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THE IMPACT OF COLLECTIVE ANIMOSITY AND COLLECTIVE GUILT ON THE JUDGMENTS OF AND PREFERENCES FOR JAPANESE PRODUCTS

by

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ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF COLLECTIVE ANIMOSITY AND COLLECTIVE GUILT ON THE JUDGMENTS OF AND PREFERENCES FOR JAPANESE PRODUCTS

Amro Ahmed Maher
Old Dominion University, 2008
Director: Dr. Anusorn Singhapakdi

Collective animosity and its effects on consumers' perceptions of and preferences for foreign products from the perpetrators' country of origin has received considerable attention in the marketing literature (Ettenson and Klein 2005; Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Klein 2002; Nijseen and Douglas 2005). Collective animosity however is only one possible emotion that might be experienced towards other groups (Smith 1993; Smith 1999; Mackie, Devos and Smith 2000). Collective guilt is one of these possible emotions that have received considerable attention in the social psychology literature. Collective guilt refers to the distress that one might feel due to moral transgressions performed by other members of one's own country (Doosje, Branscombe, Spears and Manstead 1998; Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappenn 2004). An issue that is relevant to marketing is how these feelings might influence consumers' perceptions of and preference for foreign products.

New suggestions are presented for extending the collective animosity model to incorporate collective guilt as a possible emotional reaction. This research also extends the collective animosity model to include a series of antecedents to collective animosity and collective guilt. It is proposed that cognitive appraisals of the transgression committed, and a person's moral and national identities will have an impact on the level

of collective animosity and collective guilt experienced, and in turn these emotions will have an impact on a person's preference for foreign products.

Structural equation modeling was used to test nine main hypotheses. In total nine hundred surveys were collected divided equally among the three different experimental conditions.

This research makes several contributions. First, the theoretical conceptualization of collective animosity as an intergroup emotion provides researchers with an opportunity to examine other emotions that might be evoked in an international context. Second, this dissertation provides the first empirical test of collective guilt in the context of marketing. Third, this dissertation contributes to the literature on collective animosity and intergroup emotions by examining a variety of antecedents not examined before. Fourth, this dissertation makes a distinction between the antecedent conditions leading to collective animosity and collective guilt and the intensity of collective animosity and collective guilt.

This thesis is dedicated to my Father, Mother, Wife and Son.

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There are several individuals and parties without whom this dissertation would not have been completed successfully. I would like to thank Dr. Anusorn Singhapakdi, my dissertation chair and mentor, for guiding me through the intricacies of the dissertation process, giving me the opportunity to teach a variety of courses, and providing his unwavering support on any aspect of my academic career. I also would like to thank Dr. John B. Ford for his constructive feedback on all of my research projects and for his attentiveness towards every aspect of this dissertation. I am grateful also for Dr. Mahesh Gopinath, who has helped me understand the emotional side of the consumer and introduced me to the different aspects of experimental design. I would like to extend a special thanks to Dr. Donald McNatt for his diligent help with the methodological aspects of this dissertation; his constructive comments always have been of immense assistance.

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the various stages of my life and career. There are not enough words to express my gratitude for my wife, Hadil, whose unconditional love and support has kept my spirits high throughout the dissertation process and without whom the completion of this dissertation would not have been possible.

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CHAPTER 1: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Government or company actions when operating in certain countries can lead consumers in other countries to form poor perceptions of the countries involved. For example in the recent press, countries in the Middle East boycotted Danish manufacturers of consumer products because the Danish press published of a comic that Middle Eastern consumers considered offensive (Munter 2006). This phenomena has also been observed in the United States when the populous advocated renaming "French Fries" to "freedom fries" when France refused to join the United States into war (Loughlin 2003). Evidence also exists that the sales of French wine dropped as a result of that same issue as an expression of U.S. opposition of the U.S.-led coalition in Iraq (Chavis and Leslie 2006). Ample anecdotal evidence clearly indicates how consumers feel toward particular countries will affect their behavior in the market place.

Evidence of collective animosity toward a particular country has also been observed. For example, consumers from China have typically shied away from Japanese products due to economic hardship and past war time atrocities inflicted upon the Chinese by Japan (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998). Collective animosity in the international marketing literature is defined as "the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events" (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998, p.90). Collective animosity and its effects on consumers' perceptions of products from perpetrators' country of origin has received considerable attention in the marketing literature (Ettenson and Klein 2005; Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998; Klein 2002; Nijssen and Douglas 2004). For example, Australians exhibited collective animosity

toward France as a result of nuclear bomb tests France conducted in the South Pacific (Ettenson and Klein 2005). Dutch consumers also experienced collective animosity toward Germans due to economic hardship and past war time atrocities inflicted upon them (Nijssen and Douglas 2004). Collective animosity is unique in that it measures a consumer's feelings of hatred toward a specific country, which is caused by adverse actions a country's citizens, organizations, or the government commit. Support exists that animosity's impact persists even after years have passed (Klein 2002; Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Shin 2001). Collective animosity has been found to exist at the national level (e.g., Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Shin 2001) and the regional level (e.g., Hinck 2004; Shimp, Dunn, and Klein 2004; Shoham, Davidow, Klein, and Ruvio 2006).

An emerging stream of social psychology literature suggests that individuals as members of groups experience a variety of different emotional reactions toward other groups (Smith 1993; Smith 1999; Mackie, Devos, and Smith 2000). These emotions are coined intergroup emotions (Mackie, Devos, and Smith 2000; Parkinson, Fischer and Manstead 2005). Intergroup emotions are experienced at the individual level, but are directed toward other groups, typically as a result of events that have occurred between groups (Mackie, Devos and Smith 2000; Parkinson, Fischer and Manstead 2005). Several intergroup emotions have been examined; among them, shame, Schadenfreude (pleasure experienced at the expense of another group's misfortune), and guilt. For example, Americans have experienced collective shame when they witnessed other Americans exhibiting acts of prejudice toward individuals of Middle Eastern descent (John, Schmader and Lickel 2005). It is labeled collective shame because the individual

experiences shame due to actions committed by their fellow Americans and not by themselves (John, Schmader and Lickel 2005). Similarly, it has also been found that Dutch respondents experienced Schadenfreude when they were told that the German soccer team had lost a match (Leach et al. 2003). It has also been found that Dutch respondents experience collective guilt due to atrocities the Dutch committed during their occupation of Indonesia (Doosje et al. 1998). Evidence exists, therefore, that several emotions are evoked in an intergroup context. Based on these findings in the social psychology literature, this research suggests that collective animosity harbored toward other countries is just one of a variety of emotions that can be directed toward different groups.

Collective guilt is an intergroup emotion that has received considerable attention in the social psychology literature (Doosje et al. 1998; Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappenn 2004). Collective guilt refers to the distress that an individual may feel due to moral transgressions performed by one's own group (Doosje et al. 1998; Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappenn 2004). More specifically, collective guilt in an international context is experienced when consumers in one country feel guilty for atrocities committed by other members of their own country toward members of another country. These events may have occurred in the past or may still be happening (Doosje et al. 1998; Iyer, Schmader and Lickel 2007). Examples include current American consumers feeling guilty about the U.S. dropping atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. More recently, Americans may feel guilty about the atrocities committed by the U.S. military at Abu Ghuraib prison. The popular press has recently been discussing collective guilt. For example, the April 16, 2007 shootings at Virginia Tech, in which the shooter was of

South Korean descent, prompted the South Korean ambassador to pledge a fast for 32 days to show his sorrow (Vaele 2007). In the words of a history professor at Hangyang University in Seoul, "I can smell a collective sense of guilt" (Vaele 2007). Although neither the Ambassador nor the history professor was involved in the shooting, they still felt remorse.

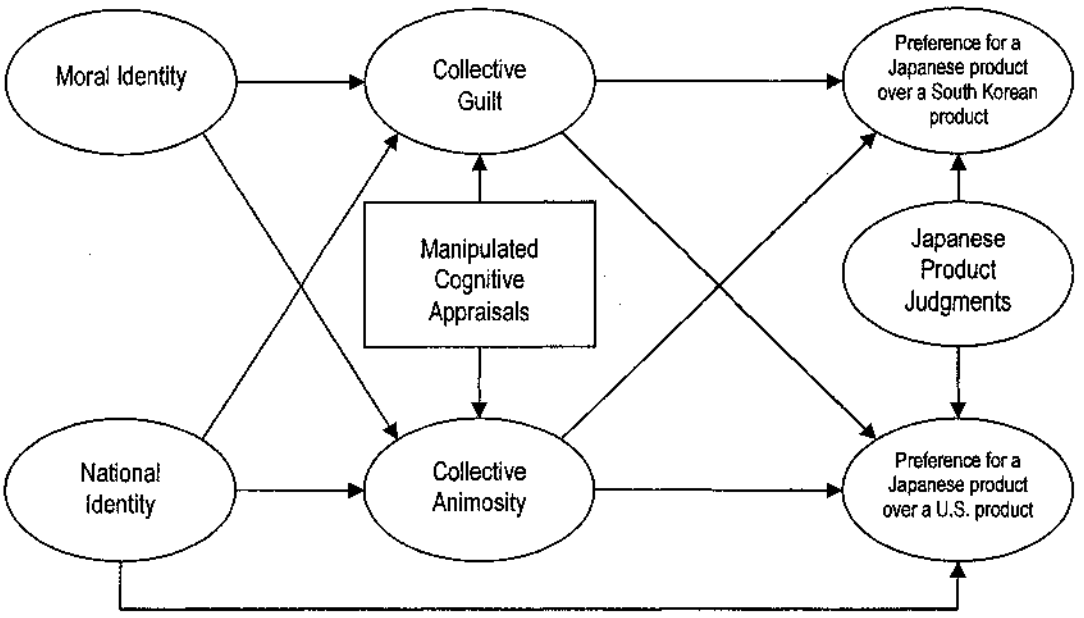
Considerable support in the social psychology literature indicates that the experience of collective guilt will lead to the desire to compensate out-groups that have been harmed by one's in-group (Doosje et al. 1998; Iyer, Leach and Crosby 2003; Leach, Iyer and Pedersen 2006; Swim and Miller 1999). A question relevant to marketing, therefore, is how these feelings may influence consumers' perceptions of and preference for foreign products. Based on the argument presented, this research contends that collective animosity is one of several group-based emotions, and further that collective guilt is an emotion worth examining based on findings in the psychology literature.

Purpose of Research

This research presents new suggestions for extending the collective animosity model, introduced by Klein, Ettenson and Morris (199), to incorporate a series of antecedents and other intergroup emotions that may be invoked in an international context. This study proposes that cognitive appraisals and an individual's social and personal identities will have an impact on the level of collective animosity and collective guilt experienced; in turn, these emotions will have an impact on a person's preference for foreign products (Figure 1-1). More specifically, this research proposes that the collective animosity model be extended to incorporate and be tested for the impact of

both national identity and moral identity as antecedents of collective guilt and collective animosity.

Figure 1-1: Proposed Model



Research Context

The model in figure 1-1 was tested in the U.S., and the country toward which collective guilt and collective animosity was directed was Japan. These two countries were selected for this research for several reasons. First, these countries present conditions where both collective animosity and collective guilt may coexist simultaneously. Klein (2002) found that collective animosity that U.S. consumers harbor collective animosity towards the Japanese due to events occurring during World War II and the current perceived economic threat from Japan. It is proposed here that the events perpetrated during World War II may also lead U.S. consumers to experience collective guilt. Second, Japanese products are highly visible and identifiable for U.S. respondents. Samiee, Shimp, and Sharma (2005) found that U.S. consumers correctly identified the

brand of origin for Japanese products more frequently than products from other countries. Finally, Japan is America's fourth largest exporter of manufactured goods (Table1-1, U.S. Department of Commerce 2007).

Table 1-1: Top 10 Exporters of Manufactured Goods to the United States

Partner	*Amount $*
World Total	1,416,597,997,766
China	281,476,996,247
Canada	201,548,668,397
Mexico	153,249,617,239
Japan	146,077,265,598
Germany	85,264,206,205
United Kingdom	44,502,347,735
South Korea	42,444,445,459
Taiwan	37,294,574,906

Antecedents of Collective Animosity and Collective Guilt

Cognitive Appraisals

According to the cognitive appraisal theories of emotion (Frijda 1986; Roseman 1984; Scherer 1988; Smith and Ellsworth 1985) people experience emotions based on their interpretations (i.e., appraisals)[1] and perceptions of how objects, situations, or events are likely to impact one's well-being (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer 1999; Smith et al. 1993; Smith 1999). These interpretations are referred to as cognitive appraisals (Smith et al. 1993). Various emotions are associated with different combinations of cognitive appraisals (Smith and Ellsworth 1985; Smith et al. 1993; Ruth, Brunel and Otnes 2002). These discrete emotions then explain individuals' tendencies to perform certain behaviors (Roseman, Wiest, and Swartz 1994). For example, a person may feel angry when he/she appraises that other individuals are responsible (i.e., are to blame) for his/her own

[1] Interpretations and appraisals are used interchangeably.

misfortune (Smith et al. 1993). Guilt is another discrete emotion that relates to an appraisal that the individual may be responsible for inflicting harm onto others (Smith et al. 1993). A contribution this study makes is that the appraisals leading to the emotion and the intensity of the emotion are treated separately. Causality is assessed in this study by manipulating the different appraisals leading to the both collective animosity and collective guilt. To the authors' knowledge, this is the first attempt to examine these relationships in the collective animosity literature.

National Identity

Tajfel (1981) defined social identity as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his membership of a social group (or groups), together with the value and emotional significance attached to this" (p. 63). A social identity that has received considerable attentions is a person's national identity (e.g., Doosje et al. 1998; Johns, Schamder, Lickel 2005; Ellemers and Doosje 1997; Ellemers, Spears and Doosje 2002). One aspect of social identity is the degree of attachment and sense of interdependence that a person feels with a particular group (Ashmore, Deaux, and MCLaughlin-Volpe 2004). This dimension has also been referred to as identification (e.g., Ellemers and Doosje 1997), commitment (Ellemers, Spears and Doosje 2002), or more specifically affective commitment (Ellemers, Kortekaas, Ouwerkerk 1999). When individuals become aware that other members of their nation have performed questionable acts against other groups, this brings into question the moral value of being a member of that nation. People react differently to negative information about their nation depending on their level of commitment to the group (Ellemers, Spears, Doosje 2002). People who are most committed to their national identity, therefore, will be more inclined to display

defensive reactions when their group's moral value is questioned. For example, they may downplay the credibility of the presented negative image of the group. People who are less committed to the group are less defensive and more willing to admit responsibility for their group's questionable actions. In turn, they may support compensating the victims (e.g., Doosje et al. 1998). Because the social psychology literature shows that mere citizenship does not necessarily lead to higher levels of intergroup emotions, this research aims to examine national identification as a significant antecedent of collective animosity.

Moral Identity

A person with a moral identity is "...one for whom moral schemas are chronically available, readily primed, and easily activated for information processing" (Lapsley and Lasky, 2001, p. 347). Moral identity is a not new concept, but its study has been hindered by the lack of existing measures (Aquino and Reed 2002). Aquino and Reed (2002) developed the first measure of moral identity, grounding it in social identity theory. Social identity theory conceptualized moral identity as the degree to which individuals possessed traits that are commonly identified as moral. Moral identity has been found to expand individuals' moral regard for others (Reed and Aquino 2003), and explains volunteering (Aquino and Reed 2002) and making donations (Aquino and Reed 2002; Reed, Aquino and Levy 2007). Based on these findings, this research suggests that individuals with moral identity are more likely to be attuned to the moral transgressions of members of one country and more forgiving of the mishaps of others. It is a purpose of this research, therefore, to examine how moral identity serves to expand such moral

regard toward members of other countries and lead to reduced feelings of collective animosity and increased feelings of collective guilt.

Consequences: Foreign Product Perceptions and Preferences

The collective animosity literature has established that collective animosity toward a specific country does not necessarily lead to poor quality perceptions of that country's products (e.g., Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Shin 2001). This same collective animosity, however, leads to a lower preference for products from that same country (e.g., Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Shin 2001). Following this rationale, this study suggests that collective guilt, like collective animosity, will also effect perceptions and preferences of products from a country toward which collective guilt is directed. Because collective guilt may be associated with a desire to compensate the victims of the injustice, however, it is expected that collective guilt will be associated with a higher preference for Japanese products (Doosje et al. 1998; Iyer, Leach and Crosby 2003; Leach, Iyer and Pedersen 2006; Swim and Miller 1999). Further, like collective animosity, collective guilt is not expected to have an effect on product judgments of Japanese products.

Contribution

This dissertation seeks to make several theoretical and managerial contributions. First, theoretically conceptualizing collective animosity as an intergroup emotion provides researchers with an opportunity to examine other emotions that may be evoked in an international context. Second, this dissertation provides the first empirical test of collective guilt in the context of marketing. If this construct emerges as a significant consideration in selecting foreign products, it is a phenomenon that domestic producers

should consider when marketing their products. Third, this dissertation contributes to the literature on collective animosity and intergroup emotions by examining a variety of antecedents. Because moral identity has not yet been examined in the context of international marketing, it will add value to the literature to examine how consumers' morality manifests itself in the marketplace. With the exception of Shoham et al. (2007) the collective animosity literature has not examined factors that lead to lower levels of collective animosity.

Dissertation Organization

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduced the importance of examining different intergroup emotions in addition to collective animosity. Specifically, chapter one argued for the importance of studying collective guilt as an intergroup emotion. Chapter 2 provides an extensive literature review on the constructs presented in the model (i.e., collective animosity, collective guilt, national identity, and moral identity). Chapter 3 presents measures, sampling issues, and data collection procedures. Chapter 4 presents the results of the analyses conducted, while chapter 5 discusses the findings, presents managerial implications, and states the limitations of this research.

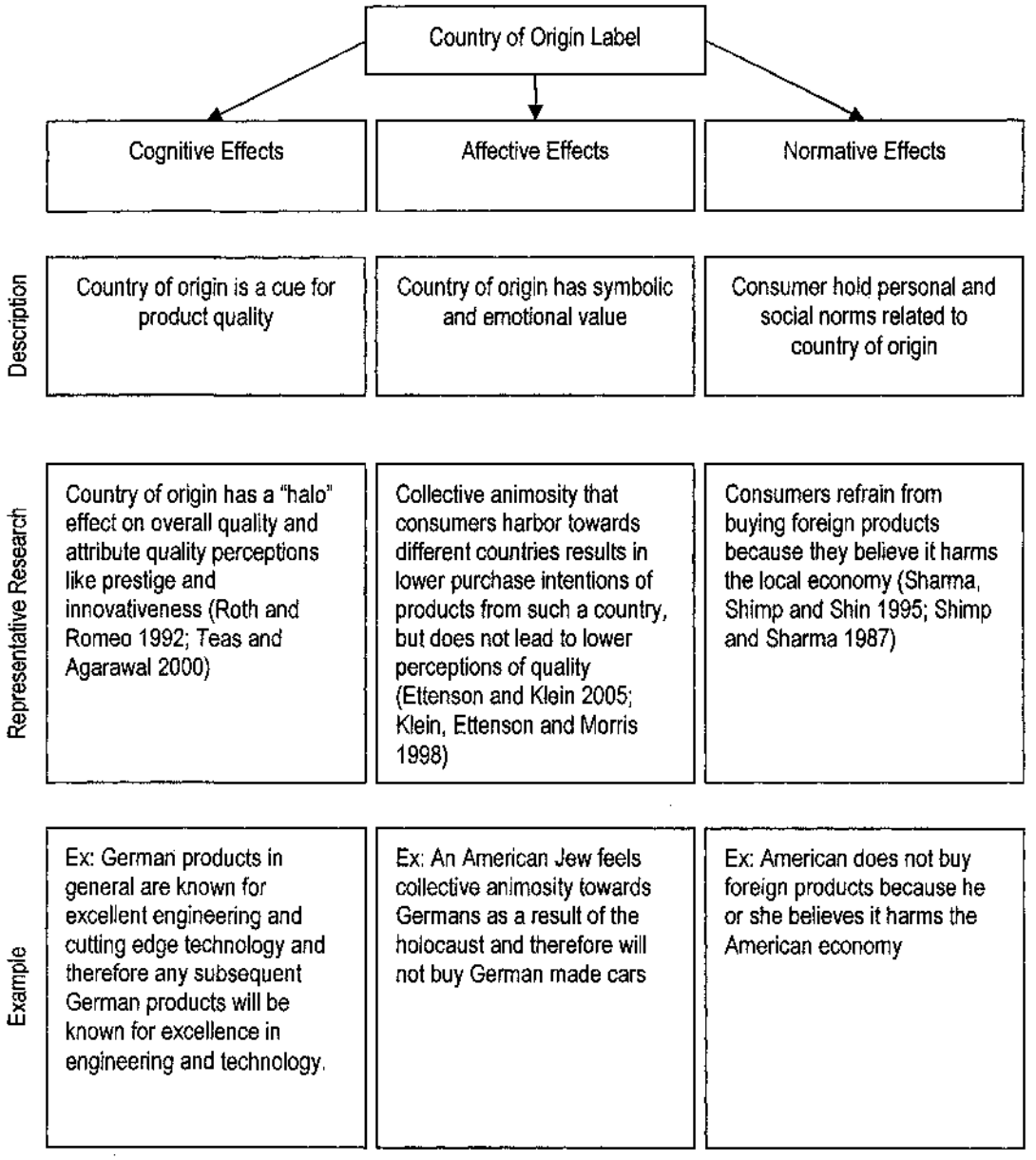
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Based on the model introduced in chapter 1, this literature review is structured as follows. First, the country of origin literature is discussed with specific reference to the collective animosity literature. Next, the theoretical foundation of the model is presented by introducing the cognitive appraisal theory of emotions, the theory of intergroup emotions, social identity theory, and self-categorization theory. Finally, the literature on social identity theory is reviewed with specific reference to national identity and moral identity.

The Country of Origin Literature

An extensive number of articles have dealt with the impact of a product's perceived country of origin (COO) on consumers' perceptions of products from that country (e.g., Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Johansson, Douglas, Nonaka 1985; Peterson and Joilbert 1995; Roth and Romeo 1992; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999; Verlegh 2007). Further, several literature reviews and meta-analyses have been conducted in this area (Al Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Bilkey and Nes 1982; Papadopoulos and Heslop 20003; Srinivasan and Jain 2003; Peterson and Jolibert 1995; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Several approaches have been used in the study of COO effects. Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989) outline a framework in which the COO effects are divided into cognitive, affective, and normative effects (Figure 2-1).

Figure 2-1: A Typology of Country of Origin Effects



Adapted from:

Verlegh, Peeter W.J. and Jan-Benedict E.M. Steenkamp (1999), "A Review and Meta-Analysis of Country-of-Origin Research," Journal of Economic Psychology, 20 (June), 521-46.

Obermiller, Carl and Eric Spangenberg (1989), "Exploring the Effects of Country of Origin Labels: An Information Processing Framework," in Advances in Consumer Research, Thomas K. Srull (Ed.) Vol. 16. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Cognitive Effects

Over the years, the cognitive effects of COO have received considerable attention (Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Studies that have examined the cognitive effects of COO have assumed that products consist of a variety of intrinsic cues, such as design, fit, and taste as well as extrinsic cues, such as price and country of origin (Bilkey and Nes 1982). Intrinsic cues are aspects of the product that cannot be changed without altering the physical appearance of the product. Extrinsic cues are aspects of the product that can be changed while keeping the external appearance of the product intact. Country of origin has typically been viewed as an extrinsic cue that consumers use to judge a product's quality (Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999; Srinivasan and Jain 2003). In several studies, respondents are presented with a "made in____" cue, and asked a series of questions about their judgments of the product, attitudes toward the product, and their intent to buy the product (e.g., Roth and Romeo 1992; Teas and Agrawal 2000; Laroche et al. 2005). The rationale in these studies is that country of origin will activate an associated country image, which may transfer into opinions of the product's attributes (Roth and Romeo 1992; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). For example, because Germans are known for technical excellence, judgments of any German products may be imbued with the same quality.

In 1999, Verlegh and Steenkamp conducted a meta-analysis that included 41 studies, and their results confirmed several findings. First, products from less developed countries are believed to be of lower quality than products from developed countries. Second, the effects of COO are more pronounced in studies that introduce COO as the

only cue in contrast to multi-cue studies. Third, the effects of COO persisted even when the product was designed and assembled in different locations.

Normative Effects

The impact of a product's COO is not restricted to its effect as a cognitive cue or its function as a signal for quality (Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Consumers may also hold social norms related to a product's COO (Obermiller and Spangenberg 1989; Verlegh and Steekamp 1999). Consider an American consumer who is contemplating the purchase of a luxury car. While that consumer may not hold a grudge against Germans, he/she may still not buy a German car, simply because buying foreign products is considered "un-American." A construct that has received considerable attention in this regard is consumer ethnocentrism (Shankermahesh 2006). Consumer ethnocentrism is defined as the morality of buying foreign products (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Several studies have confirmed that consumer ethnocentrism is associated with negative attitudes toward foreign products (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser 2002); a positive intention to purchase domestic products (Han 1988; Herche 1992); and a lower willingness to buy foreign products (Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Suh and Kwon 2002).

Affective Effects

A product's COO may also have affective outcomes (Obermiller and Spangenberg 1989; Verlegh and Steekamp 1999). The COO literature has found that a product's COO has emotional value attached (Obermiller and Spangenberg 1989; Verlegh and Steekamp 1999). One particular stream of literature that has examined the affective effects of a product's COO focuses on consumer collective animosity.

Collective animosity[2] is defined as "the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events" (Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998, p. 90). It has been found that when consumers harbor collective animosity toward other countries, they are less likely to purchase products from those countries (Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Klein 2002; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Russell and Russell 2006). Several studies confirm that collective animosity will have an adverse impact on consumers' willingness to purchase products from other countries, independent of their own product evaluations (Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Klein 2002; Russell and Russell 2006). In other words, even though individuals may believe that products originating from a specific country are of high quality, they are less willing to buy them, due to feelings of collective animosity directed toward the product's COO. For example, a Jewish consumer may find that German cars are phenomenal driving machines and hold positive judgments regarding the car's characteristics. This consumer, however, may also hold a negative attitude toward these cars due to atrocities committed by the Germans toward the Jewish people during World War II. In the next section, the findings of the collective animosity literature are reviewed.

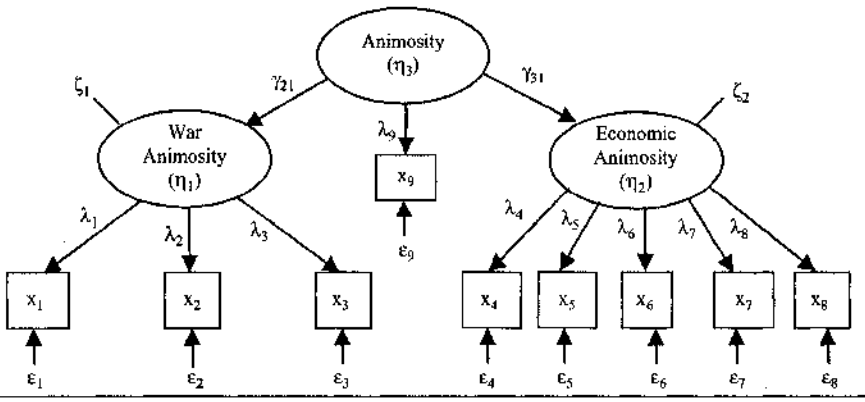
Collective Animosity as an Affective Response to Country of Origin

The seminal study on collective animosity in the marketing literature was conducted by Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998). These researchers tested whether collective animosity that Chinese consumers feel toward Japan impacts their purchase of Japanese products. The sources of collective animosity examined were economic-based or war-based. Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) expected war- based collective

[2] Collective animosity will be referred to hereafter as collective animosity to reflect that collective animosity is directed toward another country and not an individual.

animosity to exist due to the atrocities committed at Nanjing by the Japanese, where 300,000 civilians were slaughtered between 1937 and 1938. They also expected to find economic-based collective animosity based on either the idea that Japanese brands are displacing Chinese products and brands or the perception that the Japanese deal unfairly with the Chinese economically. This study developed a measure of collective animosity. It was conceptualized as a second order construct, with economic-based and war-based collective animosity as first order constructs. (See Figure 2-2 for the instrument and measurement approach.)

