



BRAND HATE REASONS AND THE EFFECTS OF CONSUMERS' DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

MEHMET CAN KULEYİN

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MEHMET CAN KULEYİN

THESIS ADVISOR: PROF. DR. TUĞBA TUĞRUL

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ETHICAL DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis and that I have conducted my work in accordance with academic rules and ethical behaviour at every stage from the planning of the thesis to its defence. I confirm that I have cited all ideas, information and findings that are not specific to my study, as required by the code of ethical behaviour, and that all statements not cited are my own.

Mehmet Can KULEYİN

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ABSTRACT

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Kuleyin, Mehmet Can

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Advisor: Prof. Dr. Tuğba Tuğrul

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Researchers have examined many antecedents of brand hate; however, the effects of consumer characteristics have received relatively less attention, and also, the literature provides inconsistent results. Similarly, studies examining the effects of demographics on brand hate among Turkish consumers are limited. Thus, this research explores the most frequent reasons of brand hate among Turkish consumers and the effects of consumers' demographic characteristics. A total of 313 people participated in an online survey. Quantitative content analysis results showed that the most frequent brand hate reason among Turkish consumers is product-related factors. In addition, Pearson's chi-square analysis results show no significant associations between the demographic characteristics of consumers and different brand hate reasons.

Keywords: Brand hate, brand hate reasons, demographic characteristics, quantitative content analysis, Pearson's chi-square analysis.

ÖZET

MARKA NEFRETİNİN NEDENLERİ VE TÜKETİCİLERİN DEMOGRAFİK ÖZELLİKLERİNİN ETKİSİ

Kuleyin, Mehmet Can

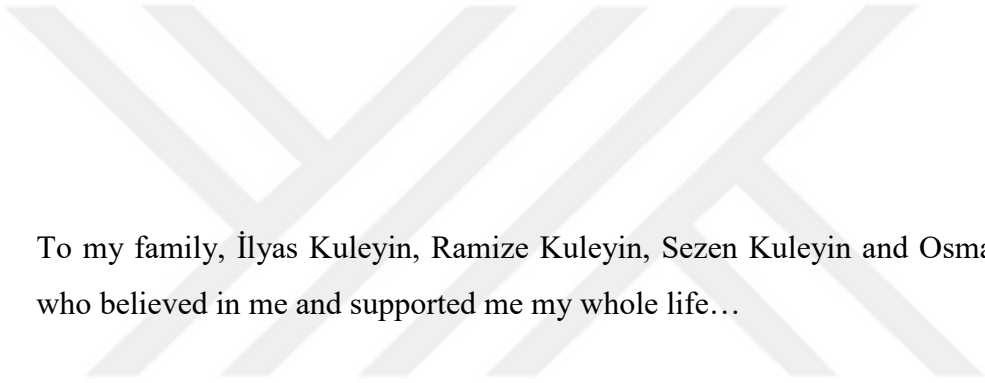
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Araştırmacılar marka nefretinin birçok öncüllünü incelemiştir, fakat tüketici özelliklerinin etkileri nispeten daha az ilgi görmüştür ve ayrıca literatür tutarsız sonuçlar vermektedir. Benzer şekilde, Türk tüketiciler arasında demografik özelliklerin marka nefreti üzerindeki etkilerini inceleyen çalışmalar sınırlıdır. Dolayısıyla, bu araştırma, Türk tüketicileri arasında en sık görülen marka nefretinin nedenlerini ve tüketicilerin demografik özelliklerinin etkilerini araştırmaktadır. Toplam 313 kişi çevrimiçi anketi doldurmuştur. Nicel içerik analizi sonuçları, Türk tüketiciler arasında en sık görülen marka nefreti nedeninin ürünle ilgili faktörler olduğunu göstermiştir. Ek olarak, Pearson ki-kare analizi sonuçları, tüketicilerin demografik özellikleri ile farklı marka nefret nedenleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığını göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Marka nefreti, marka nefretinin sebepleri, demografik özellikler, nicel içerik analizi, Pearson ki-kare analizi.



To my family, İlyas Kuleyin, Ramize Kuleyin, Sezen Kuleyin and Osman Kuleyin,
who believed in me and supported me my whole life...

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZET.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. <i>Aim of the Study</i>	1
1.2. <i>Significance of the Study</i>	2
1.3. <i>Structure of the Thesis</i>	3
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	4
2.1. <i>Brand Hate Conceptualization</i>	4
2.2. <i>Antecedents of Brand Hate</i>	7
2.3. <i>Consequences of Brand Hate</i>	11
2.4. <i>Effects of Demographical Factors on Brand Hate</i>	14
2.5. <i>Brand Hate Research in Turkey</i>	16
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	20
3.1. <i>Sampling</i>	20
3.2. <i>Data Collection</i>	21
CHAPTER 4: ANALYSES AND RESULTS	22
4.1. <i>Reasons of Brand Hate</i>	22
4.1.1. <i>Pilot and Final Reliability Analyses Results</i>	22
4.1.2. <i>Reasons of Brand Hate Frequency Results</i>	23
4.2. <i>Demographic Characteristics Differences</i>	24
4.2.1. <i>Gender Differences</i>	25
4.2.2. <i>Age Group Differences</i>	25
4.2.3. <i>Education Level Differences</i>	26
4.2.4. <i>Income Level Differences</i>	27
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION.....	29
5.1. <i>Theoretical and Managerial Implications of the Study</i>	29
5.2. <i>Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research</i>	31
REFERENCES.....	33
APPENDICES	46

Appendix A – Codebook 46
Appendix B – Coding Examples 47



LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Conceptualizations of Brand Hate Construct	6
Table 2. Antecedents of Brand Hate	9
Table 3. Consequences of Brand Hate	13
Table 4. Sample Demographics.....	21
Table 5. The Symmetric Measures of Pilot Reliability	23
Table 6. The Symmetric Measures of Final Reliability	23
Table 7. Frequency of Brand Hate Categories	24
Table 8. Frequency of Demographic Characteristics Across Brand Hate Categories	24
Table 9. Gender * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation	25
Table 10. Gender * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results	25
Table 11. Age Groups * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation	26
Table 12. Age Groups * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results	26
Table 13. Education Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation	27
Table 14. Education Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results	27
Table 15. Income Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation	28
Table 16. Income Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results	28

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

NWOM Negative word-of-mouth



CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aim of the Study

Relations between consumer-brand have been investigated mainly from a positive perspective, like brand attachment, brand loyalty, brand love, brand resonance, and brand passion (Fetscherin, 2019). However, antitheses of certain interactions, which may be classified as positive, may have more effect (Lee, Motion and Conroy, 2009). Having those who love and hate brands simultaneously is not astonishing. Recent studies suggest that love and hate may have components that are similar but still opposite (Zarantonello et al., 2018). Mainly, a relatively new concept is introduced as a brand hate topic (Küçük, 2016), which deserves more attention from scholarly research (Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Cioppi et al., 2020; Osuna Ramírez, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2019; Zarantonello et al., 2016). Brand hate is considered and, thus, conceptualized by Zarantonello and colleagues (2016) as rather “*constellation*” of negative emotions displayed toward a brand.

It is possible that people tend to maintain different reasons to dislike or even hate a brand, such as the unethical practices of a company. As mentioned in the work of Dalli, Romani and Gistri (2006), Nestlé became a target of a boycott because of its company’s aggressive marketing of breast milk substitutes. Similarly, negative consumer experiences with products/services can also be a strong brand hate reason (Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017). Another reason for brand hate is creating a negative image from a particular user community that undertakes the brand. For instance, in the Fred Perry case (Benton and Peterka-Benton, 2019), when the violent and racist far-right group “The Proud Boys” turned Fred Perry’s gold-striped polo shirts into somewhat demonstration uniforms, the public customers formed an opinion against the brand due to such recognition. Brand rivalry (Osuna Ramírez, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2019; Popp, Germelmann and Jung, 2016), perceived betrayal (Jain and Sharma, 2019), conscientiousness personality (Küçük, 2019), cultural dominance (Bryson and Atwal, 2018) and brand inauthenticity (Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020) are some of the other antecedents of brand hate discussed.

