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Brand Hate in the Cosmetic Industry: Drugstore versus Luxury Makeup Brands

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Abstract

Marketing scholars have begun to look at negative emotions that young consumers could develop towards brands, such as brand hate. Brand hate has experienced exponential growth during the last decades in the cosmetic industry. In this frame, two main objectives guide this work: (i) to identify the weight of each of the five key drivers of brand hate and (ii) to analyze if these weights are the same (or not) for drugstore and luxury make-up brands regarding. The participants of the online questionnaire (N = 162) were existing make-up consumers and were divided into drugstore and luxury make-up brand haters by classifying their identified hated brand into either group. Our results showed that experiential, identity, moral, deficit-value, and advertising avoidance positively affected brand hate, making identity avoidance the strongest one. Second, drugstore and luxury make-up brand haters do not differ, as far as no differences were identified in the strength of each avoidance type on brand hate.

1. Introduction

Marketing scholars have begun to look at negative emotions that young consumers could develop towards brands, such as brand dislike (Dalli et al., 2007), brand divorce (Fournier, 2014), brand aversion (Park et al., 2013), and the more recent topic of brand hate (Zarantonello et al., 2018; Aziz & Rahman, 2022; Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022). From a brand management perspective, companies should focus on reaching the happiness and loyalty of young customers to avoid certain young consumers' negative brand relationships towards the company that lead to negative sentiments and dissemination. From an academic perspective, the Theory of Brand Hate has tried to investigate how companies can carry on this process using, for example, the assumptions of Housnain et al. (2021), which explain, based on competition, why consumers develop negative feelings about brands and the consequently adverse effects of these feelings on brand equity.

In the make-up industry, competition has experienced exponential growth during the last decades due to the higher relevance of low-cost brands offered by prestigious distributors that had damaged the image of luxury cosmetics. In spite of this, the application of consumer brand hate and avoidance behaviour is almost non-existent in this industry. For luxury cosmetics, Hodge et al. (2015) investigated the various consumer-brand relationships in the luxury cosmetic industry. However, that was only one brief mention of this focal area of research, and it has yet to be explored further by other scholars. Furthermore, no study on brand hate has been found on different types of make-up brands, such as cheaper drugstore brands. Previous literature has shown that when hate and/or avoidance towards a luxury brand appears, this can lead to an increase in the consumption of more affordable drugstore or private brands due to the disappointment caused in the premium industry, particularly among young people (Muniz, Guzmá & Krishnan, 2022).

Therefore, there is a gap in the literature related to the absence of work investigating brand hate in the make-up industry; moreover, studies measure whether brand hate drivers are the same (or not) for luxury brands and drugstore brands that compete in the same arena. That is, as both kinds of brands could be competitors, as previous literature has begun to demonstrate (Kim, Lee, Lee and Taylor, 2020), it's necessary to investigate to what extent the determinants of brand hate in both scenarios are the same or whether well-informed young consumers demand more when choosing luxury brands. Based on the Theory of Brand Hate, five categories of brand hate antecedents have been proposed by literature: experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, moral avoidance, deficit-value avoidance (Lee et al.; 2009a, 2009b) and advertising avoidance (Knittel et al., 2016).

In this scene, two main objectives will guide our work: (i) to identify the weight of each of the five key drivers of brand hate (by comparing the beta coefficients of these drivers in a regression analysis developed to explain our dependent variable “brand hate”) and (ii) to analyze if these weights differ significantly (or not) for drugstore and luxury make-up brands (by developing a t-test to compare both scenarios).

By reaching these two objectives, this paper contributes to the literature in the following ways. First, based on the Brand Hate Theory, this paper also focuses on two relatively newer categories of avoidance drivers—d3eficit-value avoidance (Lee et al., 2009b) and advertising avoidance (Knittel et al., 2016). These two drivers have been explored mainly qualitatively within the domain of ‘brand avoidance’, recently integrated into a brand avoidance scale developed by Odoom et al. (2019). As Aziz and Rahman (2022) have remarked, analysis of determinants and antecedents of brand hate is critical to nip the evil in the bud by preventing such situations that may lead to brand hate, but, in spite of this, research focused on negative emotions has remained neglected till the early 21st century.

Second, this research will provide a specific industry context involving young consumer opinions. As discussed above, studying negative emotions is still a relatively newer area of academic interest (Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022). This research will provide interesting insights to managers of various types of brands with different positioning strategies (luxury versus low-cost) as far as differences between drugstore and luxury make-up brands will be analyzed.

2. Literature review

2.1. Brand hate: which are the drivers of brand hate? (objective 1)

A recent conceptualization of brand hate comes from Zarantonello et al. (2016) and Aziz and Rahman (2022), who view brand hate as the ‘most intense and consequential negative emotion that consumers may feel toward brands.’ Husnain et al. (2021) define brand hate as an extremely negative emotion that can produce consumer dissatisfaction, representing something even worse than disgust, anger, fear, and contempt.

Managers need to understand and avoid brand hate. The theory of Brand Hate has traditionally proposed four categories of brand hate antecedents that should be investigated to prevent brand hate: experiential, identity, moral and deficit-value avoidance. These four antecedents were mentioned and studied in the research by Lee et al. (2009a, 2009b) within the brand avoidance domain; brand hate is viewed as an escalation of brand avoidance since the two concepts are related (Bryson & Atwal, 2018). Knittel et al. (2016) confirmed these four antecedents and proposed advertising avoidance as another type of negative motivation. Platania et al. (2017) proved experiential, identity and moral avoidance as predictors of brand hate, although their study was mainly on Italian consumers. Drawing on the previous literature, the following lines will set out how each of these five drivers can be used to unleash brand hate.

First, regarding experiential avoidance, this is a type of negative motivation that comes from the negative past experiences that consumers have with a focal brand and is concerned with product failures (Sarkar *et al.*, 2021) or dissatisfaction with the brand's offering (Nenycz-Thiel & Romaniuk, 2011; Hegner et al., 2017 and Sarkar *et al.*, 2021). In other words, experiential occurs only when the product is used. It requires experiencing it. Furthermore, product hate could lead to brand hate directly, as encounters with one specific product failure could influence the attitudes toward the other products offered by the same brand (Hegner et al., 2017). Lee et al. (2009a) specifically mention the over-arching category of experiential avoidance. This is due to the *unmet expectations* or the violation of consumers' expectations from negative product or service experiences. As Husnain et al. (2022) conclude, brand hate is brand hatred due to product failures is enhanced among young people due to a vanity sentiment. Therefore:

H1: **Experiential avoidance** will significantly and positively impact brand hate explanation.

