Action		Reduce Efficacy		Negative Repercussions		Positive Aspects	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Denial (Original)	123	4.84	1.37	4.52	1.34	4.10	1.45	4.59	1.56
Acknowledge Action	121	5.03	1.35	4.38	1.31	3.99	1.51	4.59	1.55
Reduce Efficacy	118	4.26	1.73	4.88	1.24	4.00	1.70	4.09	1.89
Negative Repercussions	120	4.16	1.74	4.53	1.42	4.76	1.35	4.03	1.78
Positive Aspects	118	4.15	1.60	4.22	1.37	3.95	1.39	5.30	1.38

The CM3 index assessed the degree to which the press release conveyed the negative repercussions of boycotting the firm and minimized the potential ability for consumers to feel good about themselves by engaging in boycott actions. In Figure 11, the index appeared highest for Condition 5, which corresponds with the *negative repercussions* tactic; a planned contrast supported this finding, $M = 4.76$, $SD = 1.39$, $t(595) = 5.09$, $p < .001$. There was clear correspondence between the CM4 index and the final tactic based on the press release's positive portrayal of the brand and products. The index for CM4 was highest for the tactic that emphasized the positive aspects of the firm, $M = 5.30$, $SD = 1.38$, $t(595) = 5.79$, $p < .001$.

The profile for the original press release that was actually produced by the chocolate company appeared to be nearly identical to the acknowledge action tactic (see Figure 11) even though the execution of the press release was entirely different. The chocolate company's tactic placated consumers by denying the pro-boycott allegations and by providing contrary evidence. A set of planned contrasts that compared each index value (CM1-4) between the original press release and the press release for the

acknowledgment tactic showed that the two tactics appeared indistinguishable from one another, $t_s = .21$ to 1.14 , ns .

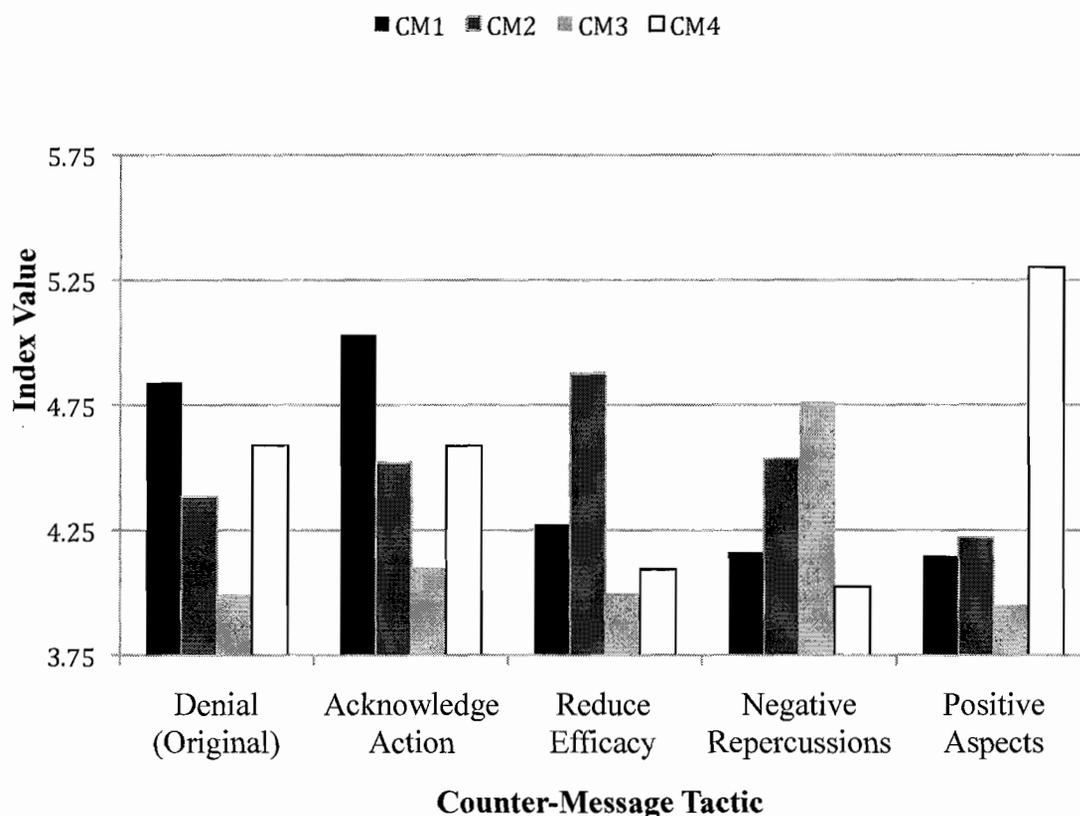


Figure 11. Profile of manipulation check indices for counter-message tactics.

Effectiveness of Counter-Messaging Tactics

The effectiveness of each of the counter-messages on influencing boycott intention (BI) was examined after assessing whether the experimental manipulations correctly activated the various counter-messages. An ANOVA test using planned contrasts with BI as the dependent variable and six counter-message conditions as the independent variable was significant, $F(5, 703) = 3.42$, $p < .01$, suggesting that there was a difference between counter-message treatments and control conditions. When the

control condition was compared to counter-message conditions (see Table 22 for contrast statistics), it appeared that any form of counter-message reduced BI, $t(703) = 3.64, p < .001$. The simple act of responding to a company's egregious offense reduced BI. This is consistent with the idea of "unthinking compliance" proposed by Cialdini (1998)—an excuse, any excuse, placates people.

Table 22. Summary of Planned Contrasts for Boycott Intention (BI)

Planned Contrasts	Value	SE	$t(703)$
Control vs. Treatments	3.64	0.96	3.78***
vs. Original	0.77	0.25	3.14**
vs. Acknowledge Action	0.90	0.25	3.62***
vs. Reduce Efficacy	0.54	0.25	2.18*
vs. Negative Repercussions	0.81	0.25	3.26***
vs. Positive Aspects	0.61	0.25	2.46*
Original vs. Acknowledge	0.13	0.24	0.52
Original/Acknowledge vs. Others	1.37	0.60	2.27*

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

In Study 3, managing perceived moral violation (PMV) was apparently the most direct way to reduce consumer boycott intention (BI). The correlation between PMV and BI was $r = .65, p < .001$, and the plot for PMV mirrored that of BI in Figure 12. This was notable considering the difference in scale items for PMV and BI. PMV was a cognitive appraisal and measured people's sense of justice and fairness, while the BI items identified specific boycott activity. The tight coupling between these two constructs was further examined using path analysis.

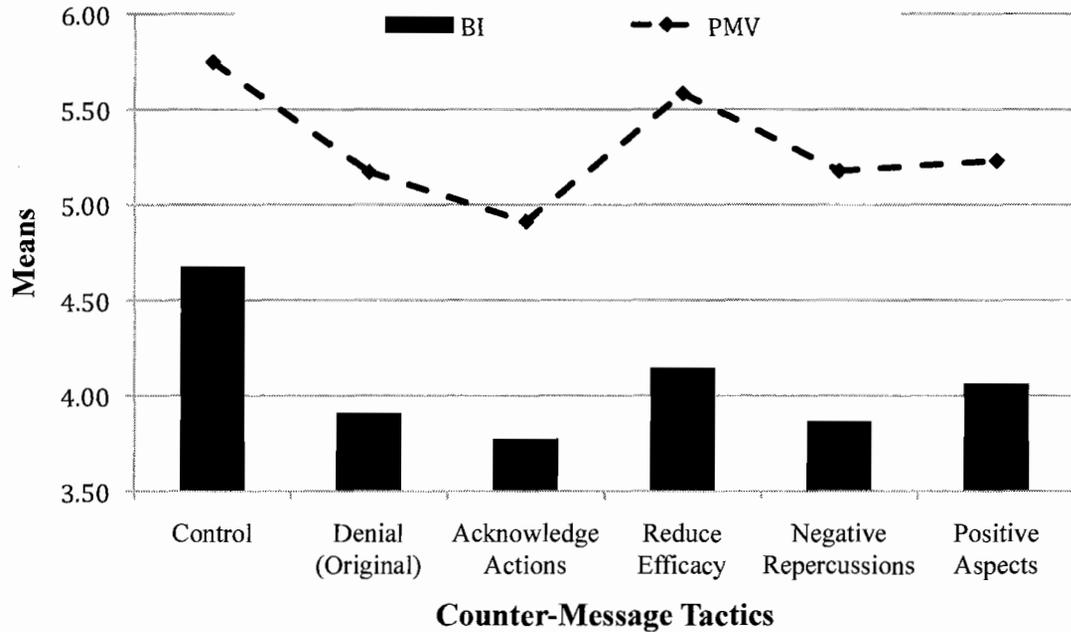
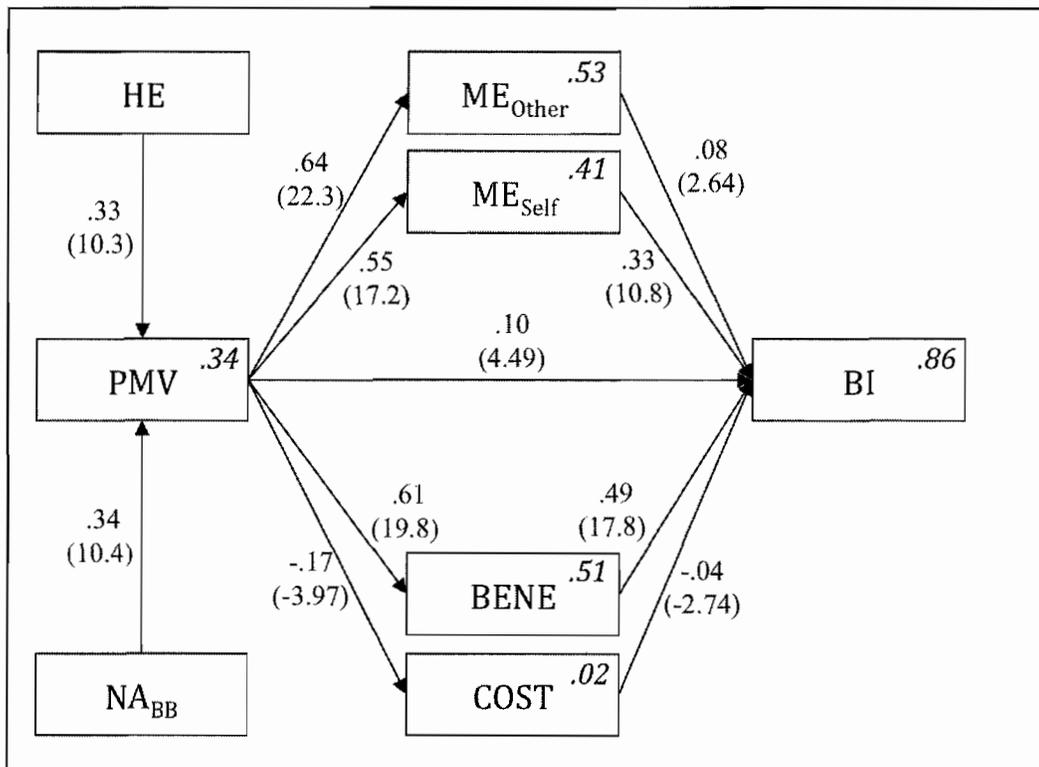


Figure 12. Effect of counter-messages on boycott intention (BI) and perceived moral violation (PMV).

Model Testing

Figure 13 illustrates the path diagram that was specified in AMOS (similar to Study 2). Appendix G provides the complete parameter estimates for the path diagram. The standardized maximum likelihood (ML) estimates of the direct effects are presented in Figure 13. The estimates of standardized indirect effects are presented in Table 23. The coefficient and significance of the indirect effects were estimated using bootstrapping in order to compare the direct and indirect effects. Bootstrapping was necessary in order to generate *SEs* for total indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). AMOS provides the bootstrap estimation of indirect effects and *SEs* as part of the overall SEM output so a separate analysis was not required (the default bootstrap iteration was 200). The results in Figure 13 represent a test of the hypothesized model using the data from Study 3.



Note: All path reported as standardized coefficients; T-values are shown in parentheses, paths denoted by solid lines are significant at $p < .05$ or better; *italics* = R^2 . HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses ; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions; BOYCOTT= Boycott Behavior (dichotomous).

Figure 13. Path analysis of hypothesized process model using Study 3 data.

The model fit to the data was very good, $\chi^2 = 43.0$, $df = 35$, $p < .001$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .02 (90% CI = .01; .03), SRMR = .02. All paths were significant in the path diagram. The model accounted for 86% of the variance in boycotting intention (BI). The significant indirect effect of PMV on BI (.54) was greater than the direct effect of PMV on BI (.10), suggesting that much of the PMV was expressed through other-condemning

moral emotions (ME_{Other}), self-conscious moral emotions (ME_{Self}), perceived benefits (BENE), and perceived costs (COST).

