AMERICAN MARKETING ASSOCIATION

Revised Submission

Journal of International Marketing
1-19

DOI: 10.1177/1069031X20983806
journals.sagepub.com/home/jig
SAGE

Not All Wrongdoers Are Equal in the Public Eye: A Moderated Mediation Model of Country Stereotypes, Condemning Emotions, and Retaliatory Intent in Corporate Crises

Camilla Barbarossa and Timo Mandler

Abstract

Corporate crises generate condemning emotions and retaliatory intent toward the offending companies. However, not all wrongdoers are equal in the public eye. Consumers' prior beliefs about a company's country of origin may bias these responses. In three experimental studies (combined N = 1,008), the authors (1) establish that country stereotypes of warmth—but not of competence—can buffer condemning emotions and retaliatory intent toward an offending company. They further (2) reveal the psychological mechanism of greed attributions that underlies this bias and (3) identify the type of crisis as a crucial contingency factor that facilitates (corporate ability crisis) or suppresses (corporate value crisis) the buffering effect of country warmth.

Keywords

consumer condemning emotions, consumer retaliatory intent, corporate crisis, corporate greed, country stereotypes

Online supplement: https://doi.org/10.1177/1069031X20983806

Corporate crises—that is, extraordinary critical events in a company's life that may lead to consumers' physical or psychological harm, financial loss, and/or environmental damage—are omnipresent in today's marketplace (Cleeren, Dekimpe, and Van Heerde 2017). Notable examples are General Motors' defective ignition switch (*The Guardian* 2014), IKEA's tip-over Malm dresser (*BBC News* 2016), Burberry's use of toxic pollutants (*News Shopper* 2014), and Volkswagen's emission scandal (Ewing 2015). As evidence of corporate social irresponsibility, corporate crises can result in severe retaliation against the companies at fault. Consumers may engage in various actions to punish an offending company (e.g., they may spread negative information about it and even boycott it) (Sweetin et al. 2013). Volkswagen, for example, was hit by a social media firestorm and long-running boycott campaigns after news alerts that the German company had equipped its diesel cars with software to disguise the actual emissions of nitrogen oxide, a highly polluting and hazardous gas (Swaminathan and Mah 2016).

However, not all wrongdoers are equal in the public eye. Consumers may hold beliefs about an offending company that dictate if and how they respond toward it. This work focuses on consumers' beliefs about a company's country of origin (COO), a key concept in the international marketing domain (Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf 2019). We argue that the beliefs about the national identity of a company (i.e., the stereotypes evoked by a company's COO) influence consumers' retaliatory intent in a crisis context. That is, the country–brand associations between, for example, General Motors and the United States, Toyota and Japan, IKEA and Sweden, Burberry and the United Kingdom, and Volkswagen and Germany all activate consumers' stereotypes about the offending companies, which in turn affect their retaliatory intent toward these companies. During Volkswagen's "diesel gate," the words "German" and "Germany" were indeed among the five most frequently used words by Twitter users (Swaminathan and Mah 2016).

Although a great deal of research has investigated consumers' responses to corporate crises, the underlying psychological mechanisms, and contingency factors (e.g., Cleeren, Dekimpe, and Van Heerde 2017; Gao et al. 2015; Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi 2013a, 2013b; Xie and Bagozzi 2019), little is known about the roles of the origin of offending

Camilla Barbarossa is Associate Professor of Marketing, Toulouse Business School, France (email: c.barbarossa@tbs-education.fr). Timo Mandler is Assistant Professor of Marketing, Toulouse Business School, France (email: t.mandler@tbs-education.fr).

companies and country stereotypes in this context. This is surprising given that a substantial body of international marketing research demonstrates that a company's or brand's COO (e.g., Allman et al. 2015; Choi et al. 2016; Herz and Diamantopoulos 2017; Tran and Paparoidamis 2020) and associated country stereotypes (e.g., Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada 2008; Chen, Mathur, and Maheswaran 2014; Diamantopoulos et al. 2017; Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Sirianni 2019) can shape consumer behavior toward companies and brands in noncrisis settings. The notion that a company's COO might also matter in the context of corporate crises is supported by recent evidence showing that wrongdoings of foreign brands receive 80% more media coverage (in terms of number of stories) than wrongdoings of domestic brands (Stäbler and Fischer 2020). However, little is known about how and under what circumstances country stereotypes might affect consumer retaliatory intent when corporate crises are appraised.