Furthermore, complaining, patronage reduction/cessation, negative word-of-mouth

(NWOM), brand boycotting/rejection, brand avoidance/non-repurchase intention, brand retaliation, brand switching, and brand revenge are brand hate outcomes examined in previous studies (Roy et al., 2022; Gonçalves Filho et al., 2022; Costa and Azevedo, 2022; Bayarassou, Valette-Florence and Becheur, 2022; Fani et al., 2022; Attiq, Hasni and Zhang, 2022; Soltan Hosseini, Khavari Khorasani and Ghasemi Siani, 2022; Sarkar, Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2021; Kashif et al., 2021; Nguyen, 2021; Dawood and Kashif, 2021; Curina et al., 2020; Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020; Pinto and Brandão, 2020; Farhat and Chaney, 2020; Fetscherin, 2019; Tuhin, 2019; Küçük, 2018; Zarantonella et al., 2018; Garg et al., 2018; Fahmi and Zaki, 2018; Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017; Küçük, 2016; Zarantonella et al., 2016)

Even though many researchers discuss the antecedents of hatred towards brands and its consequential impact on consumer behavior, very few studies draw attention to the relationship between consumer demographics and brand hate (Roy et al., 2022; Gois et al., 2022; Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021; Sarkar et al., 2020). Similarly, studies examining the effects of demographic characteristics on brand hate among Turkish consumers are also limited (Dülek, 2021; Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021; Öney, 2020; Öcel, 2020).

Therefore, this study it is aimed to explore the most frequent reasons of brand hate among Turkish consumers and the differential effects of consumers' demographic characteristics. The following research questions are addressed:

- 1) What is the most frequent reason stated by Turkish consumers for feeling hate toward brands?
- 2) Does the reason of brand hate differ according to the demographic characteristics of consumers?

1.2 Significance of the Study

This paper responds to the need to examine the potential effects of demographic characteristics of consumers, such as age, gender, education, and income, on brand hate (Yadav and Chakrabarti, 2022; Sharma, Jain and Gupta, 2022; Attiq, Hasni and Zhang, 2022; Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020; Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Sweeney, Soutar and Mazzarol, 2014). The paper also responds to the works of

Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen (2017), Zarantonello et al. (2016), and Bryson, Atwal and Hultén (2013), which advise a clearer and deeper understanding of the antecedents of brand hate and the work of Yadav and Chakrabarti (2022), which calls additional study on different countries and the brand hate in such markets. Previous research provides inconsistent results regarding the effects of demographics on brand hate and its consequences (Dülek, 2021; Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021; Öney, 2020; Öcel, 2020). To the best of the author's knowledge, demographical differences have not been explored in the context of antecedents of brand hate among Turkish consumers.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

The following chapter provides the literature used for our study on the matter of brand hate. The brand hate conceptualization section has covered the theoretical foundations of the construct examined. The following sections offer a comprehensive literature review of the antecedents, consequences, demographic factor effects on brand hate, and finally, the studies on brand hate in the Turkey context. The methodology chapter explains the sampling method and data collection technique used. The chapter titled "analysis and results" provides the return results with respect to reasons for brand hate and the effects of demographic characteristics on brand hate. The final chapter concludes the study, discusses managerial implications and suggests recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Brand Hate Conceptualization

Küçük's (2016, p.20) brand hate definition is:

“A psychological state whereby a consumer forms intense negative emotions and detachment toward brands that perform poorly and give consumers bad and painful experiences on both individual and social levels.”

Brand hate experience is more than just a fleeting emotion and becoming more permanent. With the widespread accessibility of information via social media and other mass communication channels over the internet, brand hate becomes an even more significant threat to companies.

Brand hate conceptualization is divided into two different schools of thought (Zhang and Laroche, 2020). One of these schools argues that brand hate is an emotion that is primarily associated with high levels of dislike, contentious impulses, individual rejection of emotion, and group hate, while the others argue that it is composed of the negation of intimacy, passion, and commitment (Zhang and Laroche, 2020). For instance, the first school defines brand hate as a very high level of dislike towards products or services markets by particular brands, and they have considered the concept of brand hate as unidimensional (Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017; Bryson, Atwal and Hultén, 2013; Johnson, Matear and Thomson, 2011; Grégoire, Tripp and Legoux, 2009). Consumers who experience hate toward brands can display confrontational and non-confrontational behaviors based on the emotions that the consumers experience (Fetscherin, 2019; Zarantonello et al., 2016). According to the second discipline, which is a more commonly acknowledged thought, brand hate is a multidimensional emotion (Zhang and Laroche, 2020). Pedeliento (2018) defines the factorial composition of brand hate as contempt and disgust, fear, disappointment, anger, shame, and dehumanization, which may have been felt due to dislike towards the product taste, cheated over the product, or disliking those in connection with the brand. The most widely accepted dimensions of brand hate are anger, contempt, disgust, and fear (Fetscherin, 2019; Küçük, 2018; Sternberg, 2003). Manifestation of

each dimension may vary and thus suggest being analyzed case by case in order to effectively grasp the content and reason for a hate feeling (Sternberg, 2003).

Most of the researchers agree that because brand hate is multidimensional, it can result in varying degrees of consequences (Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Sarkar et al., 2020; Bayarassou, Becheur and Valette-Florence, 2020; Farhat and Chaney, 2020; Fetscherin, 2019; Küçük, 2016, 2019; Zarantonello et al., 2016, 2018; Kähr et al., 2016; Romani et al., 2015). Different conceptualizations in the literature to define brand hate construct are presented in Table 1.

Over the past years, more researchers have become interested in brand hate's causes and effects. It became inevitable to consider the relationship between brands and hate emotions as a critical factor affecting consumer behavior. Further to these three emotions that are anger-related (i.e., fury, revulsion, and loathing), Zhang and Laroche (2020) introduce three emotions related to sadness (i.e., disappointment, displeasure, and disenchantment) and three emotions related to fear (i.e., fear, threat, and worry) to the model of brand hate.

“Brand hate is a multidimensional construct comprised of anger-, sadness- and fear-related emotions” (Zhang and Laroche, 2020)

Zhang and Laroche (2020) analyze the difference between brand hate levels with respect to negative emotions. This concludes that strong brand hate is often associated with a well-balanced integration consisting of intensive anger, sadness, and fear emotions, while anger emotions dominate moderate brand hate (Zhang and Laroche, 2020). Protest and other severe and substantial brand hate consequences may be created through intense anger, sadness, and fear, as opposed to the generally accepted idea that anger is the reason of brand hate (Zhang and Laroche, 2020). With this being said, the fiercest nemesis of brand hate is not anger; instead, it is considered to be sadness and fear (Zhang and Laroche, 2020). It is demonstrated in current studies that brand hate results in overwhelming feelings and physiological repercussions (e.g., feeling sick to the stomach) (Zhang and Laroche, 2020). These have contributed to one of the most debated topics in literature, namely the topic of nonbehavioral consequences of brand hate and consequences thereof based on behavior, one of the

most debated topics in the literature (Zhang and Laroche, 2020).

