

2010

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[10.1108/13217341011059381](https://doi.org/10.1108/13217341011059381)

This article was originally published as: Smith, G. M., & Li, Q. (2010). The Boycott Model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical test in China. *Asian Review of Accounting*, 18(2), 106-130. Original article available [here](#)

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The Boycott Model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical Test in China

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ABSTRACT

Consumer boycotts are a worldwide and historic phenomenon in modern society. As the number of protests grows and as local authorities recognize the economic and political impact of such activities, then MNCs and host countries begin to see the historic and cultural perspective of these events besides the conventional consumer behavior perspective. To enable boycotting to become less harmful, MNCs management needs to understand what makes local consumers so affronted.

This study examines the relationships among six constructs in a boycotting issue context in order to explore Chinese consumers' willingness to boycott against Japanese products or services with the fallout from a Japanese former PM's continuous visits to a controversial war shrine since 2001.

The findings suggest that there are significant and positive pairwise relationships between boycott participation and three factors (i.e., animosity, efficacy and prior purchase). High animosity towards Japanese goods and the other two constructs at the high end of attitude spectrum, increase the level of willingness to engage in consumer boycott practices.

The findings of this study offer pivotal implications for decision-makers and the management of those western multinational enterprises who are concerned with increasing their share of the world's largest consumer market. In particular, Japanese MNCs need to pay much more attention to the oppressed and potentially explosive emotion of animosity as the legacy of past conflicts (i.e., war, economic, political etc.) between Japan and China in modern history. The results of this evaluation can potentially be generalized towards a strategic analysis of the boycott model in other hostile market situations.

1. Background

1.1. Introduction

Although the consumer boycott phenomenon has existed for more than a century, only recently has its surge of mainstream popularity motivated researchers to acknowledge its management value. In recent years, the study of consumer boycott behavior has moved from prescriptive and rather anecdotal attitudes to more descriptive and scientific stances. One of the most fruitful areas of consumer boycott research has focused on the leading motives behind protest activities. Since Klein et al. (1998) provided an initial test of the animosity model of foreign product purchase, numerous other studies (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Ettenson, Smith, Klein, & John, 2006; John & Klein, 2003; Klein, Smith, & John, 2002) have contributed to its theoretical framework by offering extensive discussions of other factors and their application in diversified contexts, which embrace consumer ethnocentrism, product judgment, and willingness to participate in boycotts.

Within the extensive literature of interest, comparatively little research has focused on establishing an integrated model of boycott participation. In addition, most studies have been conducted using consumers in developed countries as subjects. However, it has become increasingly clear that consumer boycott is a serious issue in concomitance with emerging nationalism in the context of transforming China's civil society. The incidence of consumer boycotts in contemporary China has resulted in a large number of foreign companies and their products or services, being subjected to this disturbing problem. Consequently, many foreign multinational enterprises have suffered heavy losses, economically and politically, from Chinese consumer strikes. Furthermore, several foreign firms were ultimately forced to quit Chinese markets completely. The most striking boycott incident emerged in 2006 after Japanese Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi visited a controversial war shrine, Yasukuni Shrine, each year during his tenure of office. Consequently nearly all Japanese firms and their goods (e.g., cars, departments, consumer electronics, and cosmetics) became the target of public criticism and purchase sacrifice at that time (Deans, 2007; Yamamura & Sakamaki, 2007; Zhao, 2006).

The primary purpose of this study is to investigate and ascertain the effects of integrative motivation on the willingness to participate in boycott activities. A modified boycott model is developed and tested by means of mail survey and structural equation modeling (SEM). One significant research question to be addressed in this study is depicted as: Is the proposed boycott model a well-grounded framework to penetrate consumer boycott issues in China?

1.2. Controversial Yasukuni Shrine

Memorials to war and the war dead are redolent of symbolism (Deans, 2007). They are potentially effective in carrying powerful understandings of the past, and often try to make the sacrifices of those who died "explicable, worthwhile or noble". However, Nelson (2003) suggests that Yasukuni is atypical of stories of commemoration of the victims in many ways, and different from Japan's religious traditions to console the relatives and friends of those who died. As a defeated country subject to unconditional surrender after WWII, Japan stood condemned by the international community. In addition, their leaders were found guilty of war crimes and executed by an international tribunal. Accordingly, Japan's sacrifices could only become 'noble' or 'respective' by means of reinterpreting or challenging these judgments from other countries. This intent was partly achieved by locating Japan as a victim of war as well, through casting a strong focus on Japanese suffering, especially the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, in order to shift attention away from the imperialist aggression against Asian nations that led to these events (Deans, 2007).

The Shrine exists as a memorial to those sacrifices in war, but a key dispute surrounding the Yasukuni Shrine issue is the manner in which the Shrine presents and portrays the past. The shrine is more than a religious site; it contains a controversial museum, the Yushukan, which presents a 'revisionist reading' of Japanese history that is deeply contested in Japan and especially in neighbouring Asian countries (Deans, 2007). Critics

claim that the Yushukan museum glorifies Japan's military past, whitewashes or even denies Japanese atrocities on other nations and presents a visional Japanese history of both fantasy and offence. The primary constituency of the museum, typically right-wing Japanese nationalists, argues that Yushukan is honest and true to Japan's past, furthermore the museum is designed to counter a 'masochistic historical view' which many Japanese extreme nationalists believe dominates current discussion of Japan's modern history (Asahi, 2006). For these radical groups this museum represents the nobility of Japanese devotees and the tremendous interests Japan has brought to Asia, as well as an end to Western imperialism since the nineteenth century.

For right-wing groups, both the Yushukan and Shrine are widely perceived as the most important symbol of a reconsidered and reinterpreted history of militarism, which is so important to the aspirations of a Japanese revisionist nationalism, that still prevails in the ruling Liberal Democratic Party (LDP), and which seeks to make the sacrifices of those who died just and worthwhile and dedicated to a higher purpose. In this regard, it directly challenges, confronts and rejects the dominant narrative of modern history in most other Asian countries and in western historiography. It is this rejection and confrontation that largely provokes critics and opponents of visits to the Yasukuni Shrine by senior Japanese political figures.

As well as involving the post-war political background and manner of its interpretation, the Yasukuni Shrine in Tokyo has also invited controversy with both elite politics and the politics of changing nationalist movements in Japan and its Asian neighbours (Deans, 2007). This shrine is open to multiple interpretations and the inability to agree on a settled reading ensures that high-ranking officials' visits result in significant political storms. Other issues relate to its status and to an ambiguous relationship to the Japanese state: both as a private institution and a public memorial, so that as the tension began to accumulate, a political event was triggered by the visits of Japanese politicians. At the outset, shrine visits by senior government officials were a longstanding custom after WWII, however, the visits took on special significance in the late 1970s when their nature became open to suspicion in the case of a visit paid by a Prime Minister. More doubts followed with the decision to enshrine and commemorate Class-A war criminals at Yasukuni Shrine. The resumption of regular visits by PM Koizumi caused remarkable damage to Japan's foreign relations. The visits, however, brought Koizumi substantive political interests with regard to his position within the ruling LDP and also demonstrated the significance and importance of the 'revisionist' strand within Japanese nationalist thinking (Deans, 2007).