Building on the stereotype content model (SCM) (Fiske et al. 2002), this study proposes and empirically tests a model of how country stereotypes (warmth and competence) affect consumers' emotional responses (condemning emotions, i.e., contempt, anger, and disgust) and retaliatory intent (negative word of mouth [WOM] and boycott intentions) toward an offending company from that country. Furthermore, we reveal perceived corporate greed (i.e., judgments that the agent company is causing damage to others strictly to obtain a corporate advantage; Crossley 2009) to be the key psychological process by which a country's warmth, but not its competence, influences consumers' condemning emotions and retaliatory intent. Finally, we identify relevant boundary conditions for the hypothesized effects by testing if and how the effects of country warmth differ depending on the type of crisis (i.e., corporate ability vs. corporate value crisis). We show that the buffering effect of country warmth only occurs in crises that question a company's ability—this effect vanishes if a crisis concerns the company's lack of morality.

This study contributes in several ways to the still limited body of international marketing literature regarding the role of country stereotypes in the context of corporate crises. First, our findings from three experimental studies consistently show that a company's nationality matters in such critical settings. That is, the associated stereotype of warmth affects how consumers respond to the offending company, whereas the stereotype of competence does not. By focusing on an extrinsic cue—a company's COO—and the associated stereotype of warmth, we complement extant literature that is limited to commendable corporate conduct, such as corporate social responsibility (CSR) (e.g., Kim and Choi 2018; Klein and Dawar 2004), that aims to enhance consumers' goodwill and mitigate the fallout of a potential crisis.

Second, while prior research has mainly focused on the effects of country stereotypes on consumers' cognitive responses to crises (Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons 2018; Xu, Leung, and Yan 2013), we provide novel insights into consumers' emotional responses in such critical settings. This perspective is relevant because consumers' reactions to corporate crises are often affect-laden, fueling heated public outcries. Our findings of how country stereotypes of warmth mitigate consumers' condemning emotions and emotion-driven retaliation help clarify such critical events and their ramifications for companies of different nationalities.

Third, we shed light on the underlying psychological mechanisms through which the effects of country warmth occur, as we incorporate perceived corporate greed as the key motive underlying consumers' emotional responses. We posit that consumers naturally make judgments about the motives of a company when the company causes a negative event (Reeder et al. 2002). The most commonly perceived negative motive is corporate greed, which can elicit condemning emotions and consequent retaliation (Grégoire, Laufer, and Tripp 2010). Specifically, we theorize and empirically demonstrate that consumers infer a company's greed from its nationality, which fuels subsequent emotional responses. By identifying perceived corporate greed as a key mediator of the effects of country warmth and consumers' emotional responses, we contribute to the hitherto limited understanding of the psychological mechanisms that determine how consumers emotionally react to offending corporations they associate with certain countries.

Finally, we identify the type of crisis (corporate ability crisis vs. corporate value crisis) as a crucial contingency factor that facilitates or suppresses the buffering effect of country warmth. Our insights into the moderating effects of crisis type extend prior research that considers relevant moderators for the effects of country stereotypes in crisis settings (e.g., Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada 2008).

This study's findings have important implications for international marketers who want to protect their companies and brands from consumer retaliation during crises. The notion that stereotypes of country warmth can act as an insurance policy suggests that internationally operating companies need to take local consumers' country-related perceptions into consideration when facing and managing locally or globally occurring crises. Our insights inform international marketers about why and when they should rely on stereotypes of country warmth to soften consumers' emotion-driven responses during a crisis.

Theoretical Background

Stereotypes are oversimplified, and generalized sets of beliefs about the characteristics of members belonging to a particular social group and are formed over time in line with the accepted norms of a given context (Cuddy, Fiske, and Glick 2008; McGarty, Yzerbyt, and Spears 2002). The SCM is one of the most prominent frameworks for analyzing social stereotypes (Fiske et al. 2002). Social cognition research has extensively used the SCM to qualify perceptions and predict responses toward groups and social categories characterized by, among other things, gender, sexual orientation, religious belief, and ethnicity (for a review, see Fiske 2018). The SCM has also been increasingly applied to core marketing domains, such as branding (e.g., Aaker, Vohs, and Mogilner 2010; Kervyn, Fiske, and

Malone 2012), advertising (e.g., Zawisza and Pittard 2015), services (e.g., Kirmani et al. 2017), and international marketing (e.g., Chen, Mathur, and Maheswaran 2014; Davvetas and Halkias 2019; Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos 2019).

In an international marketing context, the SCM is a useful theoretical framework for qualifying consumers' beliefs about countries (Diamantopoulos et al. 2017; Herz and Diamantopoulos 2013; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Sirianni 2019). Applied to countries, the SCM suggests that the content of consumers' stereotypical beliefs about countries can be systematically organized along two fundamental and independent dimensions: warmth and competence (Cuddy, Fiske, and Glick 2008; Maher and Carter 2011). "Country warmth" refers to consumers' cognitive appraisals of a country's friendliness, cooperativeness, and trustworthiness. Consumers tend to perceive a country with cooperative, trustworthy intentions as warm and a country with antagonistic, competitive intentions as cold. "Country competence" refers to consumers' cognitive appraisals of a country's capability, efficacy, and efficiency. A country that has the power and capabilities to implement its intentions is perceived as competent, and a country perceived as unable to do so is perceived as incompetent (Cuddy, Fiske, and Glick 2008; Halkias and Diamantopoulos 2020; Maher and Carter 2011).

