

Drivers and Outcomes of Brand Hate in the Tourism Sector

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Abstract

Brand hate is considered as the most extreme and consecutive negative emotion toward brands which associated with various types of negative behavioral outcomes. Although the importance of the brand hate topic, the majority studies of customers' emotions towards brand were focused on positive emotions, while little researches focused on negative ones. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to explore and understand the brand hate and measure its drivers and outcomes among consumers in the Egyptian tourism sector. In this study, we develop and test a model that reshapes the interrelationship between the study variables. Structural Equation Model (SEM) is utilized to test the validity of the proposed model. The study is based on a quantitative methodology where 162 questionnaires were distributed. LISREL 8.80 program is used to test the theoretical model. The results reveal that experiential avoidance, identity avoidance and moral incompatibility are considered drivers of tourism products/services brand hate. Moreover, tourism products/services brand hate outcomes are identified as brand avoidance, negative word of mouth and brand revenge.

Keywords: Negative Emotions, Brand Hate, Brand Avoidance, Brand Retaliation; Anti Branding Websites.

1 .Introduction

Brand is defined as a name, term, symbol, design, or a combination of all these elements that help to identify the products or services and subsequently differentiating them from the competitors (Kotler and Keller, 2008). Emotions are considered one of the driving forces in our life; its significance lies in their power to guide our actions and reactions (Kähr *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, marketing researches have recently begun to take an interest in the impact of emotions on customer behaviors and on the customer-brand relationship (CBR) (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999; Gharbi and Smaoui, 2017). According to marketing literature, an increasing attention has been devoted to examine the positive emotions of customers toward brands (e.g., brand love, brand loyalty) (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Batra *et al.*, 2012).

Currently, the majority of articles are focused on how customers 'fall in love' with their brands (Batra, *et al.* 2012; Fetscherin and Heinrich, 2014). So, the researches of positive emotions toward brands became vast and quite established (Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016). On the contrast, less attention has been devoted to discuss the negative emotions towards brand (Romani *et al.*, 2012; Fournier and Alvarez, 2013; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014).

In recent years, researches have begun to focus on the negative side of customer brand relationship, such as brand dislike (Dalli *et al.*, 2006), brand avoidance (Lee *et al.*, 2009), brand divorce (Sussan *et al.*, 2012), brand aversion (Park *et al.*, 2013), anti-branding (Kucuk, 2008; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009) and brand hate (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009; Kucuk, 2016; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Gharbi and Smaoui, 2017; Hegner *et al.*, 2017).

Since the intensive brand love may quickly transform to brand hate (Johnson *et al.*, 2011), the topic of brand hate, which is a relatively a new academic concept, has acquired prominence among researchers and practitioners (Kucuk, 2016; Gharbi, and Smaoui, 2017; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). Fehr and Russell (1984) described hate as the second most important feeling after love. More recently, Zarantonello *et al.* (2016) identified brand hate as the most intensive and consecutive negative feeling that customers may feel toward brands. The service marketing literature indicated that customers feel hate towards a particular brand when they face service failure repeatedly (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009; Johnson *et al.*, 2011).

Consumer hatred against brands may result in passive (brand avoidance) and active (negative word of mouth and brand retaliation) harmful actions for the company and its brand (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009; Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Romani *et al.*, 2012; Alba and Lutz, 2013; Bryson *et al.*, 2013; Park *et al.*, 2013; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). With the advancements of internet technologies and social media, the customer's ability to express their negative brand emotions has increased (Jalonen, 2014). They can use anti-brand web sites to openly express their hate, which negatively affect purchase decision, brand identity, image and the company reputation (Kucuk, 2008). Since the negative emotions are more important than positive emotions, because avoiding risks are more crucial for survival than seeking delight or other forms of earnings (Fournier and Alvarez, 2013). Therefore, the negative emotional states or the dark side of customer brand relationship still require more examination (Romani *et al.*, 2012; Fournier and Alvarez, 2013; Park *et al.*, 2013; Fetscherin and Heinrich, 2014; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Gharbi, and Smaoui, 2017; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). Based on Gharbi and Smaoui (2017), the literature on brand hate is still scarce. Accordingly, due to the fact that the brand hate is a way from being fully examined, the current research responds to the call from the existing literature and is able to supply a comprehensive interpretation of brand hate.

To the knowledge of the authors, indeed, only four academic articles explicitly study the brand hate construct (Kucuk, 2016; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Gharbi, and Smaoui, 2017; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). Although the article of Kucuk (2016) tried to offer the antecedents and consequences of brand hate, it focused more on the digital world context than on the general setting and didn't offer any measurement for the brand hate construct. The article of Zarantonello *et al.* (2016) provides an outline of the scale that measure brand hate. But, this scale is focused only on psychological expressions and is less applicable to tourism contexts.

While, the research of Hegner et al. (2017) provides the determinants and outcomes of brand hate, but it does not include a direct exploratory evidence between them. Finally, the qualitative study of Gharbi and Smaoui (2017) aimed at exploring the brand hate phenomena in an emerging country context only. Despite the importance of previous studies, nearly all of them did not focused on the tourism sector. All previous researches have discussed the phenomena of brand hate generally without focusing on a particular sector. Until now, no studies, to the authors' knowledge, have studied brand hate in tourism, especially the Egyptian tourism sector. Accordingly, in an attempt to fill this void, the purpose of the current research is to explore and understand the relatively new topic of brand hate and identify its drivers and outcomes in the Egyptian tourism sector. Thus the recent paper provides answers to the following questions: Do domestic and international tourists encounter brand hate for the Egyptian tourism products and services (e.g. destination, airlines, travel agency,.....etc)? What are the drivers of brand hate for tourism products? What potential consequences may be occurred due to brand hate for tourism products?

2.Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

2.1 Negative Emotions and Brands

Nowadays, the marketing paradigm is turning from a transactional marketing to the relationship marketing (Loureiro, 2015). The marketer's focus was switched from traditional four Ps to encourage the products that affect the feelings of customers (Sinha *et al.*, 2011). Thus, organizations became concerned with the relationship between consumers and brands, why customers preferred and even love some brands and why they may develop a negative emotion towards other brands or even hate them (Loureiro, 2015).

