



A RESEARCH TO EXAMINATE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BRAND HATE, NEWOM AND BOYCOTTING BEHAVIOR

Eda Dişli BAYRAKTAR¹, Binnaz ALP², Mustafa ALP³ Adem KALÇA⁴

Abstract

This study aims to examine the effect of brand hate on consumers' boycott behavior by exploring the mediating role of negative word-of-mouth (NeWOM). Data were collected from 396 consumers through an online survey distributed via social media and analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling. The findings reveal that brand hate significantly increases NeWOM; NeWOM influences boycott intention and partially mediates the relationship between brand hate and boycott behavior. Overall, strong feelings of brand hate enhance consumers' tendency to spread negative opinions and experiences, which directly or indirectly strengthen their intention to boycott; thus, the study contributes to understanding the negative emotional and communicational dimensions of consumer-brand relationships.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Brand Hate, Boycott Behavior, Negative Word of Mouth

JEL Sınıflandırması: M31, M37, D91

MARKA NEFRETİ, NEWOM VE BOYKOT DAVRANIŞI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİNİN İNCELENMESİNE YÖNELİK BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Öz

Bu çalışma, marka nefretinin tüketicilerin boykot davranışı üzerindeki etkisini olumsuz ağızdan ağıza iletişimin (NeWOM) aracılık rolü kapsamında incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Sosyal medya aracılığıyla ulaştırılan anketten elde edilen 396 katılımcıya ait veriler Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi ile analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular, marka nefretinin NeWOM davranışlarını anlamlı şekilde artırdığını; NeWOM'un boykot niyetini etkilediğini ve marka nefretinin boykot üzerindeki etkisine kısmen aracılık ettiğini göstermektedir. Sonuç olarak, yoğun marka nefretinin tüketicilerin olumsuz görüş ve deneyimlerini yayma eğilimini güçlendirdiği ve bunun boykot niyetini doğrudan veya dolaylı olarak artırdığı belirlenmiş; çalışma, tüketici-marka ilişkilerinin olumsuz duygusal ve iletişimsel yönüne ilişkin literatüre katkı sağlamıştır.

Keywords: Marka Nefreti, Boykot Davranışı, Olumsuz Ağızdan Ağıza Pazarlama

JEL Classification: M31, M37, D91

¹ Asst. Prof, Gümüşhane University İrfançan Köse Vocational School, Department of Management and Organization, edisli@gumushane.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-7334-1725

² Asst. Prof, Mudanya University, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, Department of Logistics Management, binnaz.alp@mudanya.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-0323-9864

³ Dr., Independent Researcher, Turkish Air Force Command, alpmust0@gmail.com, ORCID: 0000-0001-8295-2504

⁴ Prof.Dr. Karadeniz Technical University, Department of Economics, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, akalca@ktu.edu.tr, ORCID:0000-0002-9385-9062

1. Introduction

Consumer behavior, a fundamental marketing element, is considered crucial for establishing long-term emotional and functional relationships with brands (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Understanding consumers' expectations and needs in these relationships is crucial because it helps predict their purchasing decisions (Ramya & Ali, 2016). In the modern marketing approach, brands are not merely economic actors offering goods or services; they are also relationship-oriented structures responsible for meeting consumer expectations and establishing trust (Tekin et al., 2014). Consumers have both functional and emotional expectations from brands, and the extent to which these expectations are met is shaped by the brand experience process (Schiebler et al., 2025).

While the field of marketing generally focuses on positive consumer emotions such as loyalty, brand love, and satisfaction, examining negative emotions, attitudes, and behaviors is gaining importance (Demirağ & Çavuşoğlu, 2020). Brand hate, defined as the negative emotional response consumers feel toward a specific brand or brands, brings with it significant problems (Johnson et al., 2011; Ozdemir et al., 2024). Brand hate, unlike ordinary dissatisfaction, involves intense emotions such as disregard for value, disgust, and anger. The source of these negative and intense emotions can be dissatisfaction, a discrepancy between the brand's image and the perceived image, or various immoral triggers (Haase et al., 2022; Yağcı & Demiral, 2024).

These negative and strong emotional reactions, which weaken the bond between the consumer and the brand, actively mobilize consumers. Indeed, many studies have shown that brand hate leads to anti-brand behaviors in consumers, resulting in outcomes such as brand avoidance, brand damage, or negative communication (Demirağ & Çavuşoğlu, 2020; Hegner et al., 2017; Sameeni et al., 2023). One of the most important consequences of brand hate is that consumers tell others about their negative experiences with brands. Word of mouth (WOM) is an informal communication process in which individuals share information about products and services with their social circles (Demirbaş, 2018). The negative form of this communication, negative word of mouth (NeWOM), is defined as consumers sharing their bad experiences or dissatisfaction with their social circles (Ribeiro & Kalro, 2023). Many studies have proven that consumers share their negative experiences with others more than their positive ones (Aslam et al., 2011; Dölek, 2019). Especially today, due to technological advancements and the increasing intensity of social media use, NeWOM is rapidly spreading to large audiences, potentially damaging brand reputation (Dişli Bayraktar, 2023). Boycott behavior, on the other hand, occurs when consumers collectively refuse to purchase a brand or its products or services, engaging in protest against the brand's policies and practices. Boycotts, considered one of the most effective consumer responses to unethical, unfair, and unacceptable practices of institutions, can have significant negative impacts on brand image and the financial performance of businesses (Hoffmann, 2014; Makarem & Jae, 2016).

Recent empirical studies have revealed a significant relationship between brand hate and boycott intentions (Akrouf & Mrad, 2023; Sameeni et al., 2023). However, it has been reported that consumers experiencing brand hate engage in strong negative WOM behaviors driven by the urge to share their negative feelings with their social circles and seek support (Kucuk, 2008; Sameeni et al., 2023). NeWOM can both negatively impact a larger number of consumers by increasing feelings of hate and can also be a catalyst for collective protests such as boycotts (Bayir & Osmanoglu, 2022). For example, it has been concluded that WOM communication mediates the effects of environmental and ethical concerns on boycott decisions (Öztürk & Nart, 2021).

Recent studies have shown that consumers express negative feelings towards brands not only by distancing themselves from the brand but also by sharing them with others. However, how these negative feelings lead consumers to more active responses such as boycott behavior is still not entirely clear. The role of negative electronic word-of-mouth (NeWOM), particularly in digital environments, in this transformation has been addressed in a limited number of studies (Sameeni et al., 2024; Nguyen, 2018).