Importantly, consumers transfer their stereotypical beliefs about a country to social entities, such as companies, that originate from that country. As a result of a "country–company" halo effect (Nisbett and Wilson 1977), consumers will extend the warmth and competence attributes owned by the COO to the company itself. Thus, when a company's COO evokes high (low) warmth, consumers will tend to perceive the company as being more (less) trustworthy, benevolent, and good-natured. Similarly, when a company's COO evokes high (low) competence, consumers will perceive the company to be more (less) capable and efficient.

Stereotypes of country warmth and competence do not merely function as group descriptors—they also affect consumers' responses to companies. Although empirical evidence in the context of corporate crises is still scarce, initial evidence suggests that consumers exhibit different responses to foreign offending companies depending on the country with which these companies are associated. For example, using a dichotomous distinction of positive versus negative country image, Laufer, Gillespie, and Silvera (2009) examine how a company's COO affects observers' assessment of blame for a product-harm crisis when information about the company's culpability for the crisis is unclear. They find that a negative country image increases blame attributions to the company, particularly when consumers are not familiar with the brand involved. However, they use a global, unidimensional measure of country image rather than capturing consumers' country stereotypes, which hinders more nuanced explanations involving why consumers evaluate a country (un)favorably.

Addressing this limitation, Xu, Leung, and Yan (2013) and Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons (2018) use the SCM to capture consumers' beliefs about foreign countries and shed light on the psychological mechanisms that underlie consumers' biased reactions to foreign wrongdoers of different nationalities. Together, these studies suggest that country warmth plays an instrumental role in decreasing consumer blame attributions toward a foreign wrongdoer. In the context of a product-harm crisis, Xu, Leung, and Yan (2013) find that the perceived warmth of a company's COO increases consumers' willingness to give the company a second chance. Similarly, Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons (2018) demonstrate that country warmth significantly reduces the attribution of blame to a foreign company involved in a product-harm crisis, whereas country competence has no impact on this outcome.

Although these initial advances underscore the importance of country stereotypes in the context of corporate crises, especially perceived warmth, they fall short in at least two ways. First, existing findings are limited to assessing the effects of country stereotypes on cognitive evaluations of corporate actions (see Table 1). However, consumers' reactions to corporate crises are often affect-laden, fueling heated public outcries that are often accompanied by calls for boycotts. Second, existing research lacks insight into the psychological mechanisms that explain why and when consumers show different emotions and emotion-driven retaliatory intent toward offending companies of different nationalities and to what extent

Table 1. Study Positioning.

	Outcomes	
	Consumer Cognition-Driven	**Consumer Emotion-Driven**
Noncrisis setting	• Maher and Carter (2011) • Chen, Mathur, and Maheswaran (2014) • Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos (2016) • Diamantopoulos et al. (2017) • Magnusson, Westjohn, and Sirianni (2019) • Halkias and Diamantopoulos (2020)	• Diamantopoulos et al. (2017) • Halkias and Diamantopoulos (2020) • Micevski, Diamantopoulos, and Erdbrügger (2020)
Crisis setting	• Xu, Leung, and Yan (2013) • Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons (2018)	This research

Notes: Articles in each cell are presented in chronological order.