To understand the various emotions that brand can trigger, and particularly define brand hate, it is important to know what emotions are. Batra et al., (2012) clarified that the emotions term is fuzzy and complex. According to Ben-Ze'ev (2000), emotions usually appear when the individual senses either positive or negative important changes in his own life. This is in line with Romani et al. (2009:495), who mentioned that emotions emerge as a result of "personally experienced incident or episode, an action performed, or result produced by oneself, or changes in an object person of thought with personal meaning". These emotions are characterized by instability and great intensity (Ben-Ze'ev, 2000). Emotions have a great effect on customers' buying decisions, they make their purchase decisions according to feelings and emotions toward particular brands (Sinha et al., 2011). Similarly, Romani et al. (2012) recognized that the nature of the emotions experienced is considered a highly determinant factor for the individuals' subsequent behaviors. Every customer has different emotions toward brands, and these emotions can be triggered when they see different brands (Kucuk, 2016). You may feel love when you see a particular brand, while you may feel hate when you see another brand .

Fournier and Alvarez (2013) imply that the study of negative relationships are actually more important because the power of negatives is greater than positives, as well as, avoiding risks are more crucial for survival than seeking delight or other forms of earnings. They added that negative information is more memorable, diagnostic, prominent and more probably to be shared than positives (Fournier and Alvarez, 2013). Laros and Steenkamp (2005) refer to negative emotions towards brands (NEB) as customers' negative emotional responses raised by the evaluation of brand-related stimuli .

Various studies have discussed the negative emotions towards brands. For example, the research of Laros and Steenkamp (2005) suggests a hierarchical model for both positive and negative emotions in consumer behavior. For the negative side, they identified four main negative emotions: anger, fear, sadness, and shame. While, the positive side included two main emotions: contentment and happiness. These six basic emotions have been divided into 42 particular emotions in consumer behavior such as: anger, sadness, worry, fulfillment, enthusiasm and optimism. Likewise, the study of Romani et al. (2009), proposed that dislike, anger, sadness, fear and disappointment are the major five negative emotions towards brands. However, the results of this study revealed that the emotions of dislike and anger were experienced to a greater extent than other emotions. In 2012, Romani et al. proved that negative emotions towards brands greatly affect the relationship between customers and brands, as well as, their behavioral consequences (such as switching, complaining, and negative word of mouth). Similarly, Laros and Steenkamp (2005) indicate that all customer brand emotions can lead to various behavioral outcomes.

Based on its level of intensity, the customers' negative emotions towards brands may develop into brand hate (Preijers, 2016; Gharbi and Smaoui, 2017). So, the current research will focus on brand hate as the most intensive and consecutive negative emotion toward brands.

2.1.1 Brand hate

Zarantonello et al. (2016) indicated that some researchers considered hate as a simple emotion, while, the vast majority view it as a complex and compound of primary and secondary emotions. Their article focused on several emotions (e.g., anger, disgust, fear, disappointment, shame, dehumanization) that causing passive or active brand hate. According to psychological literature, Plutchik (1991:118) described hate as a "secondary dyad" resulting from two primary emotions disgust and anger. Similarly, McDougall (2001) depicts hate as a complex consisted of primary emotions: anger, fear and disgust. Sternberg (2003) characterizes hate in three components: repulsion and disgust; anger and fear and devaluation through contempt. Finally, Kucuk (2016:20) suggests the definition of brand hate as "a psychological state whereby a consumer forms intense negative emotions and detachment toward brands that perform poorly and give consumer bad and painful experiences on both individual and social levels ."

Based on marketing and consumer research studies, the concept of hate was firstly conceptualized by Grégoire et al. (2009). They viewed hate as a desire to retaliation or a desire to avoidance. Retaliation means that the customers have the desire to punish and harm the company for the damages that have been occurred to them, whereas avoidance refers to the customers' desire to withdraw themselves from any dealing with the company (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009). In other words, these desires of punishment may be active or passive. Active desires are expressed by revenge and punishing the firm. While, passive desires are expressed by avoidance the relationship with the company either by shifting to their competitors or stop utilizing its services (Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016). Johnson et al (2011) described brand hate as a strong opposition to a particular brand which leads to the need for revenge. They found that when people feeling shame they will behave hatefully (Johnson *et al.*, 2011). Romani et al. (2012) recognized brand hate as the extreme form of brand dislike. While, Rempel and Burris (2005) and Bryson et al. (2013) defined brand hate as stable and intense negative feeling toward a certain brand. Finally, Zarantonello et al., (2016) found brand hate as the most extreme and consecutive negative emotion that consumers may feel toward a brand. This research will retain the last definition.

According to Kucuk (2016), there are three levels of brand hate:

firstly, Cold Brand Hate, refers to devaluing the hated brand and ending any type of relationships with it. At this level customers see the hated brand as worthless and try to keep themselves away from it. **Secondly, Cool Brand Hate**, the feelings conceptualized in cool brand hate are stronger than just attempting to keep customers away from disliked brand. It includes negative emotions such as aversion, dissatisfaction, revolt and disgust towards a hated brand. **Thirdly, Hot Brand Hate**, refers to the feelings of extreme anger and anxiety towards a brand. Angry customers may be actually attacking the hated brand and involved in some aggressive behaviors towards it. It is worth mentioning that people think that brand hate is the opposite of brand love. This is not true all the time, because brand hate doesn't necessarily mean lack of brand love but can just indicate less interest or indifference. Therefore, people who didn't feel love toward a certain brand do not necessarily hate it but simply feel neutral, less interest or are indifferent (Kucuk, 2016). Similarly, the feeling of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, customers may be satisfied with some aspects and dissatisfied with others. Simply they didn't decide if they are satisfied at all, or they are just not dissatisfied i.e., indifferent (Giese and Cote, 2000). Sampedro (2017) presented a spectrum of love and hate, the current research will focus on the most extreme negative emotion, hate.