2. Previous research on consumer boycott

2.1 Origin of the concept

As an appealing subject within studies of consumer behavior, issues around consumer boycotts have been a discomfoting topic for the multinationals. Once their products are targeted by influential individuals or organizations who abstain from buying, sales fall rapidly and customers quickly disappear. Because the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has been given much more attention since 1990s, corporate brands and reputations are simultaneously open to more public censure around the world. Thus, consumer protests often affect corporate decision-making directly. In this regard, this sort of extreme activity reflects increasing consumer power and further a set of sophisticated control systems devised for the surveillance of global business.

Friedman (1985) first defined the consumer boycott in its modern sense:

.....an attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in the marketplace (p. 97).

As Friedman (1985) states, abstaining from buying is launched by a non-governmental organization (NGO) that proposes the act of deprecating immoral business practices. What the NGOs concern typically embrace social and ethical issues, such as pacificism, gender equality and consumerism. As an extreme case of consumerism, consumer boycotts impact significantly on consumer purchase decisions.

Klein et al. (2004) observe that consumer boycotts may be tracked back to the fourteenth century. They believe, this shift of protesting focus mirrors both the increased power of MNCs and, “paradoxically”, the enhanced vulnerability pertaining to business prestige reputation and corporate image. This statement supports previous research, which demonstrated a positive link between corporate record on CSR and perceived corporate images (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001).

Within the extensive literature on consumer boycotts, Klein et al. (2004) note that the majority of preceding studies elaborate conceptual or descriptive findings, and their core of attention is not concentrated on consumers per se except for two studies which examine inductive factors behind consumers’ boycott decision (Kozinets & Handelman, 1998; Sen, Gurhan-Canli, & Morwitz, 2001). Kozinets and Handelman (1998) argue that willingness to participate in protests is a mix of “individuality” and “moral self-realization”. Other research looks into the influencing causes underlying consumers’ participation decisions (Sen, et al., 2001). They suggest that consumers’ intent on a boycott often makes their decision based on their “perception of the likelihood of the boycott’s success” (i.e. the construct of ‘consumer efficacy’ in this paper), “susceptibility to normative social influences”, and the “costs associated with boycotting” (Klein, et al., 2004).

2.2 Manifestation of consumer boycott

Ettenson and Klein (2005) suggest that relevant research on consumer boycotts has surprisingly been paid much more attention by political science and organizational behavior (Gelb, 1995; Smith, 1990) rather than the field of consumer behavior. Because the process of correlation between enterprise and its customers constitutes the foundation of marketing rationale, it is a curious to find that so few studies relate to consumer behavior (Bagozzi, 1975; Houston & Gassenheimer, 1987). Nevertheless, it is encouraging to see that this deficiency has been addressed in the last decade with more research on relevant theoretical and empirical issues (Hui & Au, 2001; Stephens & Gwinner, 1998; Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998).

In Friedman's (1999) view, any consumer boycott behavior commonly has two foremost purposes: instrumental and expressive. Firstly, the main goal of an Instrumental boycott lies with forcing the targeted firms to modify initial policies of marketing, for example, lowering prices or improving after-sales service and recall. In general, this sort of boycott often claims concrete solutions. By contrast, an expressive boycott manifests itself in a more generalized form of protest, which aims at appeasing customers' dissatisfaction derived from corporate policies. Accordingly, it is characterized by a "vague statement of goals and may simply vent the frustrations of the protesting group" (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Klein, et al., 2004).

From the perspective of boycotted firms, they can be categorized as directly-boycotted or indirectly-boycotted (Friedman, 1991, 1999; Smith, 1990). With regard to the former, they are officially rebuked by consumers or specific groups as the "chief criminal" committing offensive policies. As a result, consumers withhold purchase of a specific brand, or even all products produced by that offending target. If so, that producer needs to address the main consequences of controversial policies of marketing.

For the indirect boycott, the targeted firm is not the real source of contentious issues, but serves as a sacrificial lamb. In this case, consumers or their agents would impute undue business practices to that genuine "troublemaker" and subsequently constrain buying their products or services. In other words, a firm that is seemingly the "outlier" of consumer issues will be revealed and receive social condemnation in the marketplace. Friedman (1991, 1999) and Garrett (1987) argue that, it is the increasing consumer power that brings economic and social pressures to bear on those unethical firms and urges them to change their policies.

Generally, an indirect boycott occurs in cases of controversial or sensitive incidents with alleged damaging bilateral or multilateral relations. Typically at the beginning of an issue, certain foreign governments or other influential organizations arouse strong antipathy to consumers as a whole through controversial policies or actions. Next, one often observes one or a series of protests played out in domestic or even global markets. For example, in the case of France's nuclear testing in 1995, the French government took its own course and eventually evoked widespread protests around the South Pacific region including Australia and New Zealand. Local consumers throughout the region funneled all their

anger into sales resistance against all Made-In-France products and services (Business Korea, 1995; Economist, 1995; Henry, 1995; Rees & James, 1995; Ueda, 1995). Ridiculously, even firms “with only a spurious association to France (for example, locally owned French bakeries and restaurants)” reported a negative impact on sales (Ettenson & Klein, 2005).

The Carrefour Event is another case in point, occurring during the 2008 Beijing Olympics in China. France bore the brunt of the criticism from Chinese nationalistic activists following the Olympic torch’s unpeaceful relay in Paris in April, 2008. At that time, pro-Tibet protesters tried to grab the torch from a female Paralympic fencer and the French government was accused of connivance. The parent company of two famous French giants, Carrefour and Louis Vuitton was alleged to have donated money to the Dalai Lama, blamed by Chinese authorities for spurring on rebels in Tibet. Soon Chinese nationalists called on local consumers to cease shopping in Carrefour supermarkets and LV stores lest Chinese people “give the French money by buying their products” (BBC, 2008).