Table 1. Conceptualizations of Brand Hate Construct (Source: Yadav and Chakrabarti, 2022)

Dimensionality	Conceptualization
Unidimensional	A desire to avoid and take revenge from a brand (Grégoire, Tripp and Legoux, 2009)
	Strong opposition by the consumers towards the brand and their desire for brand revenge: feeling shame and acting as an intermediary to consumers' hateful acts (Johnson, Matear and Thomson, 2011)
	An intense negative emotional effect on the brand (Bryson, Atwal and Hultén, 2013)
	The emotional sentiment is higher in intensity in comparison to dislike of the brand (Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017)
Multidimensional	A construct that is considered second-order consists of the following: disgust, contempt, and anger/fear (Romani et al., 2015)
	Adverse evaluation of the performance of a brand and value-based stimuli will conclude in the generation of emotions that are intensively negative (Kähr et al., 2016)
	A combination of several major and secondary unpleasant emotions with two active (anger and disgust/contempt) and passive (fear) components (fear, shame, disappointment, and dehumanization) brand hate (Zarantonello et al., 2016)
	A mix of disgust, contempt, and anger leads to the seven types of brand hate (Küçük, 2016)
	Depending on the types of emotions felt, the combination of anger, contempt, and disgust results in the production of five different types of hatred (Fetscherin, 2019)
	Intense and firmly held unfavorable customer sentiments come from consumer separation and aversion from a brand and its value systems as a result of consistently occurring brand injustices: Seven different forms of brand hatred are the result of a combination of disgust, contempt, and anger (Küçük, 2019)
	A fusion of anger, sadness, and fear (Zhang and Laroche, 2020)
	A lack of alignment with the tourism destination's values and standards can lead to negative rationalities by consumers (Farhat and Chaney, 2020)

Despite the impacts of marketer-generated brand anthropomorphism on company returns that are deemed positive are broadly studied, consumer-generated brand anthropomorphisms, which prioritize demonizing and hitlerizing brands, were considered a subject by Küçük (2020). Küçük's (2020) review analyses the interpretations of the consumer concerning what evil is, what its symbols are, and how evil is personified as brands, with a new concept: reverse brand anthropomorphism. The first study's results to consider evil with respect to consumption showed that consumers observe companies as evil and conscious of it as a reference to Adolf Hitler (Küçük, 2020). When aimed at controlling the systems that consider consumer value, corporate brand power is generally coupled with evil (Küçük, 2020). It is conceptualized as an evil that has secret plans of possessing consumers and manipulating the outcomes of consumption practices (Küçük, 2020). Despite the fact that the image of "evil" is generally found distractive and disrespectful in the eyes of consumers, young generations acknowledge it as a speaking method in the market (Küçük, 2020).

2.2 Antecedents of Brand Hate

People frequently select brands based on the positive associations they have. This implies that consumers try to shape emotional attachment to a brand, called brand resonance (Keller, 2003), which is the ultimate level of relationship a consumer can have with a brand. Grégoire and Fisher (2007) discussed love toward a brand as an antecedent of brand hate. While purchasing any product, customers tend to carefully consider both their self-images and the attributes of the product. It is determined that customers do not prefer to be instructed on their lifestyles or the reasons behind the question of why brands should be a pivotal part of their lives (Brown, 2004). Their wish is to enjoy consumption as a means of fulfilling themselves and self-construction. There are loyal customers who started hating the brand after a disappointing experience (Gharbi and Smaoui, 2017). Definitive attributes of a brand, which may or may not be directly threatened by a crisis, are its essence (Greyser, 2009), and they are the closest factors to the significance and achievement of the brand (Greyser, 2009). It is possible for specific customers with strong identifying relationships to react in a more negative way upon a catastrophe that directly assaults the outstanding features of the brand, as it also jeopardizes their self-perception (Ma, 2020). One of the first to

explore personality traits, Küçük (2019), observed that consumers who are mindful are more likely to be brand detractors.

Hegner and colleagues (2017) analyzed the brand hate concept to its determinants and outcomes. They identify three main groups of determinants that trigger brand hate. As defined in the study, these groups are product-related factors as negative past experiences, consumer-related factors as symbolic incongruity with brands and consumers, and contextual-related factors as ideological incompatibility between brands and consumers.

The reasons for brand hate are generally discussed by researchers under three main categories: negative past experience (Bryson et al., 2021; Sarkar, Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2021; Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020; Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Farhat and Chaney, 2020; Jain and Sharma, 2019; Islam et al., 2019; Küçük, 2018; Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016, 2018; Bryson, Atwal and Hultén, 2013), ideological incongruence (Bryson et al., 2021; Pantano, 2021; Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Atwal, Bryson and Kaiser, 2020; Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020; Bayarassou, Becheur and Valette-Florence, 2020; Küçük, 2018, 2020; Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016, 2018; Romani et al., 2015) and symbolic incongruence (Bryson et al., 2021; Dawood and Kashif, 2021; Kashif et al., 2021; Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020; Islam et al., 2019; Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017; Zarantonello et al., 2016, 2018; Bryson, Atwal and Hultén, 2013). Other antecedents are relationship strength (Grégoire, Tripp and Legoux, 2009), quality of relationship (Johnson, Matear and Thomson, 2011), self-relevance (Johnson, Matear and Thomson, 2011), brand divorce (Johnson, Matear and Thomson, 2011), brand attitude cognition (Romani et al., 2015), Self-rival brand connection (Marticotte, Arcand and Baudry, 2016), identification with rival brand community (Marticotte, Arcand and Baudry, 2016), rival brand loyalty (Marticotte, Arcand and Baudry, 2016), brand performance (Kähr et al., 2016), value gained from brand (Kähr et al., 2016), self-expression of congruence (Popp, Germelmann and Jung, 2016), brand rivalry (Popp, Germelmann and Jung, 2016), brand attachment (Japutra, Ekinci and Simkin, 2018), perceived betrayal (Jain and Sharma, 2019), conscientiousness personality (Küçük, 2019), self-confidence (Küçük,

2019), competitiveness (Küçük, 2019), market stature (Bryson and Atwal, 2018), cultural dominance (Bryson and Atwal, 2018), brand inauthenticity (Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020), destination policy (Farhat and Chaney, 2020), destination security (Farhat and Chaney, 2020), visitor's religion (Farhat and Chaney, 2020), external environment (Farhat and Chaney, 2020), negative brand social self-expressiveness (Sarkar et al., 2020), peer identification (Itani, 2021), consumer identification (Itani, 2021), negative emotional connection (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2020), negative consumer-brand communication (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2020), NWOM (Bryson et al., 2021), brand anxiety (Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021). Determinants that trigger brand hate are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Antecedents of Brand Hate (Source: Yadav and Chakrabarti, 2022; Aziz and Rahman, 2022)

Antecedents	Articles
Negative past experience	Bryson, Atwal and Hultén (2013), Zarantonello et al. (2016), Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen (2017), Küçük (2018), Zarantonello et al. (2018), Jain and Sharma (2019), Islam et al. (2019), Rodrigues, Brandão, and Rodrigues (2020), Zhang and Laroche (2020), Farhat and Chaney (2020), Bryson et al. (2021), Sarkar, Sarkar and Sreejesh (2021)
Ideological incongruence	Romani et al. (2015), Zarantonello et al. (2016), Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen (2017), Zarantonello et al. (2018), Küçük (2018), Bryson and Atwal (2018), Zhang and Laroche (2020), Küçük (2020), Atwal, Bryson and Kaiser (2020), Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues (2020), Bayarassou, Becheur and Valette-Florence (2020), Bryson et al. (2021), Pantano (2021)
Symbolic incongruence	Bryson, Atwal and Hultén (2013), Zarantonello et al. (2016), Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen (2017), Zarantonello et al. (2018), Bryson and Atwal (2018), Islam et al. (2019), Zhang and Laroche (2020), Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues (2020), Bryson et al. (2021), Dawood and Kashif (2021), Kashif et al. (2021)
Others	

Table 2 (continued). Antecedents of Brand Hate (Source: Yadav and Chakrabarti, 2022; Aziz and Rahman, 2022)

Antecedents	Articles
Relationship strength	Grégoire, Tripp and Legoux (2009)
Quality of relationship, Self-relevance, Brand divorce	Johnson, Matear and Thomson (2011)
Dissatisfaction	Krishnamurthy and Küçük (2009), Lee and Cude (2012), Bryson, Atwal and Hultén (2013)
Brand attitude cognition	Romani et al. (2015)
Self-rival brand connection, Identification with rival brand communities, Rival brand loyalty	Marticotte, Arcand and Baudry (2016)
Brand performance, The value gained from brand	Kähr et al. (2016)
Self-expression of congruence	Popp, Germelmann and Jung (2016)
Brand rivalry	Popp, Germelmann and Jung (2016), Osuna Ramírez, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas (2019)
Brand attachment	Japutra, Ekinci and Simkin (2018)
Perceived betrayal	Jain and Sharma (2019)
Conscientiousness personality, Self-confidence, Competitiveness	Küçük (2019)
Market stature, Cultural dominance	Bryson and Atwal (2018)
Brand inauthenticity	Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues (2020)
Destination policy, Destination security, Visitor's religion, External environment	Farhat and Chaney (2020)
Negative brand social self-expressiveness	Sarkar et al. (2020)
Peer identification, Consumer identification	Itani (2021)
Negative emotional connection, Negative consumer-brand communication	Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas (2020)
NWOM	Bryson et al. (2021)
Brand anxiety	Japutra, Roy and Pham (2021)