This situation is even more important in markets like Türkiye, where social interaction and digital sharing are strong. While studies in Turkey generally address brand hate in terms of consequences such as brand avoidance and negative communication (Balıkçioğlu & Kıyak, 2019; Çavuşoğlu & Demirağ, 2021), boycott behavior has mostly been examined through different variables (Öztürk & Nart, 2021). Therefore, studies that address how brand hate influences boycott behavior through NeWOM are quite limited.

This study aims to address this gap by examining the role of New World Order (NWO) in the relationship between brand hate and boycott behavior, using a Turkish case study, in order to provide a more comprehensive explanation.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Boycott Behavior

Boycotts were generally initiated by housewives between the early 1900s and the late 1970s to address rising food prices (Friedman, 1995). A boycott is a situation in which one or more parties pressure individuals to avoid using a certain brand, product, service, or public service to achieve a specific goal (Forno, 2022). While boycotts are generally initiated for political reasons, they can also occur for social, economic, religious, ethical, or ecological reasons, such as avoiding purchasing certain brands or products (Mata et al., 2023; Nguyen et al., 2018). Political boycotts occur when consumers reject goods and services imported from countries perceived as enemies (Cuadras-Morató & Raya, 2016). A social boycott refers to actions taken by consumers against low corporate social responsibility practices in businesses, such as labor exploitation and child labor (Cruz, 2017). These boycotts involve deliberately avoiding or not purchasing products due to political, social, or ethical concerns (Kam & Deichert, 2020).

Economic boycotts generally arise from economic grievances, such as price increases, and have been a common form of protest throughout history (Friedman, 1995). Today, high consumer awareness requires businesses to be fair and careful in their pricing policies. Otherwise, consumers may resort to economic boycotts to reduce prices and change their marketing practices (Atılğan et al., 2017). Ecological boycotts, on the other hand, arise when consumers act together against businesses that produce environmentally harmful or abusive products (Nguyen et al., 2018). Consumers who value religious values often adopt an opposing stance against groups that attempt to oppose these values. Religious beliefs thus serve as a motivating tool for consumers to participate in boycotts and are used to punish those who insult religious values. Religion-based boycotts involve calls for a boycott from consumers based on religious teachings (Uysal & Cömert, 2017). Boycotts are one of the most effective and deterrent anti-consumerist actions, particularly against businesses engaging in unethical or unfair practices (Makarem & Jae, 2016). In today's digital age, increased social media use leads to increased awareness and mobilization, stimulating collective participation and making consumer boycotts an important form of civil activism (Rahim et al., 2025).

2.2. Brand Hate

The definition of hate has been expressed as "a strong dislike or ill will toward someone or something; disgust; contempt" or "a desire to dislike or avoid someone or something; a desire to avoid" (Neufeldt & Guralnik, 1997). Sternberg (2003) argued that interpersonal hate is not merely a more intense form of interpersonal dislike but also a distinct construct, both empirically and conceptually.

In the marketing literature, Johnson et al. (2011) explore the concept of hate as "a strong opposition toward brands" in the context of consumer-brand relationships. They also suggest that the "self-esteem" level of consumer-brand relationships can increase the susceptibility to negative word-of-mouth, complaints, and even anti-brand behaviors such as theft, threats, or vandalism. Kucuk (2019) broadly defines brand hate as "consumers' disengagement from a brand and its

associations as a result of intense and deeply held negative emotions such as disgust, anger, contempt, devaluation, and disparagement." The intensity of consumers' negative feelings toward brands can lead to negative consequences for the business, such as dislike or even hatred of the brand. Just as brand love signifies more than simply liking a brand, the same emotional state evokes brand hate, which signifies more than simply disliking a brand (Delzen, 2014).

The first factor that leads to brand hate is the consumer's dissatisfaction with product or service performance or negative past experiences with the brand. The second determinant is the potential incompatibility between self-image and brand image. The final determinant relates to corporate misconduct that consumers find ideologically unacceptable for legal, moral, or societal reasons. In terms of behavioral consequences, brand hate leads to brand avoidance or hateful consumer behavior. These behaviors can range from mild (negative talk about the brand or negative word-of-mouth) to severe retaliatory behaviors (Hegner et al., 2017). Another study found that negative past experiences and ideological conflicts create hatred toward the brand, and this hatred leads consumers to attitudinal and behavioral outcomes such as avoiding the brand, reducing/stopping support for the brand, engaging in negative word-of-mouth, complaining, and seeking revenge against the brand (Shoja & Sadegh Vaziri, 2018). The consequences of brand hate were described in another study as brand avoidance, seeking revenge, taking action against the brand, complaints (complaints to relevant institutions/organizations/places and online complaints), negative word-of-mouth, and cyberbullying (Çıldırım & Ağlargoöz, 2021).

2.3. Negative Word-of-Mouth (NeWOM)

Word-of-Mouth (WOM) is an interpersonal communication in which consumers share their opinions about their consumption experiences. While WOM provides a credible message that stimulates consumer decision-making, negative WOM undermines the credibility of advertising and damages brand reputation. Word-of-Mouth can occur in physical conversations or on virtual platforms. This form of marketing, defined as electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM), is more effective than traditional word-of-mouth marketing. The reasons for this can be listed as follows (Liang, et al., 2013).

First, eWOM messages can spread quickly and possibly reach a large audience thanks to the growth of the internet and other electronic media (Litvin et al., 2008). Second, recipients of messages seek a broader range of comments online and therefore do not rely solely on the opinions of acquaintances (Senecal & Nantel, 2004). Third, eWOM can be accessed immediately or after a certain period of time; its digital footprint can remain permanently online (Sun, et al., 2006). Fourth, anonymity encourages people to post online reviews with the knowledge that they will not be identified (Phelps, et al., 2004). Finally, eWOM communication allows individuals to establish personal and social networks (Brown, et al., 2007). Negative word-of-mouth (NWOM) has been characterized as interpersonal communication among consumers about a marketing organization or product that disparages the object of the communication (Richins, 1984). Baumeister et al. (2001) argue that people are more likely to share negative experiences with others than positive ones. With negative word-of-mouth, consumers often want to warn others about their negative experiences with the brand and spread it. NeWOM tends to spread more widely, last longer, and have a greater impact than eWOM (Bachleda et al., 2016).

A study conducted in the United States shows that consumers used social media an average of 41 times in 2022 to share their personal experiences with a product. Among social media options, Facebook is the most used platform (57%), followed by Amazon (31%) and Instagram (31%). Facebook has also been ranked by consumers as the top site for user reviews of products (Chinn, 2023).