In addition to several taxonomies of consumer boycott elaborated in the preceding paragraphs, consumer boycott behaviour may also be classified on the grounds of organizational and individual leadership. As argued by Garret (1987), any protest activity is organized by either a single or several groups, so that boycotts perpetrated by individual consumers are rarely seen in the marketplace. The underlying purposes of an individual boycott are threefold: responsiveness, diversity, and spontaneity. Ettenson and Klein (2005) suggest that the success rate of a protest is based on the level of an individual consumer’s intent to participate publicly rather than as a simple appeal initiated by any consumerist or group. Moreover, the unfeigned motive of a certain participant is subject to their own discretion (John & Klein, 2003; Sen, et al., 2001). They are likely to join a specific campaign for the sake of discontentment, and in this case their participation can be conceptualized as expressive motivation. But other consumers engage in boycotts to modify undue business behaviour; thus the underlying reason for participation can be termed as instrumental motivation. The third form of protest can be designated as a ‘grass-roots movement’ not tightly organized by any specific group (Ettenson & Klein, 2005). In this regard, a consumer’s refusal to buy may be defined as a spontaneous response against offending corporate practices on their own. In the case of the 2005 anti-Japan boycotts and 2008 Carrefour event, up to now no organization, implicitly or explicitly, has been identified as being responsible for launching or supporting these consumer boycotts.

3. Modeling willingness to boycott in victimized countries

This study examines the relationships among consumer animosity, consumer efficacy and consumers’ willingness to participate in boycott activity, in a model of consumer prior purchase in China. The theories of animosity, ethnocentrism, product judgment etc. are

adopted to explain consumers' willingness to protest against Japanese goods in some Chinese cities, which are selected to explore their specific responses in the context of anti-Japanese sentiment. Figure 1 shows the hypothetical relationships between the variables.

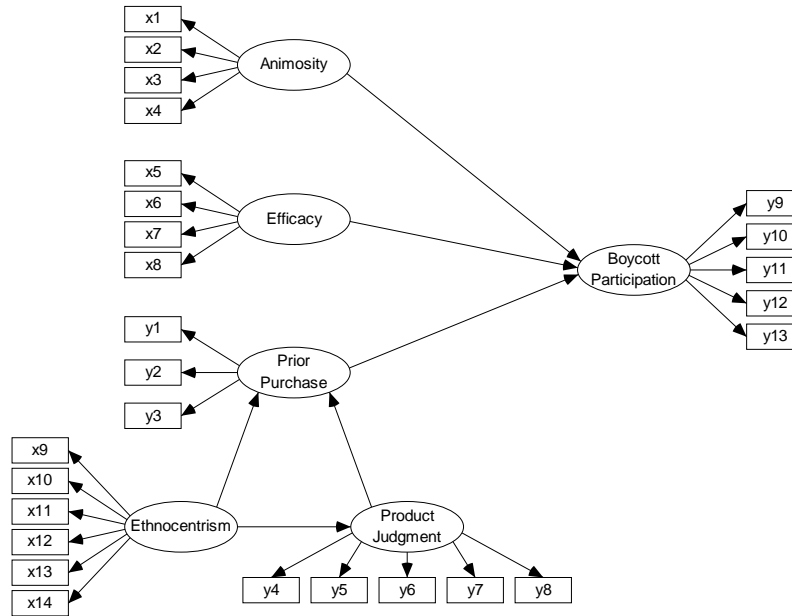


Figure 1 The Proposed Model of Boycott Participation

3.1 Research model

The study provides a country-specific analysis of consumer protest behavior, investigating whether Chinese consumers forgave Japan and returned to their previous purchase patterns for Japanese products or whether lingering animosity continues to affect their marketplace decisions.

Most notably, this study goes beyond the measurement of attitudes toward the purchase of Japanese products to an assessment of actual boycott participation. As a variant of the animosity model, the boycott model developed and tested by Ettenson and Klein (2005) incorporates the boycott participation factor and is introduced into this study in the context of Chinese circumstances.

As in the animosity model, this study tests whether or not anger is a determinant of consumers' purchase decisions. But instead of actual boycott participation, the boycott model predicts attitudes toward buying (Ettenson & Klein, 2005). The construct of boycott participation is operationalized as five variables (questions) by which the levels of consumers' willingness to boycott are determined. Consumers can exhibit a range of behaviours when choosing to withhold consumption of Japanese products. Some may

avoid purchasing all products associated with Japan whenever possible, regardless of their place of origin. Others may ignore the boycott and continue to purchase Japanese products as they have in the past. Still others may feel guilty at buying or even choose to stop purchasing Japanese goods. Thus, Chinese consumers are asked whether they have typically ceased to purchase Japanese products from a variety of standpoints (e.g., 'feel guilty', 'never buy' or 'avoid buying') before the shrine visits began.

As Figure 1 shows, the boycott model tests whether animosity, prior purchase, product judgments and consumer efficacy predict boycott participation. Prior purchase is included in the model because those who purchased Japanese goods more often or across many categories before the boycott are in a position to exhibit a higher degree of boycott participation. Prior purchase, in turn, is expected to be a function of consumer ethnocentrism and product judgments; those who are lower in consumer ethnocentrism and who perceive Japanese product quality as high are more likely to have purchased Japanese goods before the boycott.

Consumer ethnocentrism is not expected to predict boycott participation directly, given that its impact should be captured in its effect on prior purchase. Judgments of Japanese product quality, however, are expected to have a direct negative effect on boycott participation. Those who are enamored with Japanese products should find the avoidance of these goods to be particularly costly, and thus may be less likely to participate in a boycott.

The boycott model also includes the construct of consumer efficacy, defined here as the belief by consumers that a boycott is an effective mechanism for coercing a target to change an objectionable policy (for example, Q08 in the survey instrument "By refusing to buy Japanese goods, Chinese consumers can have an effect on the policies of the Japanese government" in Appendix 1). Considering Friedman's (1991) categorization of boycotts as instrumental or expressive, belief in the efficacy of a boycott suggests that the individual holds instrumental motivations for participation; i.e. the boycott goals are achievable.

In addition, the boycott model is designed to explore whether those consumers who are high in consumer efficacy are more likely to participate in a boycott than those who believe that boycotts are not likely to be successful in implementing change. Further, the relative impact of efficacy versus animosity on boycott participation indicates the degree to which participating consumers are motivated by instrumental or expressive goals. If animosity, but not efficacy, is a strong predictor of boycott participation, then the protest would appear to be expressive in nature. In other words, Chinese consumers in this case do not expect that their actions will alter an objectionable policy. Instead, an expression of anger is driving their decision to boycott.

In brief, this study therefore tests whether the boycott model can be generalized to Chinese consumers who manifest themselves in the degree to which participating in a consumer boycott is motivated by the hostile feeling or the interests of others.

3.2 Research hypotheses

The present study extends our understanding of consumer protest behavior by developing and testing the boycott model shown in Figure 1. A number of relationships are predicted among the constructs. Ettenson and Klein (2005) suggest that their boycott model shows that consumer animosity, consumer efficacy and prior purchase levels all predict the degree to which a consumer participated in the boycott. Therefore, the present study hypothesizes that:

- H1: Chinese consumers' animosity toward Japan will be a positive predictor of boycott participation.
- H2: Chinese consumers' efficacy will be a positive predictor of boycott participation.
- H3: Prior purchase experiences of Chinese consumers will be a positive predictor of their boycott participation.