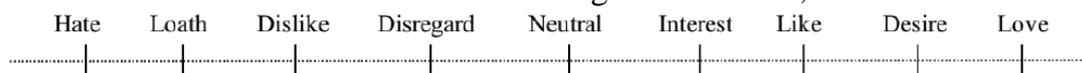


Figure 1 Spectrum of Love and Hate

Source: Sampedro, 2017:15

As shown in figure 1, both love and hate are the extremes of the spectrum. In relation to negative emotions, the feeling of brand hate is viewed as more intense, stronger, and fundamental than brand dislike (Bryson *et al.*, 2013).

This is also applicable to brand like versus brand love, brand love is seen as stronger and more extreme than just liking a specific brand (Delzen, 2014). Brand love was defined by Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) as ‘the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name’ (p.81). Likewise, Silden and Skeie (2015) defined brand love as affinity and passion towards the brand, especially with regard to different alternatives. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) found that brand love was positively affect brand loyalty and positive word-of-mouth. So, it is viewed as more extreme than just liking a particular brand. Rempel and Burris (2005) report that love values the object, and wants to promote and preserve the object's wellbeing, While, hate has the willingness to devalue, hurt and destroy the well-being of the object.

2.2 Drivers of brand hate

Literature proposed several drivers for brand hate. These possible motives could be categorized into three groups include: product-related drivers (experiential avoidance), consumer-related (identity avoidance) and contextual related drivers (moral avoidance).

2.2.1 Experiential avoidance (product-related drivers)

Experiential avoidance is related to disappointed customer who had bad past experiences with a certain brand. Salvatori (2007) revealed that negative experiences with a particular product or service can cause brand hate. In the same context, nearly all product-related factors indicate mostly to the negative past consumption experience that the consumers had with a certain product/service of the brand (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009; Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Sussan *et al.*, 2012; Bryson *et al.*, 2013). Similarly, the study of Zarantonello *et al.* (2016) also identified the violation of expectations as a relevant predictor of brand hate. When the product failed to meet the customers' expectations or less than their expectations, this develops dissatisfaction and subsequent brand hate (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Park *et al.* 2013; Kucuk, 2016). In relation, Bryson *et al.* (2013) identified consumer dissatisfaction as antecedent of brand hate. They found that consumer dissatisfaction with services is deemed one of the strongest causes for hating brands. In short, when customer's dissatisfaction increases, it may turn into brand hate (Preijers, 2016).

Some previous researchers found that brand hate may occur due to other product-related drivers such as: product/service failure (Dalli *et al.* 2006; Gregoire and Fisher, 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2009; Funches *et al.*, 2009), service recovery failure, situational motives (e.g. waiting, crowds etc.), perceived inequity (Funches *et al.*, 2009), the poor quality of service provided (Salvatori 2007; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009), poor performance (Dalli *et al.* 2006; Lee *et al.*, 2009; Koenderink, 2014), the level of service provided (price/quality) (Dalli *et al.* 2006) and the marketing environment of the brand (Hogg *et al.*, 2009). Considering the previous discussion, the following hypothesis can be formulated.

H1: Experiential avoidance causes brand hate for tourism products/services.

2.2.2 Identity avoidance (consumer-related drivers)

Identity avoidance occurs in case of symbolic incompatibility between the brand and the customer (Lee *et al.*, 2009). Customer-related drivers refer mostly to symbolic incongruity with a brand. It happens when the brand image does not fit individuals' identity (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009). In other words, it means discrepancy among brand image and self-image. Basically, customers tend to avoid brands in two cases: if brands don't match their identity and when brands are closely associated with a particular group (Lee *et al.*, 2009). Consumers want to buy brands which have image compatible with their identities (Khan and Lee, 2014). They consume in ways that reinforce or protect their self-concepts and simultaneously avoiding things that being incongruent with their existent self-concept or even may add undesirable meanings to their lives (Hogg *et al.*, 2000). They also have the tendency to avoid brands when they believe that those brands have negative meanings or values (Lee *et al.*, 2009). In addition, consumers do not want to belong to a certain undesirable group when that group is linked to a specific brand (Park *et al.* 2013; Koenderink, 2014). Therefore, in line with previous researches, the image incongruity among the consumer and the brand can increase the negative emotions toward brands, which turns into intentionally not to purchase these brands in order to reinforce customer's own identity (Hegner *et al.*, 2017). Accordingly, the following hypothesis can be proposed :

H2: Identity avoidance causes brand hate for tourism products/services.

2.2.3 Moral avoidance (contextual related drivers)

The last category of negative brand emotions drivers is described as contextual-related factors, which point to the ideological incompatibility that customers realize due to unacceptable corporate practices (Bryson *et al.*, 2013; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). This category of drivers grows when the ideological beliefs of customers didn't resemble the values of the brand (Lee *et al.*, 2009). Customers morally avoid a brand when they think that the policies of managing this brand is negatively affect society (Lee *et al.*, 2009). As argued by Salvatori (2007), consumers may avoid specific brands that do not compatible with their social values. Khan and Lee (2014) recognized perceived animosity that related to the country of origin effect as determinant of brand hate. In relation, Bryson *et al.* (2013) identified country of origin of the brand and corporate social performance as antecedents of brand hate. Similarly, Koenderink (2014) found that moral avoidance may occurs due to the country of origin effects which include: the production circumstances, the environment where the company produces, and how the corporate deals with its employees. Consequently, customers disapproved brands when it damaged the environment, didn't respect human rights and adopted unethical business practices (Sandikci and Ekici, 2009). According to Salvatori (2007), moral concerns exceed the brand avoidance and also can cause brand hate. In that context, consumers became ideologically incompatible with the brand because of legal, moral or social issues when the company is socially irresponsible (Lee *et al.*, 2009; Bryson *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, the third hypothesis can be proposed:

H3: Moral incompatibility causes brand hate for tourism products/services.