To conclude, Hegner and colleagues (2017) categorized factors that lead to hate, divided into three categories: negative experience, symbolic incongruity, and ideological incompatibility. On the other hand, Küçük (2018) grouped antecedents into two types which are the absence of corporate social responsibility endeavors or the occurrence of socially irresponsible business practices, combined with a significant product or service failure, leading to consumer dissatisfaction and complaints. In a more recently conducted research, Küçük (2021) analyzed the components that contribute to brand hate into two groups: “product/service failures” & “ideologic/identity mismatch.” With respect to “product/service failures” antecedent, consumers are the most active product/service users in direct interaction with the company, and the effects of failures tend to become less effective in longer durations. Concerning “ideologic/identity mismatch,” consumers are not avid users of the product/service, have indirect contact with the brand, and the antecedent has long-term effects instead of short-term ones (Küçük, 2021).

2.3 Consequences of Brand Hate

Relating to brand hate outcomes, complaining (Roy et al., 2022; Zhang and Laroche 2020; Curina et al., 2020; Fetscherin, 2019; Zarantonella et al., 2018; Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Küçük, 2016, 2018; Zarantonella et al., 2016), patronage reduction/cessation (Gonçalves Filho et al., 2022; Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Zarantonella et al., 2016), NWOM (Costa and Azevedo, 2022; Soltan Hosseini, Khavari Khorasani and Ghasemi Siani, 2022; Kashif et al., 2021; Nguyen, 2021; Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Pinto and Brandão, 2020; Curina et al., 2020; Farhat and Chaney 2020; Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020; Fetscherin 2019; Tuhin, 2019; Zarantonella et al., 2018; Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Fahmi and Zaki, 2018; Garg et al., 2018; Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017; Zarantonella et al., 2016; Küçük, 2016), brand boycotting/rejection (Atwal, Bryson and Kaiser, 2020; Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Garg et al., 2018; Küçük, 2016), brand avoidance/non-repurchase intention (Roy et al., 2022; Gonçalves Filho et al., 2022; Costa and Azevedo, 2022; Attiq, Hasni and Zhang, 2022; Fani et al., 2022; Soltan Hosseini, Khavari Khorasani and Ghasemi Siani, 2022; Bayarassou, Valette-Florence and Becheur, 2022; Dawood and Kashif, 2021; Nguyen, 2021; Curina et al., 2020; Farhat and Chaney, 2020; Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues, 2020; Pinto and Brandão, 2020; Küçük, 2018;

Bryson and Atwal, 2018; Fahmi and Zaki, 2018; Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017), brand retaliation (Costa and Azevedo, 2022; Attiq, Hasni and Zhang, 2022; Soltan Hosseini, Khavari Khorasani and Ghasemi Siani, 2022; Sarkar, Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2021; Nguyen, 2021; Pinto and Brandão, 2020; Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen, 2017), brand switching (Roy et al., 2022; Fetscherin, 2019; Zarantonella et al., 2018;) and brand revenge (Bayarassou, Valette-Florence and Becheur, 2022; Fetscherin, 2019; Fahmi and Zaki, 2018) have been studied in the literature. The consequences of brand hate are presented in Table 3.

Regarding the intention of the non-repurchase outcome, as displayed by recent research that focuses on anti-consumption trends, negative emotions of a consumer towards a brand tend to have an adverse influence over loyalty and, consequently, frequency of use and repurchase intent of a product or brand (Zarantonello et al., 2018; Jayasimha, Chaudhary and Chauhan, 2017; Bryson, Atwal and Hultén, 2013). Hegner and colleagues (2017) suggested with such an impactful effect, this situation may, from a management-oriented perspective, become crucial in effectively dealing with hate. To avoid this situation should immediately be dealt with since it has a direct and indirect influence on consumers' repurchase decisions (Küçük, 2008).

There may be several reasons why non-purchase intentions are caused, one of which Liao and Keng (2013) claimed to be the failures of companies to satisfy the customer. This may also be depicted as a lesser tendency to repurchase from a company, even reaching the point of willingly avoiding a brand based on previous unsatisfactory experiences with such a brand. The term "*exit*" is used to expound the intention of consumers not to repurchase by İstanbulluoğlu, Leek and Szmigin (2017) by adhering to the taxonomy proposed by Singh (1988). Not only that, but the authors also emphasize the importance and relevance of non-repurchase behavior as it is a private action that does not convey any information to the company (İstanbulluoğlu, Leek and Szmigin, 2017). Since this behavior is a private action and it is unlikely that the company will receive any feedback, it is challenging to observe an "*exit*" where consumers stop purchasing that brand instead of communicating their dissatisfaction first.

Table 3. Consequences of Brand Hate (Source: Developed by author)

Consequences	Articles
Complaining	Küçük (2016), Zarantonella et al. (2016), Küçük (2018), Zarantonella et al. (2018), Bryson and Atwal (2018), Fetscherin (2019), Curina et al. (2020), Zhang and Laroche (2020), Roy et al. (2022)
Patronage reduction/cessation	Zarantonella et al. (2016), Zhang and Laroche (2020), Gonçalves Filho et al. (2022)
Brand avoidance/non-repurchase intention	Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen (2017), Küçük (2018), Bryson and Atwal (2018), Fahmi and Zaki (2018), Curina et al. (2020), Farhat and Chaney (2020), Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues (2020), Pinto and Brandão (2020), Lin, Xu and Tao (2020), Dawood and Kashif (2021), Nguyen (2021), Soltan Hosseini, Khavari Khorasani and Ghasemi Siani (2022), Bayarassou, Valette-Florence and Becheur (2022), Fani et al., (2022), Gonçalves Filho et al. (2022), Costa and Azevedo (2022), Attiq, Hasni and Zhang (2022), Roy et al. (2022)
Brand switching	Zarantonella et al. (2018), Fetscherin (2019), Roy et al. (2022)
Brand boycotting/rejection	Küçük (2016), Garg et al. (2018), Bryson and Atwal (2018), Atwal, Bryson and Kaiser (2020)
NWOM	Küçük (2016), Zarantonella et al. (2016), Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen (2017), Garg et al. (2018), Zarantonella et al. (2018), Bryson and Atwal (2018), Fahmi and Zaki (2018), Fetscherin (2019), Tuhin (2019), Curina et al. (2020), Farhat and Chaney (2020), Rodrigues, Brandão and Rodrigues (2020), Zhang and Laroche (2020), Pinto and Brandão (2020), Kashif et al. (2021), Nguyen (2021), Soltan Hosseini, Khavari Khorasani and Ghasemi Siani (2022), Costa and Azevedo (2022)
Brand retaliation	Hegner, Fetscherin and van Delzen (2017), Fetscherin (2019), Pinto and Brandão (2020), Sarkar, Sarkar and Sreejesh (2021), Nguyen (2021), Soltan Hosseini, Khavari Khorasani and Ghasemi Siani (2022), Costa and Azevedo (2022), Attiq, Hasni and Zhang (2022)
Brand revenge	Fahmi and Zaki (2018), Fetscherin (2019), Bayarassou, Valette-Florence and Becheur (2022)

Certain studies research non-repurchase intention as to how consumer dissatisfaction represents the principal factor resulting in “*exit*” (İstanbulluoğlu, Leek and Szmigin, 2017; Agag and El-Masry, 2016; Kwon and Sung, 2012). While poor product performance, self-incongruity, and unpleasant advertising content positively affect brand avoidance, the former has the strongest effect on sportswear brands (Lin, Xu and Tao, 2020). When consumers feel brand hate, they will speak negatively about it. If things take a turn for the worse, a public outcry and a significant shift in the customer base to another brand may occur. NWOM, complaining, and non-repurchase intention are associated with brand hate (Cioppi et al., 2020). Curina et al. (2020) revealed that brand hate positively affects offline NWOM, complaining, and non-repurchase intention. A mediated path was found, starting with brand hate and ending with the non-repurchase intention, through online complaints and offline NWOM (Curina et al., 2020).