However, the research of Ettenson and Klein (2005) generates new findings that show product judgments and consumer ethnocentrism to be predictive only of prior purchase levels, and not boycott participation. While positive product judgments led to higher initial purchase levels, these high opinions did not prevent boycott participation. So, further hypotheses are suggested:

- H4: Chinese consumer ethnocentrism will be a negative predictor of prior purchase.
- H5: Product judgments of Chinese consumers will be a positive predictor of prior purchase.

Previous research also found that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related both to evaluations of product quality and to the willingness to buy foreign products (Klein, et al., 1998; Netemeyer, Durvasula, & Lichtenstein, 1991; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). We, therefore, hypothesize that:

- H6: Chinese consumers' ethnocentrism will be a negative predictor of Japanese product judgments.

4. Research methodology

4.1 Procedure of Data collection

A two-stage (double) stratified systematic random sampling scheme is chosen to collect the consumer sample from a mail survey. In the first stage, cities appearing on the China map of the 1940's were stratified by the status of occupation by Japanese during WWII (USMA, 2005). All 71 cities were then classified into two groups, namely, the occupied group and free group. The former by and large covers the eastern coastal region which comprises 36 cities. The latter includes the remaining 35 cities which are scattered about

the middle and west regions. Two cities, Harbin and Jinan, were randomly selected from the pool of ‘occupied’ cities, while two other cities, Chengdu and Kunming, were randomly selected from that of ‘free’ cities. By the aid of the census database operated by local Bureau of Public Security (BPS), a roster of 200 potential participants in each city was compiled. Each roster of participants, with postal addresses, was automatically drawn out from the census database with the systematic random sampling technique. Thus 800 citizens in 4 cities were identified as a sample pool for this survey. Potential participants were mailed a letter of inquiry in November 2007.

After two reminder letters, 253 completed questionnaires had been mailed back to the researchers in China representing 32.48% of the total eligible sample of potential participants. This rate is consistent with the anticipated response from a mail survey and adequate for statistical analysis.

Twelve copies of questionnaires were eliminated from the pool because of missing data; the remaining sample size (241) is still large enough to permit appropriate statistical analysis (Fang-Ming, 2006; Hancock & Mueller, 2006). The general information of all respondents completing the survey was summarized as follows (see Table 1).

Table 1 Summary of All Respondents by Area

Area	City	Sample size	Gender	Age	Income	Education background
Occupied Area	Harbin	57	52% male	58% 20-50	66% ≤ ¥40,000	48% < University
	Jinan	59	53% male	61% 20-50	64% <¥40,000	61% < University
Free Area	Chengdu	54	48% male	63% 20-50	74% <¥40,000	65% < University
	Kunming	61	54% male	62% 20-50	66% <¥40,000	59% < University
Total	4	241	52% male	61% 20-50	67% <\$50,000	58% < University

4.2 Preliminary Data Analysis

4.2.1 Demographic Analyses

Overall response rates are over 52 percent male and 48 percent female across the four cities sampled. Most of the respondents (61%) are between the ages of 20 and 50 and well educated, with roughly half (47%) having a college certificate or university degree. The incomes of the consumers are distributed quite evenly across the six salary levels, ranging from less than ¥15,000 to more than ¥80,000 RMB.

Generally speaking, the sample as a whole appears quite homogeneous on nearly all variables, for instance, gender, age, income, and industry. With respect to education, a slight difference existed only between the Harbin sample and others. The Jinan, Chengdu and Kunming are the most closely matched with regard to the percentage of under-university education background with 61%, 65% and 59%, respectively. The Harbin

sample, however, has the lowest percentage of 48% under-university respondents. The dataset collected via survey was verified with the Chi-Square Test, to show that it met the requirement of homogeneity for subsequent statistical analysis.

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics

All consumer participants were asked to evaluate some indicatory questions attributed to six constructs respectively (see Appendix 1). Outcomes of key measures are summarized in Table 2:

Table 2 Deviation Assessment of All Constructs

Construct	Variable	SD	Mean	Evaluating
Consumer Animosity	X1	1.410	5.27	Higher
	X2	1.431	5.21	Higher
	X3	1.370	5.26	Higher
	X4	1.235	5.12	Higher
Consumer Efficacy	X5	1.477	4.67	High
	X6	1.382	4.74	High
	X7	1.442	4.65	High
	X8	1.514	4.82	High
Consumer Ethnocentrism	X9	1.744	3.51	Medium
	X10	1.555	3.68	Medium
	X11	1.568	3.59	Medium
	X12	1.520	3.59	Medium
	X13	1.705	3.71	Medium
Prior Purchase	X14	1.657	3.58	Medium
	Y1	1.422	5.09	Higher
	Y2	1.279	5.16	Higher
Product Judgment	Y3	1.288	5.02	Higher
	Y4	1.276	5.15	Higher
	Y5	1.234	5.10	Higher
	Y6	1.246	4.98	Higher
	Y7	1.293	5.22	Higher
Boycott Participation	Y8	1.323	5.24	Higher
	Y9	1.382	5.41	Higher
	Y10	1.410	5.33	Higher
	Y11	1.279	5.38	Higher
	Y12	1.299	5.39	Higher
	Y13	1.300	5.45	Higher

4.3 Measurement Assessment

4.3.1 Reliability

In order to test the internal consistency of the scales measuring a latent variable, Cronbach's alpha was used. Cronbach's coefficient alpha estimates for the 6 subscales (i.e., animosity, efficacy, ethnocentrism, prior purchase, product judgment, and boycott participation) were between the ranges of 0.904 and 0.959 (see Table 3). Animosity

consisted of four items showing a reliability score of 0.915. The efficacy construct included four items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.910. The ethnocentrism construct consisted of six items with a reliability of 0.959. Product judgment consisted of five items showing a reliability score of 0.904. Finally, the construct of boycott participation included five items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.910. In addition, the α value of the overall data reached 0.769, close to the 0.80, recognized as “significant” by Gefen, Straub et al. (2000) and Fang-Ming (2006).

In brief, all the values of individual constructs’ reliability were significant ($>.90$), indicating that the data set collected from the survey had a high level of reliability and was sufficiently reliable for subsequent quantitative analyses.