Table 23. Decomposition of Indirect Effects from Path Analysis (Study 3)

	HE	NA_{BB}	PMV
PMV			
ME_{Other}	.22	.22	
ME_{Self}	.19	.19	
BENE	.20	.20	
COST	-.06	-.06	
BI	.34	.25	.54

All $p < .01$

Three paths in the hypothesized model that were not significant in Study 2 were significant in Study 3. ME_{Self} appeared to be positively related to BI. This relationship suggests that the greater the degree of guilt, regret, shame, and embarrassment felt by the consumer as a result of the boycott situation, the greater the boycott intention. COST had the predicted, albeit small, inverse relationship with BI. Consistent with Klein et al. (2004), the greater the perceived cost due to either constrained consumption or counterarguments, the less likely consumers are willing to boycott. Finally, the path between PMV and BI was significant. This suggests that a direct relationship exists between PMV and BI that is not related to emotions and cost-benefit factors. There may exist heuristics that link the appraisal to intention that bypass the intervening processes, or another variable or process not accounted for in this model that should be examined in future research.

Consistent with the path analysis in Study 2, people with greater humanitarian-egalitarian orientation (HE) and negative attitude toward big businesses (NA_{BB}) were more likely to report greater PMV. PMV was a significant predictor of greater ME_{Other}, ME_{Self}, and BENE. In addition, HE, NA_{BB}, and PMV accounted for a good portion of the variance of ME_{Other} (53%), ME_{Self}(41%), and BENE (51%). Perceived cost (COST) continued to explain little variance in the overall model. Counterargument and constrained consumption had contributed little to boycott intention (BI) across three studies. The relationship between PMV and COST was weak ($b = -.17, SE = .03, p < .001$), and the relationship between COST on BI was weaker ($b = -.04, SE = .03, p < .01$). Only 2% of the variance of COST was explained by PMV, HE and NA_{BB}. This has been a consistent theme from Study 1 and Study 2. It is likely that in the context of easily substitutable products, COST may not be as important a variable as perceived boycott benefits (BENE). In the boycott situations presented in the experiment, it is possible that consumers paid attention primarily to benefits such as making a difference and self-enhancement benefit (“*What’s in it for me?*” and “*What’s in it for the affected party?*”). Counterarguments and constrained consumption associated with the boycott may be more of an afterthought elicited by the survey itself. Additional research on the relationship of COST and BI is needed to clarify if it is related to the boycott context or if it is related to a bias of people being more attentive to personal gains than costs. The findings pertaining to costs in this dissertation differed from previous research (i.e. Klein et al., 2004), and more research is needed to clarify the role of perceived cost in consumer boycott situations.

Alternative Models

A series of alternative or competing models were considered in addition to the hypothesized model (shown in Figure 14). The models are useful because they allow for competing models that vary on the directionality of variables to be tested.

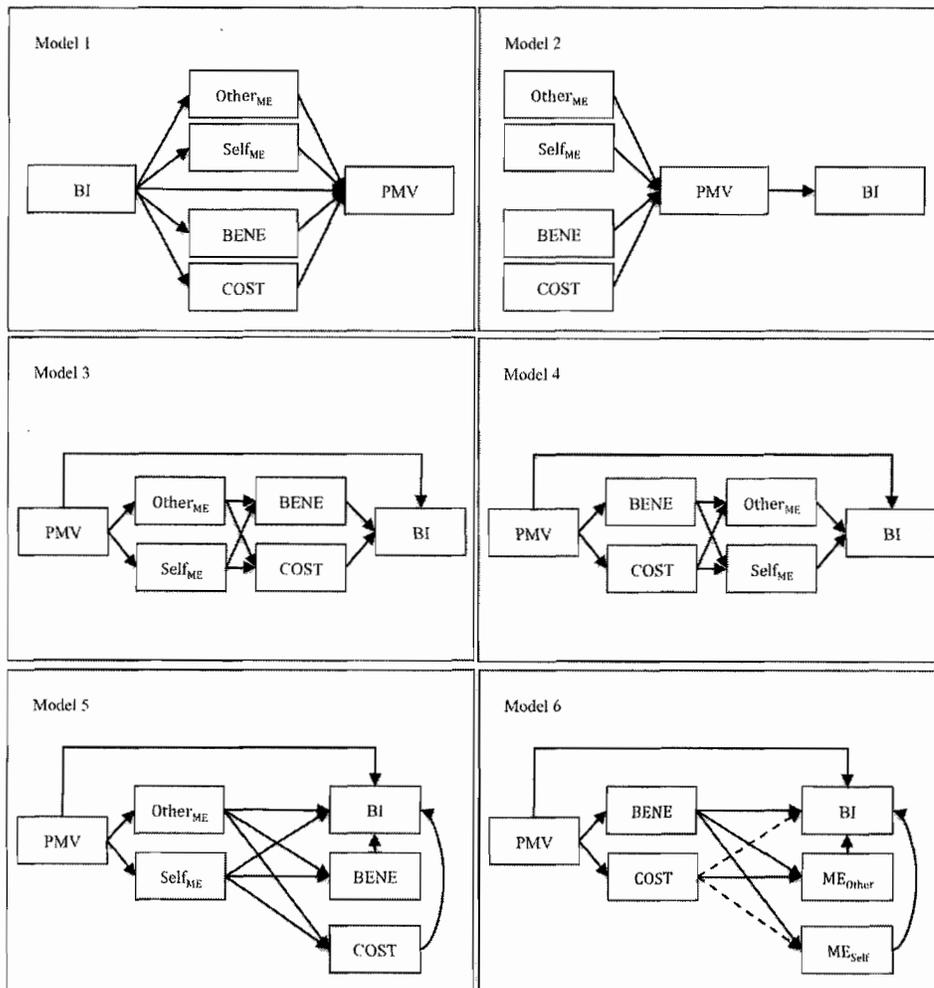


Figure 14. Structural configuration of alternative models (Study 3)

Humanitarian-egalitarian orientation (HE) and negative attitude toward big business (NA_{BB}) were included in the models but are not shown in the diagram for purposes of parsimony. These individual differences were modeled as exogenous variables related to perceived moral violation (PMV). The diagrams in Figure 14 are identical to the alternative path models tested in Study 2 (Figure 5) with the exception that boycott behavior was not included in the diagrams for Study 3. Unlike Study 2, the primary dependent variable in Study 3 is boycott intention (BI). Table 24 summarizes the fit statistic for each of the competing models.

Table 24. Alternative Models Fit Statistics (Study 3)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	AIC	Fit Assessment	
Base	43.0	35	< .001	1.00	0.02	.01; .03	0.02	129.0	Good
1	251.0	35	< .001	0.95	0.09	.08; .10	0.12	337.0	Moderate
2	1688	41	< .001	0.63	0.24	.23; .25	0.16	1761.8	Poor
3	304	37	< .001	0.94	0.10	.09; .11	0.04	385.8	Moderate
4	410	37	< .001	0.92	0.12	.12; .13	0.04	491.7	Poor
5	106	36	< .001	0.98	0.05	.04; .06	0.03	190.2	Good
6	250	36	< .001	0.95	0.08	.07; .10	0.06	323.6	Moderate

Based on the fit criteria established *a priori*, only Model 5 provided a viable alternate model to the baseline model. Model 5 demonstrated very good fit to the data, $\chi^2(36) = 106.0$, $p < .001$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .03, AIC 190.2. Model 5 was structurally consistent with the consumer coping models (i.e., Duhachek, 2005). Specifically, the primary feature of Model 5 is the direct relationship from moral emotions to boycott intention, perceived benefit, and perceived cost. This relationship suggests perceived benefits (BENE) may be part of a coping response to certain moral

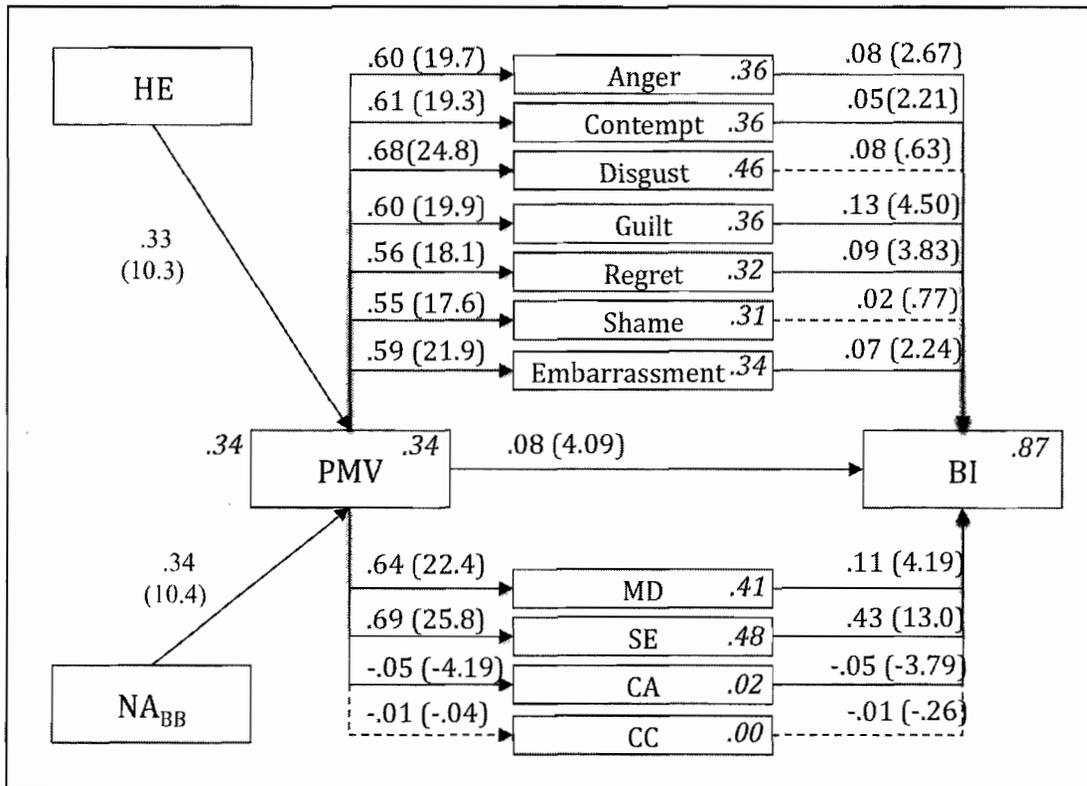
emotions. For example, the self-enhancement items, such as “*I would feel guilty*” and “*I would feel better about myself if I boycott,*” are responses that are more emotional than economic. The alternative model results in Study 3 mirror the findings in Study 2, where Model 5 provided a superior fit to the data. Reproducing the same alternative model across two studies and two samples provides good corroborative support for a consumer coping model.

Discrete Emotions and Individual Cost-Benefit Factors

Each of the moral emotions and cost-benefit factors were specified in the path model as independent variables (see Figure 15). The model fit was very good, $\chi^2 = 191.5$, $df = 94$, $p < .001$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .05. The model accounted for 87% of the variance for boycott intention (BI). Appendix G provides the complete list of parameter estimate. The indirect effect of perceived moral violation (PMV) on boycott intention (BI) was significant through all moral emotions except for disgust and shame. In both Study 2 and 3, self-enhancement (SE) provided the strongest link between PMV and BI. Making a difference was a significant predictor of boycott intention in Study 3, whereas it was not in Study 2. Constrained consumption was again non-significant as in Study 2, and counterarguments did not appear to be related to boycott intention to a great extent.

The importance of different moral emotions and cost-benefit factors appeared to differ depending on the type and context of the boycott. There was a richer set of moral emotions and cost-benefit factors that contributed to overall boycott intention in Study 3.

While other-condemning moral emotions (ME_{Other}), especially anger, played a greater role in boycotts in Study 2, the chocolate boycott in Study 3 appeared to be more reliant on self-conscious emotions such as guilt, regret, and embarrassment.



Note: All paths reported as standardized coefficients; T-values are shown in parentheses, paths denoted by solid lines are significant at $p < .05$ or better; *italics* = R^2 . HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses; PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions; BOYCOTT = Boycott Behavior (dichotomous). MD = Make a difference; SE = Self-enhancement; CA = Counter-argument; CC = Constrained Consumption

Figure 15. Path analysis of individual emotional and cost-benefit factors (Study 3).

Summary

The results of Study 3 suggested that boycott intention could best be minimized by managing a consumer's perceived moral violation; however, it appeared that any form of counter-messaging (with the exception of, perhaps, the reduced efficacy tactic) reduced boycott intention. Further, the performance of simply denying allegations of wrongdoing (original chocolate company response) may be as effective as admitting wrongdoing and taking corrective action.

Path analysis in Study 3 replicated and extended the findings in Study 2. Whereas other-condemning moral emotions (e.g., anger and contempt) were a stronger predictor of boycott intention in Study 2, the contributions of self-conscious moral emotions (e.g., guilt and regret) played a greater role in the Study 3. Analysis of individual emotional and cost-benefit factors suggested that moral emotions and benefits were key predictors of boycott intention. Anger, guilt, make-a-difference, and self-enhancement were the components that contributed the most to boycott intention. Both counterarguments and constrained consumption demonstrated weak relationships with perceived moral violation and boycott intention, consistent with findings in Study 1 and 2. Further investigation is needed to better understand the role of cost in the overall model.