The second antecedent of brand hate confirmed quantitatively by marketing scholars is identity avoidance (Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015; Zarantonello et al., 2016; Hegner et al., 2017; Platania et al., 2017; Dawood & Kashif, 2021), which represents a negative emotion linked to the incapability of a brand to meet the symbolic identity needs of an individual (Lee et al., 2009a; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015; Hegner et al., 2017; Bryson & Atwal, 2018; Aziz & Rahman (2022)). Individuals, particularly young individuals, do not only consume brands that are desirable to their self-concept. They usually are forced to consume brands that are incongruent with their 'desired or actual self-concept' (Lee et al., 2009a, p. 5) due to, for example, budget restrictions in the case of young consumers. The Disidentification Theory explains the consumption of brands that do not represent one's image. From this approach, the problem is that when consumers choose brands with little identification, inconsistencies with the identity they want to project are created, thus giving rise to identity avoidance. For this reason, young consumers often try to build a self-concept by dissociating from firms that are viewed as inconsistent with an individual's reputation and values (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). There are several reasons leading to negative brand meanings as perceived by consumers. Firstly, the focal brand may represent an undesired self, where the consumption of the brand may negatively portray the user. An example given by Lee et al. (2009a) is the refusal of young consumers to purchase a cheaper brand of toilet paper that their family used to buy in the past to avoid being seen as 'cheap' (p. 6). Secondly, there may be negative reference groups (Lee et al., 2009a; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015) associated with the brand. Thirdly, certain branded goods and mainstream brands are avoided by some, as the users of those brands are deemed as inauthentic (Lee et. al., 2009a; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015). In sum, regarding identity avoidance, "consumers with negative emotions try to get even with brands through adverse behaviours", and these negative behaviours "are found more prominent among youngsters, who consistently try to seek their social" (Husnain et al. 2022)

H2: **Identity avoidance** will significantly and positively impact brand hate explanation.

The third driver of brand hate is moral avoidance, defined as 'an ideological mismatch between a consumer's ideological beliefs and the values represented by the brand' (Kucuk et al., 2016, p. 43). The first theme is *ideological incompatibility* (Lee et al., 2009a; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015; Hegner et al., 2017; Platania et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2018, 2021; Noor, Mansoor & Rabbani, 2021), where ideology is defined as 'a systematic body of ideas, organized from a particular point of view' (Hodge & Kress, 1993, p. 6). The study conducted by Lee et al. (2009a) revealed that McDonald's, a brand focused on young people, was shown as one of the most irresponsible companies in its actions to promote societal welfare supposedly. The decision of the company to start offering healthier menu choices based on changing health was seen as profit-driven and not because of a real concern towards their young consumers. Likewise, their corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives, such as the Ronald McDonald's ,House is seen as a 'manipulative marketing ploy motivated by public relations rather than altruistic objectives' (p. 7), as the company expects a return on investment from this cause in the form of consumer dollars. The company Nike, which also focused on the young market, was also brought up in the study, with the example of their low-wage factory workers having to comply with the working conditions provided to them without any real choice (Lee et al., 2009a; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015). In sum, actions that violate human rights, the environment as well as any unethical business practice are evidences of *corporate social irresponsibility* (Kucuk et al., 2016; Bryson & Atwal, 2018; Kucuk et al., 2018; Kucuk, 2021) and form the bases for consumer brand hate, and avoidance or a shorter-term boycott that may end after the company meets the consumers' demands (Hegner et al., 2017). So, as previous lines show, moral avoidance among younger consumers is very relevant "to terminate or quit the relationship with a brand or company that caused acute embarrassment" (Husnain et al. 2022).

H3: **Moral avoidance** will significantly and positively impact brand hate explanation.

The fourth antecedent of brand hate—deficit-value avoidance—is defined as the consumers' negative perceptions towards a brand found not ready to provide adequate value' (Berndt et al., 2016, p. 182). Prior brand usage is not required, unlike experiential avoidance. An excessive price can explain deficit-value avoidance (Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022); that is, one main theme is the unacceptable cost-to-benefit trade-off represented by a brand (Lee et al., 2009b; Nenycz-Thiel & Romaniuk, 2011). Brands that are unfamiliar to consumers may be perceived to be lower in quality and carry higher risks than known brands; hence they avoid these brands due to the value-exchange deficit (Lee et al., 2009b; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė. 2015; Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022). Similarly, budget brands may also be considered to be deficient in value due to low perceived quality. A brand may also have a low perceived quality inferred from extrinsic cues, which substitute or complement the lack of sufficient intrinsic cues derived from actual product consumption (Nenycz-Thiel & Romaniuk, 2011). The appearance of a brand is related to anything visual, which acts as a functional quality indicator, such as the product packaging, design, colours and the models used to promote the product (Lee et al., 2009b; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015). For example, if a consumer thinks that a brand's packaging and colours used are ugly, it may 'signify an inability to satisfy the individual's utilitarian requirements' (Lee et al., 2009b, p. 424). Even more, when deficit value is perceived, younger consumers tend to be more emotionally expressive (Husnain et al. 2022), developing a worse attitude towards the brand. In sum, as the Halo-Effect Theory supports, there is an aureole-effect between between a brand's unattractiveness and its ability to deliver the desired value to the consumer (Lee et al., 2009b). Therefore:

H4: **Deficit-value avoidance** will significantly and positively impact brand hate explanation.