2.4. Hypothesis Development and Research model

Consumer behavior is a fundamental marketing component that determines the nature and continuity of emotional and functional relationships with brands (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Understanding consumer behavior is crucial for marketing because it helps predict purchasing decisions (Gajjar, 2013). In the modern marketing approach, brands are not merely economic actors offering products or services; they are also relationship-oriented structures responsible for meeting consumer expectations and establishing trust (Tekin et al., 2014). Consumer expectations for brands encompass not only functional but also emotional dimensions. The extent to which these expectations are met is shaped by the brand experience process (Schiebler et al., 2025). Most studies in the literature focus on positive consumer emotions such as brand love, loyalty, profitability, and sustainability. However, today, the importance of explaining negative emotions and behaviors is emphasized (Demirağ & Çavuşoğlu, 2020). Negative emotions such as brand hatred can increase word-of-mouth (NeWOM), which can mediate negative behaviors such as consumer boycotts and brand sabotage (Sameeni et al., 2024).

Based on this theoretical framework, the following hypotheses have been developed to test the relationships between the variables:

Brand Hate → NeWOM

Negative feelings that consumers develop towards brands do not remain merely an internal attitude, but also transform into outward communication behaviors. Brand hate is seen as a significant factor triggering negative word-of-mouth (NeWOM) by increasing consumers' motivation to share their negative experiences (Ribeiro & Kalro, 2023; Tariq, 2025). In this context, consumers share their dissatisfaction with their social circles, both to achieve emotional relief and to warn other consumers. Additionally, according to emotion-based response theory, intense negative emotions lead individuals to more visible and effective communication behaviors. This situation causes NeWOM to spread rapidly, especially in digital environments (Sameeni et al., 2024). Therefore, brand hate prepares the ground for consumers to share their negative experiences with wider audiences.

H₁: Brand hate positively influences consumers' tendency to engage in NeWOM behavior.

Brand Hate → Boycott Behavior: Brand hate leads consumers not only to give communicative responses but also to develop more active and behavioral responses. In particular, brand practices that contradict consumers' values can cause strong negative emotions to form and these emotions to transform into boycott behavior (Woodside et al., 2023; Akrouf & Mrad, 2023). This process can be explained within the framework of social identity and ethical evaluation. When consumers perceive ethical violations or a loss of trust, they tend to distance themselves from the brand by ending their relationship with it (Makarem & Jae, 2016). Furthermore, strong emotional responses can move individuals away from passive consumption and towards collective action. Therefore, brand hate is considered a significant determinant of more active and organized consumer behaviors such as boycotts (Sameeni et al., 2023, 2024).

H₂: Brand hate positively influences consumers' tendency to engage in boycott behavior.

NeWOM → Boycott Behavior: Negative word-of-mouth (NeWOM) is one of the important social influence mechanisms that shape consumers' boycott decisions. Consumers can re-evaluate their perceptions of a brand by being influenced by negative experiences shared by other individuals, and this process can trigger boycott behavior (Efendi & Alfansi, 2025). Furthermore, within the framework of social influence theory, NeWOM functions not only as information transfer but also as a normative pressure element. The credibility of the message and the expectation of social participation increase the likelihood of individuals engaging in boycott behavior (Shin & Yoon, 2016). Therefore, NeWOM is considered a critical intermediary mechanism that transforms consumers' individual decisions into collective behaviors.

H₃: NeWOM behavior positively influences consumers' tendency to engage in boycott behavior.

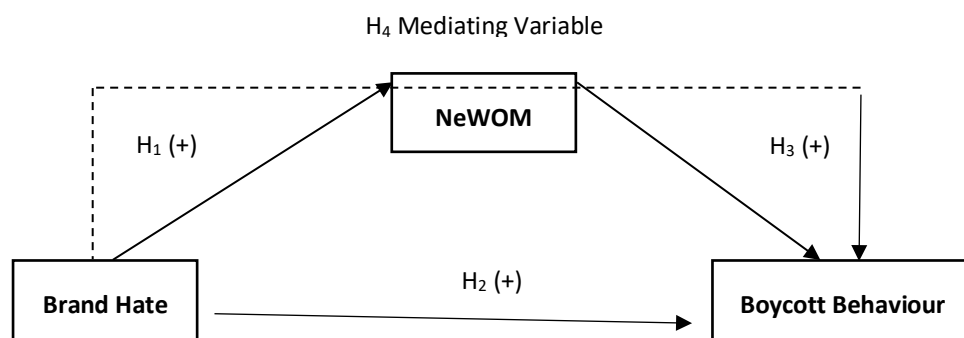
The Mediating Role of NeWOM: The relationship between brand hatred and boycott behavior cannot be explained solely by direct influence; communicative mechanisms play a significant role

in this process. Specifically, NeWOM facilitates the spread and strengthening of negative emotions experienced by consumers by transferring these emotions to social environments (Bayir & Osmanoğlu, 2022). In this context, brand hatred first increases NeWOM behavior, and then this communication process influences other consumers, strengthening boycott behavior. This shows that emotional response is transformed into a behavioral outcome through social interaction. The literature also contains findings indicating that consumer hostility influences boycott behavior through NeWOM (Sameeni et al., 2024). Therefore, NeWOM plays a critical mediating role in the relationship between brand hatred and boycott behavior.

H₄: NeWOM behavior has a mediating effect on the effect of brand hate on boycott behavior.

The research model created within this framework is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: **Research Model**



3. Data and Methodology

3.1. Purpose of the Research

This research aims to examine the processes through which consumers experiencing brand hate turn to boycott behavior. The research examines the mediating role of the negative word-of-mouth (NeWOM) variable in the relationship between brand hate and boycott behavior.

3.2. Research Population and Sample

Customers who have demonstrated brand hatred and boycotted a brand make up the research population. The sample was chosen using convenience sampling. Between July and August of 2025, 399 customers participated in this study via an online survey. Because three survey forms were deemed inaccurate, incomplete, or had the same number of options marked, they were not included in the analysis. A total of 396 survey forms were used for analysis.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

To achieve the research objective, data was collected from consumers who exhibited boycott behavior towards brands using a survey method. The survey form consists of three sections. The first section asked participants questions specifically about boycott behaviors. The second section included scale questions based on measuring variables that formed the research model. The third section included questions regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants. The scales used in the study were designed according to a 5-point Likert-type format (1_Strongly Disagree, 2_Disagree, 3_Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4_Agree, 5_Strongly Agree). The brand hate scale (6 items), developed by Hegner, Fetscherin, and van Delzen (2017) and used in Türkiye by Demirağ and Çavuşoğlu (2020), was used to measure participants' negative feelings toward the brands they boycotted. The "Boycott Behavior Scale" developed by Hoffmann et al. (2018) was used to measure participants' boycotting tendencies. The scale consists of 6 items and has a unidimensional structure. The "NeWOM Scale," developed by Sameeni et al. (2024), was used to

measure participants' tendency to share negative brand experiences in digital environments. The scale consists of four items and aims to assess NeWOM intensity with its unidimensional structure.