If the size of the negative experience, namely brand hate, is substantial, the person may not want to remain passive. Brand retaliation is an outcome (Grégoire, Tripp and Legoux, 2009). It has been found in the literature that these sharp destructive behaviors are done to achieve equality instead of harming the brand (Kähr et al., 2016; Bechwati and Morrin, 2003). Zourrig, Chebat and Toffoli (2009) explained the differentiation between brand revenge & brand retaliation based on rationality, effect, and behavior. Even though brand retaliation may be seen as short-term behavior, revenge is a mindset that will ultimately harm the brand in the long term.

Patronage reduction is an effort shown by customers to reduce their frequency, spending less per visit and frequent competitors with more intensity (Grégoire and Fisher, 2006). Each customer may choose to avoid a brand and move their patronage to other brands because they do not want to have negative experiences.

2.4 Effects of Demographical Factors on Brand Hate

Studies in the psychology field have shown that negative emotions are relatively stronger than positive ones but generally do not differ in terms of behavioral outcomes between males and females, about which Nikhashemi & Valaei (2018) argued brand personality effect is not influenced by a customer’s gender (Roy et al., 2022). Roy et al. (2022) revealed that gender does not significantly affect the brand experience.

It is suggested by researchers that women are more likely to buy on impulse compared to the opposite sex, and men are more likely to prefer products based on their functionality; where it was concluded that women are changing their loyalty to brand equity is more significantly influenced by brands compared to men (Gois et al., 2022). Khan and Rahman (2016) stated that females are more unlikely to repurchase in an e-brand experience context.

It is argued that women generate hate for ideological incompatibility (moral conduct, ethics, and justice in actions) so much that it can cause negative experiences (Gois et al., 2022). Moreover, men tend to have stronger reactions against hate, resulting from negative experiences, and less ideological incompatibility (Gois et al., 2022). At the same time, Gois et al. (2022) stated that males appear to react more aggressively to negative experiences when exposed to the same conditions as females (such as the same educational institution/experiences).

It is often stated that, compared to males, females have a higher tendency to express themselves socially and that women are more driven toward interpersonal goal achievements and relationship successes (Sarkar et al., 2020). Thus, Sarkar et al. (2020) hypothesized that brand inner self-expressiveness is less important for women than men. Therefore, brand embarrassment may have a more substantial impact on brand hate for women. However, Sarkar and colleagues (2020) found that gender did not have a moderate effect on brand embarrassment and hate relationships.

Previous studies also discuss the differences between males and females in brand personality and brand experiences; for example, it is suggested that women are more likely to display more positive emotions than males (Roy et al., 2022). Therefore, Roy et al. (2022) argued that males are more potential to develop brand hate than females. However, it was found that gender did not moderate the influence of both negative brand experience and negative brand personality on brand hate (Roy et al., 2022).

In a recent study, Gois et al. (2022) found that men felt more brand hate coming from negative experiences, but there were no significant gender differences with regard to symbolic incongruence and ideological incompatibility drivers.

The study of Karande, Magnini and Tam (2007) indicated that age is a significant demographic variable used in predicting consumer behavior at different stages of the buying process (Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021). Additionally, Roschk, Müller and Gelbrich (2013) argued that age is a moderating variable in service failure and recovery contexts (Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021). Similarly, it was displayed by Varela-Neira, Vázquez-Casielles and Iglesias (2010) that the type of service failure has a varying impact on the negative emotions of consumers based on their age (Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021). Harris and Reynolds (2004) observed that women in the middle age range tend to produce fraudulent complaints, while, in a more recent study, Khan et al. (2020) determined that the relationships between customer experience, commitment, and brand loyalty are moderated by the age of consumers (Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021). For youngsters, experience is key to developing affective commitment and brand loyalty toward retailers (Khan et al., 2020). In another research, since the elderly tend to be more emotionally mature, Huaman-Ramirez and Merunka (2019) suggested that they have a better ability to regulate their emotions and display higher levels of self-control when confronted with intense negative feelings (Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021). An argument states that, upon the occurrence of brand disappointments, consumers that display a relatively strong attachment (e.g., affection) are more prone to engage in anti-brand behaviors (Japutra, Ekinci and Simkin, 2018). Based on these discussions, Japutra, Roy and Pham (2021) argued the way that age moderates the connection between brand anxiety on brand hate. It was determined that older consumers are less apt to feel hate due to brand anxiety (Japutra, Roy and Pham, 2021).

Jabeen et al. (2022) revealed that age and gender impact the desire for retaliation while do not influence the desire for avoidance in the brand hate context. In addition, educational background and household size did not produce any effects (Jabeen et al., 2022).

2.5 Brand Hate Research in Turkey

Many researchers discuss the antecedents of brand hate for Turkish consumers. For example, it is shown that while anthropomorphism positively affects brand love, it does not affect brand hate (Aydın and Ünal, 2019). Brand hate and detachment are outcomes of brand embarrassment (Mban and Ünal, 2020). Consumer regret positively

affects brand hate, which positively affects NWOM (Kurtoğlu, Özbölük, and Hacıhasanoğlu, 2022). It was also found that hate plays an essential role in group involvement and explaining “others” perceptions in the context of rival football teams (Çelik, 2019). The dimensions of brand avoidance, which are experiential, identity, moral, deficit value, and advertising, create brand hate, and brand hate is also a mediator in the relationship between moral avoidance and brand rejection behavior (Kaytaz Yiğit and İrfanoğlu, 2021). Consumer ethnocentrism increases hate toward brands in the event of product failure after consumption (Öney, 2020). Experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, and moral avoidance have positive effects on brand hate (Günaydın and Yıldız, 2021). Personality structures also affect hate felt toward brands (Özel and Öcel, 2022). It was inferred brand avoiding dimensions (experiential, identity, moral, missing value, and advertising) have a positive and significant influence on brand hate (Demirağ and Çavuşoğlu, 2020).

Previous studies conducted in Turkey show that negative past experiences (Güzel and Güler, 2021; Burucuoğlu, 2021; Baruönü, 2021; Pınarbaşı and Enginkaya, 2019), symbolic incongruity (Müftüoğlu and Ünal, 2021; Baruönü, 2021; Pınarbaşı and Enginkaya, 2019; Balıkçioğlu and Kıyak, 2019), and ideological incongruity (Baruönü, 2021; Pınarbaşı and Enginkaya, 2019; Balıkçioğlu and Kıyak, 2019) have a positive relationship with brand hate. For instance, Balıkçioğlu and Kıyak (2019) demonstrate that both symbolic incongruity and ideological incompatibility lead to brand hate, and brand hate results in the context of brand avoidance and NWOM. Similarly, Müftüoğlu and Ünal (2021) showed that symbolic incompatibility affects brand hate, while brand hate drives both brand retaliation and NWOM. In addition, Burucuoğlu (2021) demonstrated that negative past experience leads to brand hate and, in turn, NWOM.