Based on the previous discussion, different results concerning the drivers of brand hate could be concluded. The factors related to product (experiential avoidance) were found to be the strongest predictor for brand hate, while customer-related factors (identity avoidance) were found to be the weakest determinant of brand hate (Salvatori, 2007; Delzen, 2014). Regarding moral avoidance, Hegner *et al.*, (2017) found that the ideological incompatibility has the strongest effect on brand hate. Similarly, the results of (Delzen, 2014; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016) proved that moral avoidance can lead to brand hate. By contrast, Bryson *et al.* (2013) demonstrated no evidence that moral avoidance can cause brand hate.

2.3 Outcomes of brand hate

The study of Park *et al.* (2013) demonstrates that when there is a strong dislike toward a brand, the desire to do anti-brand practices increases. According to Johnson *et al.*, (2011:113), these anti brand behaviors occur because “the experience of loss and harm to a person’s self-concept, not the critical incident or lack thereof.” Several studies have mainly categorized the behavioral outcomes of brand hate into two categories: namely passive (brand avoidance) and active (negative word of mouth and brand retaliation) behaviors towards brands (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009; Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Romani *et al.*, 2012; Alba and Lutz, 2013; Bryson *et al.*, 2013; Park *et al.*, 2013; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Hegner *et al.*, 2017).

2.3.1 Brand Avoidance

When consumers experiencing brand hate, they may decide to avoid this brand (Park *et al.*, 2013). Lee *et al.* (2009) and Gregoire *et al.* (2009) identified brand avoidance as the customer's willingness to withdraw or keep themselves away from the interactions with the company and its brand. This avoidance occurs either by switching to the competitors, or by totally stopping to purchase the product or service of the brand (Hegner *et al.*, 2017). So, it is expected that :

H4: Brand hate causes brand avoidance for tourism products/services.

2.3.2 Negative Word of Mouth

Hate is linked to the willingness not only to hurt or destroy the other but also to diminish or devalue the other (Rempel and Burris, 2005). When customers find the brand deceptive, they will eventually participate in creating and spreading negative WOM about the hated brands (Sweeney *et al.*, 2014). Unfortunately, people are likely to spread their negative experiences faster than their positive ones (Baumeister *et al.*, 2001). According to Krishnamurthy and Kucuk (2009) customers' dissatisfaction and hate can result complaint behaviors. Negative word of mouth, as a form of customer complaint, means the way in which persons speaks or writes badly about a certain brand to prevent other persons from utilizing the products/services of this brand (Bonifield and Cole, 2007). Grégoire *et al.*, (2010) introduced two forms of negative WOM labeled private and public complaining. Private complaining refers to the talking with family, relatives and close friends negatively about a particular brand while, public complaining is related to using online communities (social media, websites, blogs, ..etc) to share customers' bad experiences about the brand (Grégoire *et al.*, 2010).

This research will adopt the common term of negative WOM without discrimination between private and public complaining. Various studies proved that brand hate is a predictor for negative WOM (Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). Based on the previous considerations, the following hypothesis will be tested:

H5: Brand hate causes negative word of mouth for tourism products/services.

2.3.3 Brand Revenge

Revenge or retaliation refers to the harm or punishment that caused by customers to the company after providing an unacceptable service (Grégoire *et al.*, 2010). Zarantonello *et al.* (2016) recognized consumers' revenge and negative WOM as attack strategies, when individuals feel hate, they may attack the object of their hate to overcome hate emotions. Similarly, Kähr *et al.* (2016) added that brand hate can lead to brand sabotage, which means deliberate actions by consumers who have the dominant aim of causing damage to brand. Also, Sternberg (2003) and Hegner *et al.*, (2017) found that hate emotions motivate people to take revenge /retaliate for wrongdoings that the brand has done. Finally, Funches *et al.* (2009) highlight that hate leads to a punishment behavior towards the brand. Accordingly, based on the previous discussion, the next hypothesis will be formulated :

H6: Brand hate causes brand revenge for tourism products/services.

2.4 Anti branding websites

The Internet and social media enhance the customer's ability to express their negative emotions toward products, services and brands (Jalonen, 2014). Several websites enable customers to revise, rate and evaluate the products and the services provided by most companies (Delzen, 2014), such as Tripadvisor in tourism. This technological development assists the creation of brand-related consumer networks such as brand communities, which are concerned with specific brands (Popp *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, the negative word-of-mouth is not only disseminating to family and friends, but also to everybody looking for information (Delzen, 2014). When consumers feel dislike towards a certain brand and decide to finish any interaction with this brand, this, respectively turns into an increase in their desire to engage in anti-branding behaviors directed to that brand (Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Park *et al.*, 2013). The rise of the internet has reinforced anti-brand activities, and social media currently offers a powerful platform (Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010; Popp *et al.*, 2016). Based on Kucuk (2008), consumer dissatisfaction is considered a predictor for anti branding. The greater the consumer dissatisfaction, the greater his anti-branding and hate activities (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009).

As demonstrated by Krishnamurthy and Kucuk (2009), anti-brand websites are online platforms that use critical languages and terms to create a negative online identity for a specific company or brand. Hollenbeck and Zinkhan (2010) show that anti-brand communities consist of individuals who have a common aversion for a brand. Recently, there is a growth in anti-brand websites that allow consumers to announce and share their bad experience with a particular brand (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009).

These websites are negatively affected consumer purchase decision, brand identity, brand image and the company reputation (Kucuk, 2008). Most anti-branding websites purposely utilizing domain names look like company counterparts to be easier to remember, enhance their visibility and the find ability in digital world, such as northworstair.org for Northwest Airlines, ihateryanair.org. for Ryanair airlines, shameway.com for Safeway’s, starbucked.com for Starbucks, killercoke.org for Coca-Cola, etc (Kucuk, 2016). The functions of anti-brand sites not just being usual complaint sites (such as e-complaints) but extended to cover many functions like: exchange information, arrange boycotts and coordinate lawsuits to revolutionize customers activities against certain brand (Kucuk, 2016). Senior managers perceived anti branding sites as the major digital danger at present (Kucuk, 2008). So, in some cases, companies have to buy the addresses of these potential anti brand websites in an attempt to inhibit the creation of such sites (Kucuk, 2016). Due to the importance of these sites, many studies have been performed to demonstrate its impacts and the activities of customers on these websites (Kucuk, 2008; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009; Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010; Grégoire *et al.*, 2009; Grégoire *et al.*, 2010; Kucuk, 2016). Moreover, Popp *et al.* (2016) see that this phenomenon is need more examination particularly in the light of growing consumer power .