3.4. Research Ethics Committee Approval

The Gümüşhane University Scientific Research and Publication Education Board granted ethics committee approval for the study on September 26, 2025, with the number E-95674917-108.99-371566 / 2025/7.

4. Findings

In the first stage of the research, the skewness and kurtosis values for the data set were determined. Then, frequency analysis was used to analyze the responses obtained from the participants, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were used to measure validity, and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined for reliability. Secondly, analyses related to the measurement model and structural model analysis were conducted.

4.1. Skewness and Kurtosis Values for the Data Set

Specific values are obtained by calculating whether a dataset exhibits a normal distribution. The commonly used range for these values is between -1.5 and +1.5. According to another approach, the data set is deemed normally distributed if the result of dividing the skewness and kurtosis values by their standard error is less than 3.2 (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2017). The analysis revealed values for brand hate ranging from -1.274 to +1.354, boycott behavior ranging from -1.351 to +1.407, and neWOM ranging from -1.413 to +1.108. Based on this information, the data was determined to be normally distributed.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics on the Sample

Data was collected from 396 consumers as part of the study. Information on the sample is presented in Table 1. Table 1 includes information on age, gender, education level, monthly income, marital status, and professional experience.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Sample

Age	n	%	Monthly Income	n	%
18–25	122	30.8	25,000 TL and below	135	34.1
26–33	100	25.3	25,000 TL – 45,000 TL	56	14.1
34–41	72	18.2	45,000 TL – 65,000 TL	40	10.1
42–49	41	10.4	65,000 TL – 85,000 TL	47	11.9
50 and above	61	15.4	85,000 TL and above	118	29.8
Total	396	100.0	Total	396	100.0
Gender	n	%	Marital Status	n	%
Female	201	50.8	Married	153	38.6
Male	195	49.2	Single	243	61.4
Total	396	100.0	Total	396	100.0
Educational Status	n	%	Professional Experience	n	%
High School	20	5.1	Private Sector	94	27.5
Associate Degree	51	12.9	Public Sector	142	40.9
Bachelor's Degree	173	43.7	Retired	54	13.6
Master's Degree	152	38.4	Not Working	106	17.9
Total	396	100.0	Total	396	100.0

Descriptive statistics show that the sample is predominantly composed of young and middle-aged individuals (18–25: 30.8%; 26–33: 25.3%). The gender distribution is balanced (Female: 50.8%; Male: 49.2%). The fact that a significant portion of participants hold undergraduate or postgraduate degrees (Undergraduate: 43.7%; Master's: 38.4%) indicates a relatively high level of education within the sample. Regarding occupational distribution, participants are largely employed in the public sector (40.9%) and the private sector (27.5%). Findings regarding income

level show that the sample comprises diverse income groups (25,000 TL and below: 34.1%; 85,000 TL and above: 29.8%), indicating a heterogeneous structure.

This demographic structure indicates that the sample consists of socioeconomically active individuals and therefore provides a suitable dataset for analyzing brand-based evaluations and perceptions and attitudes towards boycott behaviors.

Table 2: **Statistics on the Reasons for Boycotting a Brand**

Reason for Boycotting the Brand	n	%
Political Stance of Brands	130	11.4%
Product/Service Quality	161	14.1%
Calls Made on Social Media	150	13.2%
Pricing Policy	137	12.0%
Religious Values	111	9.7%
Ethical Approaches of Brands	132	11.6%
Political Statements by Global Brands	110	9.6%
Support Given to Wars	128	11.2%
Social Injustice	81	7.1%
Total	1140	100.0%

The second set of descriptive statistics obtained from the analyses includes findings regarding respondents' reasons for boycotting the brand, their responses to the boycott, and the product categories they boycotted most. These findings are presented in Tables 2, 3, and 4.

When the frequency analysis results of the participant responses were evaluated, the most common reason for boycotting a brand was product/service quality. This was followed by calls for action on social media and the brands' political stance. The list of other reasons is presented in Table 2. There is no problem with the number n in Table 2 exceeding the sample size. Because respondents can select more than one option in a multiple-response response, the total number of n in the statement can exceed 1140.

Table 3: **Statistics on Responses to Boycotts**

Response to Boycotts	n	%
I view people's reactions positively	245	22.2%
I think negative consequences will emerge for brands	277	38.8%
I think it will harm the economy	170	18.2%
I find boycott behaviors unnecessary	26	6.7%
I do not have a clear opinion on this issue	50	14.1%
Total	668	100.0%

When examining the participants' responses to boycotts, the most frequent response was the option that "negative consequences will arise for brands," while the least frequent response was the option that "boycott behavior is unnecessary" (Table 3). There is no problem with the number n in Table 3 exceeding the sample size. Because respondents can select more than one option in multiple responses, the total number of n in the statement can exceed 668.

Table 4: **Statistics on the Most Frequently Boycotted Product Categories**

Product Category	n	%
Beverages (Coca-Cola, Starbucks, Cappy, Damla, Erikli, Lipton)	224	28.3%
Food Products (Algida, Danone, Nesquik, Becel, Calve, Danette, Knorr, Milka)	250	31.6%
Cosmetics and Personal Care (Dove, Axe, Gillette, İpana, Garnier, Pantene)	138	17.4%
Cleaning Products (Alo, Cif, Fairy, Domestos, Piril, Finish, Rinso, Perwoll, Omo)	108	13.7%
Baby Products (Aptamil, Prima, Nestlé, Pappers, Bebelac)	71	9.0%
Total	791	100.0%

An examination of Table 4 reveals the product categories on which participants most frequently exhibited boycott behavior. In this table, participants boycotted products in the

following categories, respectively: food (Algida, Danone, Nesquik, Becel, Calve, Danette, Knorr, Milka), beverage (Coca-Cola, Starbucks, Cappy, Damla, Erikli, Lipton), cosmetics and personal care (Dove, Axe, Gillette, İpana, Garnier, Pantene), cleaning products (Alo, Cif, Fairy, Domestos, Piril, Finish, Rinso, Perwoll, Omo), and baby products (Aptamil, Prima, Nestle, Pappers, Bebelac). There is no problem with the number n in Table 4 exceeding the sample size. Since respondents can select more than one option in multiple responses, the total number of n in the expression can exceed 791.