Figure 2-2: The Modeling of Collective animosity



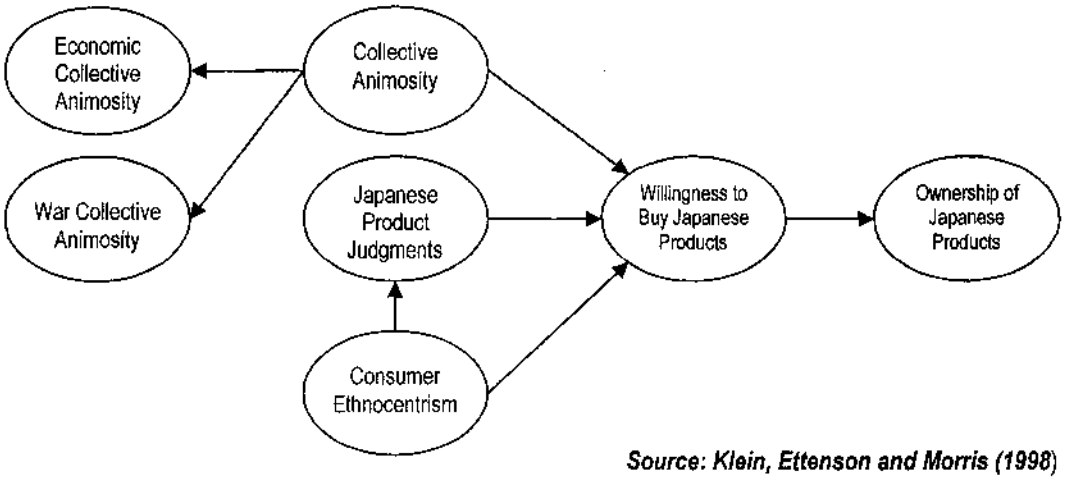
Collective animosity	
X9: I dislike the Japanese	
War Collective animosity	***Economic Collective animosity***
X1: I feel angry towards the Japanese	X4: Japan is not a reliable trading partner
X2: I will never forgive Japan for the Nanjing Massacre	X5: Japan wants to gain economic power over China
X3: Japan should pay for What it did to Nanjing during the Occupation	X6: Japan is taking advantage of China
	X7: Japan has too much economic influence in China
	X8: The Japanese are doing business unfairly in China

Source: Klein (1998); Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007)

Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) tested the model illustrated in Figure 2-3. Consistent with the literature (Sharma, Shimp, and Shin 1995; Shimp and Sharma 1987), consumer ethnocentrism was found to be associated with less favorable evaluations of Japanese products, and less willingness to buy Japanese products. (See Table 2-1 for the

measure.) An interesting finding in this seminal research was that collective animosity was not found to be related to judgments of Japanese products. In other words, even though Chinese consumers perceived Japanese products to be of high quality, they were less willing to purchase them due to feelings of collective animosity. Respondents who were less willing to buy Japanese products were also less likely to own Japanese products. (See Table 2-1 for the measure.)

Figure 2-3: The Original Collective animosity Model



Source: Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998)

Table 2-1: Willingness to Buy Japanese Products

- Whenever possible, I avoid buying Japanese products.
- Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in Japan.
- I do not like the idea of owning Japanese products.
- If two products were equal in quality, but one was from Japan and one was from China, I would pay 10% more for the product from Japan

Since then the collective animosity model, introduced by Klein, Morris and Ettenson (1998), has been tested in several other countries. Collective animosity toward other nations has been examined in the United States (Klein 2002; Russell and Russell

2006; Witowski 2000); South Korea (Shin 2001); the Netherlands (Nijseen and Douglas 2004); France (Russell and Russell 2006); and Australia (Ettenson and Klein 2005).The target of collective animosity most commonly referred to in these studies is Japan (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998; Klein 2002; Shin 2001), followed by France (Russell and Russell 2006; Ettenson and Klein 2005). Intra-country collective animosity between different regions was also studied in the United States (Shimp, Dunn, and Klein 2004), Germany (Hinck 2004), and Israel (Shoham, Davidow, Klein, and Ruvio 2006).

Sources of Collective Animosity

The main sources of collective animosity in these studies were war-based collective animosity and economic-based collective animosity. (See Table 2-2 for the measures.) In several of these studies, qualitative measures were rarely conducted to uncover the source of collective animosity. Two exceptions are Klein (2002) and Shimp, Dunn, and Klein (2004). War-based collective animosity was found to correlate to atrocities committed in the past. In China, war-based collective animosity was due to the atrocities committed at Nanjing (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998), while in the United States it was due to the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the Japanese attacks during World War II (Klein 2002). In South Korea and the Netherlands, Japanese occupation for the former and German occupation for the latter created feelings of collective animosity. In the United States, the Civil War resulted in collective animosity between the North and South (Shimp, Dunn, and Klein 2004). When economic-based collective animosity was examined, the measure used was adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998). This measure taps into perceptions of unfairness in economic dealings. Collective animosity due to political issues was another facet of collective animosity that was examined

(Witowski 2000; Russell and Rusell 2006; Ettenson and Klein 2005). Political-based collective animosity seems to deal with negative impressions of a country's stance on different political topics, such as the French conducting nuclear testing in the South Pacific (Ettenson and Klein 2005); the position of both the United Stated and France on the war in Iraq (Russell and Russell 2006); and the Chinese government's violations of human rights (Witowski 2000).

Table 2-2 : Measures of Collective Animosity

Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998	Witowski 2000
General collective animosity (1 item): I dislike the Japanese. ***War collective animosity (3 items, α not reported):*** I feel angry toward the Japanese. I will never forgive Japan for the Nanjing Massacre. Japan should pay for what it did to Nanjing during the occupation. ***Economic collective animosity (5 items, α not reported):*** Japan is not a reliable trading partner. Japan wants to gain economic power over China. Japan is taking advantage of China. Japan has too much economic influence in China. The Japanese are doing business unfairly with China.	***General collective animosity (1 item, finally deleted)*** I dislike the Chinese. **Political collective animosity (6 items, α = 0.85):** I believe the Chinese have been spying on us. I believe the Chinese have been giving money to friendly politicians in the USA. I feel angry toward the Chinese for the way they have treated Tibet. I feel angry toward the Chinese for the way they treat their workers and labour unions. I feel angry toward the Chinese for the way they treat Christians and other religious minorities. China should keep its hands off Taiwan. **Economic collective animosity (5 items, α = 0.87):** China is not a reliable trading partner. China wants to gain economic power over America. China is taking advantage of America. China has too much economic influence in the USA. The Chinese are doing business unfairly with the USA.
Shin 2001	**Klein 2002**
General collective animosity (1 item): I dislike the Japanese. ***War collective animosity (3 items, α = 0.58):*** I feel angry toward the Japanese. I will never forgive Japan for such war crimes as "comfort women". Japan should pay for what it did to Korea during the occupation. ***Economic collective animosity (5 item, α range reported from .70 to .80):*** Japan is not a reliable trading partner. Japan wants to gain economic power over Korea. Japan is taking advantage of Korea. Japan has too much economic influence in Korea. The Japanese are doing business unfairly with Korea	***General collective animosity (3 items, α = 0.78):*** I feel angry towards Japan. I like Japan. I do not like Japan. ***War collective animosity (3 items, α = 0.78):*** I still feel angry towards Japan because of World War II. I cannot forgive Japan for bombing Pearl Harbor. We should not forget the atrocities committed by Japan during World War II. ***Economic collective animosity (3 items, a . 0.78):*** Japan is taking advantage of the USA. I feel angry towards Japan because of the way they have conducted trade with the USA. The USA is more fair in its trade dealings with Japan than Japan is with the USA.

Nijssen and Douglas 2004	Ettenson and Morris 2005
General collective animosity: not measured. ***War collective animosity (5 items; α = 0.89):*** I feel anger because of the role that Germans played in World War II. I can still get angry over Germany's role in World War II. I will never forgive the Germans for occupying our country and pursuing the Jews. Germany is liable for the damage caused by the bombardment of Rotterdam in 1940. I will never forgive the Germans for bombing of Rotterdam in 1940. ***Economic collective animosity (6 items, α = 0.75):*** While doing business with Germans one should be careful. German companies are unreliable trading partners (e.g. Fokker-Dasa). Germany wants to gain economic power over the Netherlands. German companies often outsmart Dutch companies in business deals. Germany has too much influence on the Netherlands and the Dutch economy. German companies are doing business unfairly with the Dutch.	***Collective animosity towards France (Study 1 α = 0.81, Study 2 α = 0.80)*** I feel angry towards France. France's recent nuclear testing was an act of aggression in the South Pacific. France does not care what Australia or other nations think of its actions. I will never forgive France for its nuclear testing in the South Pacific.
Russell and Russell 2006	**Shoham et al. 2006**
Collective animosity towards France: Study 1 (α = .89) France is not a reliable trade partner. France is taking advantage of the U.S. France has too much economic influence in the U.S. France is violating free trade at the expense of the U.S. I will never forgive France for not respecting the U.S.'s positions. France conducts business unfairly with the U.S. ***Collective animosity towards the U.S. : Study 2 (α = .75) and 3(α = .80)*** The same measure of collective animosity was used but the U.S. was the target of collective animosity in studies 2 and 3	***Collective animosity towards Israeli Arabs (α = .86)*** I dislike Israeli Arabs. I feel angry toward Israeli Arabs. I will never forgive Israeli Arabs for the Intifada. Israeli Arabs should pay for what they did during the Intifada. Isreali Arabs are not reliable trading partners. Isreali Arabs want to gain economic power over Israel. Israeli Arabs are taking advantage of Israel. Israeli Arabs have too much economic influence in Israel. Israeli Arabs are doing business unfairly with other Israelis.

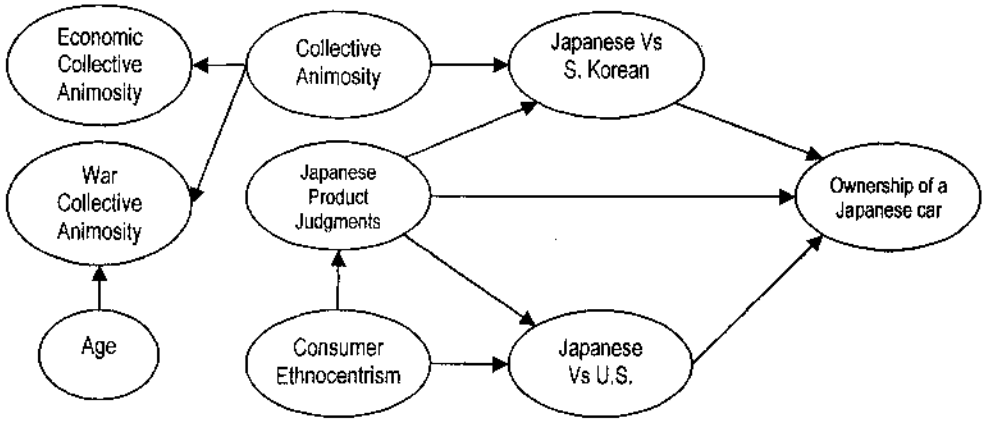
Main Findings Related to Collective Animosity

Replications and extensions of the model have established the power of collective animosity to explain consumers' intentions toward buying products originating from countries toward which consumers harbor collective animosity. Witowski (2000) examined the collective animosity that U.S. consumers harbor toward China. The findings of this study depart from the original study (Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998) in that collective animosity is negatively associated with quality judgments of Chinese products for U.S. consumers. The author attributed these findings to the fact that particular Chinese brands are difficult to identify; therefore, the product judgments construct may be inadequate when studying perceptions of Chinese products. In another extension of the collective animosity model in South Korea (Shin 2001), South Korean respondents exhibited the same tendencies toward the Japanese as did Chinese consumers in the study by Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998). The measures of economic-based collective animosity and war-based collective animosity measures were adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998). (See Table 2-2 for the items.)

In another extension of the collective animosity model, Klein (2002) examined collective animosity stemming from war-based issues and economic-based issues in the United States. Klein (2002) conducted in-depth interviews and pilot studies with U.S. consumers to compile a set of items that would measure collective animosity. The economic-based collective animosity scale was similar to the economic-based collective animosity measure developed by Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998); however, the measure used by Klein (2002) was a three-item measure compared to Klein, Ettenson, and Morris's (1998) five-item measure. The war-based collective animosity items were

designed to reflect the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and the atrocities committed by the Japanese during World War II. (See Table 2-2 for the items.). The model tested by Klein (2002) is depicted in Figure 2-4. Klein (2002) found that the collective animosity that U.S. respondents harbored toward Japan only resulted in a preference for South Korean Products over Japanese products and not a preference for U.S. products over Japanese products. Klein (2002) attributes this finding to the fact that the levels of collective animosity respondents harbored toward Japan were moderate. Unlike collective animosity, ethnocentrism is associated with a lower preference for Japanese over U.S. products. Owning Japanese cars was also explained by the preference for Japanese over South Korean and U.S. products (Klein 2002).

Figure 2-4: Collective animosity in the U.S. towards the Japanese



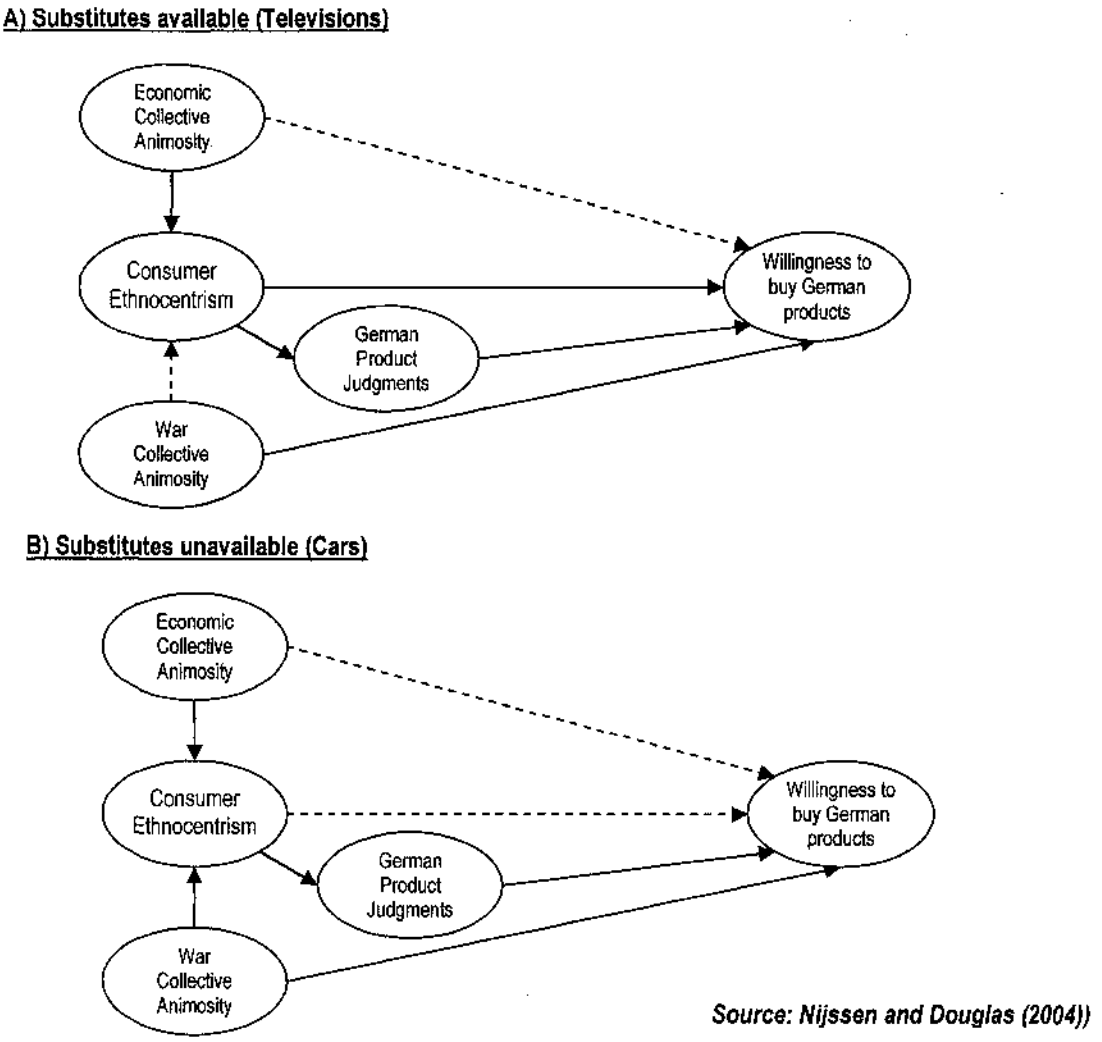
Japanese Vs. S. Korean = Preference for a Japanese product over a South Korean product.
Japanese Vs U.S. = Preference for a Japanese product over a U.S. product.

Source: Klein (2002)

Similar results were confirmed for Dutch respondents that harbored collective animosity toward Germany (Nijssen and Douglas 2004). Dutch respondents were reluctant to buy German-made products due to the collective animosity they harbored toward Germans. Nijssen and Douglas (2004) conceptualized collective animosity as a

multidimensional construct with war-based collective animosity and economic-based collective animosity as two distinct dimensions (Figure 2-5). They did not use a general measure of collective animosity as did Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) and Klein (2002); instead, they measured the direct impact of economic-based collective animosity and war-based collective animosity on the other constructs in the model. Nijssen and Douglas's (2004) contribution rests upon examining collective animosity in a country with a high level of trade (i.e., the Netherlands) in which local substitutes were available for one of the products examined. The models depicted in Figure 2-5 were tested in this study. War-based collective animosity was found to directly affect respondents' willingness to buy German cars or televisions. Nijssen and Douglas (2004) found that the effect of economic-based collective animosity is mediated through consumer ethnocentrism. They also found that the effect of collective animosity is more pronounced for televisions relative to cars, because Dutch substitutes are available for the former.

Figure 2-5: Collective animosity in the Netherlands towards the Germans



Source: Nijssen and Douglas (2004))

Significant paths (p<.05) are indicated by a solid line. Insignificant paths are indicated by a dashed line.

To capture the longitudinal effects of collective animosity, Ettenson and Klein (2005) examined the impact of collective animosity Australian's held toward the French. They hypothesized that the French testing nuclear bombs in the South Pacific would trigger feelings of collective animosity in Australian's minds. Study 1 achieved the same results of Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998). Collective animosity was found to have a direct negative impact on consumers' willingness to buy French products (but did not impact product judgments), while ethnocentrism had a negative impact on product

judgments. In study 2, the authors sought to determine whether feelings of collective animosity were actually implicated in buying behavior. Respondents were asked to list the number of French products they had boycotted. The authors found collective animosity to be a strong predictor of Australian's propensity to boycott French products.

To the author's knowledge, the only research that used an experimental approach to studying collective animosity was the study by Russell and Russell (2006). They examined collective animosity in both the United States (study 1) and France (study 2). Russell and Russell (2006) argued that consumers' choice of foreign products from any country is a function of exposing those consumers to a products' country of origin, and both implicit and explicit catalysts of collective animosity. In a series of three experiments, the authors manipulated different factors to elicit different levels of collective animosity. The first study examined resistance to foreign products in general by exposing U.S. students to an explicit catalyst of collective animosity -- an article describing the nature of trade relationships between the United States and France. Half of the respondents were presented with an article depicting a hostile trade relationship (high collective animosity condition), while the other half was presented with an article depicting a harmonious trade relationship (low collective animosity condition). Respondents were then given a description of a movie in which the movie's COO (U.S. or French) was the only manipulated factor. Finally, the respondents were asked to respond to several dependent measures, among which were a measure of collective animosity and choice of movie. Movie choice was measured as a dichotomous variable, with respondents given a choice between a domestic (American) or foreign film (the specific country of origin was not identified). Respondents exposed to high collective

animosity conditions and descriptions of U.S. movies were more likely to choose the U.S. movie than a foreign movie relative to respondents exposed to any other treatment. Study 2 is almost an exact replica of the first study, except it was conducted in France, and the choice measure was changed to include a domestic movie, a U.S. movie, and a movie from another foreign country. The results, however, were different. The treatment condition that lead to a higher preference for the domestic movie (in this case, the French movie) was that in which respondents were exposed to a high collective animosity condition and presented with a U.S. movie (in this case, the foreign movie). In study 3, French students were exposed to an implicit catalyst of collective animosity; that is, cultural symbols of France and the United States. Half of the respondents were presented with United States' cultural symbols (e.g., the Statue of Liberty), while the other half were presented with French cultural symbols (e.g., the Eiffel Tower). Results revealed that *only* the U.S. cultural symbols lead to higher levels of collective animosity when respondents were exposed to the description of the U.S. movie. Students in this condition were also more likely to choose tickets to domestic movies.

Synthesis of the Collective Animosity Literature

Based on the collective animosity literature discussed, there is clear evidence that the effects of collective animosity toward a specific country will lead to an aversion from products of that country. This provides evidence that affective reactions toward other countries are clearly translated into marketplace perceptions and purchases of products from these countries. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H1: Collective animosity experienced by U.S. subjects toward the Japanese will be negatively associated with a preference for a Japanese product over a product from another country.

Beyond product preferences, are there other possible reactions toward citizens, organizations, and institutions of other countries? The social psychology literature suggests that a variety of different emotions may be directed toward different groups, such as ethnic groups and members of other nations. For example, Iyer, Leach, and Crosby (2003) found that emotions are experienced at the ethnic level. In their study, Iyer, Leach and Crosby (2003) found white Americans felt sympathy toward Black Americans when they believed that Black Americans experienced discrimination. Emotions have also been found to exist at the national level. For example, Iyer, Schmader and Lickle (2007) found that Americans and British felt angry, shameful, and guilty as a result of the transgressions performed by their countries in Iraq. Further, Doosje et al. (1998) found that Dutch respondents experience collective guilt due to atrocities committed by the Dutch during their occupation of Indonesia. All of this evidence suggests that emotions can be targeted toward different national groups. Is collective animosity truly an emotion, however? In the following section, the authors argue that collective animosity can be considered an emotion. First, a definition of emotion and the cognitive appraisal theories of emotions are presented. Next, an argument is presented for conceptualizing collective animosity as an emotion.

Collective Animosity as an Emotion

Emotions and Cognitive Appraisal Theories of Emotion

The marketing literature has examined emotions and have found they influence consumers perceptions and behaviors in several contexts, including service recovery (Smith and Bolton 2002; Chebat and Slusarczyk 2005); personal selling (Dahl, Honea, and Manchanda 2005); and advertising (Holbrook and Batra 1987, Bagozzi and Moore

1994). An emotion is defined as a "mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts; has a phenomenological tone; is accompanied by physiological processes; is often expressed physically…and may result in specific action to affirm or cope with the emotion, depending on its nature and meaning for the person having it" (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer 1999, p. 184). In both the psychology and marketing literature, the cognitive appraisal theories of emotion (Frijda 1986; Roseman 1984; Scherer 1988; Smith and Ellsworth 1985) are credited with the bility to explain the experience of discrete emotions based on different combinations of cognitive appraisals (i.e., interpretations) (Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer 1999; Johnson and Stewart 2005). A basic tenant of these theories is that people experience emotions based on their interpretations (i.e., appraisals) and perceptions of how objects, situations or events are likely to impact one's well-being (Smith et al. 1993; Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer 1999; Smith 1999). These interpretations are referred to as cognitive appraisals (Smith et al. 1993). Unique emotions are associated with different combinations of cognitive appraisals (Smith and Ellsworth 1985; Smith et al. 1993; Ruth, Brunel, and Otnes 2002). These discrete emotions then explain individuals' tendencies to perform certain behaviors (Roseman, Wiest, and Swartz 1994). For example, a person may feel angry when they interpret that other individuals were responsible (or were to blame) for his/her own misfortune (Smith et al. 1993), this experience of anger is then associated with a tendency to act aggressively against others (Roseman, Wiest, and Swartz 1994). Guilt is another discrete emotion that is related to a self-appraisal of being responsible for inflicting harm on others (Smith et al. 1993). This guilt, however, is associated with a tendency to make

up for one's mishaps and apologize for one's transgressions (Roseman, Wiest, and Swartz 1994).

While a definition for emotion has been provided and the underlying theory for explaining emotions has been presented, the question remains whether collective animosity is truly an emotion. The definitions of collective animosity are examined from a face validity perspective to argue that it is, indeed, an emotion.

Definition of Collective Animosity

Several definitions of collective animosity exist. Collective animosity according to the Merriam-Webster Collegiate Dictionary is the "ill will or resentment tending toward active hostility," while the American Heritage Dictionary defines it as "a hostile feeling or act." In the marketing literature, Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) define collective animosity as "the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events" (p. 90). Klein (2002) looks to collective animosity as the anger or hate expressed toward other countries. Jung et al. (2002) defines collective animosity as "the emotional antagonism that is felt toward a specific entity" (p. 526). Jung et al. (2002) also refer to collective animosity as "a hostile attitude comprising emotions and belief components" (p. 526). From a face validity perspective, all of these definitions indicate collective animosity can possibly be classified as an emotion. All of these definitions also point out to that collective animosity is a negative emotion directed toward others, accompanied by a perception of injustice and a desire to move against the perpetrator.

Collective Animosity and Cognitive Appraisals

An emotion that shares striking similarities with collective animosity is anger. As an emotion, anger results from appraisals of an unpleasant event, one that is perceived as highly unfair and where self agency is low and other agency is high (Ruth, Brunel, and Otnes 2002; Smith and Ellsworth 1985; Lazarus 1991). Anger is associated with thinking about perpetrating violence toward others and thinking how unfair something else may have been (Bougie, Pieters, and Zeelenberg 2003). The action tendencies of anger involve behaving aggressively and "getting back at" the cause of the anger (Bougie, Pieters, and Zeelenberg 2003; Roseman, Wiest, and Swartz 1994). Anger is typically considered an immoral emotion (Haidt 2003) that leads individuals to behave aggressively and say nasty things to others (Bougie, Pieters and Zeelenberg 2003). Other researchers (Haidt 2003; Skoe, Eisenberg and Cumberland 2002), however, argue that anger also arises from moral concerns, and therefore has a tendency to spark prosocial actions. Anger when considered a moral emotion also arises from the perception that others' rights have been violated (Rozin et al. 1999) and perceptions that others were treated unjustly (Haidt 2003).

Collective Animosity as an Intergroup Emotion

Collective animosity is unique from other emotions such as anger and guilt. Anger and guilt result from appraisals that relate to situations or events that affect an individual personally (Tracy and Robins 2004). Collective animosity, however, relates to events that have affected other members of one's country, but have not necessarily affected the individual directly. If collective animosity were to be considered an emotion, it would be classified among a subset of emotions called intergroup emotions (Mackie,

Devos, and Smith 2000; Parkinson, Fischer, and Manstead 2005). Parkinson, Fischer, and Manstead (2005) argue that individuals can experience emotions due to things that have been done to them or by them as members of a group. This distinction abandons the notion that individuals only experience emotion due to actions committed toward them as individuals or actions they have committed themselves toward other individuals. Parkinson, Fischer, and Manstead (2005) differentiate four types of emotions based on the object and subject of the emotion (Table 2-3). As an individual, a person may experience emotion toward another individual, such as when a customer may feel anger toward a rude waiter. An individual may also experience emotion toward a group. For example, as an individual, a person may feel sympathy toward citizens of a third-world nation because of the poverty they experience. Group membership, however, may in some cases also evoke the experience of emotion. A person as a member of a group may experience emotions toward other individuals. For example, Americans as a group felt sadness at the death of Princess Diana from England. Finally, an individual as a member of a group may experience emotion toward other groups. For example, Germans today may feel guilty toward Jews for the atrocities perpetrated by the Germans against Jews during the Holocaust.

Table 2-3: Interpersonal, Group and Intergroup Emotions

	Object	
Subject	**Individual**	**Group**
Individual	Interpersonal Emotions	Individual Emotions directed towards a group
Group	Group Emotions directed towards an Individual	Intergroup Emotions

From: Parkinson, Brian, Agneta H. Fischer, and Antony S.R. Manstead (2005), Emotion in Social Relations. New York: Psychology Press. Page116

This dissertation focuses on the last category of emotions, which are called intergroup emotions. Intergroup emotions are those that are experienced by individuals yet experienced as a result of the individuals' group memberships. These emotions are directed toward other groups and not individuals. A country is one a group membership that has been found to affect the experience of intergroup emotions (Mackie, Silver, and Smith 2004). Although collective animosity is not conceptualized as an intergroup emotion in the marketing literature, it has been argued so far that it possesses the characteristics of an intergroup emotion.

Intergroup Emotions Theory

Smith (1993) was the first to allude to the notion of intergroup emotions. He emphasized conceptualizing prejudice as an emotion. He argued that prejudice has been typically studied as an attitude, but that this conceptualization obscures the gamut of emotional reactions that may be experienced toward other groups. Consider two individuals who have negative attitudes toward African Americans. The first individual may feel angry toward African Americans due to perceptions that African Americans are receiving undeserved benefits through affirmative action programs. The second individual feels fearful around African Americans due to negative stereotypes of African Americans portrayed in American culture. Both of these individuals are likely to have a negative attitude toward African Americans. This negative attitude obscures the different emotional reactions of fear and anger. This is important because fear and anger as emotions are each associated with a different action tendency (Mackie, Devos, and Smith 2000). Anger, as exhibited by the first individual, is associated with a tendency to move

against the targets of anger, while fear, as exhibited by the second individual is usually associated with a tendency to avoid other groups (Mackie, Devos and Smith 2000).

Smith (1993) used the cognitive appraisal theory of emotion and the social identity approach in social psychology to explain the experience of such emotions. It has always been maintained that events or situations are more likely to elicit emotions to the extent that they reflect self-oriented concerns (Markus and Kitayama 1991; Robin and Tracy 2004). Cognitive appraisal theories of emotions have mainly emphasized the role of the individual self. In the words of leading theorists, people ask themselves "does this situation affect me personally?" (Lazaurus and Folkman 1984, p. 171). Emotions are experienced when a person appraises "whether and how a situation is relevant to personal well being" (Smith et al. 1993, p. 918). For example, a customer who feels angry toward a rude waiter is angry because he/she has appraised that the waiter has been insulting as an individual. Smith (1993, 1999) argued that the appraisal theories of emotion have emphasized interpretations that occur with respect to the personal aspect of the individual's self, and have largely ignored appraisals that can occur with respect to the social aspects of an individual's self. Smith's contribution lies in suggesting that group memberships can constitute an important part of an individual's social aspects. Therefore, interpretations with respect to that part of the self will elicit group-based emotions. Intergroup emotions theory uses the social identity approach subsumed by social identity theory and self-categorization theory to explain how group memberships can constitute an important part of the self.