3 .Methodology

This study examines the drivers of brand hate (Experiential avoidance, Identity avoidance, Moral incompatibility) and to what extent brand hate causes brand avoidance, negative word of mouth and brand revenge. According to the previous studies showed in this article a conceptual model is presented as shown in Figure 2.

3.1 Conceptual Model

A conceptual model incorporating the study constructs and their interrelationships was presented. It was hypothesized that:

- H1: Experiential avoidance causes brand hate for tourism products/services.
- H2: Identity avoidance causes brand hate for tourism products/services.
- H3: Moral incompatibility causes brand hate for tourism products/services.
- H4: Brand hate causes brand avoidance for tourism products/services.
- H5: Brand hate causes negative word of mouth for tourism products/services.
- H6: Brand hate causes brand revenge for tourism products/services.

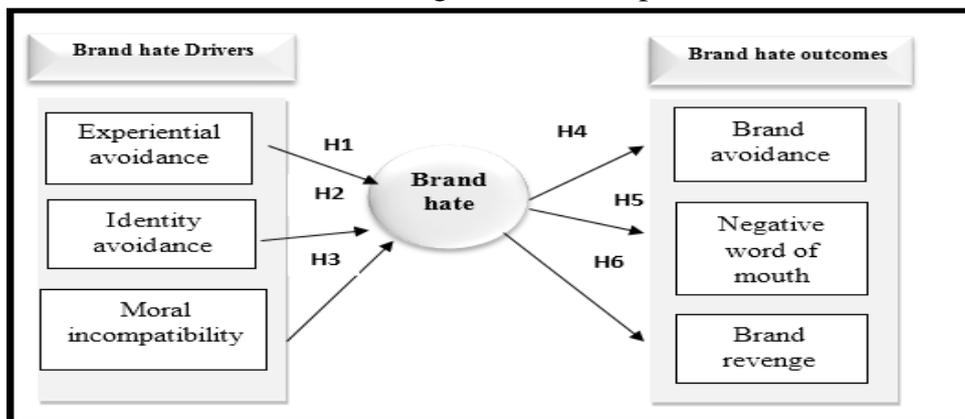


Figure (2) Theoretical model for Drivers and outcomes of brand hate in tourism

3.2 Sample and procedures

The data was collected from 162 participants who had experienced tourism products and service and had a negative experience for using one of the tourism products and services. To obtain the required data, a well-structured questionnaire was designed. This questionnaire includes four sections personal data, brand hate, brand hate drivers and brand hate outcomes. To reduce possible desirability bias, we promised that we would keep all individual responses completely confidential and confirmed that data analyses would be restricted to an aggregate level that would prevent the identification of any person. The questionnaire items were written in clear language, and then a pretest was performed on 12 respondents, and four professors specializing in tourism and hotel management. Following this pretest, the wording of some items was refined for subsequent formal survey .

3.3 Measurement

Scales are important in designing a survey instrument in management research. As no single measure can precisely capture behavior, researchers usually combine two or more measures into a scale to gauge each variable. Given that developing new scales is a complex task, wherever possible we used pretested scales from past empirical studies to ensure their validity and reliability. Respondents were asked to state their degree of agreement towards statement in the questionnaire using 5-point likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was undertaken on the data obtained from the sample to verify the unidimensional and reliability of the constructs subscales and demonstrate convergent, discriminate, and predictive validity of measure for each construct. As in a CFA, various indices can be used to evaluate whether the model actually fits the data. Fit is conventionally evaluated for statistical significance, where a nonsignificant chi-square indicates a good fit .

The LISREL 8.80 program was used to test the theoretical model. Fig. 2 shows the basis of the model proposed, together with the hypotheses to be tested. We used structural equation model (SEM). Through flexible interplay between theory and data, this structural equation model approach bridges theoretical and empirical knowledge to allow a better understanding of the real world. Such analysis allows for modeling based on both latent and observed variables. Further, structural equation modeling considers errors in measurement, variables with multiple indicators, and multiple-group comparisons.

SEM is a multivariate statistical method that combines the techniques of factor analysis, path analysis, and econometric modeling originally developed by Jöreskog (1973). SEM can be regarded as an extension of CFA. In CFA, the interest is on the relationships between the measurement items and underlying factors (or dimensions) in a prespecified factor structure for the construct of interest. In SEM, the interest is in the relationships among several constructs, considering their prespecified measurement structure. It is therefore suggested that CFA should be conducted to determine appropriateness of measurement models prior to SEM (Bollen, 1989).

SEM is a general data analysis technique that allows researchers to examine nomological networks among the constructs of interest while considering measurement errors (i.e., pure relationships among theoretical constructs (Grégoire et al., 2009; Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Romani et al., 2012; Alba and Lutz, 2013; Bryson *et al.*, 2013; Park *et al.*, 2013; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). The following section outlines the measurement scales for each of the constructs tested in this study.

3.3.1 brand hate

Brand hate has measured by various researches (Grégoire *et al.*, 2009; Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Romani *et al.*, 2012; Alba and Lutz, 2013; Bryson *et al.*, 2013; Park *et al.*, 2013; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). In the current study the scale used for measuring brand hate was adapted from the scale used by Hegner et al., (2017). According to Hegner et al., (2017) there are six sentences measure brand hate as it identified in table (1).