On the other hand, NWOM (Demirağ and Çavuşoğlu, 2022; Müftüoğlu and Ünal, 2021; Çıldırım and Ağlargoöz, 2021; Günaydın and Yıldız, 2021; Burucuoğlu, 2021; Şahin, 2021; Örs and Kaytaz, 2020; Öcel, 2020; Balıkçioğlu and Kıyak, 2019), brand avoidance (Güzel and Güler, 2021; Çıldırım and Ağlargoöz, 2021; Dülek, 2021; Şahin, 2021; Demirağ and Çavuşoğlu, 2020; Öcel, 2020; Balıkçioğlu and Kıyak, 2019), brand switching (Günaydın and Yıldız, 2021; Pınarbaşı and Enginkaya, 2019), brand rejection (Örs and Kaytaz, 2020), brand retaliation (Müftüoğlu and Ünal, 2021; Şahin,

2021; Örs and Kaytaz, 2020), non-repurchase intention (Demirağ and Çavuşoğlu, 2022; Şahin, 2021; Demirağ and Çavuşoğlu, 2020), complaining (Demirağ and Çavuşoğlu, 2022; Öcel, 2020), brand revenge (Günaydın and Yıldız, 2021; Şahin, 2021) are the supported brand hate results. In addition, brand attachment weakens brand hate on purchasing tendency is reduced, but the impact on brand revenge is enhanced. Negative past experiences or symbolic incongruity shape brand switching intention, but ideological incongruity does not impact brand switching intention (Pınarbaşı and Enginkaya, 2019). Furthermore, telecommunication, clothing, food, and technology brands are the most frequently mentioned ones that consumers feel negativity towards (Pınarbaşı and Enginkaya, 2019). Exhibitors' hatred towards brands is concentrated in food and beverage, cargo, telephone operators, and electronic goods (Çıldırım and Ağlargoş, 2021). Moreover, Örs and Kaytaz (2020) argued that recovery strategies, including an apology, compensation, and voice, do not weaken brand hate influence on NWOM, brand rejection, and retaliation.

Regarding demographic differences, Öney (2020) asserted that brand hate levels differ according to age groups. Specifically, young consumers seem to be more hateful toward brands than older ones. Furthermore, it was found that brand hate does not differ across gender, education, and income levels (Öney, 2020).

On the other hand, it was shown that men are more likely to harbor hate for brands than women in both complaining dimensions and NWOM (Öcel, 2020). In addition, a significant difference exists between participants' education level & brand avoidance. Graduates have more tendency to avoid brands than primary school graduates. Also, it was seen that complaining varies significantly based on income levels. People with 5001-7500 TL income levels have a higher tendency to complain than people with 2501- 5000 TL income levels (Öcel, 2020).

Based on the GSM operator brands, it was concluded that consumer behavior toward brand avoidance is partially shaped by demographic variables (Dülek, 2021). Brand avoiding dimensions did not differ according to the gender, income level, and age of the participants. However, brand avoidance dimensions vary according to the marital status and educational status of the participants. It was concluded that single participants had higher scores on brand avoidance dimensions. In the dimensions of

experiential, identity, and moral avoidance, it was observed that brand hatred was the lowest level for undergraduate and graduate levels (Dülek, 2021).

According to the findings of Çıldırım and Ağlargöz's (2021) study, the averages of males regarding brand hatred, brand avoiding, brand revenge requests, complaining, NWOM, and cyberbullying behaviors are higher than females. While brand hatred, revenge requests, complaining, and cyberbullying differ significantly according to gender, brand avoiding and NWOM do not differ. It was discovered that the age of participants had a statistically considerable impact on brand hate dimensions, brand avoidance, complaining, and NWOM. It has been observed that participants in the 35-44 age group are more prone to developing brand hate, brand avoidance, complaining, and NWOM behaviors than other age groups. The dimensions of complaining and NWOM vary significantly based on working status (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021). It has been determined that those in the self-employed group have more complaining and NWOM behavior than those in the student, retired, and not working groups. The 35 to 44 age group is more conscious, sensitive, and active in brand hate. The study revealed a statistically significant difference between participants' income levels & dimensions of brand avoidance, brand revenge, and NWOM. Participants with an income level of over 15000 TL engage in more brand avoidance, brand revenge, and NWOM behaviors than participants with lower incomes. Furthermore, participants who own their businesses tend to be more susceptible to hating brands (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sampling

The convenience sampling method was used to collect data from adults aged 18 and over. A total of 313 participants, consisting of 157 males (50.16%) and 156 females (49.84%), filled out the survey. 241 (77%) participants were in the 18-25 age group, 38 (12.14%) participants were between the ages of 26-33, and 30 (9.58%) were in the age group of 34 years and above. The age data of four participants were not provided. Regarding education level, 66 (21.08%) of the participants had a high school diploma or less, 230 (73.49%) had bachelor's degrees, and 16 (5.11%) had graduate degrees. One respondent did not specify his/her level of education. 37 (11.82%) of the participants stated that they have an income of 2500 TL or less. 68 (21.72%) participants stated that they have income between 2501TL - 5000TL, 22 (7.02%) participants between 5001TL - 7500TL, and 12 (3.83%) participants between 7501TL - 10000TL. While the number of individuals with an income of 10001 TL and above is 23 (7.34%), 151 (48.24%) people who participated in the survey stated that they do not have personal income. The demographic characteristics of the sample is provided in Table 4.

Table 4. Sample Demographics

		n	%
Gender	Male	157	50.16
	Female	156	49.84
Education level	High school or less	66	21.08
	Bachelor's degree	230	73.49
	Graduate degree	16	5.11
	Unstated	1	0.31
Age	$18 \leq x \leq 25$	241	77
	$26 \leq x \leq 33$	38	12.14
	$34 \leq x$	30	9.58
	Unstated	4	1.27
Income Level	$x \leq 2500\text{TL}$	37	11.82
	$2.501\text{TL} \leq x \leq 5.000\text{TL}$	68	21.72
	$5.001\text{TL} \leq x \leq 7.500\text{TL}$	22	7.02
	$7.501\text{TL} \leq x \leq 10.000\text{TL}$	12	3.83
	$10.001\text{TL} \leq x$	23	7.34
	Not have any income	151	48.24

3.2 Data Collection

The online survey was used to collect data by using Google Forms. The survey link was sent via e-mail. Participants were first asked to write down a hated brand and then the reasons that caused the hate they felt toward the brand. Then, demographic information was collected.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSES AND RESULTS

4.1 Reasons of Brand Hate

Quantitative content analysis was conducted to determine the frequency of three reasons of brand hate. Quantitative content analysis is a research method in which collected data (visual, textual, or oral) is categorized and recorded in order to identify or analyze it (Coe and Scacco, 2017). Two coders separately coded all the units, with reasons stated by each participant in the sample. The codebook used as a protocol for analyzing the content is provided in Appendix A. Coding examples for each category are presented in Appendix B.

4.1.1 Pilot and Final Reliability Analyses Results

Wimmer and Dominic (1997) suggest the reliability subsample size to be 10% to 20% of the total sample. Therefore, 20% ($n = 63$) of the total sample was selected by using a systematic random sampling method to present the total sample accurately (Neuendorf, 2002). A skip interval of 5 was determined by dividing the total population by the sample size ($313/63$), and then, every fifth person was chosen from the sampling list. Two coders coded all the units in the subsample. Regarding the pilot reliability assessment, Cohen's *kappa* analysis was conducted to determine if there was a substantial agreement between two raters on the reasons of brand hate categories for each participant. According to the Banerjee et al. (1999) criteria for Cohen's *kappa*, it was found that there was a fair to good agreement beyond chance, $kappa = .726$ (95% CI, .885 to .567), $p < .001$. The disagreements were resolved through discussions between the coders to reach a consensus. Regarding the final reliability assessment, the same coders independently coded the entire data in the total sample. The inter-coder reliability was found to be $.709$, $kappa = .709$ (95% CI, .78936 to .62864), $p < .001$. The disagreements were resolved in the same way as in the pilot reliability assessment. Results for pilot and final reliability analyses are presented in Table 5 and 6.

Table 5. The Symmetric Measures of Pilot Reliability

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.726	.081	7.018	.000
N of Valid Cases	63			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 6. The Symmetric Measures of Final Reliability

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.709	.041	17.392	.000
N of Valid Cases	313			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

4.1.2 Reasons of Brand Hate Frequency Results

The answers given by 38 participants were marked as “unable to determine.” Because some people only expressed their feelings about a brand (such as I dislike or do not love), some of them covered more than one category (related to corporate and product level at the same time), and a few wrote directly unrelated things. Thus, the sample size was reduced to 275.