A more recent antecedent of brand hate is advertising avoidance, identified by Knittel et al. (2016). It is 'all actions by media users that differentially reduce their exposure to ad content' (Speck & Elliot, 1997). This type of avoidance is defined as the negative sentiment that emerges due to undesirable contents of an advertisement related to the core content or storyline (Knittel et al., 2016; Odoom et al., 2019), the endorser of the brand (Bryson et al., 2013; Knittel et al., 2016;

Odoom et al., 2019), the music used (Knittel et al., 2016; Odoom et al., 2019), and lastly the individual's response to the ad (Knittel et al., 2016). Though advertising is essentially meant to stimulate positive emotions and responses in consumers, it isn't easy to control the intended effect on them as the interpretation of the ad is entirely subjective to each receiver (Knittel et al., 2016; Odoom et al., 2019). The findings in the study by Knittel et al. (2016) revealed that the content of an advertisement is a key element contributing to the initial negative effect towards it and resulting in the avoidance of the advertised brand. In sum, every consumer interprets an advertisement in their own way, resulting in different responses. The dislike for an ad may not even be rational and instead given by an adverse emotional reaction (Knittel et al., 2016). Young consumers who find a brand's communication to be repulsive (due to controversial political or religious content, for example) may avoid the brand entirely. Noor, Mansoor & Rabbani (2021) have demonstrated the emergence of this negative sentiment for offensive advertising in Pakistan. Therefore, with the above findings, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H5: **Advertising avoidance** will significantly and positively impact brand hate explanation.

2.2.Drugstore and luxury make-up brands: are brand hate drivers the same? (objective 2)

On one side, drugstore make-up brands refer to brands that are usually sold at drugstores, grocery stores and convenience chains (Aidnik, 2013; McCormick, 2014). Brands such as L'Oréal, Maybelline, Covergirl, Avon, and Revlon are examples of drugstore make-up brands (Kumar, 2005),

On another side, Ajitha & Sivakumar (2017) provide a specific definition for high-end or luxury make-up brands; these are brands that have a 'limited supply and are expensive ,make an individual personify their physical and facial appearance and give a feeling of self and social desirability apart from functional use' (p. 104). Luxury make-up may be found at department stores, make-up speciality stores, brand-specific stores and pharmacies (Aidnik, 2013; McCormick, 2014; Deloitte, 2017; Kashif, Devrani, Rehman & Samad, 2021). Examples of department stores are Nordstrom in the United States, Selfridges in the United Kingdom, and El Corte Ingles in Spain, while Sephora and Douglas are international and European make-up speciality retailers, respectively. Brand-specific store examples include MAC Cosmetics and Chanel beauty stores. These stores usually have beauty advisors and sales associates who also provide individualized service to customers. Besides the brand-specific store examples above, other luxury make-up brands include Estee Lauder (Kumar, 2005), Lancôme, and Dior (Ajitha & Sivakumar, 2017).

Firsts, this paper argues that drugstore make-up brands have a lower level of involvement based on lower transactional costs, in addition to the relative price of the products, and consequently a lower degree of **experiential avoidance** as well, as supported by the findings by Oliva et al. (1992). Usually, drugstore brands have lower perceived quality based on extrinsic cues such as packaging and price. On the contrary, luxury brands are associated with better quality and higher prices and are highly evaluated among young people (Park *et* al. 2008). In the case of luxury brands, Chau & Kudevičiūtė (2017) found that products applied to the face (including make-up) were high-involvement products and mid-range and luxurious make-up brands seem to be preferred in their study because they were associated with a superior brand positioning and level of quality, what means a higher price and thus superior quality (Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022). The findings on Thai beauty consumers by Chaisitthiroj (2007), done with a sample of primary women under 35 years old, also support the relationship between price and cosmetic brand quality perception. Similarly, the study on brand avoidance in the make-up industry by Liu (2019) revealed that Chinese consumers were disappointed in the price-to-performance ratio of high-end make-up brands. Therefore, it has been demonstrated that the disappointments caused by drugstore brands that offer less than promised seem less critical than those caused by premium brands from which, a priori, more is expected. Young people are also susceptible to price disappointments, as

Chaouachi & Rached (2019) have demonstrated in the case of mobile phones, sports shoes, yoghurt and weight-loss product. Therefore:

H1b: The influence of **experiential avoidance** on brand hate will be greater for the **haters** of **luxury** make-up brands than for the haters of drugstore ones.

Second, regarding the **identity avoidance** sentiment, the study on luxury brands by Bryson et al. (2013) revealed that a source of brand hate was due to the brands being 'too popular' (p. 399) as a result of over-commercialization leading to a loss of exclusivity and symbolic identity that a luxury brand is meant to provide to its users. Luxury brands embody greater symbolic meanings for the user, making them more susceptible to counterfeiting production and over-commercialization, affecting their exclusivity, authenticity and symbolic identities (Kashif, Devrani, Rehman & Samad, 2021). Vigneron & Johnson (2004) suggest that luxury brands are expected to have superior product performance and quality as compared to non-luxury brands, being its hedonic value higher (Ajitha & Sivakumar, 2017) due to the emotional experiences related to the brand. For this reason, luxury consumers tend to be highly emotionally implicated in the decision-making process, intensifying the chances of developing brand hate (Aziz & Rahman, 2022). Therefore, rejecting brands that lose exclusivity will be more significant in the case of luxury brands since, by definition, they are more exclusive than drugstore brands, as Bryson et al. (2021) have demonstrated for a young sample of luxury brands' consumers. In this case, the sign of identity that the luxury brand gave to the customer is attenuated so that the customer stops loving it as much; this happens with less intensity in the case of drugstore brands that are much less exclusive.

H2b: The influence of **identity avoidance** on brand hate will be greater for the haters of **luxury** make-up brands than for the haters of **drugstore** ones.

Third, as previous lines have explained, irresponsible brands cause **moral avoidance**. Moral considerations related to the practice of brand mimicry, the lack of cruelty-free and natural ingredients, animal testing, and country of origin are argued to be greater for drugstore brands. As Rowser (2019) reviews, ethical products are searched in the make-up industry. Therefore, the impact of moral avoidance on brand hate is expected to be more relevant for drugstore brands than luxury ones.

H3b: The influence of **moral avoidance** on brand hate will be greater for the haters of **drugstore** make-up brands than for the haters of **luxury** ones.