A confirmatory factor analysis was developed to validate our scales ($\chi^2 = 142.63$, normed fit index (NFI) =0.93, goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.97, comparative fit index (CFI) =0.98, incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.98) and showed that the Likert-type 5-point scale (1) totally disagree” and 5 “totally agree”) of items shown in the table (1) was unidimensional and had high reliability ($\alpha = 0.956$).

Table (1) Measurements of brand hate

Brand Hate		
Item	mean	SD
I'm disgusted by brand X.	4.0000	.89165
I don't tolerate brand X and its company.	4.1667	.76613
The world would be a better place without brand	3.7778	.81903
I'm totally angry about brand X.	3.9444	.73299
Brand X is awful.	4.1728	.86031
I hate brand X.	4.2407	.79443
	4.0504	.73512

3.3.2 Drivers of brand hate

The used scale for measuring the drivers of brand hate was adapted from that developed by Hegner et al., (2017), this scale based on the 3 major dimensions. One set of items assessed **Experiential avoidance** that the customers had with a certain product/service of any tourism brand. A second set of items assessed **Identity avoidance**, which express the discrepancy among tourism product/service brand image and self-image. Finally, **Moral incompatibility** items assessed the degree of avoidance of specific brands due to their incompatibility with their moral values (e.g. “In my opinion, brand X acts irresponsible”, “In my opinion, brand X acts unethical.”)

A confirmatory factor analysis was developed to validate our scales ($\chi^2= 104$, normed fit index (NFI) =0.97, goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.98, comparative fit index (CFI) =0.96, incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.95) and showed that the Likert-type 5-point scale (1) totally disagree” and 5 “totally agree”) of items shown in the table (2) was unidimensional and had high reliability ($\alpha = 0.871$).

Table (2) Drivers of Determinants of Brand Hate

Drivers of Brand Hate			
	item	Mea	SD
Experiential avoidance	The performance of products of brand X is poor.	4.29	.853
	The brand products are inconvenient.	4.38	.641
	My hate for this brand is linked to the bad	4.60	.643
	I'm dissatisfied by brand X	4.45	.650
		4.43	.637
Identity avoidance	The products of brand X do not reflect who I am.	3.92	.727
	The products of brand X do not fit my personality.	4.16	.771
	I don't want to be seen with brand X.	3.90	.622
	This brand does not represent what I am.	3.93	.621
	This brand symbolizes the kind of person I would	3.90	.475
	3.96	.517	
Moral incompatibility	In my opinion, brand X acts irresponsible.	4.01	.534
	In my opinion, brand X acts unethical.	4.24	.566
	The company violates moral standards.	4.08	.614
	The brand doesn't match my values and beliefs.	4.17	.529
	4.12	.457	

3.3.3 Outcomes of Brand Hate

The outcomes of brand hate were measured using three dimensions 15-item scale. The used scale was developed by Hegner et al., (2017), this scale based on the 3 major dimensions. The first group of items assessed Brand avoidance which express the customer's willingness to withdraw or keep themselves away from the interactions with the company and its brand. A second set of items assessed Negative word of mouth, which express sharing customers' bad experiences about the brand in private or public communities. Finally, Brand revenge items assessed the penalty that caused by customers to the company after providing an inappropriate service (e.g. “In my opinion, brand X acts irresponsible”, “In my opinion, brand X acts unethical”).

A confirmatory factor analysis was developed to validate our scales ($\chi^2= 420$, normed fit index (NFI) =0.92, goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.96, comparative fit index (CFI) =0.93, incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.93) and showed that the Likert-type 5-point scale)1) totally disagree” and 5 “totally agree”) of items shown in the table (3) was unidimensional and had high reliability ($\alpha = 0.97$).

Table (3) Measurements of Outcomes of Brand Hate

Outcomes of Brand Hate			
	item	Mean	SD
Brand avoidance	I don't purchase products of brand X anymore.	4.3333	.7049
	I reject services/products of brand X.	4.3272	.7034
	I refrain from buying X's products or using its	4.2531	.6808
	I avoid buying the brands products/using its	4.1852	.6520
	I do not use products or services of brand X.	4.1852	.6520
	4.2568	.6512	

Negative word of mouth	I spread negative word of mouth about brand	4.1543	.6647
	I denigrated the brand to my friends.	4.1543	.6647
	When my friends were looking for a similar service, I told them not to buy from brand X.	4.3889	.7414
	I always tell my friends about my feelings	4.3086	.7247
	I try to influence a lot of people in not	4.0864	.7257
		4.2185	.6551
Brand revenge	I have deliberately bent or broken the policies	3.6173	.4875
	I have showed signs of impatience and frustration to someone from brand X.	3.9259	.4801
	I complained to brand X to give a hard time to the representatives of the company.	4.0000	.7801
	I complained to brand X to be unpleasant with the representatives of the company.	4.1481	.6614
	I complained to the brand to make someone from the organization pay.	3.8457	.6553
		3.9074	.5519

4 .Results and Discussion

A sample of (162) respondents was employed. The structure of the sample by gender was (68%) males and (32%) females, and by age, (40.6%) of the respondents were aged from 21 to 30; (35.7%) from 31 to 40, (23.7%) from 41 to 50. The majority of participants were well-educated; (95%) of them had a college/university degree. The respondents were asked to identify the hated brands in the Egyptian tourism sector. They arranged them as follow: airlines, travel agencies, sleeping trains, floating cruises and hotels.

The scales used in this study have undergone several analyses before being used for model testing. This study first conducts description statistics and assesses the construct measures reliability. Regarding reliability, this study utilized the coefficient developed by L. J. Cronbach, and following the determination norms addressed by Cronbach (1951). Values exceeding (0.70) indicate high credibility, those between (.35) and (.70) indicate middle credibility, and those lower than (.35) indicate low credibility (Nunnally,1994). Table (4) lists description statistics and reliability for each measurement and correlations among measures. The value exceeded (.70) for each variable and structural aspect in this study (range .829 –.978, as listed in Table (4). This range conforms to the Cronbach (1951) determination and indicates that the questionnaire in this study achieved considerable internal consistency.