Table 3 Reliability Test

Factor	Item	Cronbach's Alpha
Consumer Animosity	X1	0.915
	X2	
	X3	
	X4	
Consumer Efficacy	X5	0.910
	X6	
	X7	
	X8	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	X9	0.959
	X10	
	X11	
	X12	
	X13	
Prior Purchase	X14	0.911
	Y1	
	Y2	
Product Judgment	Y3	0.904
	Y4	
	Y5	
	Y6	
	Y7	
Boycott Participation	Y8	0.910
	Y9	
	Y10	
	Y11	
Whole scale	Y12	.769
	Y13	

4.3.2 Construct Validity

4.3.2.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which the latent variable correlates to other items designed to measure the same construct. Convergent validity can be evaluated by examining the parameter estimates and their corresponding t-values. This procedure of validity was investigated at first through the conduct of a Principal Components Analysis.

The components of four individual samples were identified in a Rotated Component Matrix with the major significant factors highlighted. Six factors were extracted from the significant loadings for 27 variables, which is consistent with previous findings (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Ettenson, et al., 2006; Klein, Ettenson, & Krishnan, 2006; Klein, et al., 1998). All individual variables had significant loadings on one factor. Communalities were checked for these variables and found to be above the recommended 0.05 level.

In order to reconfirm the data power of this survey, an alternative approach was necessary to be introduced specifically in terms of convergent validity. Given the theory of AMOS software package, the AMOS output presents Critical Ratios (C.R.) rather than t-values, C.R. is used as well for the evaluation of convergent validity. According to Arbuckle (2007), using a significance level of 0.05, any critical ratio greater than 1.96 in magnitude for a two-tail test would be statistically significant.

Table 4 shows that the critical ratios obtained from the parameter estimates provided clear evidence of the convergent validity of the research variables. No matter whether within the total sample or a separate sample of survey, the C.R. values for all indicators exceeded the 1.96 equivalent (ranging from 12.774 to 25.438), with each significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4 Factor Loadings, SE and CR

Factor	Item	Parameter Estimates	Standard Error	Critical Ratios
Consumer Animosity	X1	1.000	----	----
	X2	.943	.053	17.725
	X3	.958	.048	19.890
	X4	.797	.051	15.750
Consumer Efficacy	X5	1.000	----	----
	X6	.834	.046	18.151
	X7	.827	.050	16.638
	X8	.887	.048	18.491
Consumer Ethnocentrism	X9	1.000	----	----
	X10	.859	.034	25.438
	X11	.862	.036	23.658
	X12	.804	.036	22.295
	X13	.918	.041	22.529
	X14	.877	.040	22.132

Prior Purchase	Y1	1.000	----	----
	Y2	.975	.052	18.855
	Y3	.903	.052	17.257
Product Judgment	Y4	1.000	----	----
	Y5	.865	.054	16.046
	Y6	.822	.052	15.813
	Y7	.795	.059	13.488
	Y8	.960	.054	17.774
Boycott Participation	Y9	1.000	----	----
	Y10	.938	.064	14.768
	Y11	.918	.052	17.504
	Y12	.733	.057	12.774
	Y13	.912	.054	16.749

4.3.2.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is the extent to which the measures of the latent variable are different from other latent variables. To assess discriminant validity, the Rotated Component Matrix was again used to examine and establish the discriminant validity of the constructs in the measurement models. All the estimated correlations between the items and other factors were low, ranging from 0.000 to 0.306. They were significantly less than the recommended value (<0.85) (Kline, 2005). The results provide statistical evidence for discriminant validity of the two measurement models.

In summary, the analyses of the measurement models suggested that the scales used in the study adequately captured the latent variables. Specifically, the fit indices for all six measurement models adequately meet the criteria established for good model fit. There was statistical evidence for reliability and construct validity on the level of measurement model applied into the surveyed sample as a whole.

4.3.3 Measurement Model Fit

The purpose of testing the measurement model is to describe the relation between the measured specific indicators and construct of interest. The results of the measurement model test determine how well the indicators capture their specified constructs (Bollen, 1989). The results of the analyses suggested that the fit of all of the measurement models was adequate.

The Chi-square/df ratios (CMINIDF) were lower than or close to the suggested threshold (i.e., 5 or less) (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, & Summers, 1977). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) values were lower than or equal to .10. In addition, all other indices (i.e., CFI, TLI, and NFI estimates) were greater than the recommended .90 threshold throughout the fit analysis for all measurement models. The outcome is summarized below (see Table 5).

Table 5 Summary of Measurement Model Fit

Model	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	TLI	NFI	P ¹
Consumer Animosity	4.054	2	2.027	.065	.991	.997	.991	.994	.132*
Consumer Efficacy	1.093	2	.546	.000	.998	1.000	1.004	.998	.579*
Consumer Ethnocentrism	8.688	9	.965	.000	.989	1.000	1.000	.994	.467*
Prior Purchase ²	0	0	----	----	1.000	1.000	----	1.000	----
Product Judgment	3.344	5	.669	.000	.995	1.000	1.004	.996	.647*
Boycott Participation	6.571	5	1.314	.036	.989	.998	.996	.992	.255*

Note 1: * p>0.05

Note 2: Saturated model (three indices)

4.3.4 Structural Model Fit

If the first step shows that the measurement parameters are identified, then the second step explores whether the latent variable model parameters can also be identified. This procedure is believed to be sufficient to identify the complete model (Bollen, 1989).

Table 6 showed not only the factor loadings of the items on each construct, but also the path loadings between constructs. Based on these statistics (i.e., p-value), the model was acceptable. In addition, the model fit outcome also showed the SEM results with RMSEA<.05, GFI>0.9, P>.05 and X² to the degrees of freedom ratio (CMIN/DF) of less than 3 (Gefen, et al., 2000). Therefore, the proposed structural model showed good model validity according to the heuristics for statistical conclusion validity from Table 6.

Table 6 Regression Weights

Relationship		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	
Product Judgment	<---	Ethnocentrism	-.258	.046	-5.567	***
Prior Purchase	<---	Ethnocentrism	-.280	.047	-5.925	***
Prior Purchase	<---	Product Judgment	.333	.068	4.914	***
Boycott Participation	<---	Animosity	.395	.055	7.228	***
Boycott Participation	<---	Prior Purchase	.276	.058	4.770	***
Boycott Participation	<---	Efficacy	.328	.050	6.545	***
x4	<---	Animosity	.797	.051	15.750	***
x3	<---	Animosity	.958	.048	19.890	***
x2	<---	Animosity	.943	.053	17.725	***
x1	<---	Animosity	1.000			

y1	<---	Prior Purchase	1.000			
y9	<---	Boycott Participation	1.000			
y2	<---	Prior Purchase	.975	.052	18.855	***
y3	<---	Prior Purchase	.903	.052	17.257	***
y10	<---	Boycott Participation	.938	.064	14.768	***
y11	<---	Boycott Participation	.918	.052	17.504	***
y12	<---	Boycott Participation	.733	.057	12.774	***
y13	<---	Boycott Participation	.912	.054	16.749	***
x13	<---	Ethnocentrism	.918	.041	22.529	***
x12	<---	Ethnocentrism	.804	.036	22.295	***
x11	<---	Ethnocentrism	.862	.036	23.658	***
x10	<---	Ethnocentrism	.859	.034	25.438	***
x9	<---	Ethnocentrism	1.000			
x14	<---	Ethnocentrism	.877	.040	22.132	***
y8	<---	Product Judgment	.960	.054	17.774	***
y7	<---	Product Judgment	.795	.059	13.488	***
y6	<---	Product Judgment	.822	.052	15.813	***
y5	<---	Product Judgment	.865	.054	16.046	***
y4	<---	Product Judgment	1.000			
x8	<---	Efficacy	.887	.048	18.491	***
x7	<---	Efficacy	.827	.050	16.638	***
x6	<---	Efficacy	.834	.046	18.151	***
x5	<---	Efficacy	1.000			