Fourth, given that an excessive price explains **deficit-value avoidance** (Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022), it is proposed that the positive effect of deficit-value avoidance on brand hate will be amplified in the context of drugstore make-up brands because a higher price is not expected. On the contrary, luxury brands have low functionality-to-price ratios, but the 'intangible and situational utility to price ratio is high' (Nueno & Quelch, 1998). In luxury brands, high prices signal high quality and the locations in which a brand is sold. Higher price acceptance is linked to expensive and well-known brands, and these brands are taken as a guideline for consumer decision-making (Grønhøj, 2007). Hence, it is inferred that the extrinsic cues provided by luxury make-up brands help lower the young consumer's perception of the risk of the product not meeting utilitarian requirements (Lee et al., 2009b). In contrast, young consumers tend to perceive a higher risk of getting a lower-quality product from cheaper drugstore brands. So, given that luxury make-up brands have higher price tags than drugstore brands, the weight of deficit-value avoidance on brand hate will be superior in the case of drugstore brands.

H4b: The influence of **deficit-value avoidance** on brand hate will be greater for the haters of **drugstore** make-up brands than for the haters of **luxury** ones.

Lastly, **advertising avoidance** will be higher for luxury brands because their advertising budget is higher. This relationship has been demonstrated for young luxury brand consumers by Bryson et al. (2021). As a result of communication investment, some characteristics of high-end make-up brands are as follows: the purchase and post-purchase experience matters rather than accessibility (Aidnik, 2013), the packaging is a significant component of the product and is more elaborate than drugstore brands (Aidnik, 2013), visual appeal is essential in this instance, and the products are usually packaged in sturdy glass bottles, quality plastic material and are encased within printed paperboard boxes (McCormick, 2014), accessories may also be included, such as mirrors, brushes and applicators (Aidnik, 2013). Therefore, given that young consumers are more exposed to communication stimuli of luxury brands than drugstore brands, if communication fails (faulty packaging, insulting advertisement, poor relationship marketing, the use of undesirable brand endorsers and repetitive advertising content), this will lead to more rejection for luxury brands. So:

H5b: The influence of **advertising avoidance** on brand hate will be greater for the haters of **luxury** make-up brands than for the haters of **drugstore** ones.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Data collection procedure

The first step involved recruiting participants through convenience and snowball sampling. Next, active make-up users were sought out online through the YouTube channels of sizeable make-up reviewers and artists. These beauty influencers have a large community of followers who are specifically interested in make-up topics and thus would contribute greatly to this study. Participants were also recruited through dedicated make-up forums such as those found on Reddit, where the purpose of the anonymous survey and the link to the questionnaire were described. A total of 164 make-up brand young haters took part in the survey (table 1). The first two questions were used as screening questions, where participants had to first answer 'Yes' or 'No' as to whether they had one drugstore or high-end make-up brand that they hated, following which they were asked to provide the name of the hated brand they had in mind. The given brand names had to be analyzed to categorize them as either 'Drugstore' or 'Luxury' and recoded into '1' and '2' respectively to allow for the (b) hypotheses testing.

The second part concerns the participants' reasons for hating the mentioned brand and is divided into five sub-parts; each header was phrased more easily to represent the five different brand hate drivers.

1. Experiential avoidance: *negative past experience(s) with the brand.*
2. Identity avoidance: *negative brand image and symbolic identity of the brand.*
3. Moral avoidance: *moral issues concerning the brand.*
4. Deficit-value avoidance: *low perceived value and quality of the brand.*
5. Advertising avoidance: *unappealing advertising from the brand.*

(Table 1)

3.2. Measurement scales

All the questionnaire items in this study have been adapted from scales proposed by marketing scholars (table 2).

(Tabla 2)

3.3. Data editing and analysis

Since brand hate was a prerequisite, it was essential to calculate a cut-off value for the brand hate scale to differentiate between make-up consumers who do, in fact, hate a brand and those who do not. Due to the opinion-based nature of the questionnaire vis-à-vis standardized questionnaires, and the nature of sample/population heterogeneity, it may not be accurate to adopt universal cut-off points (Arumugam et al., 2018). Hence, the cut-off values were calculated by performing item analysis, where the discrimination index (i.e. Corrected item to total correlation), individual item weighted scores and correction factors were derived to obtain the cut-off values (Arumugam et al., 2018). The respective cut-off values are then compared to the summed score of each scale per respondent to determine their classification (Barua, 2013; Barua et al., 2014; Arumugam et al., 2018).

The given brand names had to be analyzed to categorize them as either 'Drugstore' or 'Luxury' and recoded into '1' and '2' respectively so as to allow for the (b) hypotheses testing. This categorization was done through research on general market knowledge on the brand positionings, distribution channels, price points, and along with the literature findings on luxury versus drugstore make-up brands as discussed previously. It is acknowledged, however, that this can be subjective to different people. Nevertheless, the categorization was done as objectively as possible, yielding 77 and 85 cases of hated drugstore and luxury brands, respectively. An external coder also confirmed these classifications, as there is an ‘almost perfect’ strength of agreement (Landis & Koch, 1977) after calculating Cohen’s kappa (κ = .926, $p < .0005$). As expected with make-up consumption, most of the respondents were female (97%) and only 3% were male.

3.4. Reliability testing of the six constructs considered in this study

Before the hypotheses testing, the reliability of the model and edited data had to be tested within the final sample (N = 162). Multivariate normality of the six variables (experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, moral avoidance, deficit-value avoidance, and advertising avoidance and brand hate) in the research model was assessed by examining the scatter plot of the chi-square values versus the Mahalanobis distances (D^2) of all 162 observations, with seven degrees of freedom (Nor, 2015). The analysis suggests multivariate normality, as the scatter plot in Figure 1 shows. The homogeneity of variances was also reflected in the scatterplot.

Furthermore, any potential multivariate outliers were identified by comparing the same Mahalanobis distances to a chi-square distribution, where the p-values of the right-tail of the distribution were calculated, i.e. the probability of getting a D^2 value that is greater than the D^2 value of the current observation. Based on Tabachnick et al. (2007), any observation with $p < 0.001$ may be treated as a multivariate outlier. Since the lowest p-value observed in the data was 0.026, no further observations were deleted.