Similar to the finding in Study 2, comparisons of alternative models suggested that an affect-driven configuration provided better fitting models. The replication of the directionality of the relationships based on the alternative model configuration with independent samples in Study 2 and 3 provided support that the boycotting process may more resemble consumer coping behavior than a cost-benefit assessment.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The phenomenon of consumer boycotts is multifaceted. It is therefore not surprising that the study of consumer boycotts is influenced by research in areas such as economics (Chavis & Leslie, 2009; John & Klein, 2003), brand transgressions (Aaker, Fournier, & Brasel, 2004), corporate social responsibility (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001), ethical consumption (Cooper-Martin & Holbrook, 1993), prosocial behavior (Bagozzi & Moore, 1994; Sen, et al., 2001), and consumer activism and retaliation (Grégoire & Fisher, 2006; Gregoire & Fisher, 2007; Kozinets & Handelman, 2004). The relatively small body of research on the topic primarily defines consumer boycotts with a traditional economic framework. In this view, boycotts are collective social actions predicated on individual cost-benefit analysis: consumers will withhold purchase if they perceive that eventual boycott outcome benefits outweigh immediate short-term sacrifices. This view may be sufficient to describe the analytical processes involved in more traditional boycotts; however, modern boycotts differ because the primary boycott motives and objectives are emotional rather than economic.

The current research contributes to boycott research by presenting an augmented consumer boycott model. The hypothesized model extends the older cost-benefit model by incorporating a complementary emotional process. In this new boycott model, the two

processes are thought to simultaneously contribute to the formation of consumer boycott intention. Specifically, the first process is the cost-benefit analysis. Consumers base their decision to boycott on individual evaluations of perceived costs and benefits. The second process is a coping mechanism based on moral emotions (Haidt, 2003; Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). In this process, consumer boycott intention is a response to the emotional distress generated by a boycott situation. The resultant two-process model is reminiscent of other dual-process models that have an emotional and a rational component such as the affective-cognitive model of consumer decision making (Shiv & Fedorikhin, 1999), the Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion (Cacioppo & Petty, 1984) or the two-system model of intuition and reasoning (Kahneman, 2003).

The new model expands on the ideas of Klein et al. (2004) and Sen et al. (2001). In their research, consumer boycotts were framed as prosocial behaviors, but little attention was paid to the crucial role that affect and coping processes play in prosocial behaviors. Therefore, the model considered in the current dissertation explicitly incorporates affective factors hypothesized to influence boycott decisions. These factors include perceived moral violation (an appraisal), moral emotions, and coping (boycott intention). When consumer boycott is conceptualized as consumer coping, boycott intention reflects a consumer's emotional response to the social injustice arising from a preferred brand's egregious actions that harms others.

Three studies in the current dissertation provide support for the hypothesized model. In an online survey of active boycott participants, Study 1 suggests that boycotts are emotionally complex situations involving other-condemning moral emotions (anger,

contempt, and disgust), self-conscious moral emotions (guilt, regret, embarrassment, and shame), and prosocial emotions (hope, empathy, and sympathy). In addition, emotions such as betrayal, trust, suspicion, and hatred are also relevant in boycott situations. Study 1 contributes to the boycott literature by identifying a list of emotions that have been overlooked in the boycott literature.

Study 2 links together two constructs supported in previous research: perception of moral violation and boycott intention (Klein, et al., 2004) and boycott intention and boycott behavior (Sen, et al., 2001). The results indicate that boycott intention mediates the direct effect of perceived moral violation on boycott behavior. The primary emphasis of Study 3 was to examine the applied implications of the hypothesized model. The effectiveness of a variety of counter-messaging tactics previously proposed by Klein et al. (2004) was tested. Study 3 confirms that managing perceived moral violation is the best way to manage boycott intention. Interestingly, any form of counter-message appears to reduce perceived moral violation, but the tactic of communicating positive change and acknowledgement, either denying wrongdoing or admitting wrongdoing, is most effective in reducing boycott intention.

A series of path analyses using the data from Study 2 and Study 3 supported the hypothesized two-process boycott model. The findings of the path analyses are consistent across both experiments. The use of path analysis offers three distinct advantages. First, it permits the simultaneous calculation of parameter estimates of direct and indirect effects hypothesized in the model. Second, it provides insights into the contribution made by individual predictors (discrete emotions and cost-benefit factors) to boycott intention.

For example, other-condemning moral emotions and perceived benefits were the most significant predictors of boycott intention in Study 2, whereas self-conscious moral emotions and perceived benefits were most predictive in Study 3. Overall, anger and guilt specifically appeared to be strong indicators of boycott intention. Finally, path analysis allows for the test of competing models that can then be compared to the hypothesized model.

A summary of key findings along with the theoretical and applied implication is presented in the remainder of this chapter for perceived moral violation, moral emotions, and the general indication that an affect-driven model is the proper configuration for the hypothesized model. Chapter V concludes with a discussion of the limitations of this research along with opportunities for future research.

Perceived Moral Violation

Perceived moral violation is a crucial determinant in consumer boycotts. The pattern of moral emotions, cost-benefit factors, boycott intention, and boycott behavior across three studies indicates that the overall consumer boycott model is contingent on a consumer's heightened sense of moral violation. This finding is consistent with prior research (i.e., John & Klein, 2003; Klein, et al., 2004; Sen, et al., 2001) and has even been recognized in the cost-benefit framework. For example, although never tested, Tyran and Engelmann (2005) have noted that "fairness considerations may be of considerable importance" (Tyran & Engelmann, 2005, p. 213).

In appraisal theory, the perception of social justice or fairness has been conceptualized as a dimension referred to as legitimacy or normative and moral comparability (Johnson & Stewart, 2004; Mauro, et al., 1992). Haidt (2001) proposed that moral judgments are “caused by quick moral intuitions and is followed (when needed) by slow, ex post facto moral reasoning” (p. 817). Moral intuition is a form of cognition that involves less elaboration than reasoning. Thus, perceptions and intuitions, followed by emotions and reasoning, contribute to the formation of boycott intentions.

Perceived moral violation and boycott intention appear to be tightly coupled. In Study 2, perceived moral violation was positively related to boycott intention and boycott behavior. Moreover, boycott intention was found to fully mediate the effect of perceived moral violation on boycott behavior, thus indicating that intention is a more proximal indicator of behavior than perceived moral violation. The mediation results also confirm the strong relationship between perceived moral violations and boycott intention. This effect was replicated in Study 3, where a reduction in perceived moral violation was found to reduce boycott intention in a nearly monotonic fashion.

Path analyses in Study 2 and Study 3 provide additional insights into the relationship between perceived moral violations and boycott intention. The indirect effect of perceived moral violation through both moral emotions and cost-benefit variables is greater than the direct effect of perceived moral violation on boycott intention. This finding suggests that intervening emotional and cost-benefit processes together help account for the considerable amount of variance in boycott intention. More importantly,

the findings support the key proposition that an emotional process contributes to the overall formation of boycott intention independently of the cost-benefit analysis.

In addition, a contribution to the boycott literature was the identification of two individual difference variables found to influence intention to boycott. Humanitarian-egalitarian orientation and negative attitude toward big businesses were both significantly related to perceived moral violation in boycott situations. In Study 2, a significant difference was found between boycotters and non-boycotters in humanitarian-egalitarian orientation. Those scoring higher in humanitarian-egalitarian orientation were more likely to be boycotters than non-boycotters. Further, path analyses in Study 2 and Study 3 provide support that both individual differences had significant indirect effects on boycott intention. Respondents who held greater humanitarian-egalitarian orientation and negative attitude toward big businesses perceived a greater degree of moral violation, formed stronger boycott intention, and had greater tendency to take boycott action.

The managerial implications of the key findings are straightforward. The management of perceived moral violation is the most important task for corporate public relations and boycott organizers. For public relations practitioners, timely and appropriate response to any pro-boycott message is necessary. Although it appears that any counter-message tactic will do, counter-messages aimed at reducing moral violation through acknowledgement (or denial) of the egregious act and communicating ameliorating actions are more effective in reducing consumer boycott intention. Although the specific tactic to reduce perceived moral violation might differ, the potentially detrimental effect of trying to deceive the consumer (for example, denial or lying) may be less beneficial in

the long term. Instead, simply acknowledging wrongdoing and making reparations may be the simplest way to proceed. In addition, based on the qualitative responses in Study 1, simply conceding and making amends to boycotters demand to resolve the boycott may not be sufficient to end the consumer's intention to boycott. The data suggest that it is not uncommon for boycotters to continue to boycott even after boycott issues are resolved. The implication of this is that consumers must be wooed back as new customers.

For boycott organizers, perceived moral violation is predicated on the belief that a corporation has abused its power. Boycott activists are more likely to generate the moral emotions required to engage a coping response leading to a boycott intention by issuing messages that contrast the company's intent, size, and power with the disenfranchised affected parties that are unable to protect themselves.

Moral Emotions

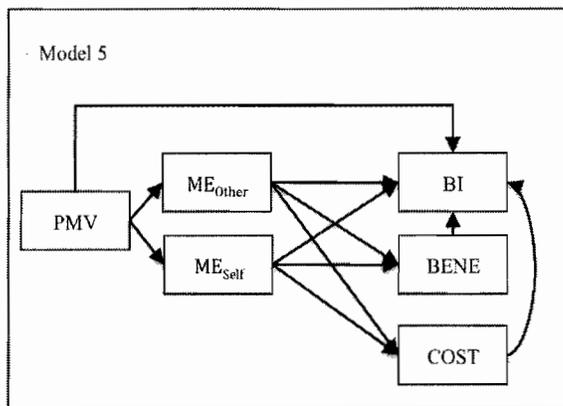
The current research suggests that it is imprudent to exclude the consideration of emotions in models of boycott intentions. Emotions are distinct variables that need to be measured independently. It is unfortunate that earlier research did not incorporate emotions since moral emotions appear to be a consistent predictor of boycott intention. In Study 1, other-condemning moral emotions (as well as prosocial emotions) differentiated between symbolic and instrumental boycotts. Emotion items were rated significantly higher in symbolic boycotts than in instrumental boycotts. This signifies the greater emotional reactivity in boycotts that are motivated by a need for expression, punishment, and clean hands. The findings in Study 2 and Study 3 are consistent with Haidt's (2003)

assertion that anger and guilt are prototypical other-condemning moral emotions that elicit greater prosocial action tendency in support of another. The path analyses also replicate Montada and Schneider's (1989) findings that anger and guilt are significant predictors of prosocial action as the consequence of perceived injustice. In Study 2, anger is the only moral emotion significantly related to boycott intention. The relationship between self-conscious moral emotions and boycott intention did not achieve significance. This is not surprising because all of the stimuli in Study 2 focused blame on the target brand, so other-condemning moral emotions had greater influence on boycott intention than self-conscious emotions. In Study 3, both other-condemning emotions (anger and contempt) and self-conscious moral emotions (guilt and regret) were significantly related to boycott intention as predicted in the hypothesized model. Overall, the general results of the studies presented here support Haidt's (2003) assertion that moral emotions lead to moral action. Boycott intention is influenced by the emotional distress associated with social injustice and moral violation.

An Affect-Driven Model

The primary finding from the current dissertation appears to be that boycotting strongly resembles a consumer coping process. A two-process model that incorporates moral emotions and cost-benefit factors is a good starting point for model development. This configuration provides the ability for other-condemning and self-conscious moral emotions and perceived benefit and cost to directly influence boycott intention. The hypothesized model was partially supported in Study 2 and fully supported in Study 3.

However, the path analyses of alternative models that test the directionality and sequence of the variables in the model strongly suggest a distinct hierarchical ordering. In both Study 2 and Study 3, the affect-driven models appear to perform better relative to the other alternative models. Specifically, Model 5 (see Figure 13) provides the best alternative model to the hypothesized model in both Study 2 and Study 3. In Model 5, moral emotions precede cost-benefit factors and moral emotions are directly related to boycott intention. In this model, cost-benefit factors are conceptually part of the consumer coping process described by Duhachek (2005) as rational thinking where a consumer deliberately “attempts to prevent subjective emotions from directing behavior” (p. 44).



Note: PMV = Perceived Moral Violation; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions.

Figure 16. Best fitting alternative model (Model 5)

Although both Model 5 and the hypothesized models are coping process models, Model 5 provides superior fit in Study 2 (which includes a behavioral measure for boycotting) and is more structurally consistent with the configuration of other affective-cognitive models. For example, the elements included in the affect-driven model are consistent with those highlighted in Kahneman's (2003) two-system model in which a rapid affective system (System 1) is engaged initially and this is then followed by a slower more deliberate process of reasoning (System 2) when the situation calls for greater elaboration. Both Haidt's (2001) moral emotion theory and Duhachek's (2005) consumer coping behavior are derivations of the two-system model. In Haidt's model of moral judgment, moral intuition (moral emotions) is fast and effortless, and is followed by a slower moral reasoning process when necessary. In Duhachek's emotional-cognitive model of coping, emotions are thought to lead to more rational thinking. The affect-driven boycott model tested in this dissertation incorporates similar features of these three models if a cost-benefit analysis is considered to be equivalent to a slow and deliberate reasoning process. Thus, the initial appraisal of perceived moral violation and subsequent emotions form the rapid System 1 response, and the cost-benefit analysis characterizes the slower System 2 (moral reasoning, rational thinking/cognitive perceptions) response.

In conclusion, affective components such as cognitive appraisals and emotions appear to lead the way in boycott situations. It is likely that consumers participate in boycotts because they are angry at a company's egregious act or feel guilty about consuming products that contribute to harming others. Because existing cost-benefit models do not explicitly account for the possibility that consumers may boycott for

reasons other than economic benefits and costs, the current research proposes new boycott models based on both emotions and cost-benefit factors to close this gap.