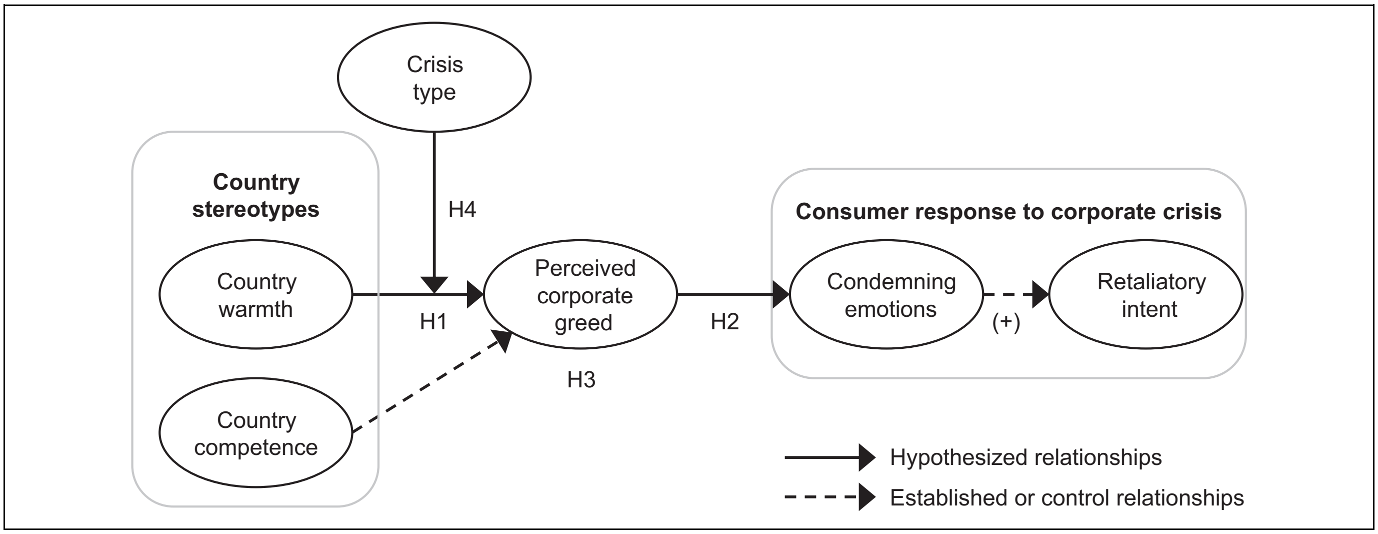

Figure 1. Conceptual model.

these detrimental outcomes might vary depending on the type of crisis in which a company is involved.

Conceptual Model

To address these research gaps, we theorize and empirically test (1) the effects of country stereotypes on consumers' condemning emotions and subsequent retaliatory intent, (2) the underlying psychological mechanism through which these effects occur (i.e., attribution of greed motives to offending companies), and (3) the role of crisis type (corporate ability crisis vs. corporate value crisis) as a crucial contingency factor. Accordingly, we propose a moderated, serial mediation model (see Figure 1) and discuss the underlying hypotheses.

Condemning Emotions and Retaliatory Intent

Appraisals of corporate crises evoke negative moral emotions in consumers who are directly or indirectly exposed to them (Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi 2013a; Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015). Haidt (2003, p. 853) defines negative moral emotions as those "that are linked to the interests or welfare either of society as a whole or at least of persons other than the judge or agent." Some negative moral emotions, such as fear, are passive and internalized and may cause consumers to quietly terminate their relationship with the offending agent (Harmeling, Magnusson, and Singh 2015; Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015). Conversely, other negative moral emotions, such as contempt, righteous anger, and disgust (also known as other-condemning emotions), may cause consumers to actively "move against" the offending company (Harmeling, Magnusson, and Singh 2015; Romani, Grappi, and Dalli 2012). Given the objective of explaining consumers' active retaliation (i.e., negative WOM and boycott), this study focuses on the latter group of other-condemning emotions (hereinafter simply referred to as "condemning emotions").

"Contempt" refers to the negative evaluation of others in terms of their social or ethical conduct (Rozin et al. 1999); "anger" refers to a painful feeling and a desire or impulse for revenge caused by appraisals of others' unjust (past) actions (Lazarus 1991; Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015); and "disgust" describes something revolting, triggered by behaviors appraised as impure. Whereas some scholars consider contempt, anger, and disgust distinct emotions that are elicited separately by different violations (Rozin et al. 1999), other researchers view this "hostility triad" as manifestations of the same underlying negative emotional state that is caused by similar appraisals (interpersonal concerns; Hutcherson and Gross 2011; Shaver et al. 1987).

To reconcile these apparently incompatible interpretations, Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi (2013a) postulate that respective measures of contempt, anger, and disgust load on distinct factors, thereby supporting discrete emotion interpretations, but that the three emotions are also consistently and substantially interrelated, which suggests the existence of a higher-order factor supporting the hostility triad interpretation. As Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi (2013a, p. 1816) note, treating these three emotions as a second-order construct "does not impose, a priori, either a shared or distinct conceptualization or operationalization. That is, actual common and unique aspects of the emotions are represented as they naturally occur in memory." In line with this rationale, later advances in marketing have treated contempt, anger, and disgust as a second-order construct (e.g., Xie and Bagozzi 2014, 2019; Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015), as do we. Accordingly, we view condemning emotions as a higher-order construct that exists at a deeper and more embedded level than its subdimensions (contempt, anger, and disgust) and regard the latter as manifestations of condemning emotions (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Podsakoff 2011; see Study 1 [measurement assessment] for more details).

We posit that condemning emotions elicit consumers' retaliatory intent, such as negative WOM and the intention to boycott the company (Klein, Smith, and John 2004). Observers of corporate wrongdoings may engage in retaliation because they are guided by motives of "venting" their anger, anxiety, and frustration (Nyer 2000). Research indeed finds that condemning emotions are the motivational antecedents of consumer retaliation across diverse corporate social irresponsibility contexts, such as severe product defect (Choi and Lin 2009), unfair employee treatment (Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi 2013a), offshore practices (Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi 2013b), and environmental disasters (Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015).