A principal component analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was performed to be sure that the corresponding items may, in fact, explain the variables proposed in the research model. First, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy should be greater than 0.5 (Yong & Pearce, 2013). Since the KMO for the dataset is 0.730, this indicates that our sample is adequate for factor analysis. Next, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity at χ^2 (561) = 2022.35, $p < 0.001$ (Yong & Pearce, 2013) proves that there are enough correlations in the dataset for PCA to be performed.

Lastly, since the assumption of tau-equivalence has been met based on the PCA results, Cronbach's Alpha was thus calculated to measure the internal consistency of all the scales. According to Nunnally (1978), the minimum alpha coefficient should be at least 0.70, while a maximum value of 0.90 has been recommended by Streiner (2003) to prevent item redundancy. Our six scales verify this criterion.

3.5.Comparing both samples: compare luxury and drugstore make-up brands

The (b) hypotheses compare luxury and drugstore make-up brands regarding the magnitude of the effects tested in the first six hypotheses. To this end, the same linear regression analyses as conducted for the first six hypotheses were repeated, but results were differentiated between the two groups for comparison. To draw meaningful conclusions about observed differences between the regression coefficients of the two groups, two joint regression models with a dummy variable and interaction term(s) were run for the whole sample, following authors such as Clogg et al. (1995), Correa et al. (2008) and Cleveland et al. (2017). In this case, a dummy variable ('Drugstore') and five interaction terms for five predictor variables (i.e. the product of 'Drugstore' and 'EA'/'IA'/'MA'/'DA'/'AA') were included as additional predictors in the first model. The interaction terms test the null hypotheses that the coefficients of each brand hate driver are not significantly different for both drugstore and luxury make-up brand haters and are either rejected or accepted based on the significance levels and t-values. The parameter estimates may then be interpreted concerning the initially observed regression coefficients.

4. Results

4.1. Objective 1: to identify the drivers of brand hate (H1 to H5)

The first five hypotheses posit a positive effect of each brand hate driver on brand hate.

There is no multicollinearity as the tolerance levels of all the predictors are above 0.6 (Chan, 2004), and the variance inflation factors (VIF) are less than 10. The Durbin-Watson test statistic was 1.911, indicating no autocorrelation, as values between 1.5 to 2.5 are acceptable (Ahsan et al., 2009). Hence, all the assumptions were met at an acceptable level.

The model summary indicates a R^2 value of 0.654, which means that our five drivers (experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, moral avoidance, deficit-value avoidance, and advertising avoidance) explain 65.4% of the total variation in brand hate. The ANOVA table reports how well the regression model predicts the dependent variable when $p < .05$ (Chan, 2004). Our model fits the data at a significant level, as $p < .000$.

Based on the coefficients table below (Table 3), there is a significant relationship between experiential avoidance and brand hate ($p = .001$), identity avoidance and brand hate ($p < .000$), moral avoidance and brand hate ($p = .009$), deficit-value avoidance and brand hate ($p = .026$), and advertising avoidance and brand hate ($p < .000$). The table also displays the beta coefficients of all five predictors and the direction of the relationship between each predictor and brand hate.

(Table 3)

The standardized beta coefficients explain the importance of each variable on brand hate. It may be inferred that identity avoidance ($\beta = 0.317$; $p < .000$) has the heaviest influence on brand hate, followed by advertising avoidance ($\beta = 0.270$; $p < .000$), experiential avoidance ($\beta = 0.199$; $p < .000$), moral avoidance ($\beta = 0.148$; $p < .000$), and lastly, deficit-value avoidance ($\beta = 0.130$; $p < .05$). Based on the above results, including the separate analysis of the predictor variables, **hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4, and H5 are fully supported**. All the drivers are significant in predicting brand hate because, as Aziz & Rahman (2022) explain, negative emotions are more common than positive ones, playing a significant role in young consumer decision-making. The highest weight of identity avoidance (β=0.31) can be explained by the Disidentification Theory (Lee et al., 2009), as far as young people develop their self-concept by dis-identifying with brands supposed to be inconsistent with their self-image (Aziz & Rahman, 2022). As these authors conclude, and our results have corroborated, ideological incongruence has more devastating and lasting effects among consumers than negative past experiences ($\beta = 0.199$). The second position is for advertising avoidance ($\beta = 0.270$) because wrong or offensive advertising can devastate brands. As previous literature has demonstrated, the most significant offences in advertising often come from the side of religion, ridiculing the values or beliefs of a particular line of thought (Noor, Mansoor & Rabbani, 2021). Contrary to previous literature (Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022), our results show that the role of deficit-value avoidance ((β = 0.130) is the less relevant one in our study, maybe because in the cosmetic industry, consumers are more concerned about the financial benefits of a brand's purchase and use.

In sum, as our study has obtained, brands that face the five brand hate drivers are in an even more difficult position (Kucuk, 2021) because the level of hate is hard to recover among young consumers.

4.2.Objective 2: to compare drugstore and luxury make-up brands (H1b to H5b)

A multiple linear regression analysis is first conducted for hypotheses H1b to H5b to obtain the regression coefficients of experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, moral avoidance, deficit-value avoidance, and advertising avoidance, with the dependent variable brand hate, separated by two different groups. The split file function in SPSS is used to split the data by the type of make-up brand hated—luxury make-up brand haters and drugstore make-up brand haters.

Firstly, we observe acceptable tolerance levels for the multicollinearity of all the predictors for both groups. For drugstore make-up brand haters, all predictors' tolerance levels are above 0.6 (Chan, 2004), and the variance inflation factor is less than 10. The Durbin-Watson test statistic to detect autocorrelation rounds off to 1.5, an acceptable level (Ahsan et al., 2009). For luxury make-brand haters, the predictors' tolerance levels are between 0.475 to 0.612. In this case, Chan (2004) regards a minimum level of 0.4 as acceptable, as there are likely some correlations among variables. The variance inflation factor is less than 10, and the Durbin-Watson test statistic is acceptable at 2.14. Hence, all the assumptions were met at an acceptable level.

The model indicates a R^2 value of 0.647 (Drugstore) and 0.682 (Luxury), which means that experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, moral avoidance, deficit-value avoidance, and advertising avoidance explain 64.7% and 68.2% of the total variation in brand hate, for each group respectively. The ANOVA shows that the two models fit the data at a significant level, as $p < .000$ (Table 4).