4.3. Validity and Reliability Analysis

The Bartlett test of sphericity (p value), which indicates whether the universal correlation matrix is an identity matrix 0.001, and the KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) sample adequacy value needed for exploratory factor analysis in the study was found to be 0.889. These findings led to the conclusion that the data and sample size were appropriate for factor analysis. After performing these tests, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to determine the validity of the scales. Cronbach's alpha coefficient and CR (composite reliability) values were examined to calculate the reliability values of the scales. Varimax was selected as the rotation method in the factor analysis. The factor analysis revealed a three-factor structure. All factor loadings were above 0.40 (İslamoğlu & Alniaçık, 2013: 379), as shown in Table 5. This provides important information about the validity of the scales. In addition to validity analysis, reliability results are also crucial. When reliability results are examined, it is seen that the values of all variables are above 0.60 (İslamoğlu & Alniaçık, 2013: 278). This indicates that the scales are reliable. The validity and reliability analysis results according to EFA are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability

Scales and Items	Factor Loadings	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Boycott Behavior		6.188	38.677	.975
BD_4	.936			
BD_7	.929			
BD_3	.927			
BD_1	.917			
BD_2	.916			
BD_6	.904			
BD_5	.902			
Brand Hate		3.925	24.530	.883
MN_6	.776			
MN_5	.751			
MN_3	.749			
MN_2	.747			
MN_1	.732			
MN_4	.720			
NeWOM		1.966	12.286	.806
NWM_1	.815			
NWM_2	.807			
NWM_3	.643			

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; **Rotation Method:** Varimax with Kaiser Normalization; **Total Explained Variance: 75.493%**

The studies from which the scales and statements used in the study were drawn are presented under the method heading. Because not all statements were taken from a single study, confirmatory factor analysis was required in conjunction with exploratory factor analysis. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis were obtained using the AMOS structural equation program. These results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Scales and Items	Std. Factor Loadings	Composite Reliability (CR)	AVE
Brand Hate		0.881	0.650
MN_6	0.778*		
MN_5	0.707*		
MN_4	0.738*		
MN_3	0.772*		
MN_2	0.752*		
MN_1	0.735*		
NeWOM		0.878	0.709
NWM_1	0.948*		
NWM_2	0.852*		
NWM_3	0.711*		
Boycott Behavior		0.974	0.845
BD_1	0.912*		
BD_2	0.901*		
BD_3	0.932*		
BD_4	0.949*		
BD_5	0.915*		
BD_6	0.895*		
BD_7	0.933*		

Note: All factor loadings are significant at the .001 level.

Table 7: Model Fit Values Results

Fit Index	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit	Analysis Result
CMIN/DF	$0 < \chi^2/df < 2$	$0 < \chi^2/df < 5$	2.691
CFI	$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq CFI < 0.97$	0.962
GFI	$0.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$0.90 \leq GFI < 0.95$	0.916
NFI	$0.95 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$0.90 \leq NFI < 0.94$	0.936
AGFI	$0.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1.00$	$0.85 \leq AGFI < 0.90$	0.906
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.08$	0.073

Reference: Good Fit; Acceptable Fit (Meydan & Şeşen, 2015)

4.4. Hypotheses Testing

Four hypotheses were developed within the scope of the study. The hypotheses are as follows: the first hypothesis is "brand hate positively affects consumers' tendency to exhibit NeWOM behavior." The second hypothesis is "brand hate positively affects consumers' tendency to exhibit boycott behavior." The third hypothesis is "NeWOM behavior positively affects consumers' tendency to exhibit boycott behavior." The fourth hypothesis is "NeWOM behavior has a mediating effect on the effect of brand hate on boycott behavior."

The study used structural equation analysis in the AMOS 24 program to determine whether NeWOM has a mediating role in the effect of brand hate on boycott behavior. One of the frequently used methods for determining the mediating role is the causality approach developed by Baron and Kenny (1986). However, this method has been criticized in recent years, and different new approaches have begun to be used. In this study, the bootstrap method was used to determine the mediating role. As a result of this test, if the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator variable is significant, there is no need for another test and the existence of the mediator effect is accepted (Köroğlu & Avcı, 2025). In the first stage, to decide whether the model is supported or not, the goodness of fit values of the models were calculated (For Model 1; X2/Df: 4.245, CFI: 0.96, GFI: 0.92, NFI: 0.92, AGFI: 0.86 and RMSEA: 0.075, for Model 2; X2/Df: 3.974, CFI: 0.97, GFI: 0.94, NFI: 0.93, AGFI: 0.87 and RMSEA: 0.052, for Model 3; X2/Df: 3.622, CFI: 0.95, GFI: 0.93, NFI: 0.93, AGFI: 0.86 and RMSEA: 0.068). These values indicate that the developed model is supported when examined according to the model fit values in Table

7 (Meydan & Şeşen, 2015). After determining the fit values, the hypotheses were examined. The results, including whether the hypotheses were supported, are presented in Table 8.

When Table 8 was examined, it was determined that brand hate had a statistically significant and positive effect on NeWOM ($\beta=.675$, $p=.000$). Based on this information, hypothesis H1 was accepted. Other findings indicated that brand hate had a statistically significant and positive effect on boycott behavior ($\beta=.557$, $p=.000$). Based on this information, hypothesis H2 was accepted. Similarly, it was determined that NeWOM had a statistically significant and positive effect on boycott behavior ($\beta=.432$, $p=.000$). Based on this information, hypothesis H3 was accepted.

Table 8: Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis	Direct Effect	S.E.	C.R.	Indirect Effect	p	95% CI (LL-UL)	Result
H1: MN → NeWOM	0.675	0.048	9.306	—	0.000*	—	Supported
H2: MN → BD	0.557	0.055	5.917	—	0.000*	—	Supported
H3: NeWOM → BD	0.432	0.042	4.578	—	0.000*	—	Supported
H4: MN → NeWOM → BD	—	0.052	—	0.34	0.000*	0.234-0.376	Supported

The absence of a zero value between the lower and upper confidence intervals (i.e., both being positive) confirms the statistical significance of the mediation effect in the analysis. When the results of the structural model analysis were examined, the direct effect of brand hate on boycott behavior was significant. The indirect effect through the mediating variable was also found to be significant. This finding aligns with the existing literature (Armağan & Altınkan, 2022; Shin & Yoon, 2016; Rahimah et al., 2022). Therefore, partial mediation is present in this model. Based on this information, hypothesis H4 was accepted.