4.4 Results

The above data analysis provided powerful evidence that the full model comprising all six constructs can be reliably and validly operationalized throughout China as a whole. In other words, all constructs embraced in the present study are defined in exactly the same operational manner in each city, and as a result, they can be compared meaningfully and with quantitative precision.

5. Conclusions and discussion

5.1 Descriptive results

Data were gathered from 241 Chinese participants who were aged 20 or older. Most of the respondents (61%) were 20 to 50 years old. Approximately 29% of respondents reported attending college and 18% had a university degree. More than half (95%) reported having an annual income below ¥80,000 RMB.

The hostile attitude towards the Japanese, namely, animosity, was evaluated by using the participants' overall impressions about Japan and their multinationals. The results of this suggest that most consumers were likely to agree that they were unfriendly or even hostile to China or Chinese consumers ($M=5.12/5.27$). Koizumi's regular visits as a Prime Minister greatly influenced Chinese enmity against Japan.

The efficacy of consumer protest was evaluated by using the participants' overall perception about its possibility of rejecting Japanese products. The results of this suggest that most Chinese consumers were likely to agree that this activity could possibly influence the Japanese polices concerned (M=4.65/4.82).

Consumer ethnocentrism was evaluated by using the consumers' overall consciousness about domestic goods. The results of this suggest that nearly half of Chinese consumers were likely to agree that native products should become the first choice of Chinese consumers (M=3.51/3.71).

The behaviour of prior purchase of Japanese products was evaluated by soliciting for participants' recall about their recent shopping experiences. The results of this suggest that most consumers were likely to agree that they often purchase Japanese products or services (M=5.02/5.16).

The perception of product quality of Japanese goods was designed to be evaluated by using participants' overall impressions about the product categories provided. The results of this provide specific ideas and managerial implications for exploring the product quality embedded in Chinese consumers. More specifically, the Japanese multinationals can evaluate their daily operation and identify specific areas to be improved in the management of consumer issues globally. The results of this suggest that most Chinese consumers were likely to agree that they value Japanese goods highly (M=4.98/5.24).

Finally, willingness to participate in boycott activity was evaluated by using consumers' overall response to Koizumi's visits to the Yasukuni Shrine. The results of this suggest that most consumers were likely to agree that they would like to participate (M=5.33/5.45). His controversial visits greatly influence Chinese consumers' intention.

In sum, the descriptive statistics indicated that overall ratings of six factors were moderate. Specifically, consumers have relatively high levels of animosity, ethnocentrism and product judgment for some indicators (i.e., 'Japanese products good value for money' is excellent (M=5.24) in comparison with local counterparts). For all that, the consumers may participate in a boycotting activity and have a moderately positive emotion for local ('native) goods which are made in China.

5.2 Hypothesis testing

The major premise of this study was to develop and confirm empirically the universal application of the boycott model to China and the generalizability of its measurement. The lack of empirical evidence supporting such an application provided the impetus for the study. The results of the study indicated that the proposed boycott model passed the reliability test and validated a good fit for cross-area Chinese consumers without significant differences (see Table 7).

Furthermore, the results also revealed equivalence in the perception of six constructs and corresponding items or concepts, suggesting that Chinese consumers' willingness to participate in boycotts against Japanese products and services were strongly affected by

three factors/constructs, namely, consumer animosity, consumer efficacy, and their prior purchase experiences on Japanese goods.

The analysis results of the full model indicated that there are positive (negative) and significant relationships among all six constructs:

Hypothesis 1 suggests that consumer animosity directly influences consumers' level of willingness. Hypothesis 1 was confirmed, with a significant positive relationship identified. Specifically, the standardized regression estimate was 0.432 with a critical ratio of 7.228 ($p < 0.05$).

Table 7 Parameter Estimates for the Structural Model

Hypothesis	Path	Estimate ¹	S.E.	C.R.	P ²
H1	Animosity → Boycott Participation	.432	.055	7.228	***
H2	Efficacy → Boycott Participation	.383	.050	6.545	***
H3	Prior Purchase → Boycott Participation	.278	.058	4.770	***
H4	Ethnocentrism → Prior Purchase	-.381	.047	-5.925	***
H5	Product Judgment → Prior Purchase	.321	.068	4.914	***
H6	Ethnocentrism → Product Judgment	-.365	.046	-5.567	***

Note 1: Standardized regression weights

Note 2: *** $p < 0.001$

Hypothesis 2 suggests that consumer efficacy directly influences consumers' level of willingness to boycott, with a significant positive relationship identified. The standardized parameter estimate was 0.383 with a critical ratio of 6.545 ($p < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 3 suggests that prior purchase directly influences the consumers' level of willingness, with a significant positive relationship identified. The standardized parameter estimate was 0.278 with a critical ratio of 4.770 ($p < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 4 suggests that consumer ethnocentrism directly contributes to consumers' prior purchase, with a strong negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and their prior purchase experience found. The standardized parameter estimate was -0.381 with a critical ratio of -5.925 ($p < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 5 suggests that product judgment directly contributes to consumers' prior purchase, with a strong positive relationship between product judgment and their judgment on Japanese products found. The standardized parameter estimate was 0.321 with a critical ratio of 4.914 ($p < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 6 suggests that consumer ethnocentrism directly contributes to consumers' judgment on Japanese products, with a strong negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and their judgment found. The standardized parameter estimate was -0.365 with a critical ratio of -5.567 ($p < 0.05$).

5.3 Summary of conclusions

The hypotheses suggest that there are significant and positive/negative relationships between the six constructs. In particular, the statistically significant and positive relationship between consumer animosity and boycott participation suggest that high levels of animosity mindset increase the intention of boycott participation in practice.

At the same time, the belief of the impact of this boycott behaviour on Japanese policies concerned also increases the level of intention to participate. That is, those consumers with a stronger confidence of the force of their actions evaluate their willingness to boycott higher.