Country Stereotypes, Perceived Corporate Greed, and Condemning Emotions

When consumers become aware of a corporate crisis, the motives attributed to the offender (i.e., why the firm caused the negative event) are of critical importance in generating emotional reactions against the company (Crossley 2009; Grégoire, Laufer, and Tripp 2010). Previous research indicates that the perceived motives behind an action are often even more important than the action itself (Gilbert and Malone 1995). Research in organizational psychology finds that consumers are most likely to infer greed as a perceived negative motive for a firm and that perceived corporate greed plays a crucial role in the revenge process and in arousing feelings of hate (Crossley 2009; Reeder et al. 2002). Observers infer "perceived corporate greed" when they judge that a company has opportunistically tried to take advantage of a situation strictly to serve its own interests (e.g., a desire to increase profit) in a way that is detrimental and/or harmful to others (Grégoire, Laufer, and Tripp 2010). The criminal justice system has long recognized the importance of offender motives in determining punitive damages, and greed represents one of the most commonly cited motives for criminal behavior (Povinelli 2001). In marketing, the relevance of perceived corporate greed is particularly well emphasized in the service failure literature, which shows that customers' judgments about procedural and interactional fairness are more likely to create anger and a desire for revenge than the perceived outcome itself (Bechwati and Morrin 2003).[1]

In this study, we argue that when consumers appraise a corporate crisis, a company's COO and the related internally stored country stereotype of warmth will affect their inferences about the company's benevolence (Nisbett and Wilson 1977) and mitigate perceptions of corporate greed. Country warmth is closely related to consumers' attributions that the company might (not) have put others in danger knowingly, because warmth entails consumers' perceptions of a social object's benevolent intent toward others (Fiske et al. 2002). When consumers hold stereotypical beliefs that a foreign country has a predisposition or tendency to act harmlessly (harmfully), these beliefs expand to the company originating from that country and will decrease (increase) consumers' attributions of greed in the occurrence of a corporate crisis. According to cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger 1957), this country warmth bias occurs because consumers want to reduce internal dissonance when faced with new information that is inconsistent with their prior beliefs. An important coping mechanism to resolve such dissonance is to pay selective attention to information that is consistent with previously held beliefs (Dawar and Pillutla 2000; Klein and Dawar 2004). For example, when a company originating from a well-intentioned, friendly, and trustworthy (i.e., warm) country is involved in a crisis, consumers may process related information in a biased way to retain their prior positive beliefs and reduce discomfort. In other words, they may discount negative attributions (i.e., perceived corporate greed).

Furthermore, we argue that country warmth weakens condemning emotions indirectly through lower levels of perceived corporate greed. In the context of a service failure, Schoefer and Ennew (2005) find that the rude (vs. warm) treatment of a customer evokes associations of coldness and unfriendliness and exacerbates consumer anger toward the company. Moreover, previous research has shown that the inferred motives behind a company's misconduct determine consumers' emotional reactions to the offending company (Lange and Washburn 2012). The inferred intentions serve as a cognitive anchor that biases observers' emotional reactions to a wrongdoer. Attributions of greed boost condemning emotions that cause consumers to perceive their retaliation as morally justified and even desirable. Conversely, if consumers believe that a company has nonexploitative intentions with respect to a crisis, their condemning emotions will be less exacerbated. Thus, we formally hypothesize an indirect relationship between country warmth and condemning emotions mediated through perceptions of corporate greed:

H_1: Country warmth decreases perceived corporate greed.
H_2: Perceived corporate greed increases condemning emotions.
H_3: Perceived corporate greed mediates the relationship between country warmth and condemning emotions.

Finally, we expect that consumers' condemning emotions drive their retaliatory intent, for example, in the form of negative WOM and boycotting the offending company and its products. Because this link is well-established in the literature (e.g., Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi 2013a, 2013b; Klein, Smith, and John 2004; Xie and Bagozzi 2019; Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015), we refrain from formally hypothesizing it.

Compared with country warmth, we expect country competence to have no significant effect on consumers' attribution of greed to the offending company. When consumers have associations of high levels of country competence, their expectations are related to a company's ability to produce the best

[1] Perceived corporate greed can be understood as the "alter ego" of perceived sincerity of corporate actions (e.g., Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, and Bozok 2006; Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, and Schwarz 2006) in terms of (1) the theoretical context it applies to (irresponsible vs. commendable corporate behaviors), (2) the valence of related consumer emotions (negative vs. positive moral emotions), and (3) consumers' behavioral responses (punishment vs. support).