Based on the coefficients estimations (Table 5), there is a significant relationship between **experiential avoidance** and brand hate for only drugstore make-up brand haters (β=**302**, p=0,001). Still, a significant value has not been found for luxury make-up brand haters (β=0,10, p

= .276 > .05). There is a significant relationship between **moral avoidance** and brand hate only for luxury make-up brand haters (β=238, p = .003). In contrast, for drugstore brand haters, this relationship is not significant (β=**0,05**, p =0.552 > .05)M. Lastly, we also observe a significant relationship between **deficit-value avoidance** and brand hate for only drugstore make-up brand haters (β=**0,172**, p =.04). Still, for luxury brand haters, there is no significant relationship (β=**0,058**, p = .184 > .05). Lastly, the last two drivers, **identity avoidance** and **advertising avoidance,** are significant in explaining brand hate in both drugstores (β=**0,291** and β=**0,284;** p < .000) and luxury make-up brand haters (β=**0,362;** β=**0,240**; p<.004).

Despite these differences, based on the parameter estimated in Table 6 to compare both scenarios, it is observed that none of the five interaction terms is significant since all p > .05. Hence, we may conclude that the regression coefficients of all five predictors of brand hate for drugstore make-up brand haters are not significantly different from the coefficients for luxury make-up brand haters. That is, the weight of each brand hate driver varies in both samples, although not significantly. For luxury brands, the drivers of brand hate are from highest to lowest (table 5): identity avoidance (β=0,362), moral avoidance (β=0,244), advertising avoidance (β=0,243), deficit-value avoidance (β=0,111), and experiential avoidance (β=0,100). For drugstore brands, the drivers of brand hate are from highest to lowest: experiential avoidance (β=0,405), moral avoidance (β=0,380), identity avoidance (β=0,135), deficit avoidance (β=0,114), and advertising avoidance (β=0,078). In both scenarios, identity avoidance and moral avoidance are very relevant. For luxury brands, experiential avoidance is less relevant than advertising avoidance, while the opposite is true in drugstore brands. This is explained by the fact that drug store brands are required less in terms of communication and more in terms of results (experience). The opposite is true for luxury brands.

In sum, we may conclude that hypotheses H1b, H2b, H3b, H4b, and H5b cannot be supported because significant differences were not identified. Table 6 shows that none of the five interaction terms used to compare both scenarios has obtained significative values since all p values are higher than 0.05. So, the regression coefficients of all five predictors of brand hate for drugstore make-up brand haters are not significantly different from the coefficients for luxury make-up brand haters.This result can be explained because young consumers express their personalities via the acquisition and consumption of various brands (Kashif, Devrani, Rehman & Samad, 2021), cheap and expensive, and they feel equally disappointed in both scenarios as long as they feel cheated and spread negative information whether the brand was a drugstore brand or a premium brand. Similarly, Noor, Mansoor & Rabbani (2021) explain how consumers penalize all kinds of brands that offend them. They will be more likely to buy brands from firms involved in non-offensive advertising, who have not reported negative experiences in the past and with whom they have not misidentified. In both scenarios, luxury and drugstore brands, consumers are concerned about the financial benefits of a brand's purchase and use (Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022) according to their price.

(Table 4)

5. Conclusions

This study contributes to current literature on a relatively newer topic of brand hate by providing a quantitative study of the five main antecedents or drivers of brand hate and one behavioural outcome: brand avoidance. Our literature review showed that brand hate is triggered by experiential, identity, moral, deficit-value, and advertising avoidance. Moreover, brand avoidance was identified as an important passive consumer response derived from brand hate.

First, we have examined the weight of five antecedents to explain brand hate; two of them (deficit-value and advertising avoidance) have only been explored from a qualitative approach thus far. The other three antecedents (experiential, identity, and moral avoidance) have been tested previously but in other industries. Our results have confirmed the significant power of all the brand hate drivers on brand hate, having identity avoidance the strongest influence on brand hate, followed by advertising, experiential, moral, and lastly, deficit-value avoidance. That is, hypotheses 1 to 5 were corroborated, indicating that each driver positively influences brand hate.

Second, due to a gap in applied industry contexts, we conducted our study with young brand consumers in the make-up industry, comparing cheaper drugstore brands with expensive luxury brands. No significant differences were found between both groups, so H1b to H6b were rejected.

6. Implications

6.1. Theoretical implications

This work has enriched the consumer-brand relationship literature. As previous authors have demonstrated, consumers develop emotions towards brands (Fournier, 1998), emotions that vary in intensity (Veloustou, 2007), emotions with which we identify (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003), and even emotions that become part of a culture to which we want to belong (Veloutsou, 2009). The intensity of the relationship with brands can be as powerful as that achieved between people with pets and loved ones. This work has corroborated the usefulness of the Theory of Brand Hate to explain why young consumers develop negative emotions towards make-up brands of different prices.

Second, although brand hate scholars share a multidimensional structure of brand hate, studies have yet to be developed to integrate diverse brand hate drivers in a joint model. This work puts together five drivers that have proven to be significant in explaining hate in the make-up industry. So, our results support the Theory of Brand Hate from an integrative perspective, demonstrating that it works equally for drugstore and luxury brands because young consumers penalize all kinds of brands that offend them. All the drivers are significant in both scenarios and do not differ significantly.

Third, our results also support the Disidentification Theory (Lee et al., 2009), as far identity avoidance plays the highest role (β=0.31) in forming revulsion sentiments (brand hate) in the global sample. Young people who do not feel identified with the make-up brand they have bought will start to hate it because it damages their self-image. Ideological incongruence has more devastating and lasting effects among consumers than negative past experiences.

Forth, within the marketing mix, the communication variable plays a dominant role in the love-hate feeling developed towards a brand since our results corroborate that advertising avoidance is the second most important factor among young people in triggering brand hatred. Young people are tolerant and reject offences from the side of religion, ridiculing the values or beliefs of a particular line of thought (Noor, Mansoor & Rabbani, 2021).