Limitations and Future Research

Several shortcomings in the current research provide opportunities for future research. Consumer boycott research can greatly benefit from continued boycott research in four areas. First, better measures of perceived costs and benefits are needed to build a more comprehensive consumer boycott model. Second, additional research is needed to examine how moral emotions in boycott situations may vary across product category and boycott types. Third, better boycott behavior measures are needed for marketing research and application. Fourth, continued research is needed to better understand the sequence and timing of messages and counter-messages and how they play out, since the marketplace has become a social forum for consumer activism.

It was difficult to clearly establish a relationship between perceived cost (counterarguments and constrained consumption) and boycott intention. In Study 1, constrained consumption scored low relative to the midpoint of the scale and counterarguments scored near the midpoint, suggesting that these two evaluations contributed little to consumers' motivation to boycott. Further, the relationship between the perceived costs variable and boycott intention was non-significant in Study 2 and was very weak in Study 3. Another indication of the weak relationship was that very little of the variance for perceived costs was accounted for in the overall model in either Study 2 or Study 3 (less than 5% in all instances). One interpretation may be that perceived costs

have little role in the overall model and that consumers attend only to perceived benefits. Such an interpretation would be contrary to earlier models where costs were accounted for in economic terms. Another possibility is that the perceived costs variable was misspecified and may function differently than what was tested in the hypothesized model. Klein et al.'s (2004) measure for perceived economic benefits was more related to emotional response than economic value, so modeling perceived costs as the opposite of benefits may not be entirely appropriate. Additional research is needed to examine how the variable for perceived costs is related to other variables in the model, if such relationships exist. Quite simply, a better set of measures for economic costs and benefits are needed.

More research is needed on discrete moral emotions and moral emotion groups. Moral emotions were not individually manipulated in any of the studies. A follow-up study in which a few discrete moral emotions (for example, anger and guilt) are directly manipulated is needed to provide a better understanding of the role played by moral emotions in boycotting intention and behaviors. In addition, the individual contributions made by other-condemning and self-conscious moral emotions to boycott intention appeared to differ vary from one boycott situation to another in the current research. Future research is needed to better understand how product category, boycott types, and different situations may affect each of these emotion groups.

Very few behavioral measures for boycotting exist because the behavior is difficult to directly observe. It is difficult to conclusively tie sales figures (Chavis & Leslie, 2009; Klein, et al., 2004) to specific boycott activities or advocacy messages due

to extraneous factors that exist in real-world data. Behavioral intention measures have demonstrated some success in predicting consumer boycott intention but only in simulated environments (Study 2; Sen, et al., 2001). In the end, boycott decisions may be made at the point of sale. Potentially, new technology that includes both measures of boycott intention and the ability to track consumer purchase behavior (i.e., retail loyalty programs and scanner-based tracking records) over extensive periods of time may provide a more conclusive measure for actual boycott behavior.

An important aspect of messaging and counter-messaging was not fully explored in this dissertation. The order of messages and follow-up messages provide an interesting avenue of research. In the experimental studies, only pro-boycott messages and corporate counter-messages were provided. If a company knows in advance that it cannot avoid certain actions, it is possible for marketing communications and public relations to preemptively issue counter-messages in advance of pro-boycott messages (Klein, et al., 2004). A company may choose to take the lead in order to inoculate its audience against increased levels of perceived moral violation. Another possibility is that pro-boycott supporters may issue a public rebuttal to the corporate counter-message. This could be especially damaging if the corporate counter-message denied allegations or used deceptive tactics and the rebuttal called attention to the company's less than truthful intentions. A key question is whether preemptive and follow-up messages can increase or reduce perceived moral violation.

In addition to understanding how the perceived moral violation, moral emotions, cost-benefit factors, and boycott intention relate in a simple message/counter-message

scenario, further research regarding the ordering of messages, counter-messages, and counter-counter-messages, etc., may provide additional insight into the workings of the marketplace as a social forum (Kozinets & Handelman, 2004). The timing of the response may play a role in affecting perceptions of moral violation. For example, the one-year delay Toyota made in acknowledging its defects may have significantly damaged their brand image (Healey, 2010; Philips, 2010). Recalls are a regular occurrence for major automobile companies. Toyota's communication delay can be contrasted with timely and public communication in the same types of recall situations faced by other manufacturers. Immediate and honest communication along with ameliorating actions generally diffuses consumer anger with little media fanfare. Thus, message sequence and timing, in addition to counter-message tactic, would be a natural next step in the investigation of the application of the hypothesized model.

Postscript

Perhaps it is naïve and overly optimistic to assert that research into consumer boycotts, perceived moral violations, and moral emotions can provide insight into the human condition. However, the results of the current research suggest that modern consumers care about the welfare of others rather than just their own self-centered economic interests. When confronted with a social injustice, it appears that consumers are moved by personal convictions and emotions to take action to correct the injustice. In our materialistic consumer culture, there may be the seed of doing *good* even in the consumption of basic goods.

APPENDIX A

SUMMARY OF PRIOR BOYCOTT RESEARCH

Table A-1. Summary of Prior Boycott Research and References to Emotions

Article	Year	Level of Analysis	Orientation	Method	Perspective/ Theory	Emotions Referenced
Mahoney (1976)	1976		CB	Survey		
Miller & Sturdivant (1977)	1977	Individual, Firm	CB	Survey, Panel (Natural Experiment)	CSR	
Witkowski	1989	Individual	CB	Historical	Descriptive	
Kozinets & Handelman (1998)	1998	Individual	CB	Ethnography	Interpretative	Guilt, "Morality"
Sen, Zeynep & Morwitz (2001)	2001	Individual	CB	Experimental	Cost-Benefit, Social Dilemma	
John & Klein (2003)	2003	Individual, Group	CB	Dynamic Economic Model	Cost-Benefit	<i>Anger, Guilt, Outrage</i>
Klein, Smith, & Andrew (2004)	2004	Individual, Group	CB	Survey (Natural Experiment)	Cost-Benefit	Guilt*
Farah (Working)		Individual	CB	Survey	Theory of Planned Behavior	
Smith (1990)	1990		Consumer Policy & Activism	Case Studies	CSR	<i>Anger, Guilt, Moral Outrage</i>
Friedman (1985, 1991, 1995, 1999)	1999		Consumer Policy & Activism	Historical, Secondary, Survey		<i>Anger, Moral Outrage</i>
Innes (2006)	2006	Firm	Economic	Economic Modeling	Asymmetric Information	

Article	Year	Level of Analysis	Orientation	Method	Perspective/ Theory	Emotions Referenced
Tyran & Engelmann (2005)	2005		Economics	Experimental		
Garrett (1987)	1987		Marketing Management	Survey, Secondary		

* Measured

APPENDIX B
STUDY 1 SURVEY INSTRUMENT

	Strongly Disagree									Strongly Agree
Boycotting may be counterproductive to negotiating a agreeable compromise with [company].	<input type="radio"/>									
Boycotting may put [company]'s workers in danger or cause unforeseen harm to those who are not responsible for the situation.	<input type="radio"/>									

Please state how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree									Strongly Agree
It would be difficult for me to give up the product(s) from [company]	<input type="radio"/>									
It would be difficult for me to give up the product(s)	<input type="radio"/>									

Qualitative

We would like you to tell us more about your boycott against [company]. For each of the following questions, please feel free to discuss feelings, thoughts, reasons, or any other factors you feel are crucial to your boycott participation.

What is the story behind what motivated you to join the boycott against [company]? How did you find out about the boycott?

Under what circumstances would you end your boycott of [company]?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Unions impose too many restrictions on employers.	<input type="radio"/>					
The selfishness of employers can be fought only by strong unions.	<input type="radio"/>					
Workers should have to join a union in order to hold a job.	<input type="radio"/>					

Please indicate below your agreement or disagreement with the following statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
Big business has too much power in this country	<input type="radio"/>				

Demographics

What is your age?

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Less than High School
- High School / GED
- Some College
- 2-year College Degree
- 4-year College Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctoral Degree
- Professional Degree (JD, MD)

What is your gender?

male

female

What is your race?

- White/Caucasian
- Black/African American
- Hispanic

Asian

- Native American
- Pacific Islander
- Middle Eastern
- Other

Please type below your email address if you are interesting in following this research and receiving a report of the results? Our team is very interested in keeping this research project transparent and accessible by the public. Thank you for your participation!

APPENDIX C

STUDY 2 SURVEY INSTRUMENT & STIMULI

Exhibit A. Study 2 Survey Instrument (Stages 1 & 3)

The survey instrument for the first and third stages is identical. Each stage evaluates participant attitude toward a variety of national brands then asks participants to choose between these brands in a shopping simulation. At the end of the first stage, the individual difference measures for humanitarian-egalitarian orientation and negative attitude towards big businesses are also gathered.

Brand Evaluation Instructions (Stages 1 & 3)

PART 1. NATIONAL BRANDS

INSTRUCTIONS: You will be shown 16 national brands and be asked to rate your attitudes towards these brands. You will also be asked about often you purchase products from these national brands. Please move quickly through each of the brands. There are no right or wrong answers. We are primarily interested in people's opinions on common brands that you see everyday at the shopping market.

After the instructions, participants are presented brand logos and corresponding brand attitude measures. The following table summarizes the product category and brands presented in the first and third stages of the study. The product categories marked with an asterisk (*) are boycott targets in the second stage of the study.

Stage 1

Product	Brands
Batteries*	Duracell, Energizer
Chocolates*	Hershey's, Nestle
Toothpaste*	Colgate, Crest
Cola	Coca-Cola, Pepsi
Detergent	Purex, Tide
Ibuprofen	Advil, Motrin
Frozen Pizza	Freschetta, Totino's

Stage 3

Product	Brands
Batteries*	Duracell, Energizer
Chocolates*	Hershey's, Nestle
Toothpaste*	Colgate, Crest
Cereal	General Mills, Kelloggs
Shampoo	Aveeno, Neutrogena
Cookies	Famous Amos, Keebler
Sponges	OCellO, Scotch-Brite

First, participants are asked to provide attitude measures for all 16 brands that correspond to the above tables. An example of one brand attitude measure is presented as follows.

BRAND X

How would you describe your attitude towards ABOVE brand?

Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable						
Negative	<input type="radio"/>	Positive						
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	Good						

If the product from the ABOVE brand was not available when you are shopping,

	never	very likely
...how likely would you consider buying the same product from another brand?	<input type="radio"/>							

Second, after all brands have been evaluated, the participants are asked to complete an online shopping simulation based on the brands just evaluated.

Shopping Simulation Instructions (Stages 1 & 3)

PART 2. SHOPPING SIMULATION

Instructions: The next part of the study is a shopping simulation that investigates your familiarity and preference for major U.S. brands. You will be asked to select between major brands and identify how much you would be willing to pay for items on a shopping list. Do not worry if you are not familiar with the brand, have never purchased the brand before, or have never used the product before: simply choose a brand that appeals to you from the options given. Also, do not worry about the providing exact estimates of the actual of the product. Just indicate how much you are willing to pay for the branded products based on personal shopping experience.

Participants are presented seven product categories in random order and asked to choose one of the brands to put into their shopping cart. Below is an example of how each product category is presented in the shopping simulation.

1.2 liter bottle of cola (or diet cola) is on your shopping list. The following two brands are the only brands available in the store. Which brand would you prefer to purchase?

Coca Cola Pepsi Do not purchase

Use the slider bar below to indicate the maximum amount of money you would be willing to pay for a bottle of cola of the brand you indicated.

0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20

\$

Exhibit B. Study 2 Survey Instrument (Stage 2)

Boycott Measures							
Regarding the boycott situation, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.							
	disagree						strongly agree
This situation is unfair for those affected.	<input type="radio"/>						
I believe the company's actions are egregious.	<input type="radio"/>						
I consider this issue a social injustice.	<input type="radio"/>						
I regard the company's actions as unethical.	<input type="radio"/>						
Please indicate how likely you would engage in the following activities as a result of reading this editorial about the company that is the target of the boycott?							
	Not likely						Very likely
Discusses my dissatisfaction with regards to the company in private	<input type="radio"/>						
Consider and think about withholding purchase of the company's products	<input type="radio"/>						
Actually withhold purchasing the company's products	<input type="radio"/>						
Seek out and purchase a competitors products	<input type="radio"/>						
Publicly discuss my dissatisfaction with the company	<input type="radio"/>						
Publicly discuss boycott and attempt to persuade other people to join	<input type="radio"/>						
Based on what you have read, please indicate how likely you are to participate in the boycott mentioned in the article:							
Definitely not boycott	<input type="radio"/>	Definitely boycott					
Extremely unlikely	<input type="radio"/>	Extremely likely					
Not at all probable	<input type="radio"/>	Highly probably					
While reading the news article based on the instructions given before the boycott article, please indicate the degree							

	Strongly Disagree									Strongly Agree
I probably do not need to boycott this company; enough other people are doing so.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I probably do not buy enough of this company's products for it to be worthwhile boycotting; it would not even be noticed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Boycotting may be counterproductive to negotiating a agreeable compromise with this company.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Boycotting may put this company's workers in danger or cause unforeseen harm to those who are not responsible for the situation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please state how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your purchase and consumption of the boycott product.										
	Strongly Disagree									Strongly Agree
It would be difficult for me to give up the product(s) from [company]	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It would be difficult for me to give up the product(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please indicate below if you agree or disagree regarding the effectiveness of consumer boycotts.										
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree			
This boycott is a very effective way of getting the company to stop its business practices	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>			
I am confident that the consumer boycott will ensure that the company will cease its actions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>			
I am certain that boycott action will force the company to make reparations to the affected parties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>			
How much or how little do you care about the issue described in the article?										
Do not care at all	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Care a great deal		

To what extent are you concerned about human rights in developing countries?