Social Identity Theory

According to social identity theory, a person's understanding of who he/she is (i.e., self concept) is not only determined by who he or she is as an *individual* but also by *group membership* (Tajfel and Turner 1979). Tajfel (1981) defined social identity as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his membership of a social group (or groups), together with the value and emotional significance attached to this" (p. 63). Social identity is a person's knowledge that he/she belongs to a social category or group (Hogg and Abrams 1988). For example, a person may be a male, American, and a football player all at the same time. All of these are categories bestow group membership upon the self. The self concept is a confluence, therefore, of social identities, which are derived from various groups and social categories (Deaux 1996; Reed 2002; Reed 2004).

Self Categorization Theory

Turner (1985) elaborates on this perspective by introducing self categorization theory (SCT) to explain the process by which an individual will see him/herself as an interchangeable member of various groups. Self categorization occurs when an individual views his/her cognitive grouping and other individuals as the same, particular in contrast to other individuals. In other words, self categorization occurs when a person views him/herself as a member of a socially-defined group or category. At least three levels of abstraction exist regarding to self-categorization. The highest level of abstraction is that of human being. At this level, a person self categorizes him/herself and human being as the same, in contrast to other forms of life. At the lowest level of abstraction, a person self categorizes based on his/her own abilities, personality, values, or other individual differences that set him/her apart from others. At an intermediate level of abstraction the

person categorizes him/herself into a group based on similarities and differences among characteristics that are typical of individuals forming the group, in contrast to individuals forming other groups. For example, a person who self categorizes him/herself as a business student has found that business students possesses certain unique characteristics that are not found among other student groups such as psychology or art students. According to SCT, moving from a personal to a social level of identity is the basic process underlying group phenomena, including social stereotyping, group cohesiveness, ethnocentrism, co-operation and altruism, emotional contagion, empathy, and collective actions and is the depersonalization of self-perception. Turner (1985) calls this process depersonalization of self-perception and defines it as "'self stereotyping', whereby people come to perceive themselves as the interchangeable exemplars of a social category than as unique personalities defined by individual differences from others" (p. 50). In SCT, not all identities are activated simultaneously. At this point, the salience of a social identity is crucial if it is to have an effect on group phenomena.

As a result, based on the social identity approach, intergroup emotions theory (IET) suggests that group-based emotions are elicited on behalf of the group to the extent that an individual categorizes him/herself as an exemplar of the group (Mackie, Devos, and Smith 2000; Smith 1993; Smith 1999). Smith's (1993) main thesis was that "*to the extent a self categorization functions as a self-aspect, appraisals and events or situations with respect to that social aspect of identity will also trigger emotions*"[3] (p. 303). For example, a Caucasian in the United States (self categorization), may think that African Americans are receiving benefits that are undeserved and paid for by Caucasians (the

[3] Italics in original text.

appraisal), which leads them to feel anger and resentment and, perhaps, discrimination against African Americans.

Empirical Evidence to Support the Existence of Intergroup Emotions

Mackie, Devos, and Smith (2000) provided an explicit test for the intergroup emotions theory. They asked study subjects to respond to situations that involved a high degree of value conflict. The goal was to evoke intergroup antagonism and a variety of intergroup emotions. Respondents were presented with an issue related to whether the illegal use of drugs should be severely punished or not. Next, respondents were asked to self categorize themselves as either members of a group in favor of severe drug punishment or members opposed to severe drug punishment. Those opposed to severe punishment were more likely to value freedom of action and thought, while those supportive of the severe punishment were more likely to value an established social order in society. This difference in opinion leads to intergroup emotions. Mackie, Devos and Smith (2002) found that anger expressed toward the opposing group stems from an appraisal that their in-group is more powerful relative to the other group (Study 1 and 3), while exclusion emotions (contempt and disgust) stem from an appraisal that their in-group is weak relative to the out-group (Study 2). Anger, in turn, was associated with a distinct action tendency of moving against the out-group, while contempt and disgust were associated with an action tendency of moving away from the out-group. They also found that identifying with the in-group lead to higher levels of anger toward and fear from the other group.

Other studies have examined intergroup emotions including, collective shame (Johns, Schmader, and Lickel 2005), collective Schadenfreude (the pleasure experienced

at the expense of another group's misfortune) (Leach et al. 2003), and collective guilt (Doosje et al. 1998). For example, Americans were found to experience collective shame when they witnessed that other Americans exhibited acts of prejudice toward individuals of Middle Eastern descent (Johns, Schmader, and Lickel 2005). In this case, the emotion was labeled collective shame because the individual experienced shame due to actions committed by other fellow Americans and not by him/herself personally (Johns, Schmader, and Lickel 2005). Similarly, it has also been found that Dutch respondents experienced Schadenfreude when they were told that the German soccer team had lost a match (Leach et al. 2003). It has also been found that Dutch respondents experience collective guilt due to atrocities committed by the Dutch during their occupation of Indonesia (Doosje et al. 1998). In summary, plentiful evidence exists showing that several emotions are evoked in an intergroup context.

Synthesis and Recap

Based on the literature review, the following assumptions are thus made. First, individuals experience emotions, such collective animosity and guilt, due to appraisals (interpretations) that threats have caused one's own well-being to be compromised. Second, based on conceptualizations by Smith (1993, 1999) and Mackie, Devos, and Smith (2000), these emotions can be experienced at both the personal and group level. Emotions experienced based on interpretations of events that have occurred between groups are called intergroup emotions. Based on the conceptualization of collective animosity in the marketing literature, collective animosity can be classified as an intergroup emotion because it is experienced at the individual level, but directed toward a specific country. Collective animosity involves an appraisal that others have harmed

other member's of one's nation, and this collective animosity, in turn, leads to moving against the transgressing nation by not buying its products.

IET, however, suggests that other intergroup emotions may also be invoked in an international context. If collective animosity is related to transgressions inflicted upon one's country, how do people react when they perceive that their own country has transgressed against another country? For example, how do American consumers today feel about the U.S. dropping two atomic bombs on Japan during World War II, and how do they react in response to such a feeling? The intergroup emotion invoked in this context is collective guilt. Collective guilt is the distress members of a group experience when they appraise that other members of their in-group have inflicted harm onto others (Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappenn 2004). In the next section, an argument is presented for why collective guilt is expected to effect consumer perceptions of and preferences for foreign and domestic products.

Collective Guilt

Guilt at the individual level involves experiencing regret related to actions committed by the self in the past (Smith and Ellsworth 1985). The experienced guilt is generally associated with the willingness to take corrective action to compensate for the wrongdoing (Smith and Ellsworth 1985). Guilt motivates people to apologize and confess in order to maintain positive ongoing relationships with others (Haidt 2003). Similarly, Dahl, Honea, and Manchanda (2005) found consumers feel guilty when they do not reciprocate a salesperson by buying through them. Their study found that feelings of guilt lead to an intention to buy from the salesperson to compensate them for putting forth effort to provide service.

These findings are associated with experiencing guilt concerning an individual's actions. Collective guilt is an emotion that has been found to be experienced at the group level (Doosje et al. 1998). It is argued that guilt can be experienced on behalf of a group that is important to one's social self. Collective guilt stems from distress that group members experience when they accept that their group is responsible for actions that harmed another group (Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappenn 2004). For example, when males perceived that illegitimate inequality existed between males and females, they were more likely to experience collective guilt (Miron, Branscombe, and Schmitt 2006). The perception of inequality did not lead to guilt because of sympathy toward women, but rather because the men felt the emotion of distress. This distinction is important because distress stems from focusing on the in-group's advantage, while sympathy stems from focusing on the out-group's disadvantage. This supports the notion that guilt is a self-focused emotion.

Doojse et al. (1998) were the first to test that guilt may also be experienced at the group level. Over a series of experiments, they found that individuals tended to experience higher levels of collective guilt toward another group when their group was biased against that other group (Study 1) and when they perceived that their in-group had committed harm against another group (Study 2). In Study 1, students were primed to self categorize themselves as "inductive thinkers." One-half of the students were told that inductive thinkers as a group had been historically biased against deductive thinkers. The other half of the group was told that inductive thinkers were not biased against deductive thinkers. To ensure that the experience of collective guilt was generated by group bias and not personal bias, some students were told whether they were personally biased or

not against deductive thinkers. Doojse et al. (1998) found that when individuals perceived that their own group was biased against others, they tended to experience collective guilt, even when they were not personally biased against the group involved (Study 1).

Doosje et al. (1998) extended the findings to examine the experience of collective guilt stemming from historical actions that were deemed immoral and inappropriate (Study 2). The Dutch have experienced collective guilt toward Indonesians due to the atrocities committed by the Dutch in the past during their occupation of Indonesia (Study 2). Across both studies (Study 1 and 2) the collective guilt experienced explained the respondent's intention to compensate the other group for the wrongdoing committed by their own group.

This study provided initial evidence that collective guilt may be experienced when individuals perceive that other members of his/her in-group have committed actions that are immoral or inappropriate. Subsequent studies have found that collective guilt is experienced toward nations (Doosje et al. 1998), different races (Swim and Miller 1999; Powell, Branscombe, and Schmitt 2005), members of the opposite gender (Miron, Branscombe and Schmitt 2006), and ethnicities (Leach, Iyer, and Pedersen 2006). In these studies the experiences of collective guilt were associated with a perception that one's in-group had harmed other out-groups. When Dutch respondents were informed that their Dutch government had inflicted harm onto Indonesians in the past, these respondents expressed collective guilt (Doosje et al. 1998, 2006). Swim and Miller (1999) found that the belief in present racial discrimination against African Americans was associated with higher levels of collective guilt.

Collective guilt, when measured, however, has always been found to exist at low levels (e.g., Doosje et al. 1998; Swim and Miller 1999). Partially explaining this phenomenon is that an individual must acknowledge that the harmful actions are unjustified or illegitimate. Several studies have found that a perceived illegitimate advantage over other races achieved as a result of atrocities committed by other members of their in-group in the past intensifies the feeling of collective guilt (e.g. Iyer, Leach, and Crosby 2003; Leach, Iyer, and Pedersen 2006; Miron, Branscombe, and Schmitt 2006; Powell, Branscombe, and Schmitt 2005; Swim and Miller 1999). For example, several studies have shown that Caucasian Americans were more likely to feel collective guilt over the atrocities committed by other Caucasian Americans in the past when they felt that their current advantage over other races was undeserved (Swim and Miller 1999; Powell, Branscombe, and Schmitt 2005). Iyer, Leach, and Crosby (2003) found that a belief in an illegitimate Caucasian privilege over other races predicted collective guilt, while a general belief in racial discrimination did not lead to collective guilt. This means that this study's participants had to feel that they themselves were unjustifiably advantaged. This finding persists in Australia, where non-aborigines experienced high levels of collective guilt when they perceived they were advantaged relative to the native aborigines (Leach, Iyer, and Pedersen 2006). This finding was also supported in gender studies of collective guilt, where males felt higher levels of collective guilt when they perceived that they possessed an illegitimate advantage over females (Miron, Branscombe, and Schmitt 2006).

Despite these low levels, collective guilt is associated with a motivation to compensate for the in-groups' past transgressions. Just as guilt at the individual level

motivates individuals to apologize and repatriate for his/her actions, collective guilt also promotes acts of goodwill toward other groups. The collective guilt that European Americans experience toward African Americans is significant in predicting European American's support for policies of affirmative action (Swim and Miller 1999; Iyer, Leach, and Crosby 2003). In Australia, the collective guilt that the non-aborigines experienced toward aborigines also predicted a willingness to engage in political action (e.g., writing letters, protesting) to improve the aborigines' position (Leach, Iyer, and Pedersen 2006).

Akin to collective animosity as an intergroup emotion, therefore, collective guilt is hypothesized to impact U.S. consumers' purchasing patterns of Japanese products, but in the opposite direction. This means there is reason to believe that the experience of collective guilt will have a positive impact on the intention to purchase products from a country against which harmful acts where committed (e.g., the dropping of the atomic bomb). It is proposed that collective guilt will have a positive impact on an individual's willingness to purchase products from the country toward which harmful acts were performed. Therefore, the following hypothesis is set forth:

H2: Collective guilt experienced by U.S. subjects toward the Japanese will be positively associated with a preference for a Japanese product over a product from another country.

Antecedents of Collective Animosity and Collective Guilt

Cognitive Appraisals

The current study differs from prior studies on collective animosity in that the antecedent conditions (i.e., reasons) leading to collective animosity and the intensity of collective animosity as an emotion are examined separately. The collective animosity

literature has called for researchers to distinguish between the reasons that underlie collective animosity and the intensity of collective animosity as an emotion (Riefler and Diamantopolous 2007). Riefler and Diamantopolous (2007) suggest that existing measures of collective animosity do not make such a distinction. For example, when measuring war-based collective animosity, Klein (2002) uses items such as "I still feel angry toward Japan because of World War II." This item could be problematic because it combines the feeling of anger (i.e., collective animosity) with the reasons for experiencing that anger. This approach has also been adopted in the social psychology literature (Leach, Iyer, and Pedersen 2006; Lickel et al. 2005; Iyer, Schmader, and Lickel 2007). The social psychology literature separates the emotion from the antecedent conditions leading to the emotion. Intergroup emotions theory (Mackie, Devos, and Smith 2000; Smith 1993; Smith 1999), suggests that emotions arise from interpretations of past events committed between different groups; these interpretations are referred to as cognitive appraisals.

When referring to the emotions literature, an emotion that shares striking similarities with collective animosity is anger. As an emotion, anger results from appraisals of an unpleasant event; one that is perceived to be highly unfair (Bougie, Pieters, and Zeelenberg 2003; Ruth, Brunel, and Otnes 2002; Smith and Ellsworth 1985; Lazarus 1991), and where self agency is low and other agency is high (Ruth, Brunel, and Otnes 2002; Smith and Ellsworth 1985; Lazarus 1991). The action tendencies of anger involve behaving aggressively, and retaliating at the cause of the anger (Bougie, Pieters, and Zeelenberg 2003; Roseman, Wiest, and Swartz 1994). Anger is typically thought of as an immoral emotion (Haidt 2003) that leads individuals to behave aggressively and say

nasty things to others (Bougie, Pieters, and Zeelenberg 2003). Others (Haidt 2003; Skoe, Eisenberg, and Cumberland 2002) argue, however, that anger also arises from moral concerns, and therefore has tendencies toward pro-social actions. Anger, when considered a moral emotion, also arises from the perception that others' rights have been violated (Rozin et al. 1999) and perceptions that others were treated unjustly (Haidt 2003). Iyer, Schamder, and Lickel (2007) measured anger separately from the conditions leading toward anger. They manipulated different conditions leading to collective animosity and then measured the intensity of anger. In their study, respondents from the United States and England read an article describing problems created in Iraq by their own countries' occupation of that country. Anger about the situation in Iraq was associated with appraisals of in-group responsibility for the occupation, and the illegitimacy of the negative conditions created by their own countries.

Appraisals of collective guilt have received considerable attention in the social psychology literature. Collective guilt is experienced as a result of a series of interpretations regarding harmful events committed by members one's own country in the past toward members of other countries (Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappen 2004). Branscombe and Miron (2006) in their literature review conclude that the experience of collective guilt toward a specific country stems from a perception that members of one's own country are responsible for harmful, unjustified, and illegitimate transgressions perpetrated against members of that other country. Appraising responsibility is essential to the experience of collective guilt, because that appraisal links the action to the person who committed it. If a person does not think that his/her group should be responsible for the actions of other in-group members toward other groups, then he/she distances

him/herself from the action, and is unlikely to experience collective guilt. For example, Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappen (2004) tested such an assertion and found that Caucasian Americans (n=334) were more likely to more to experience collective guilt when they thought their whole group should be responsible for the actions of other group members. As mentioned, the appraisal of illegitimacy is also crucial. The unfair circumstances need to be viewed as illegitimate and unjustified if an individual is to experience collective guilt. For example, the Iyer, Schamder, and Lickel (2007) study noted above also manipulated conditions leading to guilt (in addition to anger) and then measured the intensity of collective guilt. Guilt about the situation in Iraq was associated with appraisals of in-group responsibility for, and illegitimacy of, the negative conditions created by U.S. and British forces being in Iraq.

From the previous discussion, one can conclude that cognitive appraisals associated with collective animosity and collective guilt are quite similar. Based on the cognitive appraisal theory of emotions, collective animosity and collective guilt both result from appraisals that harm had been committed; that a specific group is responsible or to blame for this harm (Ruth, Brunel, and Otnes 2002); and that the harm is not justified (Branscombe and Miron 2004; Mallet and Swim 2004; Ruth, Brunel, and Otnes 2002). The difference is this: *collective animosity* toward a specific country stems from a perception that members of that country are responsible for a harmful and unjustified transgression perpetrated against members of one's own country. In contrast, *guilt* toward a specific country stems from a perception that members of one's own country are responsible for a harmful, unjustified transgression perpetrated against members of that other country.

In the present study, cognitive appraisals that elicit collective animosity and collective guilt will be manipulated. The next section details the reasons for this approach. It is possible that minimal levels of collective guilt will exist if its intensity is not increased. The relationships between collective guilt and the other constructs in the model, however, are not expected to be observed without a manipulation. This is because collective guilt is an aversive emotion that people do not like to experience (Wohl, Branscombe, and Klar 2005), and because people tend to suppress negative information about their own country (Doosje and Branscombe 2003). The relationships between collective guilt and the other constructs in the model, therefore, are only expected to be when collective guilt is manipulated by making the conditions that lead to its elicitation salient. This is consistent with previous studies examining collective guilt; they have also created conditions that lead to its elicitation (e.g., Doosje et al 1998, Doosje et al 2006). Thus, for this study, the authors decided to raise the intensity of the emotion by manipulating the appraisals leading to its elicitation.

The appraisals will be manipulated by exposing respondents to historical depictions of harmful actions committed by either the United States or Japan during World War II. A historical depiction of the Japanese attack at Pearl Harbor will be used to manipulate the appraisals related to collective animosity, while the historical depiction of the bombings at Hiroshima and Nagasaki will be used to manipulate the appraisals related to collective guilt. The details of these manipulations will be discussed in the methodology section.

Therefore, with respect to the current study the following hypotheses are advanced:

H3: U.S. subjects who are exposed to a historical depiction of the Japanese attack at Pearl Harbor are more likely to experience higher levels of collective animosity than U.S. subjects who are not exposed to the historical depiction, or U.S. subjects who are exposed to a historical depiction of the bombings at Hiroshima and Nagasaki as a result of:

> ***H3a: Higher appraisals of harm committed against the Americans during World War II.***
>
> ***H3b: Lower levels of justification for the harm committed against the Americans during World War II.***
>
> ***H3c: Higher levels of responsibility assigned to the Japanese for the harm committed against the Americans during World War II.***

H4: U.S. subjects who are exposed to a historical depiction of the bombings at Hiroshima and Nagasaki are more likely to experience higher levels of collective animosity than U.S. subjects who are not exposed to the historical depiction, or U.S. subjects who are exposed to a historical depiction of the Japanese attack at Pearl Harbor as a result of:

> ***H4a: Higher appraisals of harm committed against the Japanese during World War II.***
>
> ***H4b: Lower levels of justification for the harm committed against the Japanese during World War II.***
>
> ***H4c: Higher levels of responsibility assigned to the Americans for the harm committed against the Japanese during World War II.***

National Identity

Not all citizens of a country are expected to experience collective animosity and collective guilt. Based on the arguments presented above, people have to consider their nation as integral to their self identity in order to experience emotions on its behalf. In both the psychology and marketing literatures, the social identity approach is credited with the ability to explain how groups – and thereby nations – can constitute an important part of an individual's self concept (Hogg 1996; Hogg and Abrams 1988; Tajfel 1978,

1982; Tajfel and Turner 1979; Reed 2002; Reed 2004). Under the social identity approach, groups that are self-relevant constitute identities of one's self concept. These groups, in turn, become internal mental representations of how individuals view themselves. For example, an individual may view him/herself as an American, a Yankee, or a single parent.

Studies have examined various social identities ranging from ethnicities (Deshpande, Hoyer and Donthu 1989; Deshpande and Stayman 1994; Forehand and Deshpade 2001); and genders (Jaffe 1991; Wooten 1995); to nationalities (Verlegh 2007). Social identities that are part of a person's self concept have been found to impact consumption attitudes, judgments, and choices (Stayman and Deshpande 1989; Williams and Qualls 1989; Xu, Shim, Lotz, and Almeida 2004; Reed 2002). The focus on social identity here, however, is as an antecedent of both collective animosity and collective guilt.

As touched on above, the experience of intergroup emotions largely depends on groups that are self-relevant. Because collective animosity and collective guilt are directed toward national groups, an individual's national identity should play an important role in experiencing these emotions. National identification has been found to be a significant antecedent to the experience of several intergroup emotions such as shame for being an American (Johns, Schamder, and Lickel 2005) and collective guilt (Doosje et al. 1998; 2006).

According to Ashmore, Deaux, and McLaughin-Volpe (2004) the most basic element of a social identity is self categorization. Self categorization is defined as "identifying oneself as a member of, or categorizing self in terms of, a particular social

grouping" (Ashmore, Deaux, and McLaughlin-Volpe 2004, p. 84). Ellemers, Kortekaas, and Ouwerkerk (1999) also refer to self categorization as "cognitive awareness of one's group membership" (p. 372). For example, although a Chinese national may have recently immigrated to the United States and relinquished his/her Chinese citizenship, he/she may still consider him/herself as Chinese when asked. An example of a self-categorization measure would be asking respondents to indicate the ethnic or racial group to which they belong (Phinney 1992). This self categorization has significant implications for the experience of collective guilt. For an American to feel guilt and collective animosity, then he/she must self categorize him/herself as an American (Smith 1993, 1999). Thus, self categorization is the essence of the intergroup emotions theory (Smith 1993, 1999).

Clearly, self-categorization is a prerequisite for identity effects (Ashmore, Deaux, and McLaughlin-Volpe 2004; Bergami and Bagozzi 2000). Another dimension of a person's social identity is the degree of attachment and sense of interdependence a person feels with a particular group (Ashmore, Deaux, and McLaughlin-Volpe 2004). This dimension has also been referred to as identification (e.g., Ellemers, Spears and Doosje 1997); commitment (Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 2002); or more specifically affective commitment (Ellemers, Kortekaas, and Ouwerkerk 1999). This dimension is important because people who self categorize as Americans will react differently depending on their level of identification with being an American (Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 2002). When individuals are faced with information that other members of their in-group have performed questionable acts against other groups, this brings into question the moral value of being an American (Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 2002). People who highly

identify with their group will be more inclined to display defensive reactions when their group's moral value is in question (e.g., perhaps by downplaying the credibility of a negative image of the group). People who do not highly identify with their group, however, are less defensive and are more willing to admit responsibility that their group's actions are questionable. They, in turn, will try to compensate the victims (e.g., Doosje et al. 1998).

Substantial empirical evidence exists in the literature to support the effect of group identification on in-group bias. Various studies have found that when individuals are highly identified with a group, they tend to stress its homogeneity (Doosje et al. 1995); are less likely to accept its negative aspects (Doosje et al. 2006); are less likely to set themselves apart from other group members when their identity as a group is threatened (Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 1997; Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 2002); and tend to attribute negative actions committed by their in-group to external events (Doosje and Branscombe 2003).

Doosje, Ellmers, and Spears (1995) found that when psychology students perceived a threat to their group status (i.e., being less intelligent than business students), they were less likely to perceive psychology students as similar and they identified less with being a psychology student. Low identifiers used this as a subtle identity management strategy. Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje (1997) found that a lower level of group identification to be associated with a desire to work in an individual setting, even when group status was not threatened. There was also evidence of in-group bias in national groups. Doosje and Branscombe (2003) found that Dutch respondents tended to

attribute negative historical actions committed by the Dutch to external factors when they highly identified with being Dutch.

Evidence exists that this bias translates into lower collective guilt when group identification is high. It has been found that individuals who place a higher degree of importance on their in-group, national identity experience a lower level of collective guilt (Doosje et al. 1998; 2006). For example, Dutch respondents who scored high on national identification were less likely to experience collective guilt from colonizing Indonesia in the past (Doosje et al. 1998; 2006).

Several variables that capture a person's attachment to their home country, including patriotism (Klein and Ettenson 1999) and nationalism (Shoham et al. 2006), have been examined as antecedents of collective animosity. Patriotism refers to "feelings of attachment and loyalty to one's nation without the corresponding hostility toward other nations" (Balabanis et al. 2001, p. 160). Nationalism refers to the view that "one's country is superior and should be dominant" (Balabanis et al. 2001, p. 160). This distinction is based on the work Adorno et al. (1950) who differentiated between "pseudo" patriotism, which is a person's "blind attachment to certain national cultural values, uncritical conformity with the prevailing group ways, and the rejection of other nations as out-groups" (p.107), and "genuine" patriotism, which is one's "love of country and attachment to national values based on critical understanding" (p.107). Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) were the first to provide empirical evidence distinguishing between how in-group favoritism and out-group derogation are related. They found that the constructs of patriotism and nationalism emerge as conceptually different constructs,

each associated with different connotations of what it means to be a member of a national group.

With regard to American patriotism, Klein and Ettenson (1999) found it to be associated with higher levels of collective animosity toward Japan. Patriotism was captured using a one-item measure by asking respondents: "How strong is your love for your country?" on a 4 point scale with 1= not very strong and 4=extremely strong. In Klein and Ettenson (1999) respondents responded to a dichotomous measure of collective animosity. The following question was asked: "Which of the following statements comes closer to you opinion: (1) Japanese companies are competing unfairly with American companies, or (2) the Unites States is blaming Japan for its own economic problems" (Klein and Ettenson 1999, p. 15).. The wording of this measure is very similar to the wording used in the items used to measure economic-based collective animosity in Klein's (2002) study. This statement measures the reason the negative feelings may be held, but not the feelings per se.

Nationalism was also found to lead to higher levels of collective animosity (Shoham et al. 2006). Shoham et al. (2006) studied the collective animosity that Jewish Israelis felt toward Arab Israelis as a result of events that occurred during the second Arab Intifada (uprising), during which Israeli Arabs joined the Palestinians in violent demonstrations against Israel. Shoham et al. (2006) found that Jewish Israeli consumers with higher levels of nationalism tended to harbor lower levels of collective animosity toward Arab Israelis.

Internationalism

Another key construct that explains people's attitudes toward other countries and their citizens is internationalism. Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) found that in contrast to nationalism, which reflects a desired dominance of one's country over other countries, internationalism reflects a positive attitude toward other countries. Internationalism focuses on "international sharing and welfare, and reflects an empathy for the peoples of other countries" (Kosterman and Feshbach 1989, p. 271). People that scored high on internationalism possess "positive feelings for other nations and their people and an open-mindedness and acceptance concerning other nations and cultures (Balabanis et al. 2001, p. 158). Shoham et al. (2006) found that Jewish Israeli consumers with higher levels of internationalism tended to harbor lower levels of collective animosity toward Arab Israelis.

In a later study, Russell and Russell (2006) found that when the salience of national identity was manipulated, French students tended to experience higher levels of collective animosity. Russell and Russell (2006) exposed French respondents to either French or American cultural symbols (e.g., flags, cartoons, landmarks) to manipulate the salience of the national identity. Respondents exposed to the American symbols were more likely to be attuned to their national identity, as opposed to respondents who were exposed to the French symbols. The respondents who were more attuned to their national identity (i.e., those exposed to American symbols) experienced higher levels of collective animosity compared to those who were exposed to the French symbols.

Similarly, it is expected that American consumers will react differently to negative acts by other nations depending on their level of identification. When American

consumers are faced with threatening information about their in-group, those who are not highly identified with being an American will tend to experience lower levels of collective animosity and higher levels of collective guilt. This is due to disassociation with the in-group. Those that highly identify with being an American, however, will tend to experience higher levels of collective animosity and lower levels of collective guilt. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

H5: National identity will be negatively associated with the collective guilt experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.

H6: National identity will be positively associated with the collective animosity experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.

One may argue that when being an American is a self-relevant social identity, it will lead those American's to denigrate products from other countries. It is argued, however, that commitment ignites in-group favoritism, and that in-group bias does not simultaneously imply out-group derogation (Hewstone, Rubin, and Willis 2002). Hewstone, Rubin, and Willis (2002) contend that studies that have found negative out-group effects have captured such effects through the absence of positive sentiments, not the presence of strong, negative attitudes. It is also contended that out-group derogation will depend on the meaning or ideology that individuals attach to group memberships (Hewstone, Rubin, and Willis 2002). A previously noted, the constructs of patriotism and nationalism emerge as conceptually different constructs, and each is associated with different appraisals of what it means to be a member of a national group. Patriotism refers to feeling attached to one's nation, while nationalism refers to the view that one's country is superior and should dominate others. This is consistent with the work of Verlegh (2007) who found that identification with being an American does not lead to the

derogation of Japanese products. National identification, therefore, does not necessarily negatively impact judgments of products produced by other groups. Because national identification implies emotional attachment with one's country, however, it is expected to lead to higher preferences for domestic products over foreign products. This is not because of a negative attitude toward out-groups, but rather the in-group bias that people with high levels of national identification exhibit. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H7: National identity will be negatively associated with the preference for a Japanese product over a U.S. product.