The model presented in Figure (2) is tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) via LISREL 8. To test the relationships hypothesized in the model, correlation analyses were first performed, after which the parameter estimates of the hypothesized constructs were calculated as shown in table (4). The correlation test supports the study hypotheses. Brand hate is significantly and positively associated with experiential avoidance ($r = .690, p < .01$), identity avoidance ($r = .595, p < .01$), moral incompatibility ($r = .584, p < .01$). Regarding the relationship between brand hate and brand hate outcomes, the highest correlation is for the dimension of .Negative word of mouth ($r = .820, p < .01$).

Table (4) Descriptive statistics and correlation

	reliability	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1- brand hate	.956	4.0504	.73512	1						
2. Experiential avoidance	.927	4.4321	.63724	.690**	1					
3. Identity avoidance	.853	3.9642	.51747	.595**	.718**	1				
4. Moral incompatibility	.829	4.1281	.45720	.584**	.363**	.329**	1			
5. Brand avoidance	.978	4.2568	.65122	.698**	.554**	.392**	.610**	1		
6. Negative word of mouth	.960	4.2185	.65515	.820**	.856**	.642**	.716**	.776**	1	
7. Brand revenge	.931	3.9074	.55196	.756**	.595**	.364**	.741**	.546**	.798*	1

The rest dimensions of brand hate outcomes are positively associated with brand hate, namely, brand avoidance ($r = .698, p < .01$) and brand revenge ($r = .756, p < .01$).

Fit indices provided by LISREL 8 indicate that the model had an acceptable fit. Chi-Square was 324.959 with 132 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$). CFI = .921, IFI = .929, TLI = .920 and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .063. Values of CFI, IFI, and TLI ranged from 0 to 1 with a value close to 1.00 indicating good fit (Byrne, 2016). RMSEA should be less than .10; however, ideally, it should be between .04 and .08.

Table (5) Standardized parameter estimates for structural model

Hypothesis	Structure path	Standardized estimate	t-value	Results
1	Experiential avoidance → brand hate	0.446	6.175	Supported
2	Identity avoidance → brand hate	0.152	2.137	Supported
3	Moral incompatibility → brand hate	0.372	6.996	Supported
4	brand hate → Brand avoidance	0.317	3.186	Supported
5	brand hate → Negative word of mouth	0.450	6.020	Supported
6	brand hate → Brand revenge	0.410	5.740	Supported

H1 posited that experiential avoidance causes brand hate, and the parameter estimate from experiential avoidance to brand hate is statistically significant and positive ($\gamma = .446, t = 6.175, p < .01$). The analytical results reveal a positive association between experiential avoidance and brand hate. This result is consistent with the results of (Salvatori, 2007; Lee *et al.*, 2009; Bryson *et al.*, 2013; Delzen, 2014; Zarantonello *et al.*, 2016; Hegner *et al.*, 2017). The current research revealed that Experiential avoidance was the most influential determinant for brand hate. This result came to agree with the findings of Salvatori (2007) and Delzen (2014) which identified that factors related to negative past experience (experiential avoidance) is the strongest predictor for brand hate.

H2 predicted that identity avoidance causes brand hate for tourism products and service, and the parameter estimate from identity avoidance to brand hate is statistically significant and positive ($\gamma = .152, t = 2.137, p < .05$).

This study results are in line with previous researches Lee et al. (2009); Bryson et al. (2013); Koenderink (2014); Hegner et al. (2017) who confirmed that the identity avoidance can increase the negative emotions toward brands, which turns into intentionally not to purchase these brands in order to enforce customer's own identity

H3: predicts that for tourism products /service moral incompatibility positively related to brand hate and the parameter estimate from moral incompatibility to brand hate statistically significant and positive ($\gamma = .372$, $t = 6.996$, $p < .01$). This result is consistent with what was clarified by Salvatori (2007); Lee *et al.* (2009); Zarantonello et al. (2016) and Hegner et al. (2017). By contrast, Bryson et al. (2013) demonstrated no evidence that moral avoidance can cause brand hate.

H4: expects that brand hate causes brand avoidance and the parameter estimate from brand hate to brand avoidance is statistically significant and positive ($\gamma = .317$, $t = 3.186$, $p < .01$). The analytical results reveal a positive association between brand hate and brand avoidance. This result is agree with the results of Lee *et al.* (2009) ; Johnson *et al.*(2011); Park et al. (2013); Gregoire et al. (2009)and Hegner et al. (2017) who confirmed that customers may decide to avoid a certain brand as a result of its hate.

H5: posited that brand hate causes negative word of mouth, and the parameter estimate from brand hate to negative word of mouth is statistically significant and positive ($\gamma = .45$, $t = 6.02$, $p < .01$). The analytical results reveal a positive association between brand hate and negative word of mouth. This result come to agree with the results of Grégoire et al. (2010); Johnson et al. (2011); Alba and Lutz (2013) Zarantonello et al. (2016); Hegner et al. (2017)

H6: predicts that brand hate for tourism products /service causes brand revenge and the parameter estimate from brand hate to brand revenge statistically significant and positive ($\gamma = .41$, $t = 5.74$, $p < .01$). This result confirms the results of Sternberg (2003); Funches et al. (2009); Kähr et al. (2016), Zarantonello et al. (2016); Hegner et al. (2017). As they highlight that hate leads to a punishment behavior towards the brand and motivate consumers to revenge the brand.