Not at all concerned

Extremely concerned

How bothered are you by the human rights violation reported?

Not bothered at all

Extremely bothered

How important or unimportant is it to you that company ceases its business practices as reported in the article?

Not at all important

Extremely Important

In general, how would you characterize boycotts based on the descriptions below:

not at all useful

very useful

very bad idea

very good idea

very negative

very positive

not at all favorable

very favorable

Manipulation Check - BOYCOTT

In the article about the consumer boycott, what product did the article want you to boycott?

- Chocolates
- Batteries
- Toothpaste
- Detergent

In the article about the consumer boycott, what brand did the article want you to boycott? (Please type the name of the brand or company in the space provided below).

Exhibit C. Manipulation (Perspective)

Note: These were the instructions provided to participants as part of the perspective manipulation. Each participant was shown one of the following instructions prior to reading the boycott stimuli.

- Emotional **We are interested in your feelings and emotions regarding the topic in the following news article. Please read the article from a very involved perspective, paying special attention to your feelings and how you feel about the situation. It is VERY IMPORTANT that you focus on your emotions rather than think about the economic implications or the pros and cons of the situation.**
- Rational **We are interested in your thoughts and opinions regarding the topic in the following news article. Please read the article from a detached, objective, and rational perspective and consider the economic impact on you. It is VERY IMPORTANT that you focus on the economic implications and pros and cons of the situation and that you ignore your feelings regarding the situation.**
- Control **We are interested in your feelings and thoughts regarding the topic in the following news article. Please read the article carefully and answer the following questions.**

Exhibit D. Toothpaste Boycott – Positive Frame (i.e. Crest)

Free Burma Coalition Calls for Proctor & Gamble Boycott

By Steven J. Brown

WASHINGTON, D.C. – Over the last decade, most prominent American companies have pulled out of Burma in response to the mounting pressure against that country's widespread and grave human-rights violations. One company that has so far resisted such pressures is the consumer goods giant Proctor & Gamble, which continues to sell its products in Burma. However, that may change with the recent call for a consumer boycott of all P&G products including popular toothpaste brand Crest.

In May 1990, the people of Burma democratically elected the party of Nobel Peace Laureate San Suu Kyi to government by an overwhelming 82% of the vote. Soon after this landslide victory however, Prime Minister Suu Kyi was imprisoned and her party crushed by a group of powerful generals called SLORC (State Law and Order Restoration Council). To this day, SLORC maintains its reign of terror, enforcing its will by rape, forced child labor, and torture. This group continues to torture Suu Kyi's supporters, attack and displace millions of civilians, and enslave thousands of children as army porters and human mine sweepers.

The Free Burma Coalition issued a statement yesterday asking all consumers to boycott P&G products, including Crest branded toothpaste, until the company pulls out of Burma. Calling on all consumers to use their purchasing power to put a stop to the pervasive violation of human rights in Burma, Kathy Jo Benton, spokesperson for this human rights organization, emphasized the importance of consumer boycotts in weakening the military's grip on this small south-east Asian country. Speaking on behalf of The Free Burma Coalition, Ms. Benton stated that "All foreign investments are regulated by SLORC. It is not possible to do business in Burma without directly supporting the military government and its unacceptable violation of human rights. The simple act of refusing to buy P&G products, like Crest branded toothpaste, will send a clear message to the company that responsible consumers will not abide by corporate sponsorship of an authoritarian regime, demonstrate to the Burmese people that the world is aware of their plight and willing to take action, and help end the brutality and slavery in Burma."

(Original text modified from Sen et al. 2001)

Exhibit E. Toothpaste Boycott – Negative Frame (i.e. Crest)

Free Burma Coalition Calls for Proctor & Gamble Boycott

By Steven J. Brown

WASHINGTON, D.C. – Over the last decade, most prominent American companies have pulled out of Burma in response to the mounting pressure against that country's widespread and grave human-rights violations. One company that has so far resisted such pressures is the consumer goods giant Proctor & Gamble, which continues to sell its products in Burma. However, that may change with the recent call for a consumer boycott of all P&G products including popular toothpaste brand Crest.

In May 1990, the people of Burma democratically elected the party of Nobel Peace Laureate San Suu Kyi to government by an overwhelming 82% of the vote. Soon after this landslide victory however, Prime Minister Suu Kyi was imprisoned and her party crushed by a group of powerful generals called SLORC (State Law and Order Restoration Council). To this day, SLORC maintains its reign of terror, enforcing its will by rape, forced child labor, and torture. This group continues to torture Suu Kyi's supporters, attack and displace millions of civilians, and

enslave thousands of children as army porters and human mine sweepers.

The Free Burma Coalition issued a statement yesterday asking all consumers to boycott P&G products, including Crest branded toothpaste, until the company pulls out of Burma. Calling on all consumers to use their purchasing power to put a stop to the pervasive violation of human rights in Burma, Kathy Jo Benton, spokesperson for this human rights organization, emphasized the importance of consumer boycotts in weakening the military's grip on this small south-east Asian country. Speaking on behalf of The Free Burma Coalition, Ms. Benton stated that "All foreign investments are regulated by SLORC. It is not possible to do business in Burma without directly supporting the military government and its unacceptable violation of human rights. If consumers continue to buy P&G products, like Crest branded toothpaste, the company will never be held accountable for its socially irresponsible actions, consumers will fail to demonstrate their support for Burmese people, and the brutality and slavery in Burma will never end."

(Original text modified from Sen et al., 2001)

Exhibit F. Chocolate Boycott – Positive Frame (i.e. Hershey’s)**Global Exchange Calls for Hershey’s Boycott**

By Steven J. Brown

WASHINGTON, D.C. – Over the last decade, most prominent American confectionaries have stopped using slave cocoa beans and moved to using Fair Trade cocoa beans in their products in response to mounting pressures against the widespread human-rights violation in the harvest of cocoa beans. One company that has so far resisted such pressures is Hershey’s which continues to purchase cacao bean from sources that employ child slaves. However, that may change with the recent call for a consumer boycott of all Hershey’s products.

In an in-depth BBC report, it is estimated that at least 12,000 children have been sold into slavery to provide the necessary cheap labor needed to harvest cocoa beans in the Ivory Coast. The Ivory Coast produces over 80% of the beans sold by the global cocoa exchange. Boys as young as 11 years old from neighboring impoverished countries of Benin, Togo, and Mali are kidnapped and sold into slavery to work on cocoa plantations. These child laborers are imprisoned on the farms and work in harsh conditions. Children as small as age 8 are expected to harvest and carry 20-pound cocoa sacks sixteen

hours a day. UNICEF is extremely alarmed at the rate of mutilation and death on these farms.

The Global Exchange issued a recent statement asking all consumers to boycott Hershey’s products until the company stops purchasing cacao beans harvested by child slaves. Calling on all consumers to use their purchasing power to put a stop to the proliferation of slavery, Kathy Jo Benton, spokesperson for the Global Exchange, emphasized the importance of consumer boycotts in influencing corporate social responsibility. Speaking on behalf of The Global Exchange, Ms. Benton stated “it is inconceivable that a modern company is willing to employ slavery to produce something that we buy every day when alternatives like Fair Trade chocolates are readily available. The simple act of refusing to buy Hershey’s chocolate products will send a clear message to the company that responsible consumers will not abide by the gross abuse of human rights for profit, demonstrate to the child slaves that the world is aware of their plight and willing to take action, and help end the proliferation of slavery.”

Exhibit G. Chocolate Boycott – Negative Frame (i.e. Hershey’s)

Global Exchange Calls for Hershey’s Boycott

By Steven J. Brown

WASHINGTON, D.C. – Over the last decade, most prominent American confectionaries have stopped using slave cocoa beans and moved to using Fair Trade cocoa beans in their products in response to mounting pressures against the widespread human-rights violation in the harvest of cocoa beans. One company that has so far resisted such pressures is Hershey’s which continues to purchase cacao bean from sources that employ child slaves. However, that may change with the recent call for a consumer boycott of all Hershey’s products.

In an in-depth BBC report, it is estimated that at least 12,000 children have been sold into slavery to provide the necessary cheap labor needed to harvest cocoa beans in the Ivory Coast. The Ivory Coast produces over 80% of the beans sold by the global cocoa exchange. Boys as young as 11 years old from neighboring impoverished countries of Benin, Togo, and Mali are kidnapped and sold into slavery to work on cocoa plantations. These child laborers are imprisoned on the farms and work in harsh conditions. Children as small as age 8 are expected to harvest

and carry 20-pound cocoa sacks sixteen hours a day. UNICEF is extremely alarmed at the rate of mutilation and death on these farms.

The Global Exchange issued a recent statement asking all consumers to boycott Hershey’s products until the company stops purchasing cocoa beans harvested by child slaves. Calling on all consumers to use their purchasing power to put a stop to the proliferation of slavery, Kathy Jo Benton, spokesperson for the Global Exchange, emphasized the importance of consumer boycotts in influencing corporate social responsibility. Speaking on behalf of The Global Exchange, Ms. Benton stated “it is inconceivable that a modern company is willing to employ slavery to produce something that we buy every day when alternatives like Fair Trade chocolates are readily available. If consumers continue to buy Hershey’s products, the company will never be held accountable for its socially irresponsible actions, consumers will fail to demonstrate their support for child slave, and the proliferation of slavery will never end.”

Exhibit H. Battery Boycott – Negative Frame (i.e. Duracell)**CWA Calls for Duracell Boycott**

By Steven J. Brown

WASHINGTON, D.C. – Over the last decade, most prominent American firms have closed their overseas workshops that required physical handling of spent dry cell batteries to reclaim the recyclable carbon cores. Most firms now favor automated recycling facilities both for safety and efficiency reasons. However, Duracell continues contract workshops in the poorest Asian countries, such as Bangladesh, which often skirt global child labor laws. This may change with the recent call for a consumer boycott of all Duracell products.

A recent CNN documentary reported that children as young as three or four break open discarded batteries with hammers in order to remove the recyclable carbon rods and tiny pieces of reusable metal. They earn 30 to 50 taka (15 to 20 U.S. cents) per day. The environment in and around the workshops is polluted by carbon dust and other toxic material. The hours are long, the work tedious, and everything—walls, ceilings and even the children's faces—is covered with black carbon dust. The children constantly lick their lips to keep them wet, literally eating

toxic dust particles. Often only the whites of their eyes and red shiny lips are visible. The particles they inhale can lead to black lung disease and cancer.

Child Workers in Asia (CWA), an association of about 70 non-governmental organizations and groups in 14 countries, issued a recent statement asking all consumers to boycott Duracell products. Calling on all consumers to use their purchasing power to put a stop to the proliferation of child labor, Kathy Jo Benton, spokesperson for the CWA, emphasized the importance of consumer boycotts in influencing corporate social responsibility. Speaking on behalf of the CWA, Ms. Benton stated “it is inconceivable that a modern company is willing to employ young children in such hazardous conditions when mechanized alternatives exist. The simple act of refusing to buy Duracell batteries will send a clear message to the company that responsible consumers will not abide by the gross abuse of human rights for profit, demonstrate to the child laborers that the world is aware of their plight and willing to take action, and help end to child labor in the world.”

Exhibit I. Battery Boycott – Negative Frame (i.e. Duracell)**CWA Calls for Duracell Boycott**

By Steven J. Brown

WASHINGTON, D.C. – Over the last decade, most prominent American firms have closed their overseas workshops that required physical handling of spent dry cell batteries to reclaim the recyclable carbon cores. Most firms now favor automated recycling facilities both for safety and efficiency reasons. However, Duracell continues contract workshops in the poorest Asian countries, such as Bangladesh, which often skirt global child labor laws. This may change with the recent call for a consumer boycott of all Duracell products.

A recent CNN documentary reported that children as young as three or four break open discarded batteries with hammers in order to remove the recyclable carbon rods and tiny pieces of reusable metal. They earn 30 to 50 taka (15 to 20 U.S. cents) per day. The environment in and around the workshops is polluted by carbon dust and other toxic material. The hours are long, the work tedious, and everything—walls, ceilings and even the children's faces—is covered with black carbon dust. The children constantly lick their lips to keep them wet, literally eating toxic dust particles. Often only the whites of their eyes and red shiny lips are visible. The particles they inhale can lead to black lung disease and cancer.