In marketing, a construct similar to national identity is consumer ethnocentrism, which has received considerable attention when studying the effects of consumers' national sentiments on their perceptions of and purchase intentions for domestic and foreign products. Essentially, consumer ethnocentrism deals with the effect of national favoritism on foreign product purchase (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Consumer ethnocentrism, therefore, is defined as the morality of buying foreign products. It has been found that consumers that score high on ethnocentrism are less willing to buy foreign products and further that they judge these products to be of lower quality (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998). Consumer ethnocentrism is not a direct measure of group identification, but instead taps into the perception that purchasing foreign products is immoral because it harms the local economy.

Moral Identity

Thus far, it has been suggested that national identity promotes stereotyping and negative emotions toward out-groups. Aquino et al. (2005) suggest that because a person's self concept is fragmented into several identities, these identities may have

different implications for scope of justice and sense of moral regard. Scope of justice refers to "the moral rules and values governing people's conduct toward others and the extent to which they care about their rights and fair treatment" (Aquino et al. 2005, p. 131). An identity can either contract or expand an individual's scope of justice or sense of moral regard for others. For example, a U.S. identity may expand the scope of justice toward those who are perceived as U.S. citizens, but may exclude those who are not perceived as U.S. citizens. Moral regard, justice, and care may thus be extended toward, American businesses, products, hospitals, and so forth. Aquino et al. (2005) give an example of a Caucasian identity fostering a negative attitude toward an organizational policy that disadvantages Caucasians as a racial group, while providing benefits to other minority groups. This an example of an identity that restricts the scope of concern to only Caucasians. The dueling or counter identity, they suggest, is "the moral identity." A person with a moral identity is defined as "...one for whom moral schemas are chronically available, readily primed, and easily activated for information processing" (Lapsley and Lasky, 2001, p. 347). Moral identity will cause individuals to retrieve a positive attitude toward the same organizational policy, because it expands a person's moral regard to include not only Caucasians, but other people as well.

In a similar manner, this dissertation will examine two dueling identities. The identity hypothesized to restrict one's moral regard for others is national identity. A highly important national identity is hypothesized to extend one's moral regard toward citizens of one's own nation and exclude citizens of other nations from one's moral regard. Countering this will be the moral identity, which is hypothesized to expand the same individual's moral regard to other individuals that are not citizens of one's nation.

Similar to SRI, it is argued here that national identity will foster feelings of collective animosity, because it restricts the scope of justice. In contrast, moral identity will foster feelings of collective guilt because it expands the scope of justice toward others.

Aquino and Reed (2002) developed the first measure of moral identity. They grounded it in social identity theory, where moral identity was conceptualized as the degree to which individuals possessed traits commonly identified as moral. Moral identity according to their conceptualization does not refer to a particular referent. That referent may differ from one person to another and could be an abstracted ideal (e.g., God), a group (e.g., The Red Cross), or an individual (e.g., Ghandi). The measure taps into the extent of the self-importance of moral identity, where an identity's self-importance refers to the strength of association with a particular identity. Across two studies, Aquino and Reed (2002) found that the self-importance of moral identity explained past volunteering activities (Study 5) and actual donation behavior (Study 6). Reed and Acquino (2003) found that moral identity influenced inter-group hostility because its self-importance helped expand the logical boundaries that define in-group membership. They found that a self-important moral identity was associated with expanding ones' moral regard toward people from other countries, strangers, people who practice different religions, and people from different ethnicities (Study 1). They also found that the self-importance of a moral identity helped explain donation behavior toward an out-group, even if it was assumed that the out-group committed a transgression against the in-group. For example, U.S. respondents' moral identity explained their donation behavior toward Afghan women and children despite the perception that Afghans were involved in the September 11 attacks on the U.S. The U.S. respondents

were more likely to forgive the Afghans and replace the negative emotions they held toward them with positive emotions (Reed and Aquino 2003).

In the realm of emotions, it was shown that when moral identity was primed (Aquino et al. 2007), it was able to neutralize the negative effect of moral disengagement on the experience of negative emotions (distress, guilty, shame, upset). Moral disengagement refers to the psychological processes that enable a person to exclude negative conduct from the domain of morality. Moral identity was primed by exposing individuals to a series of words that describe a moral person. Individuals who were exposed to a moral identity prime were less likely to rationalize questionable behavior, thereby exposing them to the experience of negative emotions (Aquino et al. 2007).

Thus, it is proposed that moral identity will positively impact the experience of collective guilt, because it expands the boundaries of one's moral regard for others. It is also proposed that a moral identity will be associated with lower levels of collective animosity, as it also leads to including the Japanese with one's moral regard.

H8: Moral identity will be positively associated with the collective guilt experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.

H9: Moral identity will be negatively associated with the animosity experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

In the previous chapters, this dissertation introduced the conceptual model and presented the literature regarding the several constructs. This chapter proposes a research design for testing the model, along with a discussion of the different measures employed.

Research Design

It is recognized here that a research design is not purely experimental or non-experimental in nature (Spector 1981). According to Spector (1981), "the experimental/non-experimental distinction represents two ends of a continuum rather than two distinct types" (p. 9). This distinction usually depends on the degree of control the researcher desires. To achieve this level of control, experimental designs usually involve manipulating subjects (people or social events) or conditions (events or situations). This research design is considered experimental because respondents in this study were assigned to different conditions. This study used a between-subjects design, whith respondents randomly assigned one of three conditions (two treatment groups and a baseline group).

Participants and Procedure

A professional marketing research firm collected the data for this study from a consumer panel. A consumer panel in this context refers to a pool of consumers in the United States who have signed up with a professional marketing research firm to participate in consumer surveys in exchange for an incentive. These consumers are called panel members. Panel members have signed up with the marketing research firm of their own free will via the company's website. Once a panel member signs up, he/she is sent invitations via email to participate in online consumer surveys. Panel members are not

obligated to participate in any particular number of the surveys, and those who elect to participate in a survey receive an incentive such as monetary compensation or a chance to participate in a sweepstakes contest.

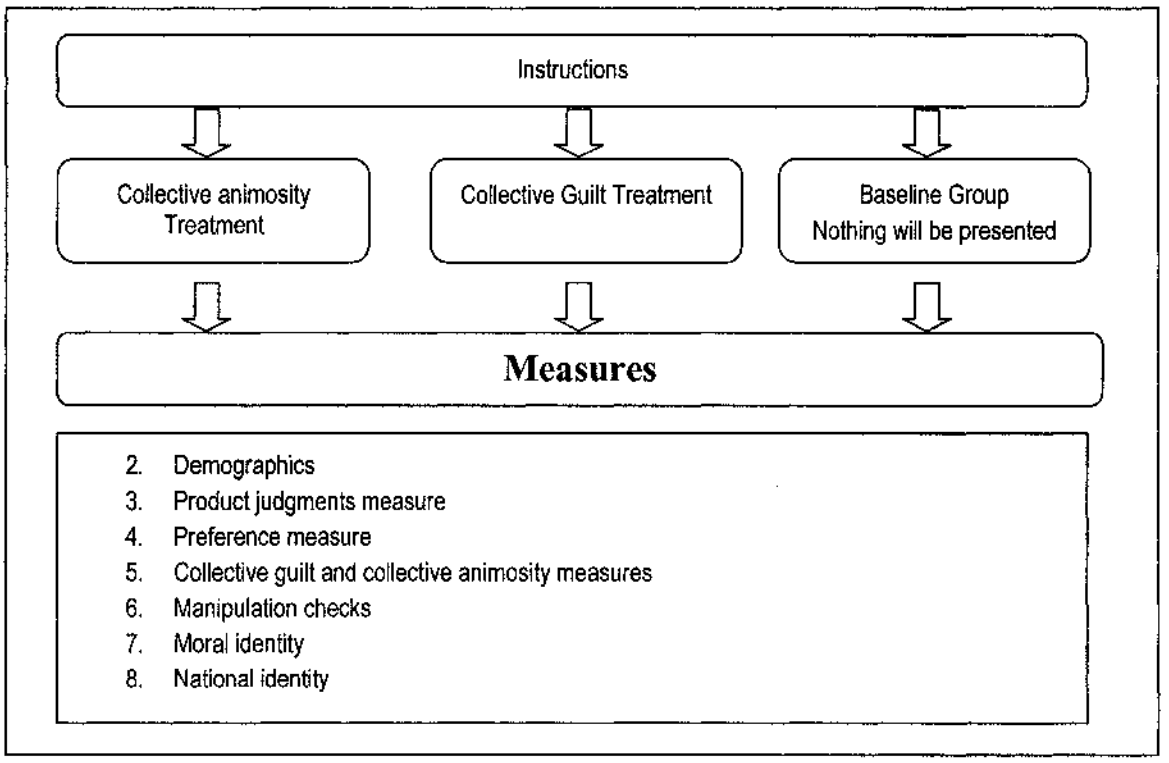
In this study, the professional marketing firm sent an invitation via email to members of a consumer panel to complete the questionnaire. The email included information about the nature of the study, the time it takes to complete the study and the reward they receive for completing the study. For this study, the subjects were told that the study related to foreign product perceptions; that the questionnaire would take 20 minutes to complete; and that the reward was a chance to participate in a $25,000 sweepstakes contest. Subjects who elected to participate were forwarded to the online questionnaire and were randomly assigned to one of three conditions.

In each of the treatment conditions, respondents were primed with a historical depiction of negative events perpetrated by the Americans against the Japanese in the collective guilt (CG) condition or the Japanese against the Americans in the collective animosity (AN) condition (refer to appendix G for the manipulations). These historical depictions were intended to lead to high levels of appraised harm; lower levels of justification for the harm committed; and higher levels of group responsibility for the harm inflicted. This approach is consistent with the literature on collective guilt, wherein different aspects of history are manipulated to examine its impact on the subsequent experience of emotion (e.g., Doosje et al. 1998; Iyer, Schmader, and Lickel 2007; Johns, Schamder, and Lickel 2005). In the baseline (BL) group, participants did not receive any treatment and were not primed with any historical depictions. A total of 900 responses

were collected, 300 respondents from each condition. The demographic characteristics of the sample will be discussed in chapter four.

The various measures were then administered in the following order: (1) the product judgments measure; (2) the preference measures; (3) the collective guilt and collective animosity measures; (4) the manipulation checks; and finally, (5) the identity measures. This order was employed in attempt to reduce any potential bias that may occur in product judgments or preference if respondents were first primed with the collective animosity, collective guilt, and identity questions. The procedures are outlined in Figure 3-1, and the questionnaire (excluding the manipulations) is shown in Appendix H.

Figure 3-1: Procedure and Questionnaire Layout



Conceptualization and Operationalization

This section presents how the constructs in the model was operationalized. First, the different measures capturing consumers' preferences for and judgments of Japanese products are presented. Next, measures for the different antecedent variables are identified. Finally, the results of a pilot study are presented as a basis for selecting items for collective guilt and collective animosity.

Dependent Variables

Preference Measure

The preference for a Japanese product over a product from another country was assessed as the dependent variable. Two countries, the United States and South Korea, were selected. The United States is of interest because the model was tested on U.S. respondents. It was of interest, therefore, to examine if collective guilt would extend to preference over domestic products. South Korea was selected because it has been used in previous studies of collective animosity (Klein 2002). Klein (2002) selected South Korea because it is a country toward which U.S. consumers do not harbor animosity. Therefore there were two dependent preference measures. One measure assessed the preference for a Japanese product over a U.S. product, while the other measure assessed the preference for a Japanese product over a South Korean product. The preference measure was adopted from Klein (2002), who constructed a two-item preference measure (refer to Appendix B). Klein (2002) found that the preference items in each measure were significantly correlated (r=.45 for Japan/South Korea and r=.42 for Japan/U.S.). Klein (2002) selected South Korea because it is a country toward which U.S. consumers do not harbor animosity nor toward whom they feel guilt.

Product Judgments

This measure captures respondents' quality perceptions of Japanese products. A measure adapted by Klein, Morris, and Ettenson (1998) from other studies (Darling and Arnold 1988; Darling and Wood 1990; Wood and Darling 1993) was used. The measure has been used in virtually every empirical study of collective animosity (e.g., Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998; Klein 2002; Ettenson and Klein 2005). Respondents are asked to indicate the extent of their agreement (with 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree") with six statements regarding the quality of Japanese products. The attributes of quality included in this measure are: (1) workmanship, (2) technological advancement, (3) quality, (4) reliability, (5) design, and (6) value for money (refer to Appendix A). In previous international studies of collective animosity, the reliability of the construct has ranged from 0.73 to 0.84 (Ettenson and Klein 2005; Klein 2002; Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Shin 2001). Although reliability is not high, it is still higher than the minimum acceptable level of 0.70 pointed out by Nunnally (1971) and Hair et al. (1998).

Antecedent Variables

Moral Identity

Moral identity captures the extent to which being a moral person is important to the individual (Aquino and Reed 2002). The measure used in this research was developed by Aquino and Reed (2002), which was the first measure of moral identity developed in the social psychology literature (refer to Appendix C). This measure first invokes a moral identity by presenting respondents with a series of traits that are intended to describe a moral person. Respondents are then asked to rate a series of statements that measure the

self importance of these traits. The statements were written to reflect the private and public aspects of the self, which is a long-standing social psychology tradition (Aquino and Reed 2002). A person's private self is "characterized by distinct processes of introspection to one's inner thoughts and feelings" (p. 1427), while a person's public self reflects "a general sensitivity to the self as a social object that has an effect on others" (p. 1427). After a series of scale refinements, the final scale consisted of two components. The first component consisted of five items that reflect the degree to which "the traits are reflected in the respondent's actions in the world" (p. 1427), and is called the symbolization dimension. The second component consisted of five items, which reflect "the degree to which the moral traits are central of the self-concept" (p. 1427), and is called the internalization dimension. The measure has been validated across several studies and both the internalization component (.70 - .90) and the symbolization component (.69 - .85) have been found to exhibit adequate reliabilities (Table 3-1).

Table 3-1 : Reliabilities of the Moral Identity Dimensions

	Dimension	
Articles	Internalization	Symbolization
Aquino and Reed (2002) 5 Studies	.70 - .83	.69 - .85
Reed, Aquino and Levy (2007) 3 Studies	.70 - .86	.76 - .85
Reed and Aquino (2003) 4 Studies	.85 - .90	.71 - .81
Acquino, Reed, Tahu and Freeman (2006)	.85	NA
Aquino, Reed and Lim (2007) 2 Studies	.78 - .82	NA

This research used only the internalization component to tap into a person's moral identity. This approach is not novel and is consistent with previous studies (Aquino et al. 2006, Aquino, Reed, and Lim 2007). In contrast to the symbolization component, the internalization dimension has been found to significantly predict moral concern for others

(Reed and Aquino 2003). It is also considered a better predictor of a variety of morally-related cognitions and behaviors that are less likely to be susceptible to social desirability concerns (Aquino and Reed 2002). The symbolization dimension correlates more with outcome measures that have a self-representational or public impression component. For example, the symbolization dimension is related to self-reported donation measures (Aquino and Reed 2002, Study 5), but not to actual donation behavior (Aquino and Reed 2002, Study 6). Unlike the internalization dimensions, the symbolization dimension is related to impression management (Aquino and Reed 2002, Study 5).

National Identity

The most appropriate measure for this research would be one that taps into the affective significance of being American. Studies have shown that affective measures, in contract to cognitive measusres, are more likely to predict in-group bias (Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Ellemers, Kortekaas, Ouwerkerk 1999). Different scales in the literature have frequently bestowed different labels on the same scales (Ashmore, Deaux, and McLaughlin-Volpe 2004); therefore, the individual items of several scales ensure that the scale captured the group's emotional significance for the individual. After reviewing the items that comprise the different identification scales, this author selected the national identity scale used by Reed and Aquino (2003) (refer to appendix D). This scale exhibits adequate reliability (α=.83) in Reed and Aquino (2003).

Manipulation Checks

Group responsibility, the magnitude of the harm, and the justification of the harm perpetrated by both the Japanese and Americans were assessed using the items listed in Appendix E. The items in the appendix reflect the appraisals of negative events

committed by either the Japanese or Americans during World War II against one another. The item for appraising harm was adapted from previous studies (Doosje et al. 1998; Falomir-Pichastor et al. 2005). The items (5 items) for appraising illegitimacy were adapted from Falomir-Pichastor et al. (2005) and Quigly and Tedeschi (1996). Finally, the items (3items) for appraising group responsibility were adapted from Quigly and Tedeschi (1996). Another 3 items, referred to as combined appraisals in appendix E, were also used as manipulation checks. The first item combined the appraisal of the harm committed against the Japanese and against the Americans during World War 2 in one item. This item attempted to capture the extent to which respondents perceived the harm committed during World War 2 to be greater for the Americans or Japanese. The second item combined the justification of the harm committed against the Japanese and against the Americans during World War 2 in one item. This item attempted to capture the extent to which respondents perceived the justification of the harm committed during World War 2 to be greater for the Americans or Japanese. The third item combined the assignment of the responsibility committed against the Japanese and against the Americans during World War 2 in one item. This item attempted to capture the extent to which respondents perceived the responsibility of the harm committed during World War 2 to be greater for the Americans or Japanese.

Results of a Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to determine whether eliciting collective animosity and collective guilt is possible. A questionnaire was administered to 21 students. The students received a treatment to evoke both collective animosity and collective guilt (Appendix F). Next, they were asked the following open-ended question: "When reading

this scenario, what feelings did you experience toward the Japanese?" Next, the students responded to the following scales: (1) product preferences, (2) product judgments, (3) collective guilt, and finally, (4) collective animosity. The open-ended question revealed that respondents experienced several emotions other than guilt. The emotions most frequently mentioned in response to the plight of the victims at Hiroshima and Nagasaki were sympathy, sorrow, remorse, sorry, and sadness. The emotions most frequently mentioned in response to the attack at Pearl Harbor were collective animosity, hatred, and anger. Thus, it seems that the measure proposed captures collective animosity to a certain degree. It also is evident, however, that sympathy and empathy are experienced more frequently than collective guilt.

Another purpose of this pilot study was to provide a preliminary examination of the relationships between the collective animosity, collective guilt, and the preference measures. Feelings of collective animosity and collective guilt were low. Although these feelings were low in intensity (Table 3-2), they explained the respondents' intention to purchase Japanese products versus products from the U.S. and South Korean. Collective animosity and collective guilt both explained the preference for Japanese products over U.S. and South Korean products (Table 3-3). Quality evaluations (product judgments), however, influenced only the preference measure for Japanese over U.S. products (Table 3-3).

Table 3-2: Correlation Matrix and Descriptive Statistics

	Japan vs. South Korea	Japan vs. United States	Collective animosity	Collective Guilt	Product Judgments
Japan vs. South Korea	1	.692**	-.511**	.257	.174
Japan vs. United States		1	-.388*	.339	.184
Collective animosity			1	.269	-0.76
Collective Guilt				1	-.412*
Product Judgments					1
Mean	4.67	3.89	1.31	1.49	4.64
SD	1.36	1.67	.58	.61	1.35
Reliability	.864**	.854**	.965	.75	.909

**Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3-3: Regressions

	Dependent Variables					
	Product Judgments		*Japan vs. South Korea*		*Japan vs. United States*	
Independent Variables	**Beta**	**Sig.**	**Beta**	**Sig.**	**Beta**	**Sig.**
Product Judgments	--	--	.363	.061	.411	.043
Collective animosity	.037	.870	-.638	.002	-.531	.008
Collective Guilt	-.422	.075	.578	.007	.651	.004
R^2		.171		.537		.502

Intergroup Emotions

Collective Guilt

Measures of intergroup emotions have predominantly adopted one of three approaches. Under the first approach, respondents are asked to indicate how much they agree with a set of statements regarding the extent to which a person experiences a certain emotion in response to certain events that have either been committed by their own group or committed by other groups. Swim and Miller (1999) used this approach

when they studied the guilt that Caucasian Americans felt toward African Americans (Table 3-4). A disadvantage with this approach is that it may confuse the emotion with the appraisals that lead to the elicitation of the emotion (Riefler and Diamantopolous 2007).

Table 3-4: White Guilt Scale

1. Although I feel my behavior is typically nondiscriminatory towards Blacks, I still feel guilt due to my association with the White race
2. I feel guilty about the past and present social inequality of Black Americans (i.e., slavery, poverty)
3. I do not feel guilty about social inequality between White and Black Americans (R)
4. When I learn about racism, I fell guilty due to my association with the White race
5. I feel guilt about the benefits and privileges that I receive as a white American

From: Swim, Janet K. and Deborah L. Miller (1999), "White Guilt: Its Antecedents and Consequences for Attitudes Toward Affirmative Action," Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25(4), 500-514

Under the second and third approaches, respondents are exposed to a scenario that describes certain events that have been committed either by members of their own group or committed by members of other groups. They are then asked to respond to a measure of intergroup emotions. The second approach explicitly refers to the events in the vignette, and then asks respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree that these events have led them to experience certain emotions. A potential problem with this approach is that it may impose onto the respondents the essentiality of the association between the events (the elicitor) and the emotion. Doosje et al. (1998) adopted this approach in measuring the guilt that the Dutch felt toward the Indonesians for atrocities committed by the Dutch government during its occupation of Indonesia (Table 3-5). In this study, respondents were first presented with a vignette that described events that happened during the Dutch occupation of Indonesia, and were then asked to respond to a scale intended to tap into feelings of collective guilt (Table 3-5).

Table 3-5: Collective Guilt Scale

1)	I feel guilty about the negative things the Dutch have done to the Indonesians
2)	I feel regret for the harmful past actions of the Dutch towards the Indonesians
3)	I can easily feel guilty about the bad outcomes received by the Indonesians which were brought about the Dutch in the past
4)	I feel regret for the things that the Dutch did to the Indonesians in the past

From: *Doosje, Bertjan E., Nyla R. Branscombe, Russell Spears, and Antony S. R. Manstead (1998), "Guilt by Association: When One's Group Has a Negative History," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75 (4), 872-86.*

The third approach refers to the vignette in a less explicit fashion by asking respondents to indicate the extent to which they felt certain emotions when they read the vignette. Iyer, Schmader, and Lickel (2007) adopted this approach when they studied Americans' emotional responses regarding the war situation in Iraq. First, respondents were presented with a vignette that described the Americans' negative impact on Iraq and the Iraqi's responses to these events. Next, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt guilty, ashamed, and angry about the situation in Iraq.

The present research used this third approach. Respondents were asked: "Please indicate the extent to which you feel the following emotions toward Japan" using a scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 9 (extremely). This question was asked after respondents answered questions about their judgments of and preferences for Japanese products. Items used to measure guilt were adopted from previous research studying guilt in intergroup contexts. Following previous research (Leach, Iyer, and Pedersen 2006; Lickel et al. 2005; Iyer, Schmader, and Lickel 2007) three items were used to assess collective guilt (guilty, remorseful, regretful). These are the three emotional descriptors most commonly used to measure collective guilt (Appendix H).

Table 3-6: Emotional Descriptors commonly used for Guilt

Study	Guilt	Remorse	Regret	Blameworthy	Sorry	Shame	Responsible	Reliability
Lickel et al. 2005		X	X					.76
Iyer, Leach and Crosby (2003)	X		X					.85
Powell, Bransocmbe and Schmitt (2005)	X		X					.87-.88
Johns, Schamder and Lickel (2005)	X	X	X					.79
McGarty et al. (2005)	X		X					.79
Iyer, Schamder and Lickel (2007)	X	X	X					.87
Miron, Branscombe and Schmitt (2006)	X			X				.62-.80
Pennekamp et al. (2007)								
Dossje et al. (2006)	X		X					.84
Maitner, Mackie and Smith (2007)	X		X		X			.81
Leach, Iyer and Pedersen (2006): study2	X	X	X	X		X	X	.91
Leach, Iyer and Pedersen (2006): study1						X		NA
Swim and Miller 1999	X							.87

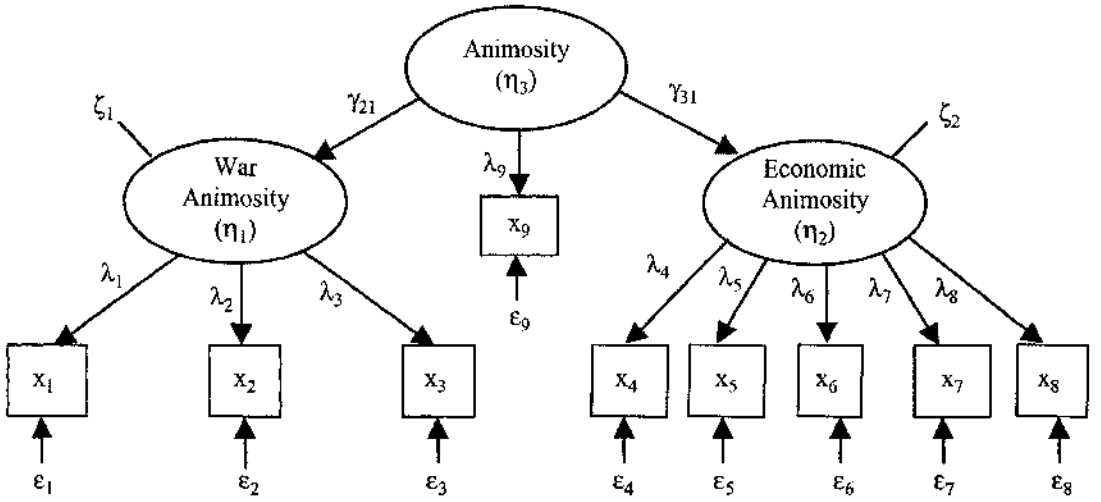
X = denotes that the descriptor was used in the study to measure guilt

Collective Animosity

The seminal study on consumer collective animosity (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998), conceptualized three types of collective animosity. These three measures included a general measure of collective animosity with one item: "I dislike the Japanese,"; a measure of economic-based collective animosity incorporating five items; and a measure of war-based collective animosity incorporating three items. General collective animosity was modeled as a first order construct with war-based and economic-based collective animosity as second order constructs (Figure 3-2). This approach was initially adopted by studies of collective animosity (Klein, Ettenson and Morris 1998; Klein 2002; Shin 2001;Witowski 2000), but most subsequent studies have not used the general measure of collective animosity. Instead, they have resorted to measuring the direct impact of the

components of collective animosity (e.g., war-based and economic-based collective animosity) on subsequent consequences.

Figure 3-2: The Original Collective animosity Measurement Model



From: *Klein, Jill Gabrielle, Richard Ettenson, and Marlene D. Morris (1998), "The Collective animosity Model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical Test in the People's Republic of China," Journal of Marketing, 62 (1), 89.*

Collective animosity was measured in a manner consistent with the measurement of guilt. This is an approach that has not been adopted in the collective animosity literature, but is nevertheless justified. The collective animosity literature has called for additional research to distinguish between the reasons that underlie collective animosity and the intensity of collective animosity as an emotion (Riefler and Diamantopolous 2007). Riefler and Diamantopolous (2007) suggest that existing measures of collective animosity do not make such a distinction. For example, when measuring war-based collective animosity Klein (2002), uses items like "I still feel angry toward Japan because of World War II". This item may be problematic because it combines the feeling of anger (i.e., collective animosity) with the reasons for experiencing that anger. In line with this

approach, the intensity of collective animosity was captured by asking respondents to express the extent to which they feel collective animosity after reading the vignette.

Identifying the items that would most closely resemble collective animosity, however, is a challenge. Existing definitions of collective animosity were first examined from a face validity perspective. Next, the existing measures of collective animosity were examined to determine the emotional descriptors used to tap into collective animosity. The descriptors are identified in Table 3-7.

Table 3-7: Emotional Descriptors used to Measure Collective animosity

Type	Source	Definition	Face Validity Perspective	Measurement Perspective
Dictionary Definitions	Merriam-Webster	Ill will or resentment tending toward active hostility; an antagonistic attitude	Resentment, Ill Well	
	American Heritage Dictionary	A hostile feeling or act	Hostile	
Studies of Collective animosity in Marketing and Psychology	Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998)	The remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events		Dislike, Angry
	Klein(2002)	The anger or hate expressed towards other countries		Like, Dislike, Angry
	Jung et al. (2003)	The emotional antagonism that is felt towards a specific entity	Contempt, anger and disgust	Angry, Upset, Resent
Studies of other moral emotions	Fiske et al. (2002)	Contemptuous prejudice		Anger, Hatred, Disgust, Contempt, Resentment

Based on the pilot study, studies of anger (Table 3-7), and Shaver et al.'s (1987) study on the prototypes of emotion, a six-item measure was constructed to tap into collective animosity (Appendix H).