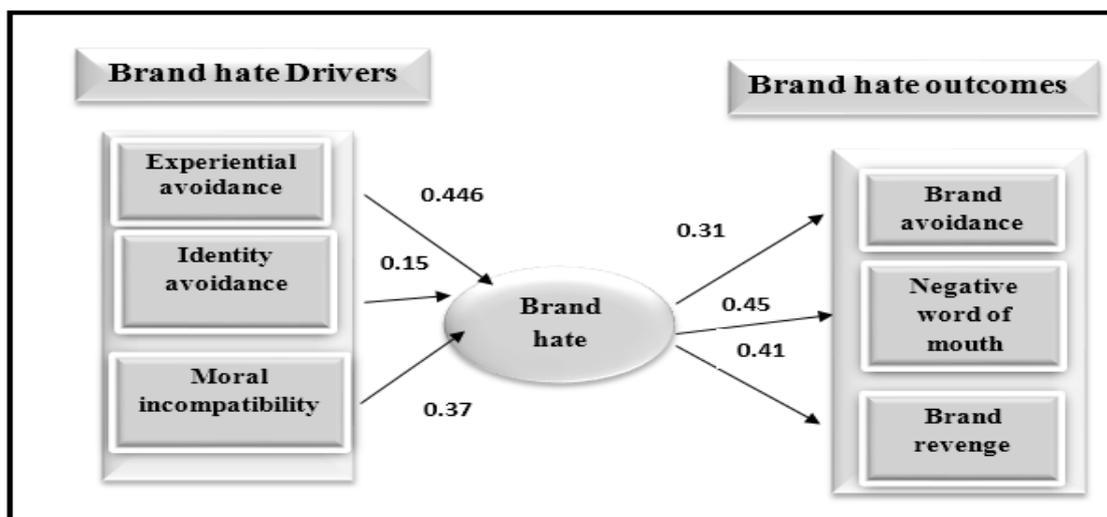


Figure (3) Structural equation model for brand hate

5. Conclusion and Implications

This study investigates the drivers and outcomes of brand hate for tourism product/services. A questionnaire survey is performed, and the model that reshapes the interrelationship between the study variables, (experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, moral incompatibility, brand hate, brand avoidance, negative word of mouth and brand revenge), was tested to explore the relationships among those variables. A major implication of this work for practitioners and scholars is that tourism service providers should plan to provide tourists a good experience of their products and services, as the study revealed that negative past experience was the most influential determinant for brand hate. The study on hand supported what was demonstrated by Salvatori (2007) and Delzen (2014) that experiential avoidance is the strongest predictor for brand hate. The tourism products and services providers should ensure providing high quality products to meet the customers' expectations or exceed their expectations, in order to develop tourist's satisfaction and subsequent avoiding brand hate. Tourism organizations should avoid poor performance, service recovery failure, perceived inequity to prevent their customer experiential avoidance .

The study findings also suggest a positive association between identity avoidance and brand hate, that agree with the study of Salvatori (2007) and Delzen (2014) which revealed that identity avoidance is the weakest determinant of brand hate. Accordingly, studies on the identity of the tourists should be carried out so as to let the tourism producers to design their brands to be compatible with tourists' identities. The brand incongruity can increase the negative emotions toward brands, which turns into brand hate

Analytical results further demonstrate that moral incompatibility influences brand hate more than does identity avoidance, indicating that the producers of tourism products and services should ensure responding to the ethical requirements of the society in which they reside .

The results concluded that negative word of mouth is the most important outcome that results from brand hate. The results of this study also shed additional light on brand avoidance, negative word of mouth and brand revenge as outcomes for tourism products/services brand hate. These results support previous literature Sternberg (2003) ; Funches *et al.* (2009) ; Kähr *et al.* (2016) , Zarantonello *et al.* (2016); Hegner *et al.* (2017) stating such negative effects of brand hate. Finally, tourism producers need to avoid their brand hate in order to reduce brand avoidance, negative word of mouth and brand revenge. Results support all our hypotheses, showing that experiential avoidance, identity avoidance and moral incompatibility all are simultaneously influence brand hate positively and are considered antecedents to it.

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مسببات ونتائج كراهية العلامة التجارية في القطاع السياحي

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الملخص العربي

يعتبر الكره أقصى وأشد أنواع المشاعر السلبية التي يشعر بها الفرد تجاه علامة تجارية معينة، والذي ينتج عنه العديد من السلوكيات السلبية. وتشير كراهية العلامة التجارية إلى رغبة الفرد في تجنب، أو الانتقام ومعاقبة علامة تجارية معينة بسبب الضرر الذي لحق به جراء استخدام منتجاتها. وبالرغم من أهمية هذا الموضوع إلا أن معظم الدراسات التي تناولت مشاعر المستهلكين تجاه العلامة التجارية قد ركزت على المشاعر الايجابية أكثر من المشاعر السلبية، بالإضافة إلى أن جميع الدراسات التي تناولت موضوع كره العلامة التجارية قد ركزت على دراسته بشكل عام لبعض دون التطرق للقطاع السياحي. لذلك فقد هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى استكشاف وفهم موضوع كراهية العلامة التجارية وتحديد مسبباته والنتائج المترتبة عليه في القطاع السياحي المصري. ولتحقيق هدف الدراسة تم توزيع استمارة استقصاء على عينة قوامها ١٦٢ مفردة من السائحين المحليين والدوليين الذين قاموا بتجربة أي خدمة أو سلعة سياحية مصرية (خطوط طيران، شركات سياحية، فنادق عائمة،) وقد تم استخدام نمذجة المعادلات البنائية (**Structural Equation Modeling**) لاختبار النموذج النظري المقترح للعلاقة بين متغيرات الدراسة. وقد أظهرت النتائج أن التجربة السلبية السابقة هي أول مسببات كره العلامة التجارية، يليها التجنب المتعلق بالممارسات غير الأخلاقية للمؤسسة وأخيراً عدم الانسجام أو التوافق الذاتي بين السائح والخدمة المقدمة. علاوة على ذلك، فقد حددت الدراسة تجنب العلامة التجارية، الكلمة السلبية المنطوقة والانتقام من العلامة التجارية كنتائج مترتبة على كره العلامة التجارية للمنتج السياحي المصري. وقد قدمت الدراسة مجموعة من التوصيات لمنتجي ومقدمي الخدمات السياحية والتي تساعد على تجنب كراهية العلامة التجارية.

الكلمات الدالة: العواطف السلبية، كراهية العلامة التجارية، تجنب العلامة التجارية، انتقام العلامة التجارية، القطاع السياحي.