As for the prior purchase of Japanese goods by Chinese consumers, previous experiences or behaviour, notably frequency of purchase, or amount of money spent, was associated with a contrary influence on intention for boycott participation. In other words, Chinese consumers who had been buying more Japanese goods in the past were found to hold more negative attitudes towards boycott activities.

The above relationships suggest that management of Japanese MNCs may wish to focus their attention on local levels of animosity, efficacy and their past experiences of purchasing in daily management. This, in return, may increase the possibility of avoiding the potential extremism emerging among Chinese consumers.

Overall, the results suggested that the perception of the above three constructs and other two important ones (i.e., consumer ethnocentrism, product judgment) are significantly related and may influence the possibility of boycott activities directly or indirectly.

In addition, it has been determined that both consumer ethnocentrism and product judgment contribute to the prior purchase of Chinese consumers. This finding is consistent with the literature, which proposed that prior purchase behaviour was a function of the above two factors (Ettenson & Klein, 2005).

Further, the results reinforce the importance of consumer animosity in the formation of boycott participation. Compared with other formative factors (viz. consumer efficacy and prior purchase), the tendency of animosity affects Chinese consumers' willingness to participate in boycott activities the most; this result may be recognized as an expansion to the traditional boycott and animosity theory (Ettenson & Klein, 2005). The fact that consumer animosity becomes the most important factor is pivotal in another respect: it implies that high animosity sentiment per se increases consumers' intention with regards to boycott whereas low animosity sentiment may decrease their intention.

Two conclusions can be made from incorporating consumers' emotions and the other two factors into the boycott model. The first is that animosity, efficacy and prior purchase directly result in affective consequences. The second conclusion is that the Ettenson & Klein (2005) proposition that the willingness to attend consumerism is a

hybrid of prior purchase behaviour and potential national emotion is correct. Both the bitter legacy of the past and the quality of products work to create the boycott judgment.

6. Significance, limitations and recommendations

6.1 Theoretical contributions

The study makes a number of important contributions to the field of consumer behaviour and associated marketing strategy. First, the proposed conceptual model of boycott participation can contribute to the field of consumer behaviour by proposing an integrated model of cognitive and affective forms. The proposed hierarchical model includes, for example, five general dimensions of product judgment and five dimensions of boycott participation. More specifically, factors pertaining to consumer psychographics (i.e., animosity, efficacy, and ethnocentrism) are generic factors which capture the general content of an information-processing and decision-making system in the specific context of a Chinese market for Japanese firms. Several specific aspects (e.g., forgive, policy effect) in each of the generic dimensions reflect the Chinese market's specific characteristics which determine the level of hostile emotions. Therefore, this framework provides a conceptual background for further analysis of boycott participation in other markets.

Second, the analytic procedures (i.e., CFA and SEM) employed in this study provide an alternative background for scale development and model testing. More specifically, the use of the CFA method permits the conduct of research on six constructs respectively based on theoretical and conceptual bases. In addition, a multiple-dimension factor structure allows the researcher to identify generic dimensions of cognition and emotion. Another example of the usefulness of structural equation analysis can be found in the investigation of the causal link between the six constructs.

Thirdly, the study demonstrates, first hypothetically and then empirically, the nature of Chinese consumers' attitudes towards Japan and its global firms.

Fourthly, in comparison with earlier research of consumer boycott developed by Ettenson and Klein (2005), this study has made a significant improvement in perfecting their research model after a practical examination in China. With regard to the weighting of paths between constructs, the order has changed meaningfully from that found by Ettenson and Klein. For example, the construct of consumer animosity topped all causal factors on directly influencing the level of willingness for boycott participation in the present study, while it ranked second following prior purchase behavior as a construct in the prior study (Ettenson & Klein, 2005). In addition, the direct link between these two factors (i.e., product judgment and boycott participation) as discussed in prior research is ultimately shown to be insignificant in the boycott model by way of a set of well-designed survey methods and statistical techniques.

In addition to the above significance of the research model per se, other efforts might be prominent as well. First of all, this study is firmly founded on current surveys data, in contrast to the last one (Ettenson & Klein, 2005) which analyzed data collected in 1996. Secondly, this research extends its application into a broader and more diversified circumstance, namely, from a temporary incident between two developed countries to a deeply-rooted hostility between a “conquered country” and a “conqueror country”. In practice, the latter bilateral relationship is much more complicated, and potentially more valuable, since it embraces a wider variable set.

In this regard, results of the present study represent the most complete documentation to date in constructing an integrated model of consumer boycotts, especially in the context of those injured during a war.

6.2 Practical contributions

There are several implications for directors in managerial positions. First, the proposed conceptual model has relevance for various Japanese firms within the Chinese consumer industries. The five dimensions of boycott participation in the proposed hierarchical model are common facets of local consumer decision processes involving Japanese brands. Therefore, directors can use the basic concepts (i.e., dimension level) in formulating their management strategies. For example, directors of Japanese firms can evaluate the process and outcome of the boycott decision-making process with relatively broad criteria to avoid offending their Chinese consumers. The results of the evaluation can be used as a background for allocating budgets and other management resources (e.g., facility management). In addition, the specific aspects included in the sub-dimension can be used for framing daily management tactics. For example, directors can modify their daily operation to improve their complaints management process and system by using the specific sub-dimension of the model.

Second, an integrated boycott model in this study can provide directors with a reliable and valid analytical tool for the measurement of consumers' perceptions of animosity, efficacy and ethnocentrism provided in the case of the Japanese PM's visits to the shrine. Specifically, the scale can be used for performance evaluation from the consumers' viewpoint. This allows directors to identify the areas which need to be improved in order to be less offensive from the local consumers' perspective. There are several advantages of using an integrated boycott model. From the practical perspective, depending on the type and size of the Japanese enterprises, different levels of analyses are possible. For example, depending on time and budget constraints, directors can use an animosity model to determine boycott performance. A relatively large firm may use the full model scale which comprises all six constructs to measure consumers' perceptions of the specific facets of the boycott process. Directors in relatively small firms can save time and minimize the cost of measurement by using just one dimensional level of an integrated model.

Third, the animosity model derived from a number of researchers (Ang, et al., 2004; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Klein, et al., 1998; Shin, 2001) performs surprisingly well in predicting boycott participation. Thus, directors of Japanese MNCs should emphasize the influence of emotional hatred. That is, directors need to know what kind of factors may significantly influence Chinese consumers' emotions. By identifying such factors, directors may develop the appropriate strategies designed to meet the criteria of the local consumer culture and purchase motivation.

6.3 Limitations and Recommendation for Further Study

The major limitations of the study relate to instrumentation and sampling.