products, to control consistent product quality, and generally to operate as a market leader in a product category (Wang et al. 2012). When consumers perceive a company as originating from a highly competent country, they will likely infer higher product quality, which can result in more favorable attitudes toward the company's goods (Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons 2018) and possibly higher purchase intentions, even in the aftermath of a crisis. However, we argue that country competence is not a diagnostic cue for consumers to infer the favorability of a company's intentions toward out-group members because a lack of competence is not associated with consumer appraisals of harm and threat (Klein and Dawar 2004; Lange and Washburne 2012). Research has indeed found that country competence has no or only limited influence on blame attributions (Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons 2018; Xu, Leung, and Yan 2013). The primacy of warmth over competence in consumers' emotional reactions to corporate crises could be explained by evolutionary psychology. In corporate crises, the consequences of the negative events are generally severe, and consumer attributions are mainly directed to potentially harmful agents. In this context, another agent's intent for good or ill is more important in one's survival than whether the agent can act on those intentions. Similarly, warmth judgments determine approach–avoidance tendencies, so they are the fundamental aspect of emotional reactions. Thus, warmth carries more weight in affective reactions, such as condemning emotions, than competence does. Along these lines, we posit that country competence has no significant impact on perceived corporate greed and condemning emotions. Therefore, we refrain from formulating specific (null) hypotheses in this regard. Nonetheless, we conceptually (see Figure 1) and empirically (see covariates) allow for potential effects of country competence on the criterion variables.

Country Warmth and the Moderating Role of Crisis Type

The theoretical reasoning proposed previously supports a buffering effect of country warmth. However, under certain circumstances, consumers are not likely to completely ignore or discount the negative information, such that positive country stereotypes can no longer "gloss over" the negative information associated with the committed wrongdoing. That is, the buffering effect of country warmth might depend on situational characteristics, such that country warmth does not always serve as an insurance policy for a foreign wrongdoer against the unfavorable consequences of a crisis.

We argue that the type of crisis a company is involved in constitutes a crucial contingency factor for the occurrence of the country warmth bias. We posit that the type of crisis provides diagnostic contextual cues that initiate divergent cognitive processing among consumers that selectively focuses on either positive or negative information, resulting in an activation or deactivation of the buffering effect of country warmth. In this regard, we distinguish between corporate ability (CA) crises, which are caused by a company's "failure to meet quality standards, as perceived by consumers" (Kim and Choi 2019, p. 573), and corporate value (CV) crises, which are caused by a company's "behavior that conflicts with consumers' . . . ethical standards" (Kim and Choi 2019, p. 573). This distinction is grounded in prior work that identifies two key dimensions of corporate associations: ability and morality. Brown and Dacin (1997), for example, distinguish between corporate ability associations, which emphasize a company's professional competence in producing and delivering its products and services, and CSR associations, which highlight a company's promise and performance in fulfilling its moral obligation as a member of society. Similarly, later work categorizes organizational reputation or behavior by distinguishing between economic performance and social responsibility (Fombrun and Van Riel 1997), performance and value (Kübler et al. 2020), and corporate expertise and CSR (David, Kline, and Dai 2005).

This distinction is crucial because, in general, ability categories are defined more in terms of positive than negative performances (Skowronski and Carlston 1987; Wojciszke 1994). Conversely, values (morality) categories are defined more in terms of negative than positive performances (Skowronski and Carlston 1987; Wojciszke 1994). For example, Wojciszke (2005) demonstrates that in situations in which information about a target agent pertains to morality traits, negative information is considered more diagnostic than positive information, whereas the opposite is true in situations involving information that is pertinent to a target agent's ability traits. Negative performances in ability categories also tend to be perceived as less diagnostic than negative performances in value (morality) categories (Kim and Choi 2019; Sohn and Lariscy 2015).

Extending this reasoning to the moderating effect of crisis type on the buffering effect of country warmth, we argue that if a crisis calls into question a company's ability to perform, high levels of country warmth may serve as an interpretive frame. Previous research indeed shows that in CA crises, positive cues (e.g., country warmth) about a company's nonopportunistic behavior (Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons 2018; Xu, Leung, and Yan 2013) or its engagement in CSR (Klein and Dawar 2004) increase trust in the company and expand to a maintained confidence in and positive attitude toward the company. Thus, we expect consumers to use country warmth as a diagnostic cue for the company's benevolent intentions toward others. This diagnostic cue of benevolence leads consumers to discount negative information about a company's potential greedy intentions when a CA crisis occurs.

Conversely, if a crisis calls into question a company's adherence to moral norms, negative information will appear more diagnostic for understanding the situation and will not be ignored. Because country warmth is related to the moral domain (as it deals with the trustworthiness, reliability, and kindness of a company), congruence between country warmth and a CV crisis will lead consumers to attend even more to the negative event (Kim and Choi 2018). Consumers' skepticism and attributions of corporate hypocrisy may also arise (Kim and Choi 2018; Skarmeas and Leonidou 2013). Thus, we expect that consumers will not rely on country warmth as a diagnostic

Table 2. Overview of Empirical Studies.