Product-related reasons refer to negative past experiences the consumer had with the brand, such as product and service failures (n=145), unfair price/quality ratio (n=38), and dissatisfaction with customer services or the offering (n=31).

User-related reasons refer to negative thoughts towards the brand due to the attitudes of the users that the brand addresses or aims to reach (n=6).

Corporate-related reasons refer to legal, social, or moral corporate wrongdoings such as ethical misconduct (n=32), deceptive communication (n=8), lack of respect for human rights (n=12), or environmental irresponsibility (n=3).

In total, as shown in Table 7 and 8, there were 214 product-related, 6 user-related, and 55 corporate-related reasons for brand hate.

Table 7. Frequency of Brand Hate Categories

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Product-related	214	68.4	68.4
User-related	6	1.9	70.3
Corporate-related	55	17.6	87.9
Unable to determine	38	12.1	100.0
Total	313	100.0	

Table 8. Frequency of Demographic Characteristics Across Brand Hate Categories

		Product-related		User-related		Corporate-related	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender	Male	105	66.9%	5	3.2%	24	15.3%
	Female	109	69.9%	1	0.6%	31	19.9%
Education level	High school or less	49	74.2%	1	1.5%	9	13.6%
	Bachelor's degree	156	67.8%	4	1.7%	44	19.1%
	Graduate degree	9	56.3%	1	6.3%	2	12.5%
Age	$18 \leq x \leq 25$	165	68.5%	5	2.1%	42	17.4%
	$26 \leq x \leq 33$	28	73.7%	-	-	8	21.1%
	$34 \leq x$	21	70.0%	1	3.3%	4	13.3%
Income Level	$x \leq 2500TL$	21	56.8%	3	8.1%	8	21.6%
	$2.501TL \leq x \leq 5.000TL$	50	73.5%	-	-	9	13.2%
	$5.001TL \leq x \leq 7.500TL$	15	68.2%	1	4.5%	4	18.2%
	$7.501TL \leq x \leq 10.000TL$	4	33.3%	-	-	5	41.7%
	$10.001TL \leq x$	15	65.2%	-	-	4	17.4%

4.2 Demographic Characteristics Differences

Pearson chi-square analyses were conducted to examine whether demographic characteristics relate to the reasons of brand hate. Since there was not enough data about the user-related factors, only product- and corporate-related reasons were considered. Therefore, the sample size was reduced to 269.

4.2.1 Gender Differences

Pearson chi-square analysis results show that there was no significant association between gender and different reasons of brand hate [$\chi^2 (1) = .517, p = .472$]. Results are provided in Table 9 and 10.

Table 9. Gender * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation

		Brand Hate Reason		Total	
		Product	Corporate		
Gender	Male	Count	105	24	129
		Expected Count	102.6	26.4	129.0
		% within Gender	81.4%	18.6%	100.0%
	Female	Count	109	31	140
		Expected Count	111.4	28.6	140.0
		% within Gender	77.9%	22.1%	100.0%
Total	Count	214	55	269	
	Expected Count	214.0	55.0	269.0	
	% within Gender	79.6%	20.4%	100.0%	

Table 10. Gender * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.517 ^a	1	.472		
Continuity Correction ^b	.322	1	.570		
Likelihood Ratio	.518	1	.472		
Fisher's Exact Test				.546	.286
Linear-by-Linear Association	.515	1	.473		
N of Valid Cases	269				

4.2.2 Age Group Differences

Pearson chi-square analysis results show that there was no significant association between age groups and different reasons of brand hate [$\chi^2 (2) = .380, p = .827$]. Results are provided in Table 11 and 12.

Table 11. Age Groups * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation

		Brand Hate Reason		Total	
		Product	Corporate		
Age Groups	$18 \leq x \leq 25$	Count	165	43	208
		Expected Count	165.5	42.5	208.0
		% within Age	79.3%	20.7%	100.0%
	$26 \leq x \leq 33$	Count	28	8	36
		Expected Count	28.6	7.4	36.0
		% within Age	77.8%	22.2%	100.0%
	$34 \leq x$	Count	21	4	25
		Expected Count	19.9	5.1	25.0
		% within Age	84.0%	16.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	214	55	269	
	Expected Count	214.0	55.0	269.0	
	% within Age	79.6%	20.4%	100.0%	

Table 12. Age Groups * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.380 ^a	2	.827
Likelihood Ratio	.397	2	.820
Linear-by-Linear Association	.142	1	.707
N of Valid Cases	269		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.11.

4.2.3 Education Level Differences

Pearson chi-square analysis results show that one cell had an expected count of less than 5, where the minimum expected count is 2.25. However, Camilli and Hopkins (1979) suggested that expected cell frequencies between 1 and 2 are accurate when the overall sample size is greater than 10. As a result, no significant association between education level and different reasons of brand hate was found [$\chi^2(2) = 1.198, p = .549$]. Results are provided in Table 13 and 14.

Table 13. Education Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation

		Brand Hate Reason		Total	
		Product	Corporate		
Education Levels	High school or less	Count	49	9	58
		Expected Count	46.1	11.9	58.0
		% within Education	84.5%	15.5%	100.0%
	Bachelor's degree	Count	156	44	200
		Expected Count	159.1	40.9	200.0
		% within Education	78.0%	22.0%	100.0%
	Graduate degree	Count	9	2	11
		Expected Count	8.8	2.2	11.0
		% within Education	81.8%	18.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	214	55	269
		Expected Count	214.0	55.0	269.0
		% within Education	79.6%	20.4%	100.0%

Table 14. Education Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.198 ^a	2	.549
Likelihood Ratio	1.253	2	.534
Linear-by-Linear Association	.686	1	.407
N of Valid Cases	269		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.25.

4.2.4 Income Level Differences

Pearson chi-square analysis results show that three cells had an expected count less than 5, with the minimum expected count is 2, meeting the recommended minimum cell frequency (Camilli and Hopkins, 1979). Thus, no significant association between income level and different reasons of brand hate was found [$\chi^2 (2) = 7.956, p = .093$]. Results are provided in Table 15 and 16.

Table 15. Income Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Crosstabulation

		Brand Hate Reason		Total	
		Product	Corporate		
Income Levels	$x \leq 2500\text{TL}$	Count	21	8	29
		Expected Count	22.6	6.4	29.0
		% Within Income	72.4%	27.6%	100.0%
	$2.501\text{TL} \leq x \leq 5.000\text{TL}$	Count	50	9	59
		Expected Count	45.9	13.1	59.0
		% Within Income	84.7%	15.3%	100.0%
	$5.001\text{TL} \leq x \leq 7.500\text{TL}$	Count	15	4	19
		Expected Count	14.8	4.2	19.0
		% Within Income	78.9%	21.1%	100.0%
	$7.501\text{TL} \leq x \leq 10.000\text{TL}$	Count	4	5	9
		Expected Count	7.0	2.0	9.0
		% Within Income	44.4%	55.6%	100.0%
	$10.001\text{TL} \leq x$	Count	15	4	19
		Expected Count	14.8	4.2	19.0
		% Within Income	78.9%	21.1%	100.0%
	Total	Count	105	30	135
		Expected Count	105.0	30.0	135.0
		% Within Income	77.8%	22.2%	100.0%

Table 16. Income Levels * Reasons of Brand Hate Chi-square Tests Results

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.956 ^a	4	.093
Likelihood Ratio	6.982	4	.137
Linear-by-Linear Association	.325	1	.569
N of Valid Cases	135		

a. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.00.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Theoretical and Managerial Implications of the Study

The aim of this study is to contribute to the brand hate literature by grouping the causes of brand hate and, by listening to previous calls, examining the effect of demographic characteristics (such as age, education level, gender, and income level) on brand hate. Moreover, it expands limited research on brand hate in Turkey. In line with previous studies (Müftüoğlu and Ünal, 2021; Güzel and Güler, 2021; Burucuoğlu, 2021; Baruönu, 2021; Pınarbaşı and Enginkaya, 2019; Balıkçioğlu and Kıyak, 2019) results show that there are three reasons for brand hate, which are product-related, user-related, and corporate-related.