6.2.Managerial implications

Regarding our first objective, we will recommend managers to identify their desired audience(s) and target them as closely as possible to keep away from the **five drivers of brand hate** that previous literature has proposed, all of which have been significant in the results obtained.This is only possible after refining what the brand stands for and may be done with a tool such as Esch's Brand Steering Wheel (Esch, 2014). Based on our results, more emphasis should be paid to identity avoidance and moral avoidance in both scenarios.

Second, when drugstores make brands are considered, managers should boost memorable experiences to **prevent experiential avoidance** because, in this scenario, experiential avoidance obtained the highest weight. "Transactional" disagreements between consumers and companies lead to dissatisfaction with the product/service they receive (Kucuk, 2021), and this is particularly true for the case of drugstore brands. So, since experiential avoidance is due to the gap between actual performance versus the expectations of the product at any stage of the purchase journey, make-up companies should ensure that the young customer's expectations are met to the best they can. Consequently, it is equally pertinent that an effective customer service and recovery programme is implemented to provide unhappy young customers seeking redress with solutions, to prevent any negative emotions from escalating.

Third, by meeting the target group's requirements, consumers can identify with the brand's symbolic identity, which helps reinforce their self-concept and **remove identity avoidance**. A target audience that is too wide or unfocused may result in a situation in which the brand needs to embody a clear and authentic identity, driving it to hate. For example, a luxury make-up brand may risk losing its sense of exclusivity (identity avoidance) if they start to appeal to a mass audience.

Fourth, and as Noor, Mansoor & Rabbani (2021) recommend, advertisers must revisit their advertising strategies to be better focused on the target audience to **avoid misunderstandings (advertising avoidance)** because young consumers are paying not only money but also psychological and social costs when brands let them down. For example, when attending to young consumers, companies should be cautious about the risks of spreading negative information through new technologies, which is more dangerous than years ago and should be carefully monitored (Attiq, Hasni & Zhang, 2022). Advertising strategies for make-up brands should thus be planned according to the desired target audience. This may be achieved by conducting thorough market research about that specific audience's media preferences and habits, psychographic characteristics, and how to position the brand to them most effectively and relatable.

Fifth, to elude brand hate, make-up companies should also seek to consciously prevent any **moral, ethical, and social wrongdoings** in their business practices to minimize any potential ideological incompatibility perceived by young consumers. This will help to elude **moral avoidance**. In this vein, make-up brands could follow a range of policies to manage their environmental impact, prioritize the rights of their employees, empower minority groups, and act against animal cruelty.

Sixth, managers could invest comparatively fewer resources to reach the highest levels of quality because this driver of brand hate is the lower one. Our results showed that **deficit-value avoidance has the weakest** influence on brand hate. The reason is that product aesthetics in this industry do influence how young consumers perceive quality. That is, the quality of the product (expected results) is relative. Young consumers' expected results (quality) will be coherent with the price they paid but desired aesthetical attributes will be a priority almost always, regardless of the price of the product. That is, the form is more important than the content for both kinds of brands: Drugstore and luxury.This should also extend to the suppliers, distributors and retailers they work with to ensure an ethical supply chain.

Given that no significant differences were found between drugstore and luxury make-up brands, our recommendations above may apply to general make-up brands. However, as previous lines have remarked, some specific points should be reinforced in each scenario.

7. Limitations and future research

First, there are cultural and personal differences in different countries and parts of the world, which affect brand hate among consumers. An avenue of future research is to assess the proposed model in the context of different cultures. Second, the present study focuses on the antecedents of brand hatred, not to mention the effects of this negative sentiment: negative WOM, purchase intention, frameshift, negative eWOM, etc. Future research should develop more complete models that analyze drivers and effects in the same framework. Brand hatred is often, but not always, linked to prior experience. Future studies could consider different types of haters: those who hate after trying the brand and those whose hatred is based on comments inherited from other people or on criteria other than experience. Lastly, future studies could include bigger samples, gender comparisons and more sophisticated methodologies (i.e. structural modelling) to improve the findings.

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Table 1. Frequencies and descriptive statistics of participants

		FREQUENCY	PERCENT	MIN	MAX	MEAN
GENDER	Female	159	97.0	–		
	Male	5	3.0			
NATIONALITY	North American	76	46.3	–		
	European	28	17.1			
	Asian	49	29.9			
	Australian	10	6.1			
	Latin American	1	0.6			
AGE	23 and below	20	12.2	18.00	48.00	27.75
	24—29	96	58.5			
	30—35	41	25.0			
	36 and over	7	4.3			

Source: own elaboration

Table 2. Scales used to measure each concept in this study

CONCEPT	ITEMS (LABELLED AS)	AUTHORS	HYPOTHESES
1. Experiential avoidance (EA)	1. Poor performance of the brand (EA1). 2. Inconvenience (hassle) associated with acquiring the brand (EA2). 3. Negative/unpleasant store environment where the brand is sold (EA3). 4. The brand failed to meet its promised value (EA4). 5. Expectations of the brand were not met during my experience (EA5).	Odoom et al. (2019)	H1, H1b
2. Identity avoidance (IA)	1. Using the brand does not make me feel special (everyone uses it) (IA1). 2. The brand does not match with my personality (IA2). 3. The brand has a connection with a negative reference group (IA3). 4. The authenticity of the brand cannot be identified (IA4). 5. The brand is too common on the market (IA5).	Odoom et al. (2019)	H2, H2b
3. Moral 4. avoidance (MA)	1. My personal beliefs are contradictory to that of the brand (MA1).	Odoom et al. (2019)	H3, H3b

	2. I do not have the freedom to choose other competing brands in that category (MA2). 3. The brand is not socially responsible (packaging and production process) (MA3). 4. The country of origin of the brand is not preferred to me (MA4). 5. The brand is associated with an opposing political ideology (MA5).		
5. Deficit-value avoidance (DA)	1. The quality of the brand is low compared to its cost (DA1). 2. The brand is not familiar (DA2). 3. The packaging of the brand lacks relevant details (insufficient aesthetics) (DA3). 4. The brand is deficient in terms of the value linked with it (DA4).	Odoom et al. (2019)	H4, H4b
5. Advertising avoidance (AA)	1. The content of the brand's advertisement was unpleasant (AA1). 2. I do not like the celebrity(ies) used in the brand's advertisements (AA2). 3. The music used in the brand's advertisements is not satisfactory (AA3). 4. I am unable to deduce any meaning from the brand's adverts (AA4).	Odoom et al. (2019)	H5, H5b
6. Brand hate (BH)	1. I am disgusted by the brand (BH1). 2. I do not tolerate the brand and its company (BH2). 3. The world would be a better place without the brand (BH3). 4. I am totally angry about the brand (BH4). 5. The brand is awful (BH5). 6. I hate the brand (BH6).	Hegner et al. (2017)	H6, H6b