Study	Purpose	Design	Scenario	Sample	Analysis
Study 1	Establishing the indirect effect of country warmth on condemning emotions and retaliatory intent through perceived corporate greed (H_1–H_3)	2 × 2 between-subjects	Product-harm crisis (ambiguous) Defective refrigerators causing harm to customers	327 adult consumers	Regression analysis (PROCESS Models 6 and 81)
Study 2	Replication of the results from Study 1 using alternative country stimuli, attribution of responsibility, and measurement scales (H_1–H_3)	2 × 2 between-subjects	Product-harm crisis (unambiguous) Malfunctioning pipe discharging chemical waste products into waterways	283 adult consumers	Regression analysis (PROCESS Model 6)
Study 3	Replication and extension of the results from Studies 1 and 2 by considering the moderating effect of crisis type (H_{4a}, H_{4b})	2 × 2 × 2 between-subjects	Data privacy violation (unambiguous) Company violating rules regarding consumer personal data protection CA crisis: lack of high quality standards CV crisis: lack of high moral standards	398 adult consumers	Regression analysis (PROCESS Model 83)

cue signaling the company's benevolent intentions toward others and will not discount negative information about a CV crisis. A country warmth cue will no longer be diagnostic for consumers in this case, and the buffering effect of country warmth will vanish. Along these lines, we formally hypothesize an interaction between levels of country warmth (low vs. high) and crisis type (CA crisis vs. CV crisis):

> **$H_{4a(b)}$:** In CA crises (CV crises), high levels of country warmth (do not) lead to decreased perceived corporate greed, condemning emotions, and retaliatory intent, compared with low levels of country warmth.

Empirical Studies

To test the hypotheses, we conducted three experimental studies (see Table 2 for an overview). In Study 1, we establish the basic mediation model, which involves formal tests of H_1–H_3. In Study 2, we replicate these effects while alternating the company's COO and the examined retaliation behavior. Then, in Study 3, we test the complete moderated (serial) mediation model, including a formal test of H_{4a} and H_{4b}.

Study 1

Research Design

To test the hypothesized indirect effect of country warmth on condemning emotions and subsequent retaliation through perceived corporate greed, we conducted a 2 (COO warmth: low vs. high) × 2 (COO competence: low vs. high) between-subjects experiment set in the context of a product-harm crisis. The vignette described "Fridge," a foreign company involved in a case of defective refrigerators and possibly related domestic accidents such as fires. Notably, we ensured that the company's responsibility for the described product-harm crisis was unclear, which may have increased the salience of extrinsic cues (e.g., COO; Laufer, Gillespie, and Silvera 2009). We also opted for a fictitious company name to avoid brand-induced confounding effects (e.g., past brand experience, brand attitude, consumer–brand relationship strength). We report the narrative of the scenario in Web Appendix A.

To assess the causal effect of the country stereotypes, we systematically manipulated the company's COO in the vignette. As country stimuli, we used Canada (high warmth, high competence), Spain (high warmth, low competence), Germany (low warmth, high competence), and Romania (low warmth, low competence). We pretested these country stimuli with a sample of 55 adult consumers. To measure respondents' perceptions of these countries' warmth and competence, we adopted established scales from the literature (Maher and Carter 2011, based on Fiske et al. 2002; Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$ for both measures; see Web Appendix B for these measurement scales). Analysis of variance results across the four country conditions (warmth: $F(3, 51) = 6.32$, $p = .01$; competence: $F(3, 51) = 18.85$, $p < .01$) and post hoc pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni correction (all significant at $p < .05$) indicated that the respondents perceived the pretested countries as expected: Canada and Spain as warmer than Germany and Romania, and Canada and Germany as more competent than Spain and Romania (see Web Appendix B, Panel A, for country-specific means and standard deviations).

To obtain a diverse sample of general consumers, we approached potential respondents as they shopped in supermarkets and provided them with a ticket indicating an online survey link. As an incentive to participate in the online experiment, we also offered them the possibility of participating in a lottery of e-commerce vouchers. We randomly assigned respondents who accessed the survey link to one of the four country conditions. They were presented first with the case of "Fridge," and then they were asked to answer questions related to the constructs of interest, including negative WOM (capturing retaliatory intent; Joireman et al. 2013), condemning emotions (in terms of contempt, anger, and disgust; Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015), and perceived corporate greed (Antonetti and Maklan 2016; all items were measured on seven-point scales). Table 3 provides an overview of all measurement scales, their properties, and sources (for further details on how we measured condemning emotions, see Web Appendix C). To rule out alternative explanations for the mediating processes of condemning emotions, we also included a measure of fear in the questionnaire (three items adopted from Xie, Bagozzi, and Grønhaug 2015, i.e., "threatened," "scared," and "fearful," measured on seven-point scales, anchored by 1 = "very weak," and 7 = "very strong," $\alpha = .94$). Finally, we included country warmth and competence (measured as in the pretest), perceived corporate benevolence (as a reflection of warmth at the corporate level; Peloza, Ye, and Montford 2015; $\alpha > .90$), and corporate ability (as a reflection of competence at the corporate level; Aaker, Vohs, and Mogilner 2010; $\alpha > .90$) for manipulation check purposes (see Web Appendix B for these measurement scales). To enable post hoc assessments of potential common method variance (CMV), we also included a theoretically unrelated CMV marker variable ("I prefer brands endorsed by celebrities," measured on a seven-point Likert scale; Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons 2018). Before leaving the survey, all respondents were debriefed about the fictitious nature of the scenario.

In total, 366 consumers fully completed the questionnaire, with 39 being disqualified for failing the attention checks. The final sample consisted of 327 consumers (age groups: 18–35 years = 73%, 36–55 years = 20%, 55+ years = 7%; gender: 49% male).

Data Analysis and Results

Manipulation checks. Respondents perceived the manipulated countries as expected (see Web Appendix B, Panel A, for means and standard deviations; country warmth: $F(3, 323) = 66.07, p < .01$; country competence: $F(3, 323) = 128.34, p < .01$). In addition, in line with our expectations, perceptions of country stereotypes were transferred to companies of that nationality as a result of a country–company halo effect. Respondents perceived companies originating from high-warmth (high-competence) countries as more benevolent (competent) than companies originating from low-warmth (low-competence) countries (see Web Appendix B, Panel A, for means and standard deviations; corporate benevolence: $F(3, 323) = 5.91, p < .01$; corporate ability: $F(3, 323) = 10.68, p < .01$).

Measurement assessment. Before running a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for all focal measures, we examined whether measures of contempt, anger, and disgust could be organized hierarchically in a second-order CFA model. Specifically, in line with our theoretical conceptualization, we modeled condemning emotions as a Type I model (reflective first-order, reflective second-order; Jarvis, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff 2003). Such representation "recognize[s] the contribution and retain[s] the idiosyncratic nature of each first-order construct [i.e., contempt, anger, and disgust] and treat[s] such constructs as facets of the higher-order construct [i.e., condemning emotions]" (Koufteros, Babbar, and Kaighobadi 2009, p. 635). The results, which we report in Web Appendix C, Panel A, indicate that the second-order specification fits the data well. Both the second-order factor and the subordinate first-order factors exhibit excellent psychometric properties. All factor loadings (λ), average variances extracted, composite reliabilities, and Cronbach's alphas exceed the recommended thresholds, attesting to the convergent validity of the measures (Bagozzi and Yi 1988; Nunnally 1978). Each construct's average variance extracted is also greater than its squared correlations with all other constructs, indicating discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Next, we ran another CFA comprising all constructs of interest. Table 3, Panel A, reports the psychometric properties of the constructs. All constructs exhibit convergent and discriminant validity. Finally, we assessed the amount of CMV in our data using the marker variable technique (Lindell and Whitney 2001). We found that all coefficients remain statistically significant after controlling for the marker variable, suggesting that CMV does not represent a threat in our data.

Direct and indirect effects. To estimate the relationships postulated by our conceptual model, we used Hayes's (2017) PROCESS routine. We employed Model 6, a serial mediation model, and specified country warmth (low = 0; high = 1) as the key independent variable, negative WOM as the dependent variable, and perceived corporate greed and condemning emotions as mediating variables. Country competence (low = 0; high = 1), age (18–24 years = 1; 25–34 years = 2; 35–44 years = 3; 45–54 years = 4; 55–64 years = 5; 64+ years = 6), gender (male = 0; female = 1), education level (junior high school or lower = 1; high school = 2; higher education = 3), and consumer ethnocentrism (four items adopted from Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos 2009, e.g., "it is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts [country citizens] out of jobs," measured on seven-point scales, anchored by 1 = "strongly disagree," and 7 = "strongly agree," $\alpha = .90$) served as covariates. We calculated 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs) using bootstrapping (10,000 resamples). Table 4, Panel A, summarizes the results. In addition, we report means across conditions in Web Appendix D.

Consistent with our predictions, country warmth mitigates perceived corporate greed ($b = -.34, p < .01$, CI [$-.60$, $-.09$]). Perceived corporate greed elicits condemning emotions ($b = .67, p < .01$, CI [.56, .78]), which in turn lead to increased intentions to spread negative WOM ($b = .47, p < .01$, CI [.35, .59]). The model explains 29% of the dependent variable's variance. In line with our theoretical expectations, country warmth affects condemning emotions through the mediating effect of

Table 3. Measurement Scales.

		Panel A					Panel B					Panel C				
		Study 1 (n = 327)					Study 2 (n = 283)					Study 3 (n = 398)				
Constructs and Sources	**Measurement Items**	λ	α	CR	AVE	M (SD)