Method of Analysis

The data was analyzed using a variety of statistical techniques. Exploratory factor analysis was run to assess underlying latent structure of the different emotions. The data was subjected to Structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis using maximum likelihood estimation to test the overall fit of the model, and to test the model's causal links. A key advantage of SEM relevant to this research is that it enables researchers to determine whether the data collected fits the model that has been specified *a priori* (Byrne 2001; Kline 1998). SEM allows for testing both the hypothesized relationships between the different constructs and the indicators used to measure them (Byrne 2001; Kline 1998). To accomplish this, SEM incorporates a variety of statistical techniques, including path analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Kline 1998).

Chapter 4: Results of the Study

This chapter discusses the results obtained from the data analysis. First, the sampling and data is presented. Next, the manipulation checks are conducted, followed by a discussion of the analysis techniques used. Finally, the results of the various hypotheses are tested.

Data Collection and Respondent Profile

A total of 900 surveys were administered through an online consumer panel. The surveys were collected by a marketing research agency. An invitation was sent to panel members via an email to participate in the study. Once they accepted the invitation, they were taken to the online survey, and were randomly assigned to one of the three conditions. Respondents were compensated for their participation in the survey by entering a sweepstakes contest. Three hundred surveys for each experimental condition were completed. Because one of the purposes of this study is to determine whether collective guilt exists among citizens of a country, the authors exclude participants who are not born in the U.S.. The authors felt that non-U.S. born participants may be naturalized and therefore the construct would not make sense to them. Out of the 900 participants, 29 were not born in the United States (eight in the BL condition, eight in the AN condition, and thirteen in the CG condition) and were thus excluded. Another 29 responses were removed due to extremeness (Nunnally 1970). These respondents either spent less than 2 minutes on the questionnaire or chose the midpoint of the scales for all of the questions. The final sample included 276 surveys assigned to the CG condition, 280 assigned to the AN condition, and 280 assigned to the BL condition.

The sample demographics are depicted in Table 4-1. There seems to be no major differences between the three experimental conditions regarding demographics. Although the majority of the respondents were female (58.5%), there were no significant differences in gender (X^2 =2.458, p =.293) or in age (F=.576, p =.562) across the three conditions. There was a significant difference in income across the three different conditions (X2 =27.936, p =.015); however, income was not expected to effect any of the variables in the model. There were also no significant differences in marital status (X2 =3.430, p =.905). A chi-square test of significant differences in education and ethnicity were not possible due to cell sizes of less than five, but a cursory examination revealed that the three experimental conditions are comparable across these variables.

Table 4-1: Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	Entire Sample		CG		BL		AN	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Gender								
Male	347	41.5	125	45.3	110	39.3	112	40.0
Female	489	58.5	151	54.7	170	60.7	168	60.0
Age								
18-24	38	4.5	13	4.7	10	3.6	15	5.4
25-34	271	32.4	80	29.0	93	33.2	98	35.0
35-44	141	16.9	51	18.5	42	15.0	48	17.1
45-54	184	22.0	59	21.4	67	23.9	58	20.7
55-64	123	14.7	45	16.3	43	15.4	35	12.5
65+	79	9.4	28	10.1	25	8.9	26	9.3
Average age*	43.59	---	44.27	---	43.56		42.94	---
Education								
Less than high school	9	1.1	1	.4	5	1.8	3	1.1
High school	189	22.6	52	18.8	63	22.5	73	26.1
Some college	350	41.9	125	45.3	124	44.3	101	36.1
4-year college	168	20.1	60	21.7	48	17.1	60	21.4
Graduate Degree	97	11.6	32	11.6	34	12.1	31	11.1
Other education	23	2.8	6	2.2	6	2.1	12	4.3
Annual Household Income								
Under $25,000	127	15.2	35	12.7	50	17.9	42	15.0
$25,000 to $39,000	169	20.2	51	18.5	51	18.2	67	23.9
$40,000 to $54,999	148	17.7	48	17.4	65	23.2	35	12.5
$55,000 to $69,000	98	11.7	31	11.2	27	9.6	40	14.3
$70,000 to $84,999	89	10.6	38	13.8	27	9.6	24	8.6
$85,000 to $ 99,999	42	5.0	9	3.3	14	5.0	19	6.8
More than $100,000	98	11.7	38	13.8	27	9.6	33	11.8
Refused to answer	65	7.8	26	9.4	19	6.8	20	7.1
Ethnicity								
White	727	87.0	241	87.3	246	87.9	240	85.7
Black/African American	49	5.9	14	5.1	20	7.1	15	5.4
Asian	16	1.9	7	2.5	4	1.4	5	1.8
Hispanic	22	2.6	8	2.9	6	2.1	8	2.9
Other	22	2.6	6	2.2	4	1.4	12	4.3
Marital Status								
Married	444	53.1	145	52.5	151	53.9	148	52.9
Single	185	22.1	65	23.6	56	20.0	64	22.9
Widowed	24	2.9	8	2.9	8	2.9	8	2.9
Separated/Divorced	114	13.6	32	11.6	41	14.6	41	14.6
Living with a partner	69	8.3	26	9.4	24	8.6	19	6.8

* Age was collected as a continuous variable and categorized for reporting purposes

Manipulation Checks

Manipulations checks were conducted to determine whether the cognitive appraisals had been manipulated as intended (Table 4-2). These manipulation checks were necessary to determine whether the testing of hypotheses three and four is possible. In order to tests hypothesis three, subjects in the AN condition needed to perceive higher levels of harm committed against the Americans during World War II, Lower levels of justification for the harm committed against the Americans during World War II, and higher levels of responsibility assigned to the Japanese for the harm committed against the Americans during World War II, than subjects in either the BL or CG condition. In order to test hypothesis four, subjects in the CG condition needed to perceive higher levels of harm committed against the Japanese during World War II, lower levels of justification for the harm committed against the Japanese during World War II, higher levels of responsibility assigned to the Americans for the harm committed against the Japanese during World War II. An ANOVA was conducted to ascertain whether these differences existed across the three groups. The findings indicated a difference across the three groups for some of the manipulation checks.

Manipulations necessary for testing hypotheses three were not successful. This was supported by a lack of significant differences in the extent of the American harm ($F=1.90$, $p=0.150$); the justification of the American harm ($F=1.73$, $p=0.177$); and the Japanese responsibility regarding the harm committed ($F=.53$, $P=0.591$). The manipulations necessary for testing hypothesis four appeared to be successful. This was supported by a significant difference in the extent of the Japanese harm ($F=7.40$, $p=0.001$); the justification of the Japanese harm ($F=3.46$, $p=0.032$); and the American

responsibility for the harm committed (F=6.49, p=0.002) (Table 4-2). There were also significant differences across the three conditions regarding the extent of the harm (F=3.608, p =0.028) and the responsibility of the harm (F =4.707, p =0.009), but no significant differences regarding the responsibility of the harm (Japanese versus Americans) (F=4.707, p=.009). Further contrasts were conducted to determine the source of these differences (Table 4-3).

Table 4-2: Manipulation Checks: One Way ANOVA

Manipulation Check	Mean			F	Sig.
	AN (N=280)	CG (N=276)	BL (N=280)		
Collective Guilt Appraisals					
Extent of the Japanese harm	5.01	5.34	4.84	7.40	0.001**
Justification of the Japanese harm	3.38	3.64	3.30	3.46	0.032*
Americans responsibility for the harm committed	3.12	3.50	3.03	6.49	0.002**
Animosity Appraisals					
Extent of the American harm	5.50	5.28	5.33	1.90	0.150
Justification of the American harm	5.38	5.20	5.39	1.73	0.177
Japanese responsibility for the harm committed	5.19	5.06	5.12	0.53	0.591
Combined Appraisals					
Extent of the harm (Americans-Japanese)	3.96	4.3	4	3.608	.028*
Deservingness of the harm (Americans-Japanese)	5.06	4.85	4.99	2.200	.111
Responsibility of the harm (Japanese-Americans)	2.81	3.09	2.79	4.707	.009**

*Signficant at 0.05

** Signficant at .010

Again the contrasts revealed that the manipulations necessary for testing hypotheses three were not successful. The AN condition was not significantly different from the BL condition regarding the extent of the harm (t=.301, p=0.764) and the responsibility of the harm (t=-.643, p =0.52); the deservingness of the harm (t=- .197, p =.844); the extent of the Japanese harm (t=1.319, p=0.188); the extent of the American harm (t=1.410, p=0.159); justification of the Japanese harm (t=0.621, p=0.535); justification of the American harm (t=-0.067, p=0.947); the Japanese responsibility for

the harm committed (t=0.518, p =0.605); and the Americans' responsibility for the harm committed (t=0.640, p=0.522). Because none of the manipulation checks were successful regarding the AN condition, it was excluded from further analyses. It was possible to pool both the AN and BL conditions, but the authors feared that the historical depiction may have biased the respondents in this condition.

The contrasts also revealed that the manipulations necessary for testing hypothesis four were successful. As expected, the means of the collective guilt appraisals in the CG condition were significantly different from both the BL and the AN conditions. The CG condition differed from the BL condition regarding the extent of the Japanese harm (t=-3.791, p=0.000); the justification of the Japanese harm (t=-2.529, p=0.012); and the Americans' responsibility for the harm committed (t=-3.394, p=0.001). The means of the combined appraisals were also significantly different regarding the extent of the harm (t=-2.255, p=0.025) and the responsibility of the harm (t=-2.753, p =0.006). The CG condition differed from the AN condition regarding the extent of the Japanese harm (t=-3.791, p=0.000); the justification of the Japanese harm (t=-2.529, p=0.012); and the Americans' responsibility for the harm committed (t=-3.394, p=0.001). The means of the combined appraisals were also significantly different regarding the extent of the harm (t=-2.255, p=0.025),the responsibility of the harm (t=-2.753, p =0.006). Furthermore, there were no significant differences between the two groups with respect to the collective animosity appraisals. There were no significant difference regarding the deservingness of the harm (t=1.410, p =.159), the extent of the American harm (t=0.465, p=0.642), justification of the American harm (t=1.647, p=0.100), the Japanese responsibility for the harm committed (t=0.509, p =0.611) (Table 4-3).

Table 4-3: Manipulation Checks: Planned Contrasts

Contrast	Manipulation Check	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
AN,BL	**Collective Guilt Appraisals**		
	Extent of the Japanese harm	1.319	0.188
	Justification of the Japanese harm	0.621	0.535
	Americans responsibility for the harm committed	0.640	0.522
	Collective Animosity Appraisals		
	Extent of the American harm	1.410	0.159
	Justification of the American harm	-0.067	0.947
	Japanese responsibility for the harm committed	0.518	0.605
	Combined Appraisals		
	Extent of the harm	.301	.764
	Deservingness of the harm	-.643	.520
	Responsibility of the harm	-.197	.844
AN, CG	**Collective Guilt Appraisals**		
	Extent of the Japanese harm	-2.477	0.013*
	Justification of the Japanese harm	-1.907	0.057
	Americans responsibility for the harm committed	-2.756	0.006**
	Collective Animosity Appraisals		
	Extent of the American harm	1.871	0.062
	Justification of the American harm	1.580	0.115
	Japanese responsibility for the harm committed	1.025	0.306
	Combined Appraisals		
	Extent of the harm	-2.467	.014*
	Deservingness of the harm	2.051	.041*
	Responsibility of the harm	-2.557	.011*
BL, CG	**Collective Guilt Appraisals**		
	Extent of the Japanese harm	-3.791	0.000**
	Justification of the Japanese harm	-2.526	0.012*
	Americans responsibility for the harm committed	-3.394	0.001**
	Collective Animosity Appraisals		
	Extent of the American harm	0.465	0.642
	Justification of the American harm	1.647	0.100
	Japanese responsibility for the harm committed	0.509	0.611
	Combined Appraisals		
	Extent of the harm	-5.313	0.025*
	Deservingness of the harm	1.410	.159
	Responsibility of the harm	-2.753	.006**

*Signficant at 0.05

** Signficant at .010

Non-Response Bias

Armstrong and Overton's (1977) extrapolation technique, which showed that late respondents were similar to nonrespondents, was used to compare means between early and late respondents. Several independent sample t-tests between the two groups in both conditions for all of the constructs in the model were conducted. There were no significant differences in the BL condition. There were also no significant differences in the CG condition, with the exception of a significant difference in the collective guilt composite ($F=4.312$, $p=.039$). Therefore, the authors determined that there is insufficient evidence to confirm non-response bias.

Analysis and Results

Two statistical techniques were used to analyze the data. The first technique was structural equation modeling (SEM) using ML estimation. The second was partial least squares (PLS). The second technique was used as a robustness test, because several of the assumptions of SEM using ML were violated. The data was first analyzed using SEM.

Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

The two-step approach advocated by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) for testing structural equation modeling was used. This approach requires estimating and refining the measurement portion of the model before the testing of the structural portion of the model. The measurement model "specifies how measured variables are logically and systematically represent constructs involved in the theoretical model" (Hair et al. 2006, p. 774). The structural model is a "set of one or more dependence relationships linking the hypothesized model's constructs" (Hair et al. 2006, p. 710).

This two-step approach enables researchers to provide a more comprehensive test of construct validity (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). Construct validity "is the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure" (Hair et al. 2006). Construct validity is important because it assesses the accuracy of measurement. Construct validity has four components. These four components are (1) convergent validity, (2) discriminant validity, (3) nomological validity, and (4) face validity. The first three components are subject to estimation using statistical techniques, while face validity relies only on the researcher's judgment (Hair et al. 2006).

In the first step, the measurement model allows for the testing of both the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the constructs in the model (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Hair et al. 2006). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is the statistical technique used to assess the measurement portion of the model (Hair et al. 2006).Once adequate convergent validity and discriminant validity have been established, testing the structural model provides an assessment of nomological validity (Anderson and Gerbing 1988).

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity assesses "the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated" (Hair et al 2006, p. 137). In CFA, evidence of convergent validity exists when a high level of shared common variance exists among the different indicators of a construct (Hair et al. 2006). There are several ways to assess convergent validity. Convergent validity is assessed by examining the standardized factor loadings of each indicator on the construct on which it loads. The factor loadings should be statistically

significant at a minimum (Anderson and Gerbing 1998). Hair et al. (2006), however, recommends standardized factor loadings of at least 0.5 or higher, ideally 0.7 or higher.

The average percentage of variance extracted (AVE) is another measure of convergent validity, proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). AVE is computed as the total of all squared standardized factor loadings (squared multiple correlations), divided by the number of items that represent the factor. AVE of 0.5 or higher indicates higher convergent validity. A value lower than 0.5 indicates that less than 50% of the variance in the indicators is captured by the construct, and that more than 50% of the error is due to measurement problems

Reliability was also evaluated using two methods. Cronbach's alpha and the composite reliability suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) were estimated for all of the constructs, with 0.7 used as the cutoff point recommended by Nunnally (1971). The following is the equation for the composite reliability:

$$(\sum \text{standardized loading})^2 / ((\sum \text{standardized loading})^2 + \sum \epsilon_j)$$

The standardized loadings are obtained directly from the program output; and ϵj is the measurement error for each indicator. The measurement error is 1.0 minus the square of the indicator's standardized loading.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is the "extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs" (Hair et al. 2006, p. 778). Discriminant validity is assessed by comparing the AVE for each construct to the squared correlation between the construct and every other construct in the model (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The AVE of any construct should exceed the squared correlation between it and any other construct. The

rational is that the variance shared between any construct and its indicators should exceed the variance between it and any other construct (Hair et al. 2006).

Issues to consider when employing Structural Equation Modeling

There are certain issues to consider when employing SEM. These issues include (1) the violations of multivariate normality, (2) sample size, (3) the fit indices to be used to evaluate the fit of the model, and finally, (4) the invariance of the measurement model across the two different conditions (BL, CG). Each of these is discussed in the next paragraphs.

Multivariate Normality

Most estimation procedures commonly employed in SEM, such as maximum likelihood (ML), assume multivariate normality (Hair et al. 2006). Therefore, the data needs to be examined for this assumption (Kline 1998). Although parameter estimates generated by ML estimation are robust against violations of normality, "results of significance tests tend to lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis too often" (Kliine 1998, p.127). Corrective measures then need to be taken for severe violations of normality (Kline 1998). For the present study, multivariate normality was assessed using Mardia's (1970) multivariate kurtosis statistic. Mardia's statistic is significant in both the CG (490.96, $p<0.001$), and BL (543.96, $p<0.01$) conditions, which means that the data does not exhibit multivariate normality. Byrne (2001) suggested that bootstrapping can be used to deal with non-normal data. This approach is not new and has been adopted in the marketing literature to deal with non-normal data (e.g., De Luca and Gima 2007; Im and Workman 2007; Luo and Bhattacharya 2006). In the words of Byrne (2001, p. 269):

"Bootsrapping serves as a resampling procedure by which the original sample is considered to represent the population. Multiple sub samples of the same size as the parent are then drawn randomly, with replacement, from this population and provide data for empirical investigation of parameter estimates and indexes of fit."

The number of bootstraps was set to 250 following Nevitt and Hancock's (2001) conclusions that there is no apparent advantage to using more than 250 bootstrap resamplings. The significance of the path estimates was assessed using the p-value associated with the bias-corrected interval (Byrne 2001; Efron and Gong 1983). AMOS does not generate bias corrected t-values, but rather the bias-corrected interval and associated p-value.

Sample Size

Another issue to consider is the sample size. A minimum ratio of five respondents per estimated parameter has been suggested. A ratio of ten has been recommended (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996; Bentler and Chou 1987; Hair et al. 1998), with deviations from normality requiring a larger ratio of 15 (Hair et al. 2006). In the full measurement model, there are seven constructs and 21 between-construct correlations to be estimated, using information from 28 observed indicators. The number of free parameters to be estimated is 77. Admittedly, this is large given the sample size of 276 and 280. A commonly employed solution to reduce the number of estimated parameters is the use of partial disaggregation, which has been suggested by Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994). This approach has been adopted by several studies in the marketing literature to increase the ratio of the sample size to the number of estimated parameters (e.g., Burnham, Frels, and Mahajan 2003; Dabholkar, Thorpe, and Rentz 1996; Wathne and

Heide 2004). According to Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994), the use of each item as a separate indicator of the relevant construct (i.e., total disaggregation) provides the most detailed level of analysis. Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994) note, however, "in practice, it can be unwieldy because of likely high levels of random error in typical items and the many parameters that must be estimated" (p. 42). In contrast, the total aggregation of items (i.e., only one composite item is formed by summing the scores on all items) does not offer much advantage over traditional multivariate analysis. It does, however, provide fit indeces. Between these two extremes, the partial disaggregation technique is a compromise. According to Dabholkar, Thorpe, and Rentz (1996), "It allows one to proceed with meaningful research by combining items into composites to reduce higher levels of random error and yet it retains all the advantages of structural equations" (p. 9).

The number of estimated parameters is decreased by reducing the number of indicators that represent the underlying constructs in the model (Bagozzi and Edwards 1998). The underlying indicators of each construct are reduced by combining them into a condensed set of indicators called parcels. Each parcel then represents the sum or average of multiple items (Baggozi and Heatherton 1994).

In carrying out this process, the first issue concerns the unidimensionality of items to be parceled. Unidimensionality of the constructs is a very important requirement for CFA with partial disaggregation (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Bagozzi and Edwards 1998). If unidimensionality has not been met, the use of item parcels may obscure, rather than clarify, the structure of the data (West, Finch, and Curran 1995). This requires testing the unidimensionality of the constructs in the model. Unidimensionality of a scale means that "a set of measured variables (indicators) has only one underlying construct"

(Hair et al. 2006). In CFA, the unidimensionality of a scale is judged by subjecting each latent construct to a CFA individually, and then assessing the overall fit of the model, including the latent construct and its designate items (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991; Garver and Mentzer, 1999). Because measuring intergroup emotions (collective guilt and collective animosity) is unique to this study, the emotions were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis in SPSS 15 in each condition. Next, the data in all of the conditions were subjected to a multigroup confirmatory factor analysis.

The second issue relates to the number of parcels to be formed per construct. Dabholkar, Thorpe, and Rentz (1996) suggest that two or three parcels should be formed for each latent construct. Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994) suggest that if there are five to seven original items, two parcels should be formed; if the number of original items is more than nine, then three composites should be formed. Because all of the constructs are indicated by six or fewer items, two parcels were constructed for each construct, with the exception of the preference measures. The preference measures were each modeled with the original two indicators.

The third issue relates to the method by which items are combined into a parcel. Some authors suggest randomly grouping items into parcels (Dabholkar, Thorpe, and Rentz 1996). Yuan, Bentler, and Kano (1997) suggest that items with roughly equal loadings should be parceled together (based on the results of prior CFA) or equal relative errors. For simplicity, the current research adopted the first approach. This approach was also selected because "all items related to a latent variable should correspond in the same way to that latent variable; thus any combination of the items should yield the same model fit" (Dabholkar, Thorpe, and Rentz 1996, p.10). As a result, parcels in each scale

were formed by randomly arranging the original items into two groups and then averaging the items' scores in each group to form the parcel's score.

Evaluating the Fit of the Model

The second issue that must be considered is evaluating the fit of the model. The fit of the model can be evaluated using "dozens of fit indexes described in SEM literature, more than any single model-fitting program reports" (Kline, 1998, p. 127). However, "there was little consistency in the choice of fit indexes or criteria for their evaluation" (MacCallum and Austin, 2000, p. 219). Among these indices, the chi-square statistic is the fundamental measure of overall fit (Hair et al. 1998). A low chi-square value indicates that the actual and predicted input matrices do not differ. In this instance, the researcher is looking for a nonsignificant difference (i.e., $p>0.05$) because the test is between the actual and predicted matrices (Hair et al. 1998). Researchers have cautioned against using chi-square tests exclusively to evaluate the fit of a model (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). The chi-square test is sensitive to moderate and large sample sizes (Bentler and Bonett 1980; Marsh, Balla, and McDonald 1988). This may result in the chi-square test rejecting what may otherwise be an acceptable model.

Selecting additional fit indexes should be based on three criteria: (1) relative independence of sample size; (2) accuracy and consistency to assess different models; and (3) ease of interpretation aided by a well-designed continuum or pre-set range (Marsh, Balla, and McDonald 1988; Garver and Mentzer 1999). Based on these criteria, Garver and Mentzer (1999) suggest using the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI; also known as NNFI or non-normed fit index), the comparative fit index (CFI) and the root mean

squared approximation of error (RMSEA). This suggestion is also consistent with Hair et al. (2006) who suggest that "three to four indexes provide adequate evidence of model fit" (p. 752). Hair et al. (2006) recommended that a researcher present an incremental fit index and another absolute fit index in addition to chi-square and the associated degrees of freedom. Hair et al. (2006) also assert that the chi-square value and the degrees of freedom, the CFI and RMSEA, would be sufficient to evaluate the fit of a model. Kline (1998) also recommends using, at a minimum, an index that measures the explained variance of the model, such as the GFI or CFI; an index that adjusts the explain variance for model complexity, such as the NNFI; and finally an index based on the standardized residuals, such as the SRMR. The present study, therefore, used the chi-square statistic, and the associated DF, the goodness of fit index (GFI), the CFI, the TLI, and the RMSEA to evaluate the fit of the model.

GFI was an early attempt to produce a test statistic that is less sensitive to sample size. The possible range of GFI values is 0 to 1 with higher values indicating better fit. GFI vales greater than .90 typically indicate good fit (Hulland, Chow, and Lam 1996). CFI is based on comparing the hypothesized model against the null model, in which all observed variables are uncorrelated. Moreover, the CFI is less affected by the sample size (Kline, 1998). CFI values range from 0 to 1. For adequate model fit, CFI should be greater than 0.90 (Bentler 1990).

The TLI (NNFI) compares a proposed model's fit to a nested baseline or null model. TLI also seems insensitive to variations in sample size (Marsh et al. 1988). Its value typically ranges from 0 to 1, but it is not limited to that range (Hair et al. 1998). A

TLI value >0.90 indicates a good fit (Bentler and Bonnett 1988; Hair et al. 1998; Hulland, Chow, and Lam 1996).

The RMSEA measures the discrepancy between the observed and estimated covariance matrices per degree of freedom, in terms of the population not the sample (Hair et al., 1998). This index has been recognized as "one of the most informative criteria in covariance structure modeling" (Byrne 2001, p. 84). It is sensitive to the number of estimated parameters in the model; for example, the model's complexity (Byrne, 2001). RMSEA of less than 0.05 indicates good fit; from 0.05 to 0.08 indicates acceptable fit; from 0.08 to 0.10 indicates mediocre fit; and greater than 0.10 indicates poor fit (Browne and Cudeck 1993).

Measurement Invariance Between the Two Groups

A third issue relates to the comparability of the results across the three groups. The present research argues that respondents in the experimental condition and in the baseline group should be treated as separate groups. Therefore, multigroup confirmatory analysis is performed to test for measurement invariance across these groups. Multigroup confirmatory factor analysis "clarifies the conditions under which meaningful comparisons of construct conceptualizations, construct means, and relationships between constructs are possible" (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998, p.78). AMOS 7.0 was employed to conduct the multigroup factor analysis on moral identity, national identity, product judgments, collective animosity, and collective guilt.

Measurement invariance across the difference conditions was tested using the procedure recommended by Steenkamp and Baumgratner (1998). This is a sequential process that involves subjecting the data to increasing levels of restrictive invariance. In

this process, metric, covariance invariance, and error variance invariance are tested sequentially and in the noted order. The level of invariance required for cross group comparisons depends on the nature of the cross group comparisons being conducted.

Metric invariance provides evidence that people in the different groups interpret and use the scale in the same way (Hair et al. 2006). Metric invariance is tested by constraining the factor loadings equally across the groups. If all the factor loadings are not equal across the groups, then full metric invariance has not been achieved. The next step is to test for partial metric invariance. According to Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) partial metric invariance is sufficient so that meaningful comparisons can be made. Partial metric invariance is achieved if any two factor loadings are invariant across the groups. If partial metric invariance is achieved then it is possible to test for scalar equivalence.

Scalar invariance provides evidence that the differences in the items' means are caused by the differences in the means of their respective constructs (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). Scalar equivalence is required if cross group mean comparisons are made. Scalar equivalence is tested by constraining the intercepts of the indicators to be equal across the groups. If all the intercepts are not equal across the groups, then full metric invariance has not been achieved. The next step is to test for partial scalar invariance. Partial scalar invariance is achieved if any two intercepts are invariant across the groups. If either partial of full scalar invariance is achieved then it is possible to test for factor-covariance invariance.

For the present study, metric equivalence and scalar equivalence were conducted. Partial metric invariance is sufficient for interconstruct relationships comparisons to be

made (Hair et al. 2006; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998), while partial scalar equivalence is sufficient if mean difference tests are to be conducted. Tests of invariance were conducted for each individual construct and for the entire measurement model using partial disaggregation.

Tests of Unidimensionality

National Identity

The fit of the model is satisfactory. The reliabilities are well above the cutoff point of .7, and the AVE is above .50 for both groups (Table 4-4). Evidence of full metric and full scalar invariance across the two groups also exists. Metric invariance across the two groups also exists because the increase in chi-square from the unconstrained model and the constrained model in which the factor loadings were constrained is not significant (χ^2=2.030, p=.566). There is scalar invariance across the two groups because the increase in chi-square from the unconstrained model and the constrained model in which the indicator intercepts are set constrained is not significant (χ^2=10.584, p=.158). The fourth item (AI4), however, has a low standardized loading in both conditions (CG=.332, BL=.298). This is lower than the cutoff point of .5 Hair et al. (2006) recommended. It is suspected that this item was problematic because it is a reverse worded item that was placed toward the end of the questionnaire. This item was therefore considered for deletion in further analyses. It was not possible to conduct a CFA on the remaining three items due to identification problems.

Table 4-4: National Identity Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Group	χ^2 (p)	df	χ^2/ df	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	α	Comp. Reliability	AVE
CG	1.014 (.602)	2	.507	.998	1.00	1.00	0.00	.775	.807	0.536
BL	1.02 (.600)	2	.510	.998	1.00	1.00	0.00	.766	0.834	0.584

Group	Items	b	Beta	Standard-Error	P
CG					
	AI1	1.000	.786	.000	—
	AI2	1.167	.934	.076	.010
	AI3	1.011	.736	.072	.011
	AI4	.529	.332	.127	.007
BL					
	AI1	1.000	.891	.000	—
	AI2	1.145	.913	.091	.010
	AI3	1.123	.786	.093	.011
	AI4	.489	.298	.122	.011

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	Δ χ^2	p
Unconstrained	4	4.698			
Metric Invariance	7	6.728	3	2.030	.566
Scalar Invariance	11	15.282	7	10.584	.158

Moral Identity

The moral identity scale exhibited good fit for the CG condition for all of the fit indices (Table 4-5). Regarding the BL condition, the fit was good with respect to the GFI, TLI, and CFI, with the exception of the RMSEA, which exhibited poor fit (.110) (Browne and Cudeck 1993). All of the standardized loadings were above the cutoff point of .5. The reliabilities were also well above .7, and the AVE for both groups was above .5. The scale also exhibited full metric and scalar invariance across the two groups.