5. Conclusion

Research on topics such as brand hate, NeWOM and boycotts has gained importance due to consumers harboring hostile feelings toward brands for various reasons (Kucuk, 2008; Sameeni et al., 2024). Considering that brand hate can have negative consequences for businesses when it transforms into NeWOM, this study offers important insights into the effects of these attitudes and behaviors on consumers. Within this framework, the primary objective of this study is to determine the mediating role of NeWOM in the relationship between brand hate and boycott behavior.

By analyzing the causal pattern within the brand hate–NeWOM–boycott triad within a comprehensive framework, this study adds to the literature in two ways. First, the findings indicate that brand hate both directly triggers boycotts ($\beta = .557$; $p<.001$) and indirectly translates into boycott behavior through NeWOM (indirect effect = .34; 95% CI = [.234; .376]; $p<.01$). Second, the independent and positive effect of NeWOM on boycott behavior ($\beta = .432$; $p<.001$) was confirmed, and brand hate was also found to increase NeWOM ($\beta = .675$; $p<.001$). When these structures were evaluated together, the partial mediation model was supported. Furthermore, the acceptable and good model fit values (CFI = .962; RMSEA=.073) indicate that the measurement and structural model are reliable. The findings from the research analysis are consistent with the literature emphasizing the impact of negative emotions on marketing outcomes and expand the evidence showing that brand hate transforms into NeWOM and is transferred to behavioral boycotts (Akrouf and Mrad, 2023; Makarem and Jae, 2016; Sameeni et al., 2024). The mediating role of NeWOM revealed by the analysis results strengthens the explanatory power of social influence tools, including information sharing and social cohesion mechanisms (Armağan and Altınkan, 2022; Shin and Yoon, 2016). The partial mediation finding of NeWOM in the relationship between brand hate and boycott behavior suggests that brand hate is transferred to boycotts through both direct and communicative means through a wide variety of sources, such as ethical-moral incompatibility, personal value conflict, and product or service-based dissatisfaction (Rahimah et al., 2022; Woodside et al., 2023).

It is crucial for businesses to monitor NeWOM intensity, which reflects negative emotions among consumers. For example, social monitoring, consumer attitude analysis, and risk intensity maps can be developed; when critical thresholds raise alarms, crisis action plans should be implemented. Furthermore, adopting transparency, rapid support, and ethical compliance-focused communication can be effective in reducing the impact of boycott intentions. Accountability, impartial assessment, and compensatory action plans should be considered and implemented, particularly for value-based triggers of hate, such as ethics, political discourse, and social justice.

This study contributes to the literature by examining the brand hate–NeWOM–boycott relationship within a process-based framework and by empirically testing the mediating role of NeWOM. While prior research has primarily focused on direct relationships, the findings demonstrate that negative emotional responses are transformed into behavioral outcomes through communicative mechanisms. In this context, NeWOM functions not only as an outcome of brand hate but also as a critical transmission mechanism that amplifies and disseminates negative consumer sentiments. From a theoretical perspective, the study extends the brand hate literature by integrating it with consumer resistance and boycott behavior frameworks. The results indicate that intense negative emotions toward brands evolve into collective consumer actions through social interaction processes, highlighting that emotional responses are socially constructed and behaviorally enacted, particularly in digital environments. Moreover, by focusing on the Turkish context, the study provides important contextual insights. The prevalence of digital communication and value-based consumption tendencies in Türkiye increases the explanatory role of NeWOM, suggesting that the brand hate–boycott relationship may vary across cultural settings.

Overall, the findings deepen the theoretical understanding of negative consumer–brand relationships by showing that boycott behavior emerges not only from direct emotional responses but also through socially mediated communication processes such as NeWOM.

This study has some limitations. First, research data were collected using a cross-sectional design and self-report method; this may limit the precise establishment of causal relationships between variables. Second, the sample was selected using convenience sampling and includes only consumers in Turkey; therefore, the generalizability of the findings to different cultural contexts is limited. Finally, the study focuses only on the variables of brand hatred, NeWOM (negative word-of-mouth), and boycott behavior, and other potential determinants such as perceived effectiveness, social norms, or ethical sensitivity were not included in the model.

References

- Akrout, H., & Mrad, M. (2023). Measuring Brand Hate in a Cross-Cultural Context: Emic and Etic Scale Development and Validation. *Journal of Business Research*, 154, 113289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2022.08.053>
- Armağan, E., & Altınkan, D. (2022). Koçluk Sürecinde Bireylerin Aktivite Odaklı Güdülenme, İlgilenim Düzeyleri ve Ağızdan Ağıza İletişim Eğilimlerinin İncelenmesi. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Uygulamalı Bilimler Dergisi*, 6(2), 323–353. <https://doi.org/10.31200/makuubd.1119254>
- Aslam, S., Jadoon, E., Zaman, K., & Gondal, S. (2011). Effect of Word of Mouth on Consumer Buying Behavior. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(3), 497. 10.5901/mjss.2011.v2n3p497
- Atılğan, K. Ö., İnce, T., & Yılmaz, S. (2017). Tüketicilerin Satın Alma Niyetleri ve Boykota Yönelik Tutumlarının Tüketici Sinizmi, Fiyat Şeffaflığı ve Fiyat Adaleti Bağlamında İncelenmesi. *Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 26(3), 34–44. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/cusosbil/issue/33225/369443>