The measure of consumer animosity tendency is obtained from its conceptual descriptions derived from perceptual measures on a single-survey instrument (Ettenson & Klein, 2005). However, evidence exists for the validity of behavioural measures when responses are elicited for specific behaviours (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Klein, et al., 2006; Klein, et al., 1998). The scale for consumer animosity was thus slightly modified (i.e. rewriting wording and dropping items), from that used in earlier studies.

The samples vary in terms of breadth and depth of Chinese consumers surveyed in four cities of interest, which may account for some variation in the distributions of the data. The samples vary in size, although all are adequate for this study. For example, the Chengdu sample is relatively small (N=51). The samples are comprised of resident population, with the exception of two samples derived from non-resident citizens and rural inhabitants. The samples slightly under-represent female consumers, in particular Chengdu female consumers (48.1%). However, it is difficult to acquire an equal number of male and female consumers in cross-region studies, as female members of a family are often reluctant to attend social activities in many of the developing regions or nations like those of this sample (Lin, 2001).

While this study has its limitations, it is hoped that it can serve as a basis for further study in consumer boycott behaviour. Among the many topics to be explored in future research; some important ones can be listed as follows.

1. This study should be replicated with the fallout of Japanese PM's controversial visits to help establish a database which can further illuminate the relationships among six constructs.
2. It is recommended that this study be carried out longitudinally to examine this unique population of Chinese consumers. Such information may provide insight into whether or not consumers' perceptions of product quality and hostile emotions are consistent or situation specific.
3. The items of emotional factors (i.e., animosity, efficacy, and ethnocentrism) for this study were developed based on the work of several authors. However, because every offensive event may have different forms and settings, different sentimental attributes may exist. Thus, management and researchers should conduct focus

groups to explore the intricacies of consumer emotional responses in a specific event context.

4. Overall, the results showed that consumer animosity played a more important role than other constructs in the process of making boycott judgments. Thus, managers need to examine what kinds of factors influence consumers' emotions. For example, items of 'forgive' and 'aggression' may significantly influence the Chinese emotion. In addition, individual differences might be pursued, since Mehrabian and Russell (1974) suggest that individual reactions to environments may differ substantially.
5. Another direction would be to extend the sample to see if these findings hold for other populations. Most people in this study were 18 to 34 years old. For example, one possibility would be to investigate how the elderly feel about the offensive event as compared to how younger people feel about it, since WWII remains fresher in the memory of the elderly. In the case of any events involving Japan or other alleged hostile nations, the elderly might react in a more extreme manner. If so, the willingness to attend boycott movements would be more precisely predicted by the full-age sample than it would by the youth-based sample.
6. This study is limited to the background of the Chinese consumer market. In modern history, however, numerous countries have been exposed to foreign invasion. Other Asian countries or areas were subjected to Japanese occupation during WWII, such as Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, India, and Philippines. Thus, it should be regarded as a good research topic that this study including the full boycott model be replicated in these areas or countries where other differences (i.e., culture, history, and politics) may exist.

Appendix 1 Survey Questionnaire

Part I Main Content

For each of the following statements, please tick the box which best describes your opinion

Q01 I often bought Japanese products before Junichiro Koizumi's recent visit to the Yasukuni Shrine.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q02 I went shopping in local Japanese departments regularly before the shrine issue occurred.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q03 In past year, my family bought at least a kind of household appliances under a Japanese brand.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q04 I feel angry towards Japan.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q05 Japanese Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi's recent visit to the Yasukuni Shrine was an act of aggression against Asian people's sentiment.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q06 Japan does not care what China or other its neighbor countries think of this visit.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q07 I will never forgive Japan for this visit by its Prime Minister.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q08 By refusing to buy Japanese goods, Chinese consumers can have an effect on the policies of the Japanese government.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q09 What Chinese consumers buy has no effect on the policies of the Japanese government.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q10 Refusing to buy Japanese product is an effective way to pressure the Japanese government.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q11 Japanese firms doing business in China can have an influence over the policies of the Japanese government.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q12 Products made in Japan are carefully produced and have fine workmanship.

Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree

Q13 Products made in Japan show a very high degree of technological advancement.

- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q14 Products made in Japan usually show a very clever use of color and design.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q15 Products made in Japan are usually quite reliable and seem to last the desired length of time.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q16 Products made in Japan are usually a good value for the money.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q17 Only those products that are unavailable in China should be imported.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q18 Chinese products, first, last, and foremost.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q19 It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Chinese out of jobs.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q20 A real Chinese should always buy Chinese-made products.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q21 Chinese should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Chinese business and causes unemployment.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q22 It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Chinese products.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q23 I would feel guilty if I bought a Japanese product.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q24 I would never buy a Japanese car.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q25 Whenever possible, I avoid buying Japanese products.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q26 Whenever possible, I would prefer to buy products made in Japan.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q27 I do not like the idea of owning Japanese products.
- Strongly Disagree Tend to disagree Undecided Tend to agree Strongly Agree
- Q28 I do not plan to purchase Japanese products in each of the following eight categories in the near future.
- Domestic Appliance (e.g., TV set, Hi-Fi, washing machine, microwave stove, refrigerator)

- Vehicle (e.g., Car, van, 4WD, motorcycle, wagon, SUV)
- Cosmetic (e.g., Lipstick, perfume, foundation cream, shave cream for man)
- 3C (PC, notebook, mobile phone, digital camera, printer, Mp3/Mp4 player)
- Fashion (e.g., Clothes, jewellery, watch, bags, shoe)
- Food (e.g., Beer, soft drink, snack, fruits, seafood, beef)
- Home (e.g., Bedding, furniture, housekeeping, kitchen, home decor)
- Others _____

Part II Demographic details

For each of the following statements, please tick the box which best describes your opinion

- Q01 What is your gender?
 male female
- Q02 What is, will be, your age as at December 31, 2007?
 20-24 years 25-29 years 30-39 years 40-49 years 50-59 years 60 years and above
- Q03 Which of the following best describes your family situation?
 Single/never married Married/defacto Widowed/divorced/separated
- Q04 Please indicate which income range best represents your annual household income (RMB). (Please tick one box only)
 \$0-\$15,000 \$15,001-\$30,000 \$30,001-\$40,000 \$40,001-\$60,000 \$60,001-\$80,000
 \$80,001 and over
- Q05 What is your job title?
 _____;
 If possible, please briefly describe its obligation in your organization:

- Q06 What industry do you work in?

- Q07 Which of the following best describes your educational background?
 Junior high school and below Senior high school College or vocational school
 University Postgraduate and over
- Q08 Which city does you live?

- Q39 We appreciate your help so far with this questionnaire. Finally, we would like any feedback or thoughts that may be relevant and aid us in our study.

Thank you for your assistance!

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