Child Workers in Asia (CWA), an association of about 70 non-governmental organizations and groups in 14 countries, issued a recent statement asking all consumers to boycott Duracell products. Calling on all consumers to use their purchasing power to put a stop to the proliferation of child labor, Kathy Jo Benton, spokesperson for the CWA, emphasized the importance of consumer boycotts in influencing corporate social responsibility. Speaking on behalf of the CWA, Ms. Benton stated “it is inconceivable that a modern company is willing to employ young children in such hazardous conditions when mechanized alternatives exist. If consumers continue to buy Duracell batteries, the company will never be held accountable for its socially irresponsible actions, consumers will fail to demonstrate their support for child laborers, and the proliferation of child labor will never end.

APPENDIX D
STUDY 3 SURVEY INSTRUMENT, PRO-BOYCOTT MESSAGE,
AND COUNTER-MESSAGES

Unhealthy	<input type="radio"/>	Healthy					
Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable					
Dislike	<input type="radio"/>	Like					

Brand Hersheys

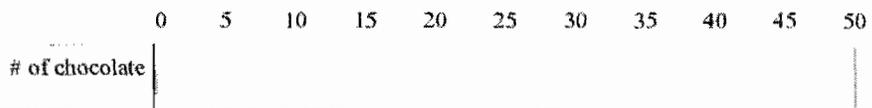
Before we start, how would you describe your attitude towards Hershey's?

Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable					
Negative	<input type="radio"/>	Positive					
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	Good					

Please indicate if you have personally purchased the following Hershey's products. Please check all that apply.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Almond Joy/Mounds | <input type="checkbox"/> Mr. Goodbar |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hershey's Chocolate Milk Chocolate Bar | <input type="checkbox"/> Pay Day |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hershey's Kisses | <input type="checkbox"/> Reese's Peanut Butter Products (any type) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hershey's Bliss (any type) | <input type="checkbox"/> Rolo |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hershey's Pot of Gold | <input type="checkbox"/> Whatchamacallit |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hershey's Skor | <input type="checkbox"/> Whoppers |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Kit Kat (any type) | <input type="checkbox"/> York Peppermint Pattie |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Milk Duds | |

In terms of quantity, how many of the products indicated above did you purchase in the last month? (Please use the slider to indicate the quantity.)



	disagree						strongly agree
unethical.							
This situation is unfair for those affected.	<input type="radio"/>						
I consider this issue a social injustice.	<input type="radio"/>						
Please indicate how likely you would engage in the following activities as a result of reading the presented press release(s) about Hershey's?							
	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
Discuss my dissatisfaction with regards to the company in private	<input type="radio"/>						
Consider and think about withholding purchase of the company's products	<input type="radio"/>						
Actually withhold purchasing the company's products	<input type="radio"/>						
Seek out and purchase a competitors products	<input type="radio"/>						
Publicly discuss my dissatisfaction with the company	<input type="radio"/>						
Publicly discuss boycott and attempt to persuade other people to join	<input type="radio"/>						
While reading the press release(s), please indicate the degree to which you felt the following emotions?							
	Did not feel at all						Felt very strongly
Hatred	<input type="radio"/>						
Sadness	<input type="radio"/>						
Optimism	<input type="radio"/>						
Anger	<input type="radio"/>						
Compassion	<input type="radio"/>						
Hope	<input type="radio"/>						
	Did not feel at all						Felt very strongly

	not at all			moderately			a great deal
... Read the materials provided carefully?	<input type="radio"/>						
... Take the statements seriously?	<input type="radio"/>						

Regarding Hershey's press release, how much do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
The way this press release tries to persuade people seems acceptable to me.	<input type="radio"/>						
This press release tried to manipulate the audience in ways I do NOT like.	<input type="radio"/>						
I was annoyed by this press release because it tried to inappropriately manage or control my emotions.	<input type="radio"/>						
This press release tried to be persuasive without being excessively manipulative.	<input type="radio"/>						
The information presented in this press release was fair and balanced.	<input type="radio"/>						

To what extent do you agree that the statements made in Hershey's press release are:

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
Believable	<input type="radio"/>						
Truthful	<input type="radio"/>						
Realistic	<input type="radio"/>						
Persuasive	<input type="radio"/>						
Strong	<input type="radio"/>						

Section III - Demographics

Section III

You are almost done! This is the last section of the survey and we are interested in getting to know you better. We will be asking for some basic demographics questions as well as asking for your opinions.

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
--	-------------------	-------------------	----------------	----------------

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I frequently gather information from friends or family about a product before I buy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often consult other people to help choose the best alternative available from a product class.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to know what brands and products make good impressions on others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If other people can see me using a product, I often purchase the brand they expect me to buy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important that others like the products and brands I buy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
If I have little experience with a product, I often ask my friends about the product.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often identify with other people by purchasing the same products and brands they purchase.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To make sure I buy the right product or brand, I often observe what others are buying and using.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To what degree would you agree or disagree with the following statement:							
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Big business has too much power in this country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
What is your current age? (U.S. Census)							
<input type="radio"/> Less than 16							
<input type="radio"/> 16 to 19							
<input type="radio"/> 20 to 24							
<input type="radio"/>							

25 to 34

- 35 to 44
- 45 to 54
- 55 to 64
- 65 years and over

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

What is your race?

- White/Caucasian
- African American
- Hispanic
- Asian
- Native American
- Pacific Islander
- Arabic
- Other

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Less than High School
- High School / GED
- Some College
- 2-year College Degree
- 4-year College Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctoral Degree
- Professional Degree (JD, MD)

Exhibit B. Pro-Boycott Message

BOYCOTT HERSHEY'S

The Center for Human Freedom (CHF) is encouraging consumers to boycott Hershey's because it continues to sell chocolate products that include cacao, an ingredient harvested with child slavery. Hershey's is the leading chocolate producer in the U.S. controlling 42.5% of the market. Notable Hershey's product brands include Hershey's, Reeses's, Milk Dud, Kit Kat, Scharffen Berger, and Dagoba. The company's practices have changed little despite having signed legislation enacted in 2001 by Congress that was intended to forbid the use of cacao beans harvested by child slaves. The only recourse left to American consumers is the complete avoidance of Hershey's products.

To help you better understand the situation, we have summarized media reports from familiar sources that have reported on the issue of slave chocolate. Also provided are the links to the original stories.

CHILD SLAVERY

In 2000, the State Department's human rights report concluded that 12,000 children between the ages of 9 and 12 were sold into forced labor on cocoa plantations on the northern Ivory Coast. Forty-three percent of the world's cocoa beans, the raw material in chocolate, originate from this country. A Knight-Ridder investigative report ([Link](#)) first documented child slavery in the chocolate supply chain in 2001 and conditions have changed little since then.



Imprisoned child laborers live and work in harsh conditions. The children subsist on corn paste and bananas. They are whipped, beaten and broken like horses in order to harvest the almond-sized beans that are made into chocolate treats for more fortunate children living in Europe and the United States. Children as young as age nine are expected to harvest and carry 20-pound cocoa sacks sixteen hours a day. UNICEF is extremely alarmed at the rate of mutilation and death on these farms.

(Exhibit B cont.)

A PERSISTENT PROBLEM

Hershey's signed the Harkin-Engel Protocol enacted by Congress in 2001 to eliminate reliance on slave chocolates. However, CNN/Fortune magazine ([Link](#)) reported that Hershey's Chocolate continues to drag its feet in dealing with child slavery in its cocoa supply chain. Furthermore, the International Labor Rights Forum rated Hershey's at the bottom in its 2009 Chocolate Scorecard ([Link](#)) citing "the company has repeatedly rejected shareholder resolutions related to protecting human rights and ensuring transparency."

LAST OPTION

America is the world's largest chocolate consumer. According to Global Exchange ([Link](#)), the US imports more than 729,000 tons of cocoa beans/processed products, eats more than 3.3 billion pounds of chocolate and spends more than \$13 billion on chocolates annually. People should be able to enjoy the simple pleasures of chocolate, but not at such a high human cost. As the industry leader, Hershey's should lead the change and not stand idly by. Yet, as of this writing, Hershey's has effectively ignored public sentiment as well as congressional legislation.

Therefore, the CHF is initiating a nation wide boycott with its many partners starting in 2010.

WE HOPE THAT YOU WILL JOIN US.

Exhibit C. Original Counter-Message

HERSHEY, Pa. (BUSINESS WIRE) December 12, 2009. – It has been some years since media reports first appeared claiming widespread child labor abuses in West African cacao farming. Much has happened since then.

At the time this issue was first raised, little was known beyond the fact that children helped with the farm work, a typical practice in rural African communities. Now, we have a better picture of the actual working conditions on these farms thanks to a landmark, independent survey conducted by the International Institute for Tropical Agriculture (IITA) in cooperation with the UN International Labor Organization (ILO) and funded by The Hershey's Company.

Contrary to media reports, the survey found that the vast majority of farmers in the region grow cacao responsibly, with no instances of forced child labor on the more than 4,500 farms included in the survey. The survey did identify several areas where change is needed, including lack of access to education and farm safety issues involving machete use and pesticide application.

A key element of this effort was the Harkin-Engel Protocol by the U.S. Congress that established a series of date-specific steps intended to assure consumers that the chocolate and cacao products they buy are not produced using the slave labor of children. One of the provisions of the 2001 bill includes the establishment of the International Cacao Initiative Foundation whose sole mandate is to eliminate the worst forms of child forced labor in cacao growing.

The final step under the Protocol timetable is the implementation of public certification that cacao has been grown without the worst forms of child labor. This is the most challenging step because it involves a certification process for a crop grown in a developing country. Work on the design of this certification system, including independent monitoring and verification as well as an international reporting process, is already well underway.

These various efforts are aimed at improving the lives of millions of people who depend on cacao farming for their livelihood, as well as for assuring consumers that the cacao in their favorite chocolates have been grown responsibly. It will take time and the sustained commitment of The Hershey Company and its industry partners to achieve meaningful change. Much has already been achieved, but more improvement is expected as we move forward to a time when all chocolate products are produced in accordance with international labor standards and sustainable business practices.

Exhibit D. Acknowledge Action/Positive Change Counter-Message

HERSHEY, Pa. (BUSINESS WIRE) December 12, 2009. -- It has been some years since media reports first appeared claiming widespread child labor abuses in West African cacao farming. Much has happened since then.

Hershey's fully acknowledges the untenable situation in West Africa. The company has listened to customers and boycott advocates and has signed congressional legislation aimed at curbing child labor abuses. Hershey's has also led the formation of the International Cacao Initiative Foundation whose mandate is to eliminate the worst forms of child labor and forced labor in cacao growing. In addition, Hershey's has contributed portions of its profits and resources in an effort to increase monitoring of the region and improve farming efficiency and incomes in the affected regions to reduce reliance on child slavery.

A major problem has been in the supply chain where cacao bean wholesalers in West Africa combine crops from numerous farms. This makes it impossible to separate out cacao beans harvested with child labor from those harvested without such abuses. A further complication is that intermediate processors typically blend various types of cacao beans to produce chocolate that is designed for the American palate.

Hershey's is working as quickly as possible to reduce reliance on these tainted chocolates. However, it will take the next decade to retool the entire supply chain so as to produce sufficient certified products to serve the American market. Operations such as Hershey's premium niche brand Dagoba have already adopted Fair Trade chocolate in its products.

The Hershey Company recognizes that the chocolate and cacao industry must work together on a pre-competitive basis to achieve progress in addressing the challenges and opportunities facing the cacao sector. We ask that our loyal customers be patient while Hershey's helps to change the structure of the chocolate industry.

We welcome consumer input and encourage consumers to seek out products such as Hershey's that are working towards improving sustainability and upholding good labor practices.

Exhibit E. Reduce Efficacy Counter-Message

HERSHEY, Pa. (BUSINESS WIRE) December 12, 2009. – It has been some years since media reports first appeared claiming widespread child labor abuses in West African cacao farming. Much has happened since then.

We have heard the concerns of consumers and boycott advocates in regard to the use of forced labor in cacao growing. Sadly, this situation is unavoidable because it is part of the global industry that Hershey's works in. Cacao is a highly prized commodity that is best sourced from certain regions of the world. The climate and cacao varieties in West Africa produces the beans most sought after by industrial confectioners and American consumers.

The global supply chain for cacao beans is an established institution that incorporates 1.5 million small farmers in West Africa, an extensive network of wholesalers and resellers, and massive international networks of global food processors like ADM (Archer Daniels Midland) and Cargill. Cacao bean wholesalers in West Africa combine crops from numerous farms. This makes it impossible to separate out cacao beans harvested with child labor from those harvested without such abuses. In addition, there is no way to monitor all the cacao farms in the region. A further complication is that intermediate processors typically blend various types of cacao beans to produce chocolate that is designed for the American palate. In order to produce the chocolate at competitive prices, Hershey's has no choice but to continue acquiring its ingredients from these sources in the interest of both American consumers and Hershey's shareholders.

Hershey's recognizes that the chocolate industry must work together on a cooperative basis to achieve progress in addressing the challenges facing the cacao sector. Hershey's will continue to work with the industry in an effort to improve working conditions. In the meantime, Hershey's will continue to produce chocolate for its primary market in the United States.

Exhibit F. Negative Repercussions Counter-Message

HERSHEY, Pa. (BUSINESS WIRE) December 12, 2009. – It has been some years since media reports first appeared claiming widespread child labor abuses in West African cacao farming. Much has happened since then.