- Bachleda, C., & Berrada-Fathi, B. (2016). Is Negative eWOM more Influential than Negative pWOM? *J Serv Theory Pract*, 26(1), s. 109–132. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/JSTP-11-2014-0254>
- Balıkçioğlu, B., & Kıyak, F. M. (2019). Marka Nefretinin Nedenleri ve Sonuçları Üzerine Antakya’da Görgül Bir Çalışma. *Çankırı Karatekin Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 9(1), 225-243. <https://doi.org/10.18074/ckuibfd.461010>
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Bayir, T., & Osmanoğlu, H. (2022). A Study on Consumer Animosity, Negative WOM (nWOM), and Boycott Behaviours of Rival Football Fans. *Sosyoekonomi*, 30(53), 227–242. <https://doi.org/10.17233/sosyoekonomi.2022.03.12>
- Bayraktar, E. D. (2023). Sosyal Medya ve Elektronik Ağızdan Ağıza Pazarlama Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi: Twitter Örneği. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 51, 307–321. <https://doi.org/10.52642/susbed.1288839>
- Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C., & Vohs, K. (2001). Bad is Stronger than Good. *Review of General Psychology*, 5, s. 323-370.
- Brown, J., Broderick, A., & Lee, N. (2007). Word-of-Mouth Communication within Online Communities: Conceptualizing the Online Social Network. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 21(3), s. 2–20. doi:doi: 10.1002/dir.20082
- Chinn, A. (2023). *National Customer Rage Survey: Top 10 Highlights For Service Teams in 2024*. 10 20, 2025 Tarihinde <https://blog.hubspot.com/service/national-customer-rage-survey> adresinden alındı.
- Chiu, H.-K. (2016). Exploring the Factors Affecting Consumer Boycott Behavior in Taiwan: Food Oil Incidents and the Resulting Crisis of Brand Trust. *International Journal of Business and Information*, 11(1), 49–66. <https://doi.org/10.6702/ijbi.2016.11.1.3>
- Cruz, B. de P. A. (2017). Social Boycott. *Revista Brasileira de Gestão de Negócios*, 19, 5–29. <https://doi.org/10.7819/rbgn.v0i0.2868>
- Cuadras-Morató, X., & Raya, J. M. (2016). Boycott or Buycott?: Internal Politics and Consumer Choices. *The B.E. Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy*, 16(1), 185–218. <https://doi.org/10.1515/bejeap-2014-0111>
- Çekirdekci, Ş. O., & Erarslan, E. (2023). National Hate Towards Global Brands. *Akademik Hassasiyetler*, 10(22), 335–356. <https://doi.org/10.58884/akademik-hassasiyetler.1327729>
- Çıldırım, Ö., & Ağlargoş, F. (2021). Dijital Çağda Marka Nefretinin Sonuçları. *Başkent Üniversitesi Ticari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 5(1), s. 36-63.
- Delzen, M. V. (2014). Identifying the Motives and Behaviors of Brand Hate. University of Twente.
- Demirağ, B., & Çavuşoğlu, S. (2020). Marka Kaçınması, Marka Nefreti ve Satın Alma Niyeti Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi: Spor Giyim Tercih Eden Tüketicilere Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *Alanya Akademik Bakış*, 4(3), 577-602.
- Demirbaş, E. (2018). An Overview on Traditional and Electronic Word of Mouth Communication (WOM). *Lectio Socialis*, 2(1), 16–26. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/lectio>

- Dinni, S. R. (2025). Mengurai Fenomena Brand Hate Terhadap Reputasi Merek Produk Israel: Sebuah Tinjauan. *Jurnal Ilmiah Universitas Batanghari Jambi*, 25(2), 1080–1086. <https://doi.org/10.33087/jiubj.v25i2.5823>
- Dülek, B. (2019). Tüketicilerin Marka Memnuniyeti ile Olumsuz Ağızdan Ağıza İletişim ve Online Şikâyet Davranışları Arasındaki İlişkinin Analizi. *Sosyal Bilimler Akademi Dergisi*, 2, 23–36. <https://doi.org/10.38004/sobad.514456>
- East, R., Hammond, K., & Wright, M. (2007). The Relative Incidence of Positive and Negative Word of Mouth: A Multi-Category Study. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 24(2), 175–184. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2006.12.004>
- Efendi, P. A. R., & Alfansi, L. (2025). Why do They Avoid It? Factors Behind Brand Avoidance Related to the Boycott, Divestment, and Sanctions (BDS) Movement. *Journal of Islamic Economics Lariba*, 11(2), 791–814. <https://doi.org/10.20885/jielariba.vol11.iss2.art6>
- Friedman, M. (1995). American Consumer Boycotts in Response to Rising Food Prices: Housewives' Protests at the Grassroots Level. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 18(1), 55–72. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01018088>
- Forno, F. (2022). Boycotts. In *the Wiley-Blackwell Encyclopedia of Social and Political Movements* (pp. 1–3). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470674871.wbespm016.pub2>
- Gajjar, N. B. (2013). Factors Affecting Consumer Behavior. *International Journal of Research in Humanities and Social Sciences*, 1, 10-15. - References - Scientific Research Publishing
- Gürbüz, S., & Şahin, F. (2017). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin.
- Haase, J., Wiedmann, K.-P., & Labenz, F. (2022). Brand Hate, Rage, Anger & Co.: Exploring the Relevance and Characteristics of Negative Consumer Emotions Toward Brands. *Journal of Business Research*, 152, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2022.07.036>
- Hair, J. F., Balck, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. London: Pearson Education.
- Hegner, S. M., Fetscherin, M., & Delzen,, M. (2017). Determinants and Outcomes of Brand Hate. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 26(Iss 1).
- Hoffmann, S. (2014). Does National Culture Impact Consumer Boycott Prevalence? A Multi-Country Study. *European Journal of International Management*, 8(2), 141–158. <https://doi.org/10.1504/EJIM.2014.059580>
- Hoffmann, S., Balderjahn, I., Seegebarth, B., Maid, R., & Peyer, M. (2018). Under Which Conditions Are Consumers Ready to Boycott or Buycott? The Roles of Hedonism and Simplicity. *Ecological Economics*(147), 167-178.
- İslamoğlu, A. H., & Alnıaçık, Ü. (2013). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Araştırma Yöntemleri*. İstanbul: Beta.
- Johnson, A. R., Matear, M., & Thomson, M. (2011). A Coal in the Heart: Self-Relevance as a Post-Exit Predictor of Consumer Anti-Brand Actions. *Journal of consumer research*, 38(1), s. 108-112.
- Kam, C. D., & Deichert, M. (2020). Boycotting, Buycotting, and the Psychology of Political Consumerism. *The Journal of Politics*, 82(1), 72–88. <https://doi.org/10.1086/705922>
- Köroğlu, A., & Avcı, İ. (2025). Dijital Pazarlama ve Müşteri İlişkileri Yönetiminin Tekrar Satın Alma Niyeti Üzerine Etkisi ve Marka Farkındalığının Aracılık Rolü. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Vizyoner Dergisi*, 16(45), 158-176.