Table 4-5: Moral Identity Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Group	χ^2 (p)	Df	χ^2/ df	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	α	Comp. Reliability	AVE
CG	10.70 (0.056)	5	2.158	.985	.978	.989	.039	.815	0.835	.514
BL	21.746 (0.001)	5	4.349	.979	.978	.978	.110	.86	0.876	.596

Group	Items	b	Beta	Standard-Error	P
BL					
	MI1	.829	.810	.077	.015
	MI2	.937	.837	.049	.012
	MI3	.524	.537	.111	.035
	MI4	.708	.493	.005	.010
	MI5	1.000	.826	.000	--
BL	MI1	.924	.930	.064	.022
	MI2	1.010	.853	.055	.015
	MI3	.558	.687	.099	.004
	MI4	.613	.493	.120	.008
	MI5	1.000	.820	.000	--

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	Δ χ^2	p
Unconstrained	10	32.536			
Metric Invariance	14	36.835	4	4.299	.367
Scalar Invariance	19	39.580	9	7.044	.633

Product Judgments

The product judgments scale did not exhibit good fit regarding the RMSEA (Table 4-6). The fit was acceptable, however, regarding the GFI, TLI, and CFI because they were all above the cutoff point of .9 (Hulland, Chow, and Lam 1996). The scale also showed reasonable convergent validity with all of the standardized loadings exceeding .5; the AVE exceeding .5; and the reliabilities exceeding .7. The modification indexes pointed toward removing PJ4, but because there was no apparent reason for removing this item, the scale was kept as is (Hair et al. 2006).

Table 4-6: Product Judgments Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Group	χ^2 (p)	df	χ^2/ df	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	α	Comp. Reliability	AVE
CG	34.688 (.000)	9	3.854	.961	.950	.970	.102	.88	.88	.56
BL	74.421 (.000)	9	8.269	.92	.901	.941	.161	.902	.90	.62

Group	Items	b	Beta	Standard-Error	P
CG					
	PJ6	1.000	.759	.000	.011
	PJ5	1.169	.900	.087	.019
	PJ4	.733	.584	.084	.011
	PJ3	1.042	.761	.087	.009
	PJ2	.878	.622	.121	.015
	PJ1	1.133	.831	.092	.008
BL					
	PJ6	1.000	.791	.000	.007
	PJ5	1.280	.917	.083	.010
	PJ4	.784	.649	.086	.011
	PJ3	1.083	.784	.080	.011
	PJ2	.906	.630	.107	.010
	PJ1	1.252	.897	.091	.008

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	Δ χ^2	p
Unconstrained	18	109.108			
Metric Invariance	23	110.754	5	1.646	.896
Scalar Invariance	29	127.688	11	18.580	.069

Intergroup Emotions

Next, the set of intergroup emotions (collective animosity and collective guilt) were subjected to Principle Component Analysis with Varimax rotation for each group (Table 4-7). The analysis resulted in two factors that accounted for around 84% of the variance for both conditions (84.46% for CG and 84.77% for BL). In the CG condition, the first factor accounted for 57.18% of the variance, while the second factor accounted for 27.28% of the variance. In the BL condition, the first factor accounted for 57.50% of the variances, while the second factor accounted for 27.27% of the variance. All of the factor loadings after rotation were well above the cutoff point of .7 in both groups as

recommended by Hair et al. (2006). The two factors that emerged were identical in both groups. The first factor was labeled collective animosity and consisted of the following items: resentment, bitterness, vengefulness, dislike, hostility and anger. The second factor was labeled collective guilt and consisted of the following items: regretful, remorseful, and guilty.

Table 4-7: Intergroup Emotions Factor Loadings

Items	Item Loading		Std. Deviation		Mean	
	CG Condition	BL Condition	CG Condition	BL Condition	CG Condition	BL Condition
Resentment	.935	.924	1.85	1.853	1.86	1.617
Bitterness	.926	.917	1.91	1.771	1.79	1.694
Vengefulness	.919	.907	1.74	1.620	1.64	1.502
Dislike	.919	.902	1.79	1.875	1.85	1.607
Hostility	.918	.876	1.93	1.723	1.77	1.757
Angry	.906	.845	2.08	1.776	1.89	1.909
Regretful	.926	.941	3.12	1.532	1.84	2.486
Remorseful	.921	.931	3.20	1.598	1.81	2.491
Guilty	.807	.893	2.35	1.482	1.76	1.925

*All of the emotions were measured on a 9 point scale, ranging from not at all to completely. None of the cross loadings exceeded .242.

The emotions were then subjected to confirmatory factor analysis. The CFA was acceptable in terms of the GFI, TLI, CFI, reliabilities, and AVE. The model, however, exhibits poor fir with respect to the RMSEA. The modification indexes pointed out that "dislike" may be a problematic item and suggested allowing the error of dislike and other items to correlate. A CFA without dislike was then conducted to examine whether the fit would improve. The CFA was acceptable in terms of all of the fit indices with regard to the BL group. The fit was acceptable for all of the fit indices for the CG group, with the exception of the RMSEA, which was mediocre. All of the factor loadings were above .7, and the reliabilities for collective guilt and collective animosity were above the cutoff point of .7, which indicates convergent validity. There was also evidence of discriminant

validity, as the AVE of collective guilt (CG=.713, BL=.820) and collective animosity (CG=.840, BL=.804) was greater than the squared correlation between (CG=.064, BL=.127) in both groups. It was decided to remove "dislike" because it had also caused problems of factor indeterminacy in the measurement model with partial disaggregation.

Tests of measurement invariance were then conducted. There was a lack of full metric invariance (chi-square=42.594, p=.000). According to Byrne, Shavelson, and Muthen (1989) full metric invariance is not necessary to establish metric invariance, provided at least one item other than the one fixes at unity is metrically invariant. Partial metric invariance was established (chi-square=1.896, p=.594), by constraining the factor loadings for bitterness, and hostility and regretful to be equal across the two groups, while freeing the paths for angry, guilty and vengefulness. However, partial scalar invariance was not established (chi-square=65.589, p=.000).

Table 4-8: Intergroup Emotions Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Group	Model	χ^2 (p)	df	χ^2/ df	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
CG	All items	187.075 (.000)	26	7.195	.880	.917	.940	.150
	Without dislike	75.929 (.000)	19	3.996	.933	.961	.974	.104
BL	All items	147.720 (.000)	26	5.682	.899	.937	.955	.130
	Without dislike	41.258 (.002)	19	2.171	.963	.985	.990	.065

Group	Model	Construct	α	Comp. Reliability	AVE	Corr.
CG	All items	Collective Guilt	.967	.880	.712	.247
		Collective animosity	.974	.968	.836	
	Without dislike	Collective Guilt	.967	0.880	0.713	.253
		Collective animosity	.961	0.963	0.840	
BL	All items	Collective Guilt	.930	.932	.820	. 357
		Collective animosity	.958	.960	.790	
	Without dislike	Collective Guilt	.967	0.932	0.820	.363
		Collective animosity	.952	0.953	0.804	

Group	Construct / Items	Model with all of the items				Model with "dislike" removed			
		b	Beta	Std-Err.	P	b	Beta	Std-Err.	P
CG	**Collective Guilt**								
	Guilty	.613	.708	.058	.010	.614	.708	.058	.011
	Regretful	1.027	.918	.043	.009	1.028	.918	.043	.010
	Remorseful	1.000	.891	.000	...	1.000	.891	.000	...
	Collective animosity								
	Angry	1.128	.898	.066	.011	1.154	.901	.073	.008
	Dislike	.960	.908	.055	.011				
	Vengefulness	.893	.903	.075	.021	.909	.901	.070	.016
	Bitterness	1.033	.926	.066	.008	1.075	.946	.065	.007
	Hostility	1.054	.912	.061	.010	1.074	.911	.066	.011
	Resentment	1.000	.939	.000	...	1.000	.922	.000	...
BL	**Collective Guilt**								
	Guilty	.846	.840	.072	.011	.846	.840	.072	.011
	Regretful	.990	.952	.046	.006	.990	.952	.046	.006
	Remorseful	1.000	.921	.000	...	1.000	.921	.000	...
	Collective animosity								
	Angry	.899	.836	.097	.017	.908	.836	.101	.019
	Dislike	.971	.855	.056	.006				
	Vengefulness	.914	.932	.071	.022	.940	.932	.070	.027
	Bitterness	1.011	.943	.055	.015	1.048	.943	.053	.009
	Hostility	.923	.885	.094	.014	.949	.885	.096	.012
	Resentment	1.000	.892	.000	...	1.000	.892	.000	...

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	Δ χ^2	p
Unconstrained	38	117.188			
Full Metric Invariance	44	159.782	6	42.594	.000
Partial Metric Invariance	41	119.084	3	1.896	.594
Partial Scalar Invariance	46	182.776	8	65.589	.000

The Measurement Model with Partial Disaggregation

Based on the prior analyses, dislike and one item from national identity (AI4) were removed. The measurement model was estimated using partial disaggregation, while including item AI4, but this resulted in several negative variances and was therefore excluded from further analyses. The next step involved calculating the parcels to be used in the measurement model with partial disaggregating. Table 4-9 shows the items used to form each parcel and how each parcel was calculated.

Table 4-9: Calculation of the Parcels

Construct	Parcels		Items used to form the parcel
Moral Identity	MIP1	=	(MI1+MI2)/2
	MIP2	=	(MI3+MI4+MI5)3
National Identity	AIP1	=	(AI1+AI2)/2
	AIP3	=	AI3
Collective animosity	ANIMp1	=	(Angry + Hostility + Bitterness)/3
	ANIMp2	=	(Vengefulness + Resentment)/2
Collective Guilt	CGP1	=	(Regretful + Remorseful) /2
	CGP2	=	Guilty
Product Judgments	PJP1	=	(PJ1+PJ2+PJ3)/3
	PJP2	=	(PJ4+PJ5+PJ6)/3
Preference for U.S. products over Japanese products	BUY_US PAY_US	=	Original items
Preference for South Korean products over Japanese products	BUY_K PAY_K	=	Original items

The measurement model (Figure 4-1) was estimated for each group separately, followed by multigroup analysis to test for measurement invariance. The measurement did not yield admissible solutions, however, on account of a Heywood problem (negative variance estimates for some of the error terms). Dillon, Kumar, and Mullani (1987) suggest that:

"If the model provides a reasonable fit, the respective confidence interval for the offending estimate covers zero, and the magnitude of the corresponding estimated

standard error is roughly the same as the other estimated standard errors, the Heywood case is likely due to sampling fluctuations, and the model can be reestimated with the offending estimate set at zero. Setting the offending estimate to zero was evaluated very favorably in both the empirical and simulation settings" (p. 134).

The model exhibits reasonable fit (discussed below), offending estimates were very low in magnitude, and their confidence interval included zero (Table 4-10). Therefore, the error variances of MIP2 (me2) and CGP1 (ce1) were set to zero. There was also evidence of convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Table 4-10: Offending Estimates

Condition	Parameter	Estimate	90% confidence interval		P
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
CG	me2	-.002	-2.058	.428	.839
	ce1	-.056	-2.570	1.269	.916
BL	me2	-.022	-.392	.221	.956
	ce1	-.020	-.508	.260	.855

The model exhibited good fit, with the GFI, TLI, and CFI exceeding the .9 cutoff point, and the RMSEA was less than .08 for both groups (Table 4-11). Because the factor loadings exceeded the cutoff point of .7 (Table 4-11); all the construct reliabilities exceeded .7; and the AVE for all constructs exceeded .5 (Table 4-12), there is evidence of convergent validity. The AVE for each construct also exceeded the squared correlation between it and every other construct in the model (Table 4-12), indicating evidence of discriminant validity.

Figure 4-1: Full Measurement Model using Partial Disaggregation

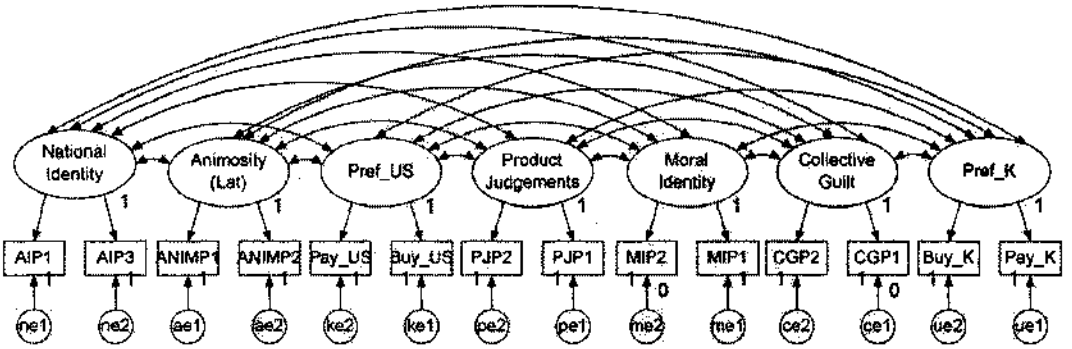


Table 4-11: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the entire Measurement Model using Partial Disaggregation

Group	χ^2 (p)	*df*	χ^2/ *df*	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
CG	106.527 (.000)	58	1.837	.948	.961	.975	.055
BL	75.548 (.061)	58	1.303	.962	.988	.992	.057

Group	CG				BL			
Items	**b**	**Beta**	**Std-Error**	**P**	**b**	**Beta**	**Std-Error**	**P**
MIP1	1.000	.735	.000	...	1.000	.794	.000	...
MIP2	1.317	.996	.121	.013	1.050	.995	.088	.010
AIP3	1.000	.731	.000	...	1.000	.815	.000	...
AIP1	1.088	.957	.566	.007	.890	.916	.141	.013
CGP1	1.000	.999	.000	...	1.000	.998	.000	...
ANIMP2	.888	.952	.089	.006	.997	.930	.106	.007
ANIMP1	1.000	.948	.000	...	1.000	.966	.000	...
Pay_K	1.000	.855	.000	...	1.000	.695	.000	...
Buy_K	.964	.731	.295	.002	1.410	.893	.239	.003
Buy_US	1.000	.849	.000	...	1.000	.813	.000	...
Pay_US	.870	.850	.210	.030	.999	.847	.094	.008
PJP1	1.000	.883	.000	...	1.000	.966	.000	...
PJP2	.936	.880	.098	.006	.845	.878	.061	.017
CGP2	1.009	.811	.041	.007	.978	.873	.050	.011

Table 4-12: Correlation Matrix

CG condition	MI	NI	PJ	AN	CG	Pref_US	Pref_K
MI	**0.766**	0.000	0.008	0.125	0.003	0.005	0.009
NI	-0.003	**0.725**	0.040	0.000	0.031	0.051	0.008
PJ	0.090	-0.199	**0.777**	0.028	0.001	0.181	0.178
AN	-0.354	0.002	-0.168	**0.903**	0.084	0.005	0.012
CG	-0.052	-0.175	0.028	0.290	**0.828**	0.006	0.005
Pref_US	-0.072	-0.226	0.425	-0.071	0.080	**0.722**	0.000
Pref_K	0.097	-0.090	0.422	-0.111	0.071	0.010	**0.633**
Construct Reliability	0.865	0.838	0.875	0.949	0.905	0.838	0.774

BL condition	MI	NI	PJ	AN	CG	Pref_US	Pref_K
MI	**0.810**	0.069	0.000	0.026	0.042	0.067	0.001
NI	0.263	**0.752**	0.000	0.012	0.000	0.067	0.020
PJ	-0.005	-0.004	**0.852**	0.083	0.002	0.194	0.256
AN	-0.162	0.109	-0.288	**0.899**	0.147	0.037	0.008
CG	-0.205	-0.005	-0.048	0.384	**0.879**	0.001	0.011
Pref_US	-0.259	-0.258	0.440	-0.192	0.024	**0.689**	0.048
Pref_K	-0.033	0.143	0.506	-0.091	0.106	0.220	**0.640**
Construct Reliability	0.894	0.858	0.920	0.947	0.935	0.816	0.778

The AVE for each construct is presented in the diagonal.

The numbers below the diagonal are the correlations and the numbers above the diagonal are squared correlations.

MI= moral identity, NI= national identity, PJ = product judgments, AN= collective animosity. CG = collective guilt, Pref_US = preference for U.S. products, Pref_K = preference for South Korean products

Measurement Invariance

The measurement model was also tested for metric and scalar invariance across the two groups (Table 4-13). Metric invariance was satisfied for the measurement model, due to an insignificant increase in the chi-square statistic (5.693, p =.020). Scalar invariance was not observed, however, due to a significant increase in the chi-square statistic (93.737, p=.000). Intergroup comparisons in terms of the relationships between the constructs in the model are possible, therefore, because metric invariance is satisfied. Intergroup mean comparisons are not possible, however, because scalar invariance was not satisfied.

Table 4-13: Tests of Measurement Invariance of the Measurement Model

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	Δ χ^2	p
Unconstrained	116	186.349			
Metric Invariance	122	192.312	6	5.963	.427
Scalar Invariance	136	280.086	20	93.737	.000

The Path Model with Partial Disaggregation

Because the fit of the measurement model was adequate, the structural portion of the model was then tested (Figure 4-2). The fit of the model was acceptable for both groups because the GFI, TLI, and CFI were above the cutoff point of .9, and the RMSEA was below the cutoff point of .08 (Table 4-14). The hypotheses were then tested. All of the path estimates are show in Table 4-14 and illustrated in Figure 4-3.

Table 4-14: Fit Statistics of the Structural Model with Partial Disaggregation

Group	χ^2 (p)	df	χ^2/ df	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
CG	147.138 (.000)	65	2.264	.929	.941	.958	.068
BL	128.965 (.000)	65	1.984	.938	.960	.972	.059

Figure 4-2: SEM model using Partial Disaggregation

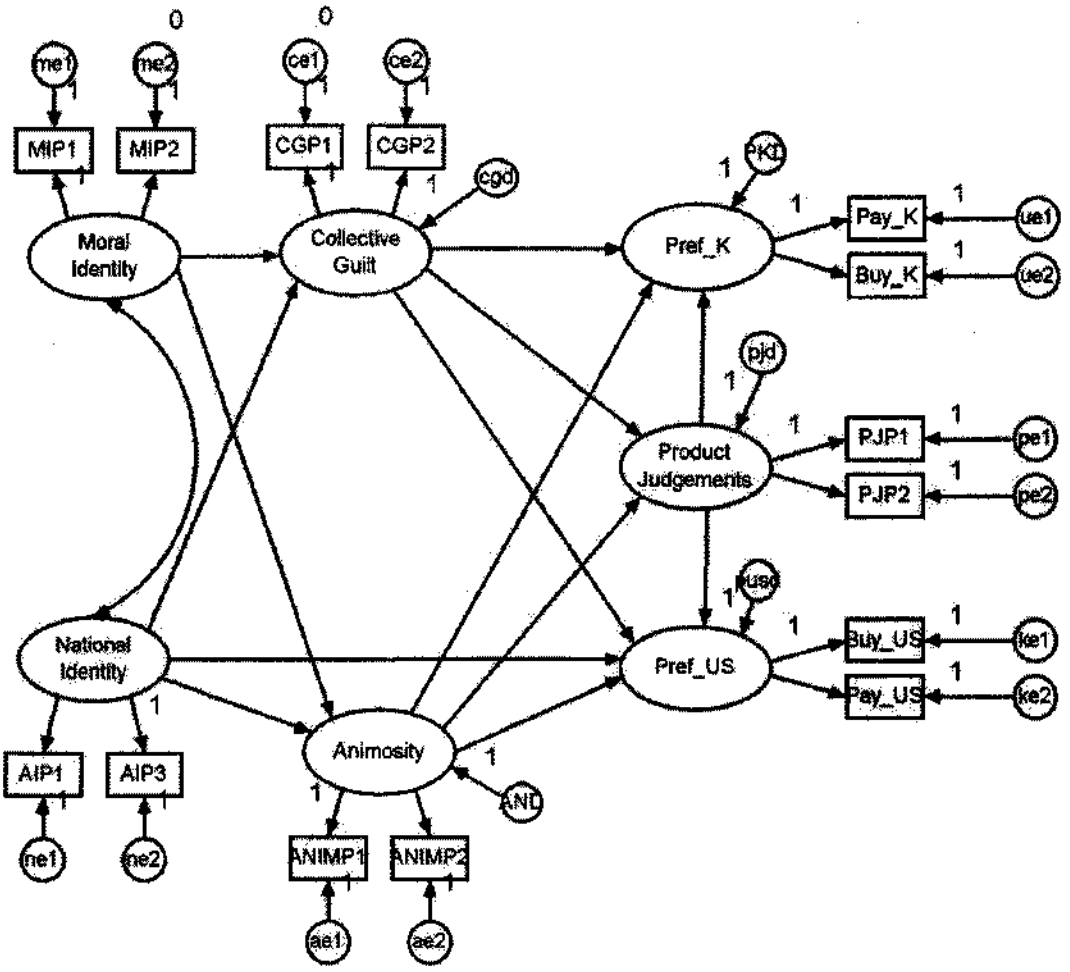


Figure 4-3: SEM path coefficients

Figure 4-3a: CG condition

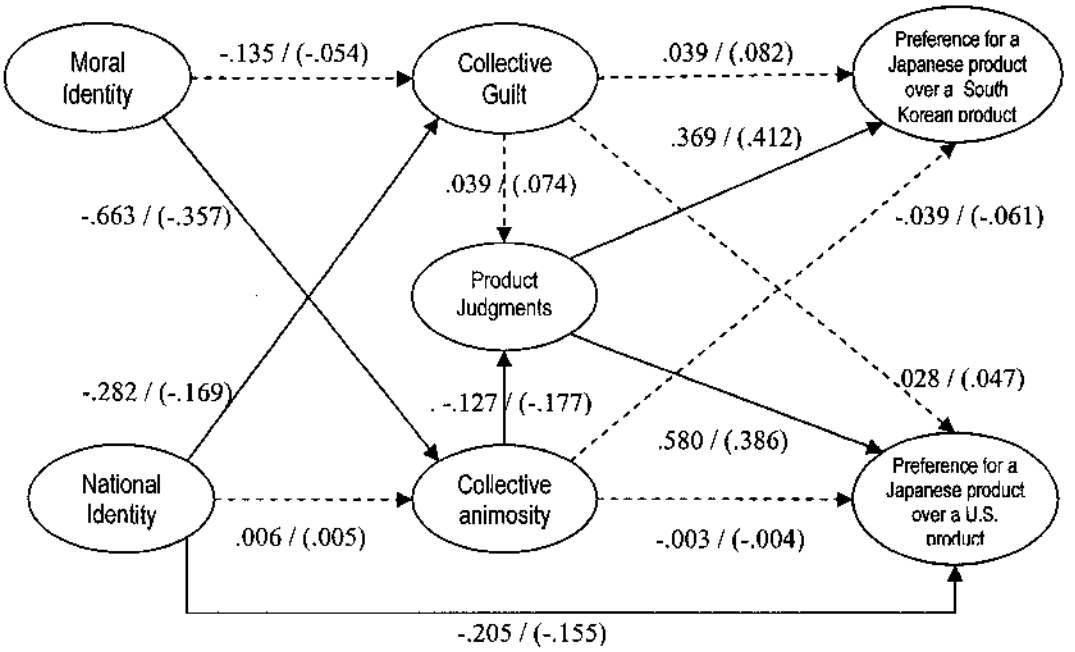
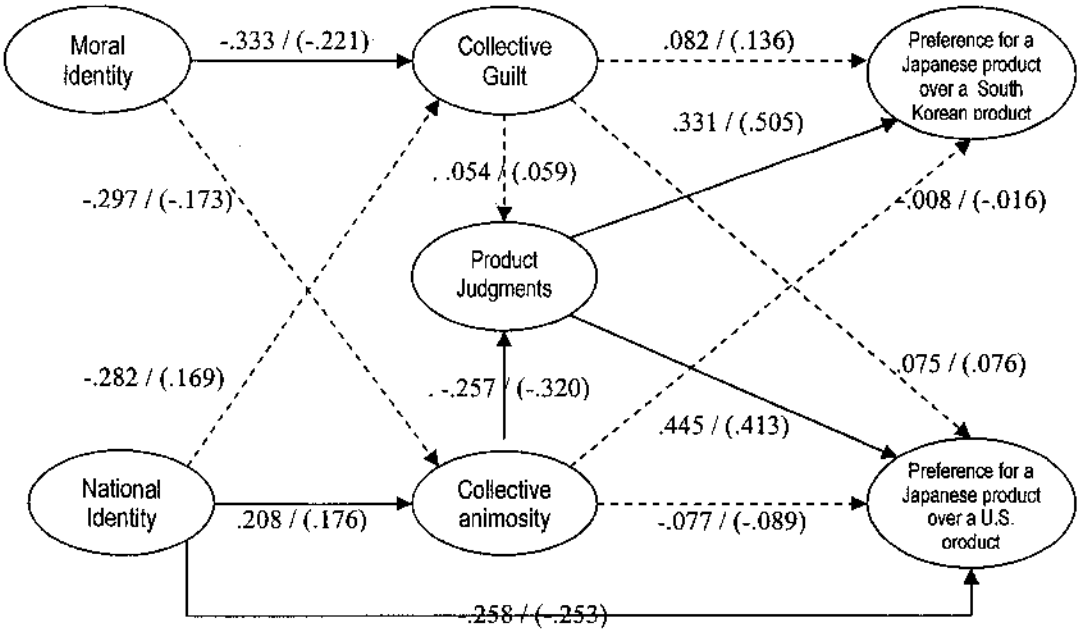


Figure 4-3b: BL condition



(Values not in parenthesis) indicate unstandardized path estimates. (Values in parenthesis) indicate standardized path estimates. Significant paths ($p<.05$) are indicated by a solid line. Insignificant paths are indicated by a dashed line.

Table 4-15: Results of the Structural Equation Modeling using Partial Disaggregation

	CG				BL			
Estimated Parameter	b	Beta	Std. Error	P	b	Beta	Std. Error	P
Collective animosity → Product Judgments	-.127	-.177	.057	**.014**	-.257	-.320	.071	***.001***
Collective animosity → Pref US	-.004	-.003	.097	.924	-.077	-.089	.074	.166
Collective animosity → Pref Korea	-.039	-.061	.064	.525	-.008	-.016	.038	.793
Collective guilt → Product Judgments	.039	.074	.040	.366	.054	.059	.072	.370
Collective guilt → Pref Korea	.039	.082	.037	.428	.082	.136	.041	.084
Collective guilt → Pref US	.038	.047	.055	.393	.075	.076	.082	.308
National Identity → Collective guilt	-.282	-.169	.137	**.015**	.066	.064	.066	.290
National Identity → Collective animosity	.006	.005	.097	.997	.208	.176	.080	**.013**
National Identity → Pref US	-.205	-.155	.107	**.026**	-.258	-.253	.073	**.015**
Moral Identity → Collective guilt	-.135	-.054	.189	.462	-.333	-.221	.104	**.011**
Moral Identity → Collective animosity	-.663	-.357	.208	*.006*	-.297	-.173	.179	.110
Product Judgments → Pref US	.580	.386	.150	*.003*	.445	.413	.095	**.025**
Product Judgments → Pref Korea	.369	.412	.086	**.011**	.331	.505	.072	**.014**

Pref_US: the preference for Japanese products over U.S. products
Pref_K: the preference for Japanese products over South Korean products
Bolded significant at 0.05, Italicized significant at 0.01

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 posited that higher levels of collective animosity would be associated with a lower preference for Japanese products over U.S. products and a lower preference for Japanese products over South Korean products. The path from collective animosity to the preference measures is not significant in either group. The paths from collective animosity to pref_US (b=-.004, p=.924), and from collective animosity to pref_K (b=-.039, p=.525) were not significant in the CG group. The paths from collective animosity pref_US (b=-.077, p=.166), and from collective animosity to pref_K (b=-.008, p=0.793) were also not statistically significant in the BL group. Although the direction of the relationship was as hypothesized, collective animosity toward the Japanese did not lead to a lower preference for Japanese products over products from either the United States or Japan. The first hypothesis, therefore, is not supported.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 posited that higher levels of collective guilt would be associated with a higher preference for Japanese products over U.S. products and a higher preference for Japanese products over South Korean products. The path from collective guilt to the preference measures is not significant in either group. The paths from collective guilt to pref_US (.038, p =.393), and from collective guilt to pref_K (.039, p=.428) were not significant in the CG group. The paths from collective guilt pref_US (.075, p=.308), and from collective guilt to pref_K (.082, p=0.084) were also not statistically significant in the BL group. Although the direction of the relationship was as hypothesized, collective guilt toward the Japanese did not lead to a higher preference for Japanese products over products from either the United States or South Korea. The second hypothesis, therefore, is not supported.

Hypotheses 3 and 4

Hypotheses 3 and 4 address the effect of manipulated appraisals on the intensity of the experienced emotions. It was not possible to test these hypotheses due to several reasons. Hypothesis 3 posited that when the appraisals associated with collective animosity were manipulated, higher levels of collective animosity would be found. It was not possible to test this hypothesis because the manipulations for the collective animosity condition were not successful. Hypothesis 4 was not tested for another reason. Hypothesis 4 posited that when the appraisals associated with collective guilt were manipulated, higher levels of collective guilt would be found. Although the manipulation checks were successful, the tests of scalar invariance indicated that mean comparisons

between the CG and BL condition were not appropriate. The lack of scalar equivalence precluded any mean comparisons from being made (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998).