The problem is much more complex than many boycott advocates and consumers believe. Most people would conclude that it would be better to simply stop buying cacao from West Africa, but experts say boycotting chocolate could make things worse for the boys working on cacao farms. According to Anti-Slavery International, UNICEF, and independent cacao industry analysts, the price of cacao would drop dramatically if people stopped buying chocolate. This means less money for everyone involved in cacao production, especially the farmers. Farmers who use slave labor already say they do it because they do not make enough money to pay the boys. If farmers earn even less money, more boys will be forced to work for nothing.

It would be equally selfish for consumers to unilaterally decide on an action that has such wide impact to the poor farmers working in West Africa – a region desperately poor with only cacao as a food crop that is in demand in the global economy. The climate and cacao varieties in West Africa produce the most desirable beans for industrial confectioners and American consumers. The American demand for chocolate has been good for these poor West African nations. The stable prices for cacao beans improve the economy for 1.5 million small farms in this region.

So, while consumers may feel good about making a “clean hands” gesture, the sudden and drastic reduction in chocolate consumption produced both by farmers using forced labor and those who do not use such labor would have catastrophic consequences on local economies. We therefore urge consumers to think more critically about the potential negative consequences associated with any action they may take.

Exhibit G. Positive Brand/Products Counter-Message

HERSHEY, Pa. (BUSINESS WIRE) December 12, 2009. – Hershey’s is committed to providing the highest quality chocolate for American consumers and is firmly committed to making a difference in the communities where we live, work and do business both locally and internationally. For more than 100 years, Hershey’s has been the largest producer of quality chocolate in North America and a global leader in chocolate and sugar confectionery. In addition to its many iconic brands such as Hershey’s Chocolate, Hershey’s Syrup, Hershey’s Kisses, Kit Kat, and Reese’s, Hershey’s also produces the super-premium brands Scharffen Berger and Dagoba. These ubiquitous brands bring little pleasures to people and families’ everyday.

Quality ingredients and world-renowned manufacturing practices have made Hershey’s the undisputed #1 chocolatier in the United States. Hershey’s distinct chocolate flavor starts with a single premium ingredient: West African cacao. The climate and cacao varieties in West Africa produce the distinct chocolate flavor that has become an American staple. Next, Hershey’s manufacturing network transforms raw ingredients into the world’s best chocolate and confectionary products for consumers around the globe. If one were to take a look at Hershey’s sophisticated manufacturing facilities, it would be indistinguishable from a modern silicon chip fabrication plant.

More than our products, Hershey’s is proud of its legacy of giving back to the community. Hershey employees volunteer actively, give generously and work to make a positive difference where it is most needed. Both directly and through the United Way, the company supports hundreds of community agencies that deliver services and support to those most in need. The company’s philanthropy reaches around the world, including work with the Children’s Miracle Network, Family Health International and a children’s burn center in Guadalajara, Mexico. Hershey’s is a world leader in working to enhance the lives of cacao farmers and their families in West Africa, Asia and the Americas. The company supports programs that help improve farmer incomes, responsible labor practices, opportunities for children and youth, and community health.

Hershey’s practices environmental stewardship by supporting environmentally sound cacao farming, implementing ongoing recycling, clean air and water management programs, improving the environmental sustainability of our packaging and working to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, waste, and our use of natural resources.

APPENDIX E
MEDIATION WITH CONTINUOUS MEDIATOR AND DICHOTOMOUS
OUTCOME (SPSS CODE)

```
/*THIS FILE WAS CREATED BY NATHANIEL R. HERR, FEBRUARY, 2006 */.  
/*http://nrherr.bol.ucla.edu/Mediation/logmed.html */.  
  
/*Gives you Standard Deviations for your variables*/.  
DESCRIPTIVES  
  VARIABLES=xvar mvar yvar  
  /STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX .  
  
/*Gives you Covariance between X and M (top right or lower left box)*/  
CORRELATIONS  
  /VARIABLES=xvar mvar  
  /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG  
  /STATISTICS XPROD  
  /MISSING=PAIRWISE .  
  
/*Gives you "a" coefficient and "a" coefficient standard error - Find  
these in "Coefficients" box in output */  
REGRESSION  
  /MISSING PAIRWISE  
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA  
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)  
  /NOORIGIN  
  /DEPENDENT mvar  
  /METHOD=ENTER xvar .  
  
/*Gives you "c" coefficient and "c" coefficient standard error - Find  
these in "Variables in the Equation" box in output */  
LOGISTIC REGRESSION VAR=yvar  
  /METHOD=ENTER xvar  
  /CRITERIA PIN(.05) POUT(.10) ITERATE(20) CUT(.5) .  
  
/*Gives you BOTH the "b" coefficient and the " c' " coefficient and  
their standard errors - Find these in "Variables in the Equation" box  
in output */  
LOGISTIC REGRESSION VAR=yvar  
  /METHOD=ENTER xvar mvar  
  /CRITERIA PIN(.05) POUT(.10) ITERATE(20) CUT(.5) .
```

Mediation with Dichotomous Variables

X=Causal variable

M=Mediator variable

Y=Outcome variable

a=path from X to M

b=path from M to Y (controlling for X)

c=direct path from X to Y

c'=path from X to Y (controlling for M)

= you must input this information

Run descriptive statistics in SPSS for your variables for SDs

SD(X)=	<input type="text" value="1.11278"/>	Var(X)=	1.238279
SD(M)=	<input type="text" value="1.53928"/>	Var(M)=	2.369383
SD(Y)=	<input type="text" value="0.49851"/>	Var(Y)=	0.248512

Run correlate with X and M variables and check "covariance matrix" box in options

COV(X,M)=

Run regressions for continuous variables and logistic regressions for dichotomous outcome va

a=	<input type="text" value="0.81"/>	SE(a)=	<input type="text" value="0.08"/>
b=	<input type="text" value="0.264"/>	SE(b)=	<input type="text" value="0.12"/>
c=	<input type="text" value="0.382"/>	SE(c)=	<input type="text" value="0.138"/>
c'=	<input type="text" value="0.17"/>	SE(c')=	<input type="text" value="0.166"/>

Var(Y')=	3.470695	SD(Y')=	1.86298
Var(M')=	4.102435	SD(M')=	2.025447
Var(Y'')=	3.543432	SD(Y'')=	1.882401

comp a=	0.445014	SE(comp a)=	0.043952
comp b=	0.215879	SE(comp b)=	0.098127
comp c'=	0.100495	SE(comp c')=	0.098131
comp c=	0.228173	SE(comp c)=	0.082429
ab+c'='	0.196564		

= Enter these values into the Sobel Test
Aroian Sobel Goodman

Sab =	0.044894276	0.044687	0.044478
Sobel=	2.139892625	2.149836	2.1599191

FORMAT CREATED BY NATHANIEL R. HERR, FEBRUARY, 2006

<http://nrherr.bol.ucla.edu/Mediation/logmed.html>

APPENDIX F

STUDY 2 ML AND BAYESIAN PARAMETER ESTIMATES

Table F-1. Parameter Estimate (ML and Bayesian)

		ML				Bayesian		
		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	C.R.	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	C.R.
NA _{BB}	→ PMV	.095	.041	.133	2.30	.095	.042	2.26
HE	→ PMV	.263	.096	.166	2.75	.264	.101	2.61
PMV	→ ME _{Other}	.776	.067	.583	11.50	.775	.069	11.23
PMV	→ ME _{Self}	.377	.086	.291	4.37	.379	.085	4.46
PMV	→ BENE	.833	.119	.414	7.03	.833	.123	6.77
PMV	→ COST	-.160	.055	-.203	-2.93	-.160	.054	-2.96
ME _{Other}	→ BI	.238	.067	.228	3.57	.239	.071	3.37
ME _{Self}	→ BI	.031	.054	.029	.57	.032	.057	.56
BENE	→ BI	.271	.042	.392	6.41	.270	.044	6.14
COST	→ BI	-.022	.085	-.012	-.25	-.021	.090	-.23
PMV	→ BI	.099	.099	.071	1.00	.098	.097	1.01
BI	→ BOYCOTT	.175	.020	.529	8.61	.175	.020	8.75

Note: HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NABB = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses ; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions; BOYCOTT = Boycott Behavior

Table F-2. Parameter Estimates (Bayesian) with Individual Discrete Emotions and Cost-Benefit Factors

		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	C.R.
Individual Differences					
NA _{BB}	→ PMV	.091	.042	.131	2.17
HE	→ PMV	.265	.095	.162	2.79
Other-condemning Moral Emotions					
PMV	→ Anger	.782	.094	.531	8.32
PMV	→ Contempt	.268	.104	.181	2.58
PMV	→ Disgust	.683	.096	.461	7.11
Anger	→ BI	.219	.063	.231	3.48
Contempt	→ BI	.048	.048	.047	1.00
Disgust	→ BI	.021	.056	.022	.38
Self-conscious Moral Emotions					
PMV	→ Guilt	.475	.119	.281	3.99
PMV	→ Regret	.410	.106	.271	3.87
PMV	→ Shame	.420	.107	.275	3.93
PMV	→ Embarrassment	.307	.104	.205	2.95
Guilt	→ BI	.010	.052	.005	.19
Regret	→ BI	.016	.060	.021	.27
Shame	→ BI	-.026	.072	-.030	-.36
Embarrassment	→ BI	.020	.055	.015	.36
Benefit					
PMV	→ Make a Difference	.832	.153	.377	5.44
PMV	→ Self-Enhancement	1.046	.132	.477	7.92
Make a Difference	→ BI	.052	.040	.081	1.30
Self-Enhancement	→ BI	.251	.053	.393	4.74
Cost					
PMV	→ Counterargument	-.349	.104	-.231	-3.36
PMV	→ Constrained Cons.	-.030	.038	-.066	-.79
Counterargument	→ BI	-.004	.047	-.006	-.09
Constrained Cons.	→ BI	-.044	.140	-.015	-.31
PMV	→ BI	.054	.097	.038	.56
BI	→ BOYCOTT	.135	.023	.417	5.87

APPENDIX G
STUDY 3 ML PARAMETER ESTIMATES

Table G-1. Parameter Estimates (ML)

Hypothesized		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	C.R.
NA _{BB}	→ PMV	.271	.030	.337	10.39
HE	→ PMV	.520	.050	.334	10.32
PMV	→ ME _{Other}	.936	.042	.643	22.26
PMV	→ ME _{Self}	.822	.048	.552	17.16
PMV	→ BENE	.935	.047	.607	19.78
PMV	→ COST	-.136	.034	-.165	-3.97
ME _{Other}	→ BI	.086	.033	.080	2.64
ME _{Self}	→ BI	.350	.033	.332	10.77
BENE	→ BI	.498	.028	.488	17.82
COST	→ BI	-.076	.028	-.040	-2.74
PMV	→ BI	.152	.034	.097	4.49
<hr/>					
Non-Hypothesized		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	C.R.
NA _{BB}	→ BENE	.091	.027	.073	3.33
HE	→ ME _{Other}	.353	.065	.156	5.40
HE	→ ME _{Self}	.384	.075	.166	5.15
HE	→ BENE	.304	.071	.127	4.25
HE	→ COST	.135	.053	.105	2.53
M1	→ PMV	-.632	.114	-.190	-5.56
M2	→ PMV	-.507	.113	-.155	-4.51
M4	→ PMV	-.462	.115	-.138	-4.03
M5	→ PMV	-.351	.115	-.104	-3.06

Note: HE = Humanitarian-Egalitarian Orientation; NA_{BB} = Negative Attitude towards Big Businesses ; ME_{Other} = Other-condemning moral emotions; ME_{Self} = Self-conscious moral emotions; BENE = Benefit evaluation; COST = Cost evaluation; BI = Boycott Intentions. Counter-Message Tactics: M1 = Original; M2 = Acknowledge Tactic; M4 = Negative Repercussion Tactic; M5 = Positive Aspect Tactic.