- Kucuk, S. U. (2008). Negative Double Jeopardy: The Role of Anti-Brand Sites on the Internet. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(3), 209–222. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.bm.2550100>
- Kucuk, S. U. (2019). Consumer Brand Hate: Steam Rolling Whatever I See. *Psychology & Marketing*, 36(5), s. 431-443. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.21175>
- Liang, S. W.-J., Ekinci, Y., Occhiocupo, N., & Whyatt, G. (2013). Antecedents of Travellers' Electronic Word-Of-Mouth Communication. *Journal of Marketing Management*. doi:DOI:10.1080/0267257X.2013.771204
- Litvin, S. W., Goldsmith, R., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic Word-of-Mouth in Hospitality and Tourism Management. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), s. 458–468. doi:doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2007.05.011
- Makarem, S. C., & Jae, H. (2016). Consumer Boycott Behavior: An Exploratory Analysis of Twitter Feeds. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 50(1), 193–223. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12080>
- Mata, F., Baptista, N., Dos-Santos, M., & Jesus-Silva, N. (2023). Profiling European Consumers that Engage in Boycotting. *European Conference on Knowledge Management*, 24(1), 893–899. <https://doi.org/10.34190/eckm.24.1.1390>
- Meydan, C. H., & Şeşen, H. (2015). *Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi AMOS Uygulamaları*. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The Commitment-Trust Theory of Relationship Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(3), 20–38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224299405800302>
- Neufeldt, V., & Guralnik, D. B. (1997). *Webster's New World College Dictionary* (3.rd b.). New York Mcmillan.
- Nguyen, T. H., Ngo, H. Q., Ngo, P. N. N., & Kang, G.-D. (2018). Understanding the Motivations Influencing Ecological Boycott Participation: An Exploratory Study in Viet Nam. *Sustainability*, 10(12), Article 4786. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10124786>
- Ozdemir, H., Ergin, E. A., & Geçit, B. B. (2024). Can Brands Escape the Hate? A Keyword Analysis. *Journal of Brand Strategy*. 13 (3). <https://doi.org/10.69554/MTNR8479>.
- Öztürk, A., & Nart, S. (2021). Tüketici Boykot Davranışının Belirleyicileri Üzerine Bir Araştırma: Ağızdan Ağıza İletişimin Aracılık Rolü. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 20(78), 660–687. <https://doi.org/10.17755/esosder.784595>
- Pinto, O., & Brandão, A. (2020). Antecedents and Consequences of Brand Hate: Empirical Evidence from the Telecommunication Industry. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, 30(1), 18–35. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJMBE-04-2020-0084>
- Phelps, J. E., Lewis, R., Mobilio, L., Perry, D., & Raman, N. (2004). Viral Marketing or Electronic Word-of-Mouth Advertising: Examining Consumer Responses and Motivations to Pass Along Email. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 44(4), s. 333–348.
- Rahim, R. A., Harun, N. F. A., Ramli, F., & Azami, N. (2025). The Role of Social Media, Voice of Boycott, and Boycott Intention in Shaping Boycott Behavior Among Malaysian Students. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 15(9), 522–535. <https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBS/v15-i9/26373>
- Rahimah, A., Dang, H. P., Nguyen, T. T., Cheng, J. M.-S., & Kusumawati, A. (2022). The Subsequent Effects of Negative Emotions: from Brand Hate to Anti-Brand Consumption Behavior under Moderating Mechanisms. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 32(4), 618–631. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-12-2021-3778>
- Ramya, N., & Ali, S. M. (2016). Factors Affecting Consumer Buying Behavior. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 2(10), 76-80.

- Ribeiro, D. A., & Kalro, A. D. (2023). Four Decades of Negative Word-of-Mouth and Negative Electronic Word-of-Mouth: A Morphological Analysis. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 47(6), 2528–2552. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12962>
- Richins, M. L. (1984). Word of Mouth Communication as Negative Information. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 11(1), s. 697–702.
- Sameeni, M. S., Qadeer, F., Shahid, S., & Khurram, M. (2023). Differential Effects of Performance Versus Value-Based Brand Betrayal on Hate and Unfavorable Consumer Behaviors. *Journal of Social Sciences Review*, 3(2), 775–791. <https://doi.org/10.54183/jssr.v3i2.236>
- Sameeni, M. S., Qadeer, F., Ahmad, W., & Filieri, R. (2024). An Empirical Examination of Brand Hate Influence on Negative Consumer Behaviors through NeWOM Intensity. Does consumer personality matter? *Journal of Business Research*(173), 1-18.
- Schiebler, T., Lee, N., & Brodbeck, F. C. (2025). Expectancy-Disconfirmation and Consumer Satisfaction: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-024-01078-x>
- Senecal, S., & Nantel, J. (2004). The Influence of Online Product Recommendations on Consumers' Online Choices. *Journal of Retailing*, 80(2), s. 159–169. doi:doi:10.1016/j.jretai.2004.04.001
- Shin, S., & Yoon, S. (2016). Consumer Motivation for the Decision to Boycott: The Social Dilemma. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 42(2), 155–164. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12444>
- Shoja, A., & Sadegh Vaziri, F. (2018). Brand Hate: Analysis of Determinants and Outcomes of Brand Hate. *New Marketing Research Journal*, 8(2), s. 165-180. doi: <https://doi.org/10.22108/NMRJ.2018.104899.1305>
- Sternberg, R. (2003). A Duplex Theory of Hate: Development and Application to Terrorism, Massacres, and Genocide. *Review of General Psychology*, Vol. 7, s. pp. 299-328.
- Sun, T., Youn, S., Wu, G., & Kuntaraporn, M. (2006). Online Word-of-Mouth (Or Mouse): An Exploration of its Antecedents and Consequences. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 11(4), s. 1104–1127. doi:doi:10.1111/j.1083-6101.2006.00310.x
- Tariq, R. (2025). Navigating the path of brand hate: Exploration of Antecedents and Outcomes. *Journal of Social Sciences Review*, 5(3), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.62843/jssr.v5i3.553>
- Tekin, M., Şahin, E., & Göbenez, Y. (2014). Postmodern Pazarlama Yaklaşımıyla Modern Pazarlama Yöntemleri: Güncel Şirket Uygulamaları. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*(31.1), 225-232.
- Uysal, A., & Cömert, Y. (2017). Tüketici Boykotu Katılım Güdüleri: Muş İli Örneği. *Akademik Yaklaşımlar Dergisi*, 8(1), 97-125.
- Woodside, A. G., Akrou, H., & Mrad, M. (2023). Consumer Hate and Boycott Communications of Socially Irresponsible Fashion Brands: Applying Complexity Theory in Psychology and Marketing Research. *Psychology & Marketing*, 40(10), 1986–2015. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.21890>
- Yağcı, A. C., & Demiral, D. J. (2024). Marka Nefretinin Nedenlerinin ve Sonuçlarının Tüketicilerin Gıda Ürünleri Tercihleri Açısından İncelenmesi. *Bucak İşletme Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(2), 79–97. <https://doi.org/10.38057/bifd.1470592>