Hypotheses 5 and 6

Hypotheses 5 and 6 address the effect of national commitment on collective guilt and collective animosity. Hypothesis 5 posited that higher levels of national commitment would be associated with lower levels of collective guilt. The path from national identity to collective guilt is statistically significant in the CG condition (b=-.282, p=.015), while the same path is not statistically significant in the BL condition (b=.066, p=.290). Hypothesis 5 is therefore supported for the CG condition only.

Hypothesis 6 posited that higher levels of national commitment would be associated with higher levels of collective animosity. The path from national identity to collective animosity is not statistically significant in the CG condition (b=.006, p=.997), while the same path is statistically significant in the BL condition (b=.208, p=.013). Hypothesis 6 is therefore supported for the BL condition only.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 posited that higher levels of national commitment would be associated with a lower preference for Japanese products over U.S. products. The path from national identity to Pref_US is significant in both the CG condition (b=-.205, p=.026) and the BL condition (b=-.258, p=.015). Hypothesis 7 is therefore supported for both the BL condition and the CG condition.

Hypothesis 8 and 9

Hypotheses 8 and 9 address the effects of moral identity on both collective guilt and collective animosity. Hypothesis 8 posited that a highly important moral identity

would be associated with higher levels of collective guilt. The path from moral identity to collective guilt is not statistically significant in the CG condition (b=-.135, p=.462), while the same path is statistically significant in the BL condition (b=-.333, p=.011). The direction of the path, however, is not in the hypothesized direction. A highly important moral identity is associated with lower levels of collective guilt in the BL condition. Hypothesis 8 therefore is not supported.

Hypothesis 9 posited that a highly important moral identity would be associated with lower levels of collective animosity. The path from national identity to collective guilt is not statistically significant in the CG condition (b=-.663, p=.006), while the same path is statistically significant in the BL condition (b=-.297, p=.110). Hypothesis 9 is therefore supported for the CG condition only.

Additional Analyses

The effects of collective animosity and collective guilt on product judgments had not been hypothesized. It was expected that collective guilt and collective animosity would not be related to judgments of Japanese products. As expected, collective guilt is not related to the judgments of Japanese products in either the CG condition (b=.039, p=.366) or the BL condition (b=.054, p=.370). An unexpected result is that collective animosity is negatively related to the judgments of Japanese products in both the CG condition (b=-.127, p=.014) and the BL condition (b=-.257, p=.001).

No hypotheses were made regarding the effect of the judgments of Japanese products on the preference measures. The path from product judgments to pref_korea is statistically significant in both the CG condition (b=.369. b=.003) and the BL condition (b=.445, b=.025) and in the expected direction. Further, the path from product judgments

to pref_US is statistically significant in both the CG condition (b=.369. b=.011), and the BL condition (b=.331, b=.014) and in the hypothesized direction. As expected, better judgments of Japanese products are associated with a higher preference for Japanese products over U.S. products and a higher preference for Japanese products over South Korean products.

Multigroup Analyses

To test whether the strength of the structural relationships differed between the CG and BL condition, each individual path was constrained and then the change in the chi-square statistic was evaluated for significance. If the change in chi-square was significant, this indicated that the estimate of this particular path differed across the two groups. The paths in Table 4-16 were tested for invariance across the two groups. None of the paths that were significant in prior analyses exhibited any difference in strength across the two groups (Table 4-16).

Table 4-16: Multigroup Analyses to determine differences in path estimates

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	Δ χ^2	p
Unconstrained	130	276.094			
Collective animosity -> Product Judgments	131	279.059	1	2.965	.085
National Identity –> Pref_US	131	276.327	1	.232	.630
Product Judgments --> Pref_K	131	276.256	1	.162	.688
Product Judgments --> Pref_US	131	277.092	1	.998	.318

Practical Significance of the Model

The practical significance of the model was evaluated by referring to the squared multiple correlations (SMC) of the endogenous constructs (Table 4-17). The SMC provides a measure of effect size for overall prediction (Aiken, West, and Pritt 2003) Cohen (1992) provided guidelines for effect sizes for SMC: .02, .13, and .26 for small, moderate, and large effect sizes. In line with these guidelines, the effect size is small for collective animosity in the BL condition, collective guilt both the CG and BL condition,

and product judgments in both the CG and BL condition. The effect size is moderate for collective animosity in the CG condition, the preference for Japanese products over U.S. products in both the CG and BL condition, and the preference for Japanese products over South Korean products in the CG condition. Finally, the effect size is large for the preference for Japanese products over South Korean products in the BL condition. The amount of explained variance in Klein (2002) for the preference for a U.S. over a Japanese product is higher (.50) versus .175 in the CG condition and .211 in the BL condition. Klein's (2002) model included ethnocentrism instead of national identity. The amount of explained variance is similar for the preference of a South Korean over a Japanese product in the current study and in Klein (2002). In Klein (2002) the SMC is .27 and in this study the SMC is .27 for the BL condition and .205 in the CG condition.

Table 4-17: Squared Multiple Correlations (R2)

Construct/Group	*CG*	*BL*
Collective animosity	.128	.034
Collective guilt	.026	.030
Product judgments	.043	.105
Pref_US	.175	.211
Pref_K	.205	.270

Testing the Robustness of the Results Using Partial Least Squares

To test the robustness of the results, Partial Least Squares (PLS) was used to analyze the data. PLS makes minimal demands on measurement scales, sample size, and residual distributions (Fornell and Bookstein 1988). Conventionally, path models in marketing have been subjected to structural equation modeling using the conventional estimation methods like MLE and GLS (Hulland, Chow, and Lam 1996). Other estimation methods exist, however, that can be used to evaluate a path model, such as

PLS (Fornell and Cha 1994). PLS has been used in the marketing literature to test path models when the assumptions of MLE have not been met (e.g., Henning-Thuaru, Houston, and Walsh 2006; Mintu-Wimsatt and Graham 2004; Johnson, Hermann, and Huber 2006). There are differences between SEM and PLS, of which one must be aware when testing different path models. Unlike MLE, PLS does not impose any distribution assumptions on the data (Fornell and Cha 1994). Small sample sizes are also possible with PLS; sometimes even when the sample size is smaller than the number of variables (Wold 1980). A researcher must be aware that ML methods are parameter oriented, however, and therefore give optimal parameter accuracy. PLS on the other hand is prediction oriented, and therefore gives optimal prediction accuracy (Fornell and Cha 1994). Fornell and Bookstein (1988), however, assert that if there is reason to doubt the accuracy of the theoretical model and/or validity of the indicators, the MLE estimate would be exaggerated, and thus more credence could be given to the PLS estimate. Therefore, PLS parameter estimates are considered conservative estimates.

Unlike SEM in which the estimation of the measurement model is possible before testing the entire model, this is not possible in PLS. However, a PLS model, like an SEM model, is evaluated in two stages: (1) assessing the reliability and validity of the measurement model, followed by (2) assessing the structural model (Hulland 1999). The adequacy of the measurement model is evaluated by looking at: (1) individual items reliabilities; (2) the convergent validity of the measures associated with the individual constructs; and (3) discriminant validity (Hulland 1999). Individual item reliabilities are evaluated by looking at the factor loadings of each item on its respective construct. Each loading should exceed 0.7. This should be satisfied to ensure that the variance accounted

for by the items of a construct (AVE) exceeds 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Convergent validity is evaluated using Cronbach's Alpha and the composite reliability developed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). The cutoff point of 0.7 recommended by Nunnall (0.7) is applied here. Finally, discriminant validity is evaluated by comparing the AVE for each construct to the squared correlation between the construct and every other construct in the model (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The AVE of any construct should exceed the squared correlation between it and any other construct. The rational is that the variance shared between any construct and its indicators should exceed the variance between it and any other construct (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The adequacy of the structural (i.e., path) model is evaluated by looking at the: (1) the size and the significance of the path coefficients; and (2) the predictive ability of the model (Hulland 1999). The significance of the path models is evaluated using a bootstrapping procedure (Efron and Gong 1983) with 200 resamples, which Chin (1998) recommended.

Fit indices are not used to evaluate the adequacy of a PLS model, because it follows a different estimation procedure from that of MLE. ML parameter estimation procedures seek to reproduce the observed covariance matrix as closely as possible; therefore, fit indices are used to examine how closely the data fits the theoretical model. In contrast, "PLS has its primary objective the minimization of error (or, equivalently the maximization of the variance explained) in all endogenous constructs.

The goodness of fit of a PLS model can be assessed by the explained variance and the Stone-Geisser Criterion (Q^2) (Stone 1974; Geisser 1974), which uses a blindfolding procedure to measures the model's predictive power. The blindfolding procedure involves excluding part of the data matrix while estimating the parameters, and then

reconstructing the excluded data by the estimated parameters. The Q^2 is calculated as an R^2. The Q^2 indicates how well the observed values can be reconstructed by the model and its parameters (Fornell and Cha 1994).

The general form of the Q^2 is:

$$Q^2 = 1 - \frac{E}{O}$$

Where E is the sum of the squares of the prediction errors and O is the sum of the squares of the errors from trivial prediction given by the mean of the remaining data points. The model is considered to have predictive relevance if Q^2 is greater than zero (Fornell and Cha 1994).

PLS Results

The model in Figure 4-4 was estimated using SmartPLS (Hansmann and Ringle 2004). The two items removed in the SEM model (AI4 and dislike) were also removed to render the results comparable with those obtained using SEM.

The individual factor loadings were examined first (Tables 4-18, 4-19). Only two items were marginally less than the cutoff point of .70 (PJ2=.688, PJ4=.691) in the CG condition, and one item (MI4=.696) in the BL condition. It was therefore decided to keep these items.

Figure 4-4: PLS Model

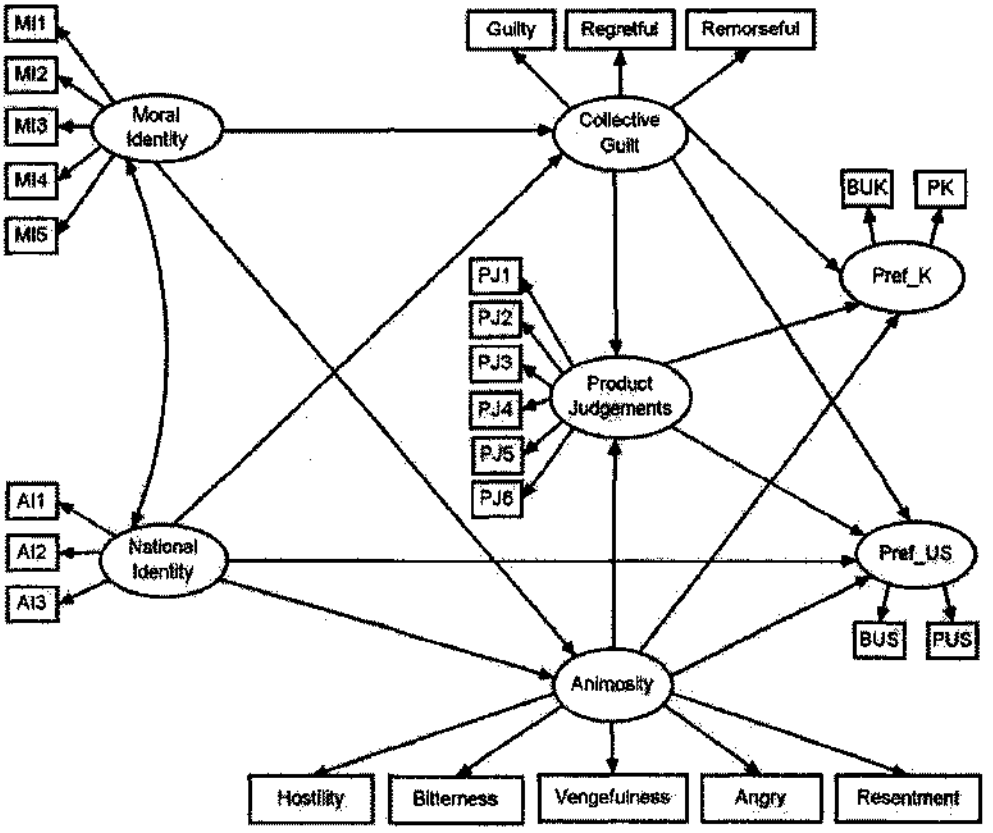


Table 4-18: Factor Loadings and Cross Loadings (CG Condition)

	Collective animosity	Collective Guilt	Pref_K	Moral Identity	National Identity	Product Judgments	Pref_US
Angry	**0.923**	0.257	-0.104	-0.316	-0.040	-0.134	-0.040
Bitterness	**0.949**	0.248	-0.032	-0.315	0.020	-0.116	-0.084
Hostility	**0.932**	0.253	-0.110	-0.300	0.006	-0.188	-0.061
Resentment	**0.938**	0.250	-0.122	-0.340	0.025	-0.135	-0.075
Vengefulness	**0.925**	0.181	-0.047	-0.379	0.021	-0.131	-0.034
Regretful	0.210	**0.942**	0.099	-0.051	-0.195	0.042	0.050
Remorseful	0.191	**0.930**	0.139	-0.014	-0.142	0.075	0.049
Guilty	0.324	**0.798**	0.016	-0.099	-0.098	0.009	0.090
Pay_K	-0.099	0.088	**0.906**	0.123	-0.088	0.325	-0.024
Buy_K	-0.062	0.100	**0.897**	0.040	-0.020	0.314	0.074
MI1	-0.178	0.006	0.065	**0.794**	-0.002	0.027	-0.193
MI2	-0.183	0.040	0.092	**0.782**	0.108	0.029	-0.146
MI3	-0.411	-0.163	0.074	**0.818**	-0.018	0.040	-0.085
MI4	-0.189	0.075	0.063	**0.599**	0.000	0.054	-0.007
MI5	-0.209	0.006	0.055	**0.769**	0.024	0.092	-0.066
AI1	0.033	-0.141	-0.045	-0.004	**0.919**	-0.140	-0.178
AI2	-0.045	-0.193	-0.087	0.015	**0.943**	-0.194	-0.201
AI3	0.053	-0.108	-0.019	0.042	**0.835**	-0.136	-0.149
PJ1	-0.068	0.068	0.272	-0.036	-0.136	**0.850**	0.371
PJ2	-0.163	-0.020	0.249	0.080	-0.146	**0.688**	0.242
PJ3	-0.189	0.007	0.314	0.135	-0.079	**0.829**	0.254
PJ4	-0.095	0.172	0.280	0.091	-0.184	**0.691**	0.247
PJ5	-0.090	0.040	0.324	0.022	-0.145	**0.887**	0.332
PJ6	-0.126	-0.031	0.244	0.012	-0.162	**0.798**	0.280
Pay_US	-0.095	0.063	-0.017	-0.096	-0.162	0.332	**0.923**
Buy_US	-0.023	0.058	0.065	-0.133	-0.204	0.346	**0.932**
Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	.871	.796	.812	.572	.812	.63	**.86**

Table 4-19: Factor Loadings and Cross Loadings (CG Condition)

	Collective animosity	Collective Guilt	Pref_K	Moral Identity	National Identity	Product Judgments	Pref_US
Angry	**0.878**	0.379	-0.025	-0.150	0.081	-0.236	-0.149
Bitterness	**0.949**	0.326	-0.101	-0.107	0.113	-0.242	-0.141
Hostility	**0.909**	0.362	-0.058	-0.147	0.055	-0.234	-0.115
Resentment	**0.912**	0.311	-0.114	-0.056	0.117	-0.299	-0.231
Vengefulness	**0.939**	0.324	-0.091	-0.124	0.111	-0.240	-0.154
Regretful	0.343	**0.953**	0.092	-0.190	0.004	-0.037	0.004
Remorseful	0.337	**0.936**	0.041	-0.175	0.011	-0.026	-0.016
Guilty	0.355	**0.921**	0.053	-0.204	-0.010	-0.056	0.038
Pay_K	-0.069	0.011	**0.875**	0.074	0.122	0.357	0.142
Buy_K	-0.086	0.100	**0.923**	-0.043	0.111	0.432	0.177
MI1	-0.071	-0.173	0.048	**0.885**	0.223	0.048	-0.169
MI2	-0.050	-0.105	0.026	**0.830**	0.235	0.044	-0.159
MI3	-0.093	-0.219	-0.001	**0.811**	0.168	0.044	-0.173
MI4	-0.150	-0.159	-0.051	**0.696**	0.170	-0.047	-0.121
MI5	-0.109	-0.116	0.042	**0.811**	0.234	0.011	-0.259
AI1	0.088	0.001	0.104	0.250	**0.917**	-0.007	-0.187
AI2	0.085	-0.023	0.132	0.218	**0.931**	0.034	-0.218
AI3	0.117	0.026	0.114	0.215	**0.885**	0.005	-0.185
PJ1	-0.210	-0.046	0.383	-0.047	-0.013	**0.896**	0.392
PJ2	-0.279	-0.051	0.378	0.028	-0.057	**0.726**	0.320
PJ3	-0.217	-0.010	0.358	0.059	0.023	**0.840**	0.274
PJ4	-0.174	-0.041	0.276	0.052	0.069	**0.709**	0.211
PJ5	-0.202	-0.035	0.366	-0.031	-0.006	**0.897**	0.361
PJ6	-0.261	-0.030	0.400	0.062	0.066	**0.846**	0.303
Pay_US	-0.173	0.007	0.160	-0.208	-0.226	0.348	**0.923**
Buy_US	-0.150	0.013	0.170	-0.188	-0.170	0.357	**0.914**
Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	.871	.796	.812	.572	.812	.63	**.86**

Convergent validity was examined by looking at the AVE for each variable (Fornell and Cha 1994). The AVE for all of the constructs exceeded the cutoff of .5 in both groups (Table 4-18, 4-19). Discriminant validity was also established as the square of the AVE of every construct exceeded the correlation between itself and every other construct in the model (Table 4-20).

Table 4-20: Correlation Matrix

CG Condition	Collective animosity	Collective Guilt	Pref_K a	Moral Identity	National Identity	Product Judgments	Pref_US
Collective animosity	**0.933**						
Collective Guilt	0.254	**0.892**					
Pref_K	-0.089	0.104	**0.901**				
Moral Identity	-0.355	-0.054	0.092	**0.757**			
National Identity	0.008	-0.169	-0.061	0.018	**0.900**		
Product Judgments	-0.151	0.051	0.355	0.062	-0.177	**0.794**	
Pref_US	-0.063	0.065	0.027	-0.124	-0.198	0.366	**0.928**

The diagonals are the SQRT of the AVE

BL Condition	Collective animosity	Collective Guilt	Pref_K	Moral Identity	National Identity	Product Judgments	Pref_US
Collective animosity	**0.918**						
Collective Guilt	0.369	**0.982**					
Pref_K	-0.087	0.067	**0.977**				
Moral Identity	-0.124	-0.203	0.001	**0.946**			
National Identity	0.106	0.001	0.129	0.249	**0.951**		
Product Judgments	-0.275	-0.043	0.443	0.022	0.013	**0.968**	
Pref_US	-0.176	0.011	0.180	-0.216	-0.216	0.384	**0.962**

The diagonals are the SQRT of the AVE

The Q^2 for both preference measures in both groups is greater than zero (Table 4-21). This indicates that the model provides predictive validity. Next, the amount of explained variance in the endogenous constructs (SMC) was then examined (Table 4-22). The SMCs for all the endogenous variables were very similar to the results obtained using SEM. The major departure related to the preference for Japanese products over South Korean products. The PLS estimate is .203, while the SEM estimate in .27 in the BL condition. Overall the results in PLS corroborate the results obtained using SEM.

The structural portion of the model was then evaluated. All of the results obtained using PLS were very similar to the results obtained using SEM. All of the tests of significance were virtually the same with the exception of one path (Table 4-23). The path from moral identity to collective animosity was significant (b=-.173, P<.05) in the

BL condition using PLS, while the same path was not significant using SEM (b=-.297, p>0.05).

Table 4-21 : The Stone-Giesser Test

Construct/Group	BL	CG
Pref_K	0.146	0.112
Pref_US	0.145	0.128

Table 4-22: Squared Multiple Correlation for SEM and PLS

	CG		BL	
	SEM	PLS	SEM	PLS
Collective animosity	.128	.126	.034	.035
Collective Guilt	.026	.031	.030	.044
Product Judgments	.043	.031	.105	.080
Pref_US	.175	.153	.211	.201
Pref_K	.205	.137	.270	.203

Table 4-23: PLS Path Estimates

		CG				BL			
Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	T-Value	Sig.	Parameter Estimate	Std. Error	T-Value	Sig.
Collective animosity	Product Judgments	-0.173	0.063	2.771	***	-0.306	0.071	4.250	***
	Pref_US	-0.021	0.072	0.252	NS	-0.063	0.065	1.108	NS
	Pref_K	-0.067	0.073	0.876	NS	0.000	0.053	0.098	NS
Collective Guilt	Product Judgments	0.098	0.068	1.420	NS	0.066	0.070	0.961	NS
	Pref_US	0.032	0.069	0.431	NS	0.044	0.072	0.740	NS
	Pref_K	0.107	0.062	1.643	NS	0.091	0.061	1.382	NS
National Identity	Collective Guilt	-0.169	0.067	2.517	**	0.060	0.052	1.069	NS
	Collective animosity	0.013	0.077	0.178	NS	0.149	0.047	3.114	***
	Pref_US	-0.135	0.063	2.118	**	-0.218	0.054	3.969	***
Moral Identity	Collective Guilt	-0.065	0.084	0.605	NS	-0.225	0.067	3.218	***
	Collective animosity	-0.359	0.073	4.838	***	-0.167	0.069	2.311	**
Product Judgments	Pref_US	0.338	0.058	5.833	***	0.379	0.061	6.054	***
	Pref_K	0.345	0.054	6.262	***	0.455	0.052	8.697	***

* sig at 0.05 (one tailed)

** sig at 0.05

***Sig at 0.01

Summary of the Results

Because the results of the PLS estimation are similar to those obtained using SEM, only the results of SEM are used. The results of the hypotheses tests using SEM are summarized in Table 4-24.

Table 4-24: Summary of the Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis Tested	Result	
	CG	BL
H1: Collective animosity experienced by U.S. subjects toward the Japanese will be negatively associated with a preference for a Japanese product over a product from another country.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H2: Collective guilt experienced by U.S. subjects toward the Japanese will be positively associated with a preference for a Japanese product over a product from another country.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H3: U.S. subjects whom are exposed to a historical depiction of the Japanese Attack at Pearl Harbor are more likely to experience higher levels of collective animosity than U.S. subjects whom are not exposed to the historical depiction, or U.S. subjects whom are exposed to a historical depiction of the bombings at Hiroshima and Nagasaki as a result of: H3a: Higher appraisals of harm committed against the Americans during World War 2. H3b: Lower levels of justification for the harm committed against the Americans during World War 2. H3c: Higher levels of responsibility assigned to the Japanese for he harm committed against the Americans during World War 2.	Not tested due to insignificant manipulation checks	
H4: U.S. subjects whom are exposed to a historical depiction of the bombings at Hiroshima and Nagasaki are more likely to experience higher levels of collective animosity than U.S. subjects whom are not exposed to the historical depiction, or U.S. subjects whom are exposed to a historical depiction of the Japanese Attack at Pearl Harbor as a result of: H4a: Higher appraisals of harm committed against the Japanese during World War 2. H4b: Lower levels of justification for the harm committed against the Japanese during World War 2. H4c: Higher levels of responsibility assigned to the Americans for he harm committed against the Japanese during World War 2.	Not tested due to a lack of scalar invariance	
H6: National identity will be negatively associated with the collective guilt experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.	Supported	Not Supported
H5: National identity will be positively associated with the collective animosity experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.	Not Supported	Supported
H7: National identity will be negatively associated with the preference for a Japanese product over a U.S. product	Supported	Supported
H8: Moral identity will be positively associated with the collective guilt experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H9: Moral identity will be negatively associated with the animosity experienced by the U.S. subjects toward the Japanese.	Supported	Not Supported

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this final chapter, this study's findings are summarized; the theoretical and managerial implications are discussed; the limitations of the research are identified; and recommendations for future research are provided. The aim of this study was to extend the collective animosity model to incorporate a series of antecedents and other intergroup emotions that may be invoked in an international context. It proposed that appraisals of a committed transgression, moral identity, and national identity serve as antecedents to collective animosity and collective guilt. This study also proposed that collective animosity and collective guilt would affect respondents' preference for Japanese products. This study developed and tested in the United States a model based on the work. A series of seven hypotheses examining the antecedents and consequences of collective guilt were tested. In the next section the results are discussed.

Summary of the Findings

The literature has established that when consumers feel collective animosity toward a specific country, they are less willing to buy products from that country (Ettenson and Klein 2005; Klein, Morris, and Ettenson 1998; Nijssen and Douglas 2004). Further, they are more likely to prefer products from other countries (Klein 2002). Collective animosity, however, is only one of several possible emotions that may influence buying behavior. This dissertation examines collective guilt as another emotion that may influence consumers' preferences for foreign products.

This study's first two hypotheses deal with the effect of collective animosity and collective guilt on respondents' preference for Japanese products over products from the United States and South Korea. The first hypothesis posited that collective animosity

would have an adverse effect on the preference for Japanese products over both U.S. products and South Korean products. Conversely, it was expected that collective guilt would have the opposite impact. The second hypothesis presumed that collective guilt would be positively related to the preference for Japanese products over South Korean products. Hypothesis two also anticipated that collective animosity and collective guilt would not be related to Japanese product judgments. The results of both the SEM and PLS analyses revealed that neither collective animosity nor collective guilt are related to the preference for Japanese products over U.S. or South Korean products, in neither the CG condition nor the BL condition. Another unexpected finding is that collective animosity toward the Japanese is negatively related to Japanese product judgments.

It is suspected that collective guilt did not affect respondents' preference for Japanese products over either U.S. or South Korean products for multiple reasons. First, the level of collective guilt experienced in either condition was very low (CG=3.89, BL=1.80), which may have attenuated the relationship between collective guilt (CG or BL) and the preference measures. The low intensity of the emotion may be attributed to lack of an intense manipulation or the lack the events' relevance to evoke collective guilt in respondents. Multiple pretests were attempted to ensure that conditions leading to either collective animosity or collective guilt were manipulated. Further, manipulating the appraisals may have been difficult because the information surrounding these events is common knowledge for most Americans. Another reason the emotion may not have been intense in the manipulated conditions is that these events occurred more than 50 years ago; therefore, they may not be relevant today. For example, Pennekamp et al. (2007) found that when respondents perceived that events that happened in the past were still

relevant today, they were more likely to experience emotions in response to such events. For example, Pennekamp et al.'s (2007) findings confirmed that people of Surinamese descent living in The Netherlands were more likely to experience anger about slavery inflicted by the Dutch in the past if they perceived that these events were still relevant in the present. Klein (2002) also reported that when people were asked why they dislike Japan, they were more likely to reveal economic reasons; in fact, people rarely attributed their dislike to events that occurred during World War II. A second reason why it is difficult to raise collective guilt using the events of World War II is that harm was inflicted by both the United States and Japan on each other. Evoking collective guilt is therefore difficult because people may view the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki as justified and thus nullify any feelings of guilt that may arise. A third reason why collective guilt may not be related to the preference for Japanese products over products from the U.S. or South Korea is simply that people may not view buying Japanese products as sufficient compensation for the events that occurred in the past.

It was expected that collective animosity toward the Japanese would lead U.S. consumers to prefer U.S. or South Korean products over Japanese products, and such collective animosity would not affect Japanese product judgments. The results in this study revealed the opposite. Collective animosity in both the CG and BL conditions actually had an adverse effect on Japanese product judgments and no effect on the preference for Japanese products.