According to the outcomes, the most frequent brand hate reasons are product-related and the least user-related. The results support Gois et al. (2022) 's findings that negative experience and ideological incompatibility are the most observed antecedents of brand hate in educational institutions. It is also concluded that no significant gender-based differences are found in relation to symbolic incongruence and ideological incompatibility drivers. But one of the results that diverged from this study is that men feel more brand hate aroused from negative experiences. Similarly, Zarantonello et al. (2018) found that experiencing product/service failures in a consumer-brand relationship is the most recurrent reason, which was mentioned by 67% of the participants. In another study, the most relevant cause of brand hate was past negative experiences which were identified by 90.4% of the participants (Costa and Azevedo, 2022). Moreover, in Riberio (2019) 's study, 22% of the respondents stated that they hate a brand because of "poor quality" reasons.

The results also support the findings of Sarkar et al. (2020) that gender did not affect the relationship between brand embarrassment and brand hate. Similarly, the study conducted by Roy et al. (2022) supports the current research, which advances the argument that gender did not moderate negative brand experience, negative brand personality, and brand hate relationships.

The current study found that age had no effect on brand hate, which contradicts the findings of Japutra, Roy and Pham (2021), which state that “age attenuates the relationship between brand anxiety and brand hatred” and “the direct effect of age on brand hatred is significant.” Japutra, Roy and Pham (2021) observed that older people are more likely to be forgiving and less likely to harbor a grudge against brands compared to younger people.

Since the most frequent reasons are product-related, it is recommended to focus primarily on problems such as product and service failures, unfair price/quality ratio, and dissatisfaction with customer services or the offering. For example, some participants said, “*I find the quality of ...brand inadequate compared with price*” and “*While the pricing of ... products is similar to competing companies, the quality is not that good*”. It can be concluded that textile companies are perceived as having unfair price/quality ratios. It is suggested that companies review their pricing fees according to demographic profiles in the countries they operate in. Taking measures to intervene quickly in such problems and avoid them reoccurring in the future can prevent the transformation of negative past experiences into brand hate.

Observing that product-related brand hate is generally caused by product and service failures indicates that the most critical matter for customers is product/service quality. Regarding the complaints encountered in places where the service is performed face-to-face, it can be suggested that the company and managers consider these issues. It is possible to prevent the negative past experience from turning into hate by aiming to provide better service or products to new consumers by improving the problems in question. In addition, the fact that customer services offer reasonable solutions to the issues faced by users of products and services and that managers care about customer service are among the first-hand and direct methods that can be taken against the emergence of brand hate.

This study responds to the works of Yadav and Chakrabarti (2022), Sharma et al. (2022), Attiq, Hasni and Zhang (2022), Rodrigues et al. (2020), Bryson and Atwal (2018), Sweeney et al. (2014) that call to examine to effects of consumers’ demographic factors on brand hate. Bryson and Atwal (2018) highlight the importance of examining the connection between gender and brand hate. Similarly, Yadav and

Chakrabarti (2022) suggest exploring brand hate drivers and subsequent intended behaviors or actions regarding income level and social class. Further investigation is necessary on demographical distinctions, as there is currently not enough research that examines the stimuli and outcomes of brand hate among different age groups, generations, or genders (Yadav and Chakrabarti, 2022). This study expands upon the findings of Hegner et al. (2017), Zarantonello et al. (2016), and Bryson et al. (2013), which advise a more in-depth understanding of the antecedents of brand hate and the work of Yadav and Chakrabarti (2022), which necessitates more research on brand hate across various countries.

5.2 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

The sample size and characteristics of the participants are limitations of the study. Data was collected from Turkish participants; thus, results may differ in countries with different demographics. Therefore, the impact of age, gender, education, and income characteristics of consumers on brand hate can be examined with a larger sample size for better understanding. Additionally, conducting similar studies with participants from other countries can provide a more comprehensive understanding of how demographic characteristics impact brand hate. Participants were predominantly between the ages of 18-25; in other words, the fact that the sample mainly consists of young consumers is another limitation of the study. Similarly, almost half of the sample with no personal income is another limitation that calls for new studies. Likewise, due to the lack of sufficient data on user-related brand hate, it could not be compared with other categories. In further research, user-related brand hate should be examined. Moreover, future studies can examine the relationships between demographics and the consequences of brand hate, such as brand avoidance, brand retaliation, brand switching, NWOM, brand revenge, private/public complaining, and boycotting. Because the studies that have been done so far are limited, and while some results are similar, divergent results have been observed. For example, some results showed that gender impacts some brand hate behaviors, such as NWOM (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021; Öcel, 2020), complaining (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021; Öcel, 2020), brand revenge (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021), brand avoidance (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021), brand retaliation (Jabeen et al., 2022). Some other researchers observed that also age impacts brand hate behaviors like brand avoidance (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021), complaining (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021), NWOM (Çıldırım

and Ağlargöz, 2021), and brand retaliation (Jabeen et al., 2022). However, Jabeen et al. (2022) and Dülek (2021) reached out in their studies that gender and age do not affect brand avoidance, the outcome of brand hate, which is an output parallel to the result of our research. Some studies showed that income level impacts complaining (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021; Öcel, 2020), brand revenge (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021), NWOM (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021), brand avoidance (Çıldırım and Ağlargöz, 2021). However, Dülek (2021) stated that income level does not impact brand avoidance. Again, this result also aligns with our study, although it differs from previous studies. Additionally, single participants are more prone to brand avoidance (Dülek, 2021).



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APPENDICES

Appendix A – Codebook

Unit of Data Collection: Each explanation that describes the reason(s) of hating the brand.

Participant ID: Indicate the number given to each subject which fills out the survey.

Reasons of Brand Hate: Indicate whether the main reason of the hated brand is product-, consumer- or company-related factors.

- 1. Product-related reasons:** Reason(s) that are related to negative past experiences the consumer had with the brand, such as product and service failures, unfair price/quality ratio, and dissatisfaction with customer services or the offering.
- 2. User-related reasons:** Reason(s) that are related to negative associations of the brand with undesirable, objectionable, or unacceptable traits and characteristics of a particular group or social categories, such as negative stereotypes or avoidance groups.
- 3. Corporate-related reasons:** Reason(s) that are related to legal, social, or moral corporate wrongdoings, such as moral misconduct, deceptive communication, lack of respect for human rights, or environmental irresponsibility.
- 4. Unable to determine:** If the reason is mentioned without a proper explanation, the emotion described is disliked, or if the main reason is unable to be identified when more than one factor is mentioned.

Appendix B – Coding Examples

1. Product-related reasons:

- a.) Participant 98: ‘Ürünlerinin rakiplerine göre hem daha kalitesiz olması hem de fiyatlandırmanın kaliteli markalara yakın olması.’
- b.) Participant 201: ‘Özellikle telefonlarının kalitesizliğini bir çok kez tecrübe etmiş oldum. Sürekli meydana gelen arızalardan dolayı artık bıktım.’

2. User-related reasons:

- a.) Participant 175: ‘Markayı kullanan kişilerin tutumları.’
- b.) Participant 222: ‘İnsanların sadece hava atmak için gitmesi ve bunu sosyal statü göstergesi olarak sunması.’

3. Corporate-related reasons:

- a.) Participant 135: ‘Markanın LGBT topluluğuna karşı yaptığı çirkin reklamlar.’
- b.) Participant 196: ‘Marka hayvanlar üzerinde deney yapıyor.’

4. Unable to determine:

- a.) Participant 217: ‘Markaya ait ürünler bana hitap etmiyor.’
- b.) Participant 227: ‘Markanın adı, eski kız arkadaşımın adı.’