Table G-2. Parameter Estimates (ML) with Individual Discrete Emotions and Cost-Benefit Factors

		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>
Individual Differences					
NA _{BB}	→ PMV	.270	.050	.337	< .001
HE	→ PMV	.520	.026	.334	< .001
Other-condemning Moral Emotions					
PMV	→ Anger	.985	.050	.598	< .001
PMV	→ Contempt	.946	.049	.607	< .001
PMV	→ Disgust	1.067	.043	.681	< .001
Anger	→ Boycott Intentions	.072	.027	.076	< .001
Contempt	→ Boycott Intentions	.053	.024	.052	< .001
Disgust	→ Boycott Intentions	.017	.027	.076	<i>ns</i>
Self-conscious Moral Emotions					
PMV	→ Guilt	.976	.049	.601	< .001
PMV	→ Regret	.888	.049	.563	< .001
PMV	→ Shame	.914	.052	.553	< .001
PMV	→ Embarrassment	.962	.044	.586	< .001
Guilt	→ Boycott Intentions	.126	.028	.130	< .001
Regret	→ Boycott Intentions	.092	.024	.092	< .001
Shame	→ Boycott Intentions	-.020	.026	-.021	<i>ns</i>
Embarrassment	→ Boycott Intentions	.065	.029	.068	< .05
Benefit					
PMV	→ Make a Difference	.987	.044	.643	< .001
PMV	→ Self-Enhancement	1.163	.045	.694	< .001
Make a Difference	→ Boycott Intentions	.113	.027	.111	< .001
Self-Enhancement	→ Boycott Intentions	.402	.031	.429	< .001
Cost					
PMV	→ Counterargument	-.176	.042	-.156	< .001
PMV	→ Constrained Cons.	-.017	.042	-.015	<i>ns</i>
Counterargument	→ Boycott Intentions	-.072	.019	-.052	< .001
Constrained Cons.	→ Boycott Intentions	-.005	.019	.010	<i>ns</i>
PMV	→ Boycott Intentions	.131	.032	.084	< .001

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aaker, J., Fournier, S., & Brasel, S. A. (2004). When Good Brands Do Bad. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(1), 1-16.
- Akaike, H. (1987). Factor analysis and AIC. *Psychometrika*, 52(3), 317-332.
- Anderson, D. R., Burnham, K. P., & White, G. C. (1998). Comparison of Akaike information criterion and consistent Akaike information criterion for model selection and statistical inference from capture-recapture studies. *Journal of Applied Statistics*, 25(2), 263 - 282.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The Role of Emotions in Marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 27(2), 184-206.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Moore, D. J. (1994). Public Service Advertisements: Emotions and Empathy Guide Prosocial Behavior. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(1), 56.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Batson, C. D. (1998). Altruism and Prosocial Behavior. In D. Gilbert, S. Fiske & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The Handbook of Social Psychology* (4th ed., Vol. 2). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Beder, S. (2002). Nike's Greenwashing Sweatshop Labor. Retrieved July 4, 2010, from <http://www.organicconsumers.org/clothes/nikesweatshop.cfm>
- Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the Extended Self. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15(2), 88.
- Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 238-246.
- Brown, T. J., & Dacin, P. A. (1997). The Company and the Product: Corporate Associations and Consumer Product Responses. *Journal of Marketing*, 61(1), 68-84.

- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1984). The Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 11(1), 673-675.
- Chavis, L., & Leslie, P. (2009). Consumer boycotts: The impact of the Iraq war on French wine sales in the U.S. [10.1007/s11129-008-9043-y]. *Quantitative Marketing and Economics*, 7(1), 37-67.
- Cialdini, R. B. (1998). *Influence: The Psychology of Persuasion*. New York: Quill.
- Cooper-Martin, E., & Holbrook, M. B. (1993). Ethical Consumption Experiences and Ethical Space. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 20(1), 113-118.
- Dickinson, R., & Hollander, S. C. (1991). Consumer votes. *Journal of Business Research*, 22(4), 335-346.
- Duhachek, A. (2005). Coping: A Multidimensional, Hierarchical Framework of Responses to Stressful Consumption Episodes. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(1), 41.
- Duhachek, A., & Iacobucci, D. (2005). Consumer Personality and Coping: Testing Rival Theories of Process. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15(1), 52.
- Duhachek, A., & Oakley, J. L. (2007). Mapping the Hierarchical Structure of Coping: Unifying Empirical and Theoretical Perspectives. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 17(3), 218-233.
- Eisenberg, N., Miller, P. A., Schaller, M., Fabes, R. A., Fultz, J., Shell, R., et al. (1989). The Role of Sympathy and Altruistic Personality Traits in Helping: A Reexamination. *Journal of Personality*, 57(1), 41-67.
- Ekman, P. (1999). Basic emotions. In T. Dalgleish & M. Power (Eds.), *Handbook of cognition and emotion*. Sussex, U.K.: John Wiley & Sons.
- Friedman, M. (1985). Consumer Boycotts in the United States, 1970-1980: Contemporary Events in Historical Perspective. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 19(1), 96-.
- Friedman, M. (1991). Consumer Boycotts: A Conceptual Framework and Research Agenda. *Journal of Social Issues*, 47(1), 149-168.
- Friedman, M. (1996). Grassroots Groups Confront the Corporation: Contemporary Strategies in Historical Perspective. *Journal of Social Issues*, 52(1), 153-167.

- Friedman, M. (1999). *Consumer Boycotts: Effecting Change through the Marketplace and the Media*. New York: Routledge.
- Frijda, N. H. (1988). The laws of emotion. *American Psychologist*, 43(5), 349-358.
- Grégoire, Y., & Fisher, R. (2006). The effects of relationship quality on customer retaliation. *Marketing Letters*, 17(1), 31-46.
- Gregoire, Y., & Fisher, R. J. (2007). Customer betrayal and retaliation: when your best customers become your worst enemies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*.
- Haidt, J. (2003). The moral emotions. In R. J. Davidson, K. R. Scherer & H. H. Goldsmith (Eds.), *Handbook of affective sciences* (pp. 852-870). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Healey, J. R. (2010). Toyota delayed almost a year before issuing 2005 steering defect recall. Retrieved May 29, 2010, from http://www.usatoday.com/money/autos/2010-05-10-toyota-recall-delay_N.htm
- Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, Voice, and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations, and States*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic Consumption: Emerging Concepts, Methods and Propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, 46(3), 92-101.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1987). The Contribution of Empathy to Justice and Moral Judgement. In N. Eisenberg & J. Strayer (Eds.), *Empathy and Its Development* (pp. 47-80). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Hu, L.-T., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Evaluating Model Fit. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural Equation Modeling: Concepts, Issues, and Applications* (pp. 76-99). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Hu, L.-T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff Criteria for Fit Indexes in Covariance Structure Analysis: Conventional Criteria Versus. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1.
- Innes, R. (2006). A Theory of Consumer Boycotts under Symmetric Information and Imperfect Competition. *Economic Journal*, 116(511), 355-381.
- John, A., & Klein, J. (2003). The Boycott Puzzle: Consumer Motivations for Purchase Sacrifice. *Management Science*, 49(9), 1196-1209.
- Johnson, A. R., & Stewart, D. W. (2004). A Reappraisal of the Role of Emotion in Consumer Behavior: Traditional and Contemporary Approaches. In N. K.

- Friedman, M. (1999). *Consumer Boycotts: Effecting Change through the Marketplace and the Media*. New York: Routledge.
- Frijda, N. H. (1988). The laws of emotion. *American Psychologist*, 43(5), 349-358.
- Grégoire, Y., & Fisher, R. (2006). The effects of relationship quality on customer retaliation. *Marketing Letters*, 17(1), 31-46.
- Gregoire, Y., & Fisher, R. J. (2007). Customer betrayal and retaliation: when your best customers become your worst enemies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*.
- Haidt, J. (2003). The moral emotions. In R. J. Davidson, K. R. Scherer & H. H. Goldsmith (Eds.), *Handbook of affective sciences* (pp. 852-870). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Healey, J. R. (2010). Toyota delayed almost a year before issuing 2005 steering defect recall. Retrieved May 29, 2010, from http://www.usatoday.com/money/autos/2010-05-10-toyota-recall-delay_N.htm
- Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, Voice, and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations, and States*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic Consumption: Emerging Concepts, Methods and Propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, 46(3), 92-101.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1987). The Contribution of Empathy to Justice and Moral Judgement. In N. Eisenberg & J. Strayer (Eds.), *Empathy and Its Development* (pp. 47-80). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Hu, L.-T., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Evaluating Model Fit. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural Equation Modeling: Concepts, Issues, and Applications* (pp. 76-99). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Hu, L.-T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff Criteria for Fit Indexes in Covariance Structure Analysis: Conventional Criteria Versus. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1.
- Innes, R. (2006). A Theory of Consumer Boycotts under Symmetric Information and Imperfect Competition. *Economic Journal*, 116(511), 355-381.
- John, A., & Klein, J. (2003). The Boycott Puzzle: Consumer Motivations for Purchase Sacrifice. *Management Science*, 49(9), 1196-1209.

- Johnson, A. R., & Stewart, D. W. (2004). A Reappraisal of the Role of Emotion in Consumer Behavior: Traditional and Contemporary Approaches. In N. K. Malhotra (Ed.), *Review of Marketing Research* (Vol. 1, pp. 3-33). Armonk, N.Y.: M.E. Sharpe.
- Kahneman, D. (2003). A perspective on judgment and choice: Mapping bounded rationality. *American Psychologist*, *9*, 697-720.
- Katz, I., & Hass, R. G. (1988). Racial Ambivalence and American Value Conflict: Correlational and Priming Studies of Dual Cognitive Structures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *55*(6), 893-905.
- Klein, J. G., Smith, N. C., & John, A. (2004). Why We Boycott: Consumer Motivations for Boycott Participation. *Journal of Marketing*, *68*(3), 92-109.
- Kozinets, R. V., & Handelman, J. (1998). Ensouling Consumption: A Netnographic Exploration of The Meaning of Boycotting Behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *25*(1), 475-480.
- Kozinets, R. V., & Handelman, J. M. (2004). Adversaries of Consumption: Consumer Movements, Activism, and Ideology. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *31*(3), 691-704.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Progress on a Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory of Emotion. *American Psychologist*, *46*(8), 819-834.
- Lazarus, R. S. (2001). Relational meaning and discrete emotions. In K. R. Scherer, A. Schorr & T. Johnstone (Eds.), *Appraisal Processes in Emotion* (pp. 37-67). New York: Oxford University Press.
- MacInnis, D. J., & de Mello, G. E. (2005). The Concept of Hope and Its Relevance to Product Evaluation and Choice. *Journal of Marketing*, *69*(1), 1-14.
- Mackinnon, D. P., & Dwyer, J. H. (1993). Estimating Mediated Effects in Prevention Studies. *Eval Rev*, *17*(2), 144-158.
- Madrigal, R. (2008). Hot vs. cold cognitions and consumers' reactions to sporting event outcomes. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *18*(4), 304-319.
- Madrigal, R., LaBarge, M., & Chen, J. (2007). *A Hierarchical Model of Consumers' Response to Advocacy Advertising: Consumer Skepticism, Empathic Response, Empathic Emotions, and Prosocial Behavior*. Paper presented at the Society for Consumer Psychology, Las Vegas, NV.

- Mauro, R., Sato, K., & Tucker, J. (1992). The Role of Appraisal in Human Emotions: A Cross-Cultural Study. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 62(2), 301-317.
- Miller, K. E., & Sturdivant, F. D. (1977). Consumer Responses to Socially Questionable Corporate Behavior: An Empirical Test. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 4(1), 1-7.
- O'Shaughnessy, J., & O'Shaughnessy, N. J. (2003). *The Marketing Power of Emotion*. New York, New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Philips, M. (2010). Getting Toyota Back On Track. from <http://www.newsweek.com/2010/02/09/getting-toyota-back-on-track.html>
- Pruitt, S. W., & Friedman, M. (1986). Determining the effectiveness of consumer boycotts: A stock price analysis of their impact on corporate targets *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 9(4), 375-387.
- Pruitt, S. W., Wei, K. C. J., & White, R. E. (1988). The Impact of Union-Sponsored Boycotts on the Stock Prices of Target Firms. *Journal of Labor Research*, 9(3), 285-289.
- Roseman, I. J., & Smith, C. A. (2001). Appraisal Theory: Overview, Assumptions, Varieties, Controversies. In K. R. Scherer, A. Schorr & T. Johnstone (Eds.), *Appraisal Processes in Emotion* (pp. 3-19). New York: Oxford.
- Rust, R. T., & Cooil, B. (1994). Reliability measures for qualitative data: Theory and implications. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 31(1), 1.
- Scherer, K. R. (1997). Profiles of emotion-antecedent appraisal: Testing theoretical predictions across cultures. *Cognition & Emotion*, 11(2), 113-150.
- Scherer, K. R. (2001). Appraisal considered as a process of multilevel sequential checking. In K. R. Scherer, A. Schorr & T. Johnstone (Eds.), *Appraisal Processes in Emotion* (pp. 92-120). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Sen, S., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001). Does Doing Good Always Lead to Doing Better? Consumer Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 38(2), 225-243.
- Sen, S., Gurhan-Canli, Z., & Morwitz, V. (2001). Withholding Consumption: A Social Dilemma Perspective on Consumer Boycotts. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 28(3), 399.

- Shiv, B., & Fedorikhin, A. (1999). Heart and Mind in Conflict: The Interplay of Affect and Cognition in Consumer Decision Making. [Article]. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26(3), 278-292.
- Smith, C. A., & Ellsworth, P. C. (1985). Patterns of Cognitive Appraisal in Emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48(4), 813-838.
- Smith, C. A., Haynes, K. N., Pope, L. K., & Lazarus, R. S. (1993). In Search of the "Hot" Cognitions: Attributions, Appraisals, and Their Relation to Emotion. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 65(5), 916-929.
- Smith, C. A., & Lazarus, R. S. (1993). Appraisal Components, Core Relational Themes, and the Emotions. *Cognition & Emotion*, 7(3/4), 233-269.
- Smith, N. C. (1990). *Morality and the Market: Consumer Pressure for Corporate Accountability*. London: Routledge.
- Smith, N. C. (2005). Consumer Activism: Boycotts, Brands and Marketing Communications. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 32, 494-494.
- Tangney, J. P., Stuewig, J., & Mashek, D. J. (2007). Moral Emotions and Moral Behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*(58), 345-372.
- Tyran, J.-R., & Engelmann, D. (2005). To Buy or Not to Buy? An Experimental Study of Consumer Boycotts in Retail Markets. *Economica*, 72(285), 1-16.
- Webster, F. E. (1975). Determining the Characteristics of the Socially Conscious Consumer. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 2(December), 188-196.