Source: own elaboration

Figure 1. Normality histogram and P-P plot

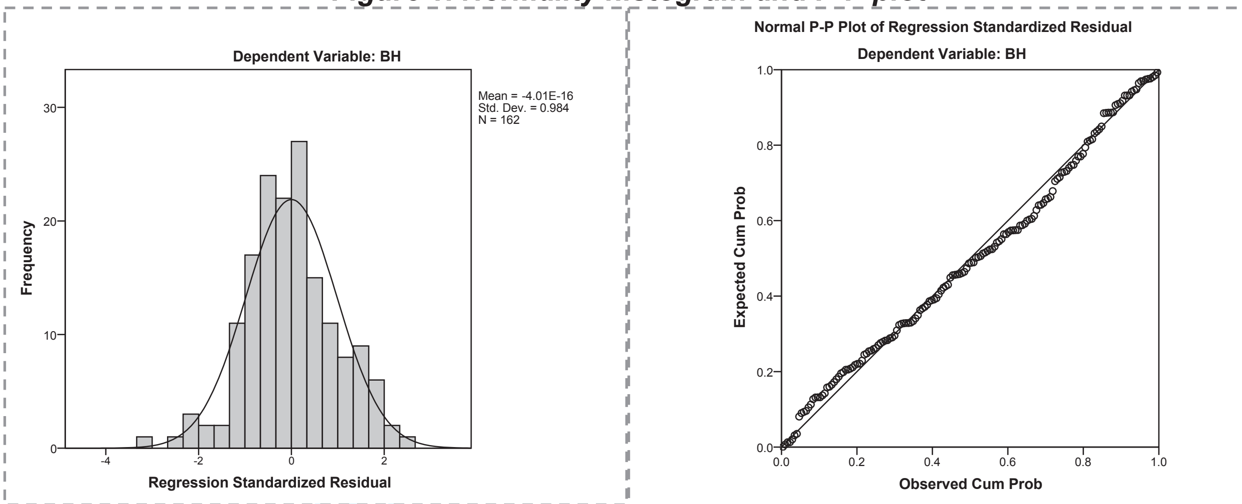

Table 3. Coefficients for the five drivers of brand hate

Model	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		6.298	.000		
1. Experiential Avoidance (EA)	.199	3.277	.001	.601	1.665
2. Identity Avoidance (IA)	.317	5.232	.000	.604	1.655
3. Moral Avoidance (MA)	.148	2.645	.009	.706	1.416
4. Deficit-value Avoidance (DA)	.130	2.252	.026	.668	1.497
5. Advertising Avoidance (AA)	.270	4.684	.000	.670	1.493

Table 4. ANOVA output for brand hate

Hated brand	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Drugstore	1	Regression	20.921	5	4.184	25.975	.000[b]
		Residual	11.437	71	.161		
		Total	32.358	76			
Luxury	1	Regression	26.679	5	5.336	33.869	.000[c]
		Residual	12.446	79	.158		
		Total	39.125	84			

a. Dependent Variable: Brand hate

b. Predictors: (Constant), Experiential avoidance, Identity avoidance, Moral avoidance, Deficit-value avoidance, Advertising avoidance

c. Predictors: (Constant), Experiential avoidance, Identity avoidance, Moral avoidance, Deficit-value avoidance, Advertising avoidance

Table 5. Coefficients for experiential avoidance, identity avoidance, moral avoidance, deficit-value avoidance, and advertising avoidance

Hated brand	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
Drugstore	(Constant)	.941	.246		3.824	.000		
	Experiential Avoidance	.230	.064	**.302**	3.610	.001	.712	1.404
	Identity Avoidance	.206	.061	**.291**	3.391	.001	.678	1.474
	Moral Avoidance	.037	.062	.050	.597	.552	.721	1.386
	Deficit-value Avoidance	.122	.058	**.172**	2.091	.040	.733	1.364
	Advertising Avoidance	.217	.064	**.284**	3.392	.001	.712	1.404
Luxury	(Constant)	.996	.211		4.732	.000		
	Experiential Avoidance	.075	.069	.101	1.098	.276	.475	2.104

	Identity Avoidance	.256	.062	**.362**	4.118	.000	.521	1.919
	Moral Avoidance	.184	.060	**.238**	3.073	.003	.671	1.490
	Deficit-value Avoidance	.079	.059	.110	1.341	.184	.599	1.670
	Advertising Avoidance	.188	.064	**.240**	2.957	.004	.612	1.635

a. Dependent Variable: Brand hate

Table 6. Parameter estimates with dummy variables and interaction terms

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	.996	.212		4.707	.000
	Drugstore	-.055	.324	-.041	-.170	.865
	Experiential Avoidance (EA)	.075	.069	.100	1.092	.277
	Identity Avoidance (IA)	.256	.063	.362	4.096	.000
	Moral Avoidance (MA)	.184	.060	.244	3.056	.003
	Deficit-value Avoidance (DA)	.079	.059	.111	1.334	.184
1	Advertising Avoidance (AA)	.188	.064	.243	2.942	.004
	INTERACTION TERMS BETWEEN BOTH SAMPLES					
	Drugstore* Experiential Avoidance (EA)	.155	.094	.405	1.653	**.100**
	Drugstore* Identity Avoidance (IA)	-.050	.087	-.135	-.581	**.562**
	Drugstore* Moral Avoidance (MA)	-.147	.086	-.380	-1.711	**.089**
	Drugstore* Deficit-value Avoidance (DA)	.043	.083	.114	.520	**.604**
	Drugstore* Advertising Avoidance (AA)	.029	.090	.078	.321	**.749**