There are several reasons why this was observed. First, previous studies have used three different classes of measures for collective animosity. The first type of collective animosity measures indicates the extent to which a respondent feels a certain emotion,

such as anger, toward a specific country. For example Klein, Morris, and Ettenson (1998) measured collective animosity with one Likert item. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with the following statement "I dislike Japan," with no reference to the cause of the dislike. A potential advantage of using this method is that respondents are not biased into thinking why they should feel collective animosity toward a specific country. The second type of collective animosity measures indicates the extent to which the respondent thinks the actions performed by a country have harmed one's own country. For example, Nijssen and Douglas (2004) measured the economic collective animosity that the Dutch harbored toward Germany using items such as: "Germany has too much influence on the Netherlands and the Dutch economy." This statement is cognitive in nature and involves the perception that Germany is harming the respondents'' economy. Finally, some measures of collective animosity have used statements that combine the emotion experienced with the reason for experiencing the emotion. For example, Nijssen and Douglas (2004) measured war-based collective animosity using items such as: "I can still get angry over Germany's role in World War II." This statement asks whether respondents still feel angry regarding a specific situation, in this case Germany's role in World War II. Most of the previous studies have used the latter two forms, with the exception of three studies: Klein (2002); Klein, Morris, and Ettenson (1998); and Witowski (2000). Measuring collective animosity in these studies (Klein 2002; Klein, Morris and Ettenson 1998; and Witowski 2000) is consistent with how this study measured collective guilt and collective animosity. Klein (2002) and Klein, Morris, and Ettenson (1998) did not find a significant negative relationship between collective animosity and product judgments, but Witowski (2000)

did. Witowski (2000) found that the collective animosity that U.S. consumers harbored toward China was found to have an adverse affect on judgments of Chinese products. The author attributed this finding to consumers being unaware of which brand names were Chinese. Another explanation, however, may be that the level of collective animosity may have a moderating effect on the impact of collective animosity on product judgments. The levels of collective animosity in these studies varied. Collective animosity was measured using 7-point scales in all of these studies. The level of collective animosity was relatively high (mean=5.07) in Klein, Morris, and Ettenson (1998); moderate (mean=3.29) in Klein (2002); and low (mean=1.96) in Witowski (2000). The level of collective animosity here was very low for both the BL group (mean=1.7886), and the CG group (mean=1.9022) given that the scales used in this study were 9-point scales. Perhaps at higher levels of collective animosity, consumers are not willing to buy products due to the intense emotion that they feel, but do not need to degrade the products to feel they have coped with those feelings. Likewise, perhaps when consumers feel low levels of collective animosity, the feeling is not intense enough to induce people to lower their intent to buy products from the transgressing country. Degrading the products of the transgressing country in this case, however, may be a venting mechanism to cope with the collective animosity experienced. Klein, Craig, and Andrews (2004) found that participating in boycotting is prompted by the belief that a firm has engaged in strikingly wrong conduct and has negative and possibly harmful consequences for various parties. In their future research section, Klein, Craig, and Andrews (2004) suggested that at moderate levels of perceived harm, the consumer trades off the firm's conduct for the product attributes; at high levels of perceived harm,

however, the consumer excludes the product from consideration. This is consistent with this study's findings. Low levels of collective animosity prevailed among consumers in this study. This low level of collective animosity may lead consumers to degrade the quality of Japanese products, thereby leading to a lower preference for Japanese products.

Another purpose of this dissertation was to examine different antecedents of collective guilt and collective animosity. Hypotheses three and four deal with the possible effect of manipulating cognitive appraisals on the intensity of the collective guilt and collective animosity experienced. It was not possible to test these hypotheses for several reasons. First, it was not possible to test hypothesis three because the manipulations for the collective animosity condition were not successful. Although the manipulation checks were successful, the results of the CFAs indicate that mean comparisons between the CG and BL condition are not appropriate. The lack of scalar equivalence precludes any mean comparisons from being made.

Hypotheses five through seven deal with the effect of national commitment on collective guilt, collective animosity, and the preference for Japanese products over U.S. products. Hypothesis five posited that national commitment would be negatively related to collective guilt. As expected, national commitment is negatively related to collective guilt in the CG condition. An unexpected result, however, is that national commitment is not related to collective guilt in the BL condition. The vignette that made conditions of CG salient may have caused people to be defensive about their national identity. As previously stated, people who are proud of their national affiliation are more likely to dismiss their compatriot's negative actions and experience lower levels of collective guilt (Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 2002). Those who are highly committed to their national

identity are more likely to suffer from esteem issues (than those with low commitment), which leads them to display even stronger group affiliation and expressing loyalty to their threatened group (Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 2002). This loyalty may be expressed as lower collective guilt for transgressions that have been committed by other members of one's country.

Hypothesis seven posited that national commitment would be positively related to collective animosity. As expected, national commitment is positively related to collective animosity in the BL group. National commitment is not related, however, to collective animosity in the CG group. Exposing respondents to collective guilt conditions may have neutralized the effect of national pride on collective animosity. Hypothesis seven also posited that national commitment would be negatively related to the preference for Japanese products over U.S. products. The results confirmed this hypothesis in both the CG and BL condition.

Hypotheses eight and nine deal with the effect of moral identity on collective guilt and collective animosity. Hypothesis eight posited that moral identity would be positively related to collective guilt, but the results refuted this in the CG condition. Moral identity is thus negatively related to collective guilt. This is an unexpected result because it was hypothesized that people with a self-important moral identity would more likely feel guilty because they are more likely to extend their moral regard to those who have been harmed. The case may be that people are less likely to extend their moral regard to people from other countries, and more likely to restrict their moral regard to people within their own country when conditions that produce potential collective guilt are absent. When they were asked about their feelings toward the Japanese, therefore, any harm committed

by the Japanese may have become more salient, while harm committed *against* the Japanese may have become less salient. Hypothesis nine posited that moral identity would be negatively related to collective animosity. Moral identity is found to be negatively related to collective animosity only in the CG condition. A possible explanation for this find is that people's moral regard for others who may have harmed other members of one's nation may lead to lower collective animosity only when the harm committed against the transgressors was salient.

According to the findings here, when individuals are not exposed to the collective guilt condition, their identities are focused on the harm committed by the Japanese. Their moral identity restricts their moral regard to only those within the boundaries of the United States, resulting in lower collective guilt for transgressions committed against the Japanese. Their national identity also results in higher levels of collective animosity toward the Japanese.

When individuals are exposed to collective guilt conditions, however, their identities are focused on harm committed by the Americans. Their moral identity is now expanded to include the Japanese, resulting in lower collective animosity toward the Japanese. Their national identity, however, also serves to attenuate the feelings of collective guilt that may be experienced. Thus it seems that people tend to acknowledge the atrocities committed against Japan by extending their moral regard and reducing the collective animosity they feel toward Japan. Acknowledging that one's country is at fault, however, is truly painful for those who are highly committed to their country. National commitment, therefore, leads to lower collective guilt.

Implications

Theoretical

Several theoretical implications can be drawn from this research. This research has proposed that several emotions toward other nations can be evoked. This dissertation examined one of these emotions. Collective guilt did not emerge as a significant predictor of the dependent variables. This may be because collective guilt is an aversive emotion that humans do not like to experience (Branscombe, Slugoski, and Kappen 2004). It is easy to undermine the necessary antecedents for feeling collective (Wohl, Branscombe, and Klar 2006). Guilt and this is probably why the level of collective guilt was low, and why collective guilt did not have an impact on any of the dependent variables. In order for collective guilt toward the Japanese to be fully experienced by an American certain conditions needs to be satisfied. An American citizen would first need to self-categorize oneself as an American. Second, that person would need to view the transgressions that were performed by the Americans during World War 2 as unjustified. Third, that person would need to hold the Americans today responsible for the transgressions committed in the past (Wohl, Branscombe, and Klar 2006). Even though the manipulations were vivid and intense, it was difficult to undermine the justification of the harm committed against the Japanese. Even though there were significant differences between the CG condition and BL condition regarding harm inflicted upon the Japanese an examination of the means across these two groups those in the CG condition still viewed the harm as a justified. The scale measured the justification of the harm inflicted upon the Japanese ranges from 1 to 7, higher values imply that the harm was unjustified while lower values imply that the harm was justified. The mean for this item was 3.64 which was below the

midpoint. The same group also viewed the harm that the Americans suffered as unjustified (mean =5.28).

Another contribution concerns the impact of collective animosity on the dependent variables. In past studies collective animosity toward a specific country has been found to have a negative impact on the willingness to buy products from that country. This was not found here. Rather collective animosity here in this study has an impact on the product judgments of Japanese products. It is argued here that over time feelings of collective animosity may have subsided, and therefore the direct route toward the willingness to buy Japanese products has been supplanted by an indirect route through the judgments of Japanese products.

Another interesting finding is that the impact of people's social identities on the different intergroup emotions is moderated by the information that is salient to them at the time emotions are measured. National pride, exemplified in national commitment, has a differential impact on collective guilt depending on the information that is salient to a person. This dissertation finds that the effect national commitment and collective animosity is attenuated if past transgressions against the target of collective animosity are salient. This also means that national commitment is threatened now, however, and that same individual will attempt to maintain face. This is shown by the negative impact one's national commitment has on the collective guilt experienced toward the other country.

This dissertation also makes a contribution in terms of the impact of moral identity on the intensity of the different intergroup emotions. Previous research has shown that a self important moral identity is associated with expanding one's moral

regard toward others (Acquino and Reed 2002; Reed and Acquion 2003). The results of this study find the opposite, however. It is possible that when another nation (Japan in this study) has transgressed against one's own nation (the United States in this study), a self important moral identity will lead a person to extend their moral regard to people to citizens of their own nation, and excluding the transgressing nation from within their scope of justice. Consistent with previous research it was found that making Americans' past transgressions salient, lead the Americans to expand their moral regard toward the Japanese. A self important Moral identity in this case does not lead to collective guilt, and leads to a lower levels of collective animosity.

Managerial

Several managerial implications can be drawn from this study. The first managerial implication is that collective guilt is an emotion that is difficult to elicit. It is very difficult to elicit in situations where two countries have transgressed against one another, as was the case here. Japan and the United States had transgressed against one another and therefore it is difficult to blame the United States for the transgressions that were committed against Japan during World War 2 because Japan had bombed Pearl Harbor. Managers also need to pay attention to current events that may elicit collective animosity. It seems that the relevance of the events plays an important part in the elicitation of either collective guilt or collective animosity, or any intergroup emotion. Another important issue is that even though collective animosity may subside over time. Collective animosity's direct impact on consumers' intention or willingness to buy products tends to subside over time. Collective animosity according to the results of this study, however, has a negative impact on the judgments of Japanese products. This

means that collective animosity still has a negative impact on the willingness to buy products from the transgressing country, but the effect is now through lower product judgments. One must also take such suggestion considering that collective animosity explained 5% of the variance in product judgments in the CG group and 10% of the variance in the BL group.

Limitations

Even though due diligence was taken to ensure that any limitations were minimized, no research is without its flaws. First, the major drawback of this study is that the manipulation checks for the collective animosity conditions were not successful and therefore the data for this group was excluded from any further analysis. It is suspected that the manipulation checks used in study need to be modified to capture the essence of what is manipulated. The salience of the conditions that lead to the emotion was the intended manipulation. It is suspected that asking people about World War 2 made the events of World War 2 salient for the BL condition even if they were not.

The second limitation relates to the context in which collective guilt is examined. Collective guilt to Japan was difficult to elicit due the fact that Japan had transgressed against the United States. Ann advantage of using this context, however, is that it is based on real events to which people can relate. On the downside, the degree of control was difficult because people have already been programmed to think in specific ways about the event that have occurred during World War II. Another limitation is that the events of World War II may not be relevant for consumers in this day and age. These events have happened more than 50 years ago and may be less relevant for younger consumers.

A third limitation related to the notion of actual product purchase. In this study only general preference for Japanese products is measured and not the actual purchase or ownership of the product. Previous studies have assessed the actual ownership of Japanese products (Klein 2002; Klein, Morris, and Ettenson 1998), but most of the other studies were restricted to intentions measures (e.g., Nijssen and Douglas 2007; Shin 2001, Witowski 2000).

The fourth limitation concerns the sample used in this study. Because this is an experimental design, internal validity is of a major concern. Typically, student samples are used to minimize variation in extraneous variables that may nullify the internal validity of the experiment. An adult sample was used in this study to examine whether collective guilt would be examined within the population at large. The samples in each condition were very similar to one another and therefore it was determined that the internal validity of the experiment was not violated.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research should examine collective guilt in other settings. Countries that are ripe for measuring collective guilt are those that have not transgressed against the country of which the respondents in the study are citizens. For example, while the Dutch had colonized Indonesia, the Indonesians had done almost nothing to offend the Dutch. Thus, it is expected that the Dutch would experience collective guilt toward the Indonesians. Future research can also examine the impact of a variety of intergroup emotions such as shame, Schadenfreude, envy, and empathy on consumers' intent to buy foreign products. These emotions have been examined in the social psychology literature in intergroup contexts (Mackie, Silver, and Smith 2004).

Future research should also examine the suggestion mention previously that collective animosity may subside as time passes between the transgression and the survey. Instead of having a direct impact on purchase intentions, this condition may have an indirect effect on purchase intentions through judgments of Japanese products.

Another area ripe for research involves examining the different antecedents to collective animosity. The social psychology literature suggests that perceptions of higher intragroup variability lead to lower feelings of anger (Doosje, Ellemers, and Spears 1995). This is the degree to which people think that members of the transgressing groups are different the less likely that one is to feel anger toward the whole group for something an individual of that group has done.

This study finds the unexpected result that moral identity leads to lower levels of collective guilt. Future research should examine the conditions under which moral identity would restrict one's moral regard for others.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Product Judgments Measure

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Strongly Agree
1) Products made in Japan are carefully produced and have fine workmanship			
2) Products made in Japan are generally of a lower quality than similar products from other countries			
3) Products made in Japan show a high degree of technological advancement			
4) Products made in Japan usually show a very clever use of color and design			
5) Products made in Japan are usually quite reliable and seem to last the desired length of time			
6) Products made in Japan are usually good value for money			

Appendix B: Preference Measures

Now, I would like you to picture the same product manufactured by two different countries. It is important that you are picturing a product where the brands are equal across all aspects of the product, including price, quality and styling. For each statement please indicate the likelihood of buying this product manufactured from the first country compared only to this product from the second country.

Likelihood of buying the United States product compared to the Japanese product.

Definitely buy the U.S. product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely buy the Japanese product

Likelihood of paying more for the United States product compared to the Japanese product.

Definitely pay more for the U.S. product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely pay more for the Japanese product

Likelihood of buying the South Korean product compared to the Japanese product.

Definitely buy the South Korean. product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely buy the Japanese product

Likelihood of paying more for the United States product compared to the Japanese product.

Definitely pay more for the South Korean product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely pay more for the Japanese product

Appendix C: Moral Identity Measure

Listed below are some characteristics that might describe a person:

Caring, Compassionate, Fair, Friendly, Generous, Helpful, Hardworking, Honest, and Kind

The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment, visualize in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that person would think, feel, and act. When you have a clear image of what this person would be like, answer the following questions. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree			Neither Agree or Disagree			Strongly Agree
1) It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) I would be ashamed to be a person who had these characteristics. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) Having these characteristics is not really important to me. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) I strongly desire to have these characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix D: American Identity Measure

	Strongly Disagree			Neither Agree or Disagree			Strongly Agree
1) It's great to be an American	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) I am extremely proud of my affiliation with the United States of America	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) Being a member of this country makes me feel like I share a common goal with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) Being an American is not an important part of whom I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix E: Cognitive Appraisals

Collective Guilt Appraisals

A) Harm Appraisal

To what extent was any harm **suffered by the Japanese during World War 2**:

Very Little	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Very Great

B) Justification of the Harm Appraisal

To what extent was any harm **suffered by the Japanese during World War 2**:

Morally Right	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Morally Wrong
Fair	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unfair
Legitimate	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Illegitimate
Justified	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unjustified
Deserved	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Undeserved

C) Group Responsibility Appraisal

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree			**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**			**Strongly Agree**
The Americans are responsible for harming the Japanese during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Americans are to be blamed for harming the Japanese during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Americans are to be held accountable for harming the Japanese during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Collective Animosity Appraisals

A) Harm Appraisal

To what extent was any harm **suffered by the Americans during World War 2**:

Very Little	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Very Great

B) Justification of the Harm Appraisal

To what extent was any harm **suffered by the Americans during World War 2**:

Morally Right	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Morally Wrong
Fair	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unfair
Legitimate	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Illegitimate
Justified	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unjustified
Deserved	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Undeserved

C) Group Responsibility Appraisal

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree			**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**			**Strongly Agree**
The Japanese are responsible for harming the Americans during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Japanese are to be blamed for harming the Americans during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Japanese are to be held accountable for harming the Americans during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Combined Appraisals

A) Harm Appraisal

Any harm suffered during World War 2 was:

	totally 3	mostly 2	somewhat 1	Neither were harmed 0	somewhat 1	mostly 2	totally 3	
for the Americans	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**for the Japanese**

B) Justification of the Harm Appraisal

Any harm suffered during World War 2 was:

	totally 3	mostly 2	somewhat 1	Was deserved by neither 0	somewhat 1	mostly 2	totally 3	
deserved by the Americans	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**deserved by the Japanese**

C) Group Responsibility Appraisal

Any harm committed during World War 2 was:

	totally 3	mostly 2	somewhat 1	Neither were responsible 0	somewhat 1	mostly 2	totally 3	
the responsibility of the Japanese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**the responsibility of the Americans**

Appendix F: Questionnaire used in the Pilot Study

World WAR II in the Pacific began on December 7, 1941, when warplanes from Japan launched a surprise attack on the U.S. Navy base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii.

All together the Japanese sank or severely damaged 18 ships, including the 8 battleships, three light cruisers, and three destroyers. On the airfields the Japanese destroyed 161 American planes and seriously damaged 102. The Navy and Marine Corps suffered a total of 2,896 casualties of which 2,117 were deaths and 779 wounded. The Army lost 228 killed or died of wounds, 113 seriously wounded and 346 slightly wounded. In addition, at least 57 civilians were killed and nearly as many seriously injured.

The Pearl Harbor attack provoked a declaration of war by the United States on Japan the very next day. In late spring of 1942, the United States and Japan engaged in a series of naval battles, climaxing in the Battle of Midway on June 3–6, 1942, in which Japan suffered a catastrophic defeat. Fighting continued through early part of 1945. By the late spring of 1945, most of Japan's conquests had been liberated, and Allied forces were closing in on the Japanese home islands. As they neared Japan proper, the Allies began heavy bombing campaigns against major Japanese cities, including Tokyo. This process continued through the summer of 1945 until finally, in early August, the United States dropped two atomic bombs on the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Stunned by the unexpected devastation, Japan surrendered a few days later. According to most estimates, the bombing of Hiroshima killed approximately 70,000 people due to immediate effects of the blast. Estimates of total deaths by the end of 1945 range from 90,000 to 140,000, due to burns, radiation, and subsequent disease, aggravated by lack of medical resources. Some estimates state up to 200,000 may have died by 1950, due to cancer and other long-term effects. The numbers for Nagasaki are consistently lower, because the valley terrain reduced the impact of the bomb, with immediate deaths estimates ranging from 40,000 to 75,000. In both cities, the overwhelming majority of the deaths were civilians.

When reading this scenario what feelings did you experience towards the Japanese?

Appendix G: Manipulation of the appraisals

A) Manipulation of the collective animosity appraisals

On an otherwise calm Sunday morning on December 7, 1941, the Japanese shocked the United States with a surprise attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. The attacking planes came in two waves; the first hit its target at 7:53 AM, the second at 8:55. The attack was all over in 2 hours.

Behind them the Japanese left chaos, 2,403 dead, 1,178 wounded, 188 destroyed planes and a crippled Pacific Fleet that included 18 damaged or destroyed battleships. In addition, at least 57 civilians were killed and nearly as many seriously injured.

Next day President Franklin D. Roosevelt addressed the nation starting his speech with the following quote: "*Yesterday, Dec 7, 1941 – a day which we live in infamy- the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by the Naval and air forces of the empire of Japan.*" Within less than an hour after a stirring, six-minute address Congress voted that a state of war existed between the United States and Japan.

Figure 2.1: the American base Pearl Harbor in ruins after the bombing

Figure 2.2: An American civilian automobile hit during the bombing

B) Manipulation of the collective guilt appraisals

By the mid 1942 Japan had suffered a major defeat in the battle of Midway, and by the beginning of 1945 the Japanese had been severely weakened.

In early August of 1945, the United States dropped two atomic bombs on the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. According to most estimates, the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki killed approximately 100,000 to 145,000 people due to immediate effects of the blast. In both cities, the overwhelming majority of the deaths were civilians. Estimates of total deaths by the end of 1945 ranged from 90,000 to 140,000, due to burns, radiation, and subsequent disease. Some estimates state up to 200,000 may have died by 1950, due to cancer and other long-term effects.

Several American generals had believed that the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki was not necessary and that Japan was on the verge of surrendering. General Dwight D. Eisenhower had noted that *"It was my belief that Japan was, at this very moment, seeking a way to surrender with a minimum loss of face."*

Figure 2.1: The Japanese city of Hiroshima in ruins after the bombing

Figure 2.2: Japanese civilian survivors from the atomic bomb in Nagasaki

Appendix H: Collective Guilt and Animosity Measures

Please indicate the exten to which you the following towards the Japanese:

	Not at all					Moderately			Extremely	
1) Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Collective Guilt Items
2) Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
3) Remorseful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
4) Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Collective Animosity Items
5) Hostility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
6) Bitterness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
7) Vengefulness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
8) Dislike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
9) Resentment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

Appendix I: Questionnaire

Dear Panel Member,

This study is part of an on-going consumer research project at Old Dominion University. The focus of this study is on how people feel about past events in history. This project is part of the dissertation requirements to earn a PhD. We hope you can participate in this important study by completing a web-based survey questionnaire that will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

We realize that you have a very busy schedule, but we implore you to spare us a few minutes to participate in this study.

We would like to assure you that your responses will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Personal information will not be recorded or shared with anyone or any organization. Responses will be aggregated for statistical purposes.

Thank you for your help in advance.

INSERT MANIPULATION HERE FOR THE CG condition or the AN condition.

First, the following questions are for classification purposes:

Gender:
☐ Male ☐ Female

I was born in 19__

Are you an American citizen?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Where you born in the United States?
☐ Yes ☐ No

How long have you lived in the United States?
_____ Years

Please indicate your ethnicity?
☐ White / Caucasian ☐ Black / African American ☐ Asian
☐ Hispanic
☐ Other (specify)_____

My approximate gross family income for the year is:

☐ Under $25,000 ☐$25,000 to $39,999 ☐ $40,000 to $54,999
☐ $55,000 to $69,999 ☐$70,000 to $84,999 ☐ $85,000 to $99,999
☐ Over $100,000

What is the highest level of education you have completed? Please select the answer which best applies

☐Less than high school ☐High school ☐Some college

☐ 4-year college degree ☐ Graduate degree
☐ Other education (please describe)_____

What is your marital status?
☐ Married ☐ Single (never married) ☐ Widowed
☐ Separated/Divorced ☐ Living with a partner

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree			Neither Agree Nor Disagree			Strongly Agree
7) Products made in Japan are carefully produced and have fine workmanship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) Products made in Japan are generally of a lower quality than similar products from other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) Products made in Japan show a high degree of technological advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10) Products made in Japan usually show a very clever use of color and design.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11) Products made in Japan are usually quite reliable and seem to last the desired length of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12) Products made in Japan are usually good value for money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Now, I would like you to picture the same product manufactured by two different countries. It is important that you are picturing a product where the brands are equal across all aspects of the product, including price, quality and styling. For each statement please indicate the likelihood of buying this product manufactured from the first country compared only to this product from the second country.

Definitely buy the South Korean product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely buy the Japanese product
Definitely buy the U.S. product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely buy the Japanese product

For each statement please indicate the likelihood of paying more for this product manufactured from the first country compared only to this product from the second country.

Definitely pay more for the U.S. product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely pay more for the Japanese product
Definitely pay more for the South Korean product	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Definitely pay more for the Japanese product

Again you are asked to picture the same product each made in one of the following countries:

South Korea, Japan, and the United States. It is important that you are picturing a product where **the brands are equal across all aspects of the product, including price, quality and styling**

Please indicate your product preference for each country separately on a scale from 0 to 100. Where a score of Zero (0) indicates that you would definitely not prefer the product while a score of 100 indicates that you would definitely prefer the product.

Type in your answer for each of the following:

- The South Korean product _____ (out of 100)
- The Japanese product _____ (out of 100)
- The U.S. product _____ (out of 100)

Please indicate the extent to which you feel the following towards the Japanese:

	Not at all				**Moderately**				**Extremely**
10) Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11) Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12) Remorseful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13) Sympathy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14) Compassion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15) Empathy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16) Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17) Hostility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18) Bitterness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19) Vengefulness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20) Dislike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21) Resentment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

To what extent was any harm **suffered by the Japanese during World War 2**:

Very Little	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Very Great
Morally Right	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Morally Wrong
Fair	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unfair
Legitimate	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Illegitimate
Justified	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unjustified
Deserved	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Undeserved

To what extent was any harm **suffered by the Americans during World War 2**:

Very Little	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Very Great
Morally Right	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Morally Wrong
Fair	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unfair
Legitimate	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Illegitimate
Justified	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Unjustified
Deserved	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5	☐ 6	☐ 7	Undeserved

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree			**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**			**Strongly Agree**
The Americans are responsible for harming the Japanese during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Americans are to be blamed for harming the Japanese during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Americans are to be held accountable for harming the Japanese during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Japanese are responsible for harming the Americans during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Japanese are to be blamed for harming the Americans during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Japanese are to be held accountable for harming the Americans during World War 2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Any harm suffered during World War 2 was:

	totally 3	mostly 2	somewhat 1	Neither was harmed 0	somewhat 1	mostly 2	totally 3	
for the Americans	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**for the Japanese**

Any harm suffered during World War 2 was:

	totally 3	mostly 2	somewhat 1	Was deserved by neither 0	somewhat 1	mostly 2	totally 3	
deserved by the Americans	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**deserved by the Japanese**

Any harm committed during World War 2 was:

	totally 3	mostly 2	somewhat 1	Neither were responsible 0	somewhat 1	mostly 2	totally 3	
the responsibility of the Japanese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**the responsibility of the Americans**

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree			**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**			**Strongly Agree**
I know pretty much about World War2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not feel very knowledgeable about World War2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Among my circle of friends, I'm one of the "experts" on the World War2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Compared to most other people, I know less about World War2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When it comes to World War2, I really don't know a lot.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree			Neither Agree Nor Disagree			Strongly Agree
It's great to be an American.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am extremely proud of my affiliation with the United States of America.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being a member of this country makes me feel like I share a common goal with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being an American is not an important part of whom I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Listed below are some characteristics that might describe a person:

Caring, Compassionate, Fair, Friendly, Generous, Helpful, Hardworking, Honest, and Kind

The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment, visualize in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that person would think, feel, and act. When you have a clear image of what this person would be like, answer the following questions:

	Strongly Disagree			Neither Agree Nor Disagree			Strongly Agree
It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would be ashamed to be a person who had these characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Having these characteristics is not really important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I strongly desire to have these characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

VITA

AMRO A. MAHER

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VITA

EDUCATION

Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA
Ph.D. in Business Administration, August 2007 (Expected)

University of Massachusetts, North Dartmouth, MA
Masters of Business Administration, 2001

Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt
Bachelors of Commerce: Business Concentration, 2000

HONORS AND AWARDS

- Best Ph.D. Student in Marketing at Old Dominion University, May 2008
- Fellow, Society of Marketing Advances Doctoral Consortium, Nashville, TN, November 2006
- Dean's List, University of Massachusetts Dartmouth 2001
- Top the class for three consecutive years, Alexandria University, 1998,1999,2000

RESEARCH

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Marketing Ethics: Assessing the impact of moral transgressions committed by companies on consumer perceptions and behaviors, examining the impact of materialism on

Cross Cultural consumer behavior: the impact of animosity and other emotions on consumer's perceptions of foreign products.

CONFERENCE PUBLICATIONS/PRESENTATIONS

Maher, Amro, "The Animosity Model: Extensions and Research Propositions," *Academy of Marketing Science Annual Conference*, Miami, FL, May 2007.

Maher, Amro, "Materialism: A Values Perspective," *Society of Marketing Advances Annual Conference*, Nashville, TN November 2006.

TEACHING

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Teaching Assistant — 2000 - 2001
Department of Decision and Information Sciences, College of Business
Univeristy of Massachusettes Darmouth, North Dartmouth, MA

Teaching Assistant — 2001 - 2003
Department of Mangement, College of Business
Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt

Instructor — Spring 2003
Department of Marketing, College of Business and Public Adminstration
Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA

UNDERGRADUATE COURSES

Old Dominion University

Priciples of Marketing: This course introduces students to the design, distribution, pricing, and promotion of goods, services, people, places, and causes. It examines both national and international markets and includes an introduction to the legal and ethical constraints on marketing.

Semesters Taught: Fall 2004 – 1 section with 40 students

Advertising Strategy: An examination of those advertising and promotional strategies directed toward the consumers of goods and services with emphasis on planning and executing an effective campaign to achieve meaningful goals.

Semester Taught: Spring 2005 – 1 section with 40 students
Fall 2005 – 1 section with 40 students

Multinational Marketing: This course involves an examination of the operational and cross-cultural aspects of international marketing, including the nature of competition, developmental marketing structures and channels, price and credit policies, promotional methods, trade barriers, and international arrangements.

Semester Taught: Spring 2006 – 1 section with 40 students

Marketing Research: In this course emphasis is given to the development of a strong theoretical base in the systematic selection, collection, and interpretation of marketing information leading to sound policies and strategies. Students are required to carry out a group project involving a marketing problem (or opportunity) for a company or involving a real market situation.

Semester Taught: Fall 2007 – 2 sections: 13 and 20 students

Services Marketing (Televised Course): This course examines the applications of the conceptual framework of marketing within the service business context. The course will focus on the characteristics of the service environment as well as important considerations in the service marketing mix.

Semester Taught: Summer 2007 – 1 section: with 36 students

SERVICE

PROFESSIONAL SERVICE

Reviewer: Conferences

- 2007 Macromarketing and Development Conference, Ethics, Corporate Social Responsibility, and Distributive Justice Track
- 2005 Academy of Marketing Science World Marketing Conference, International Marketing Track

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

- American Marketing Association, 2003 – 2005
- Soceity of Marketing Advances 2005 – Present
- Academy of Marketing Science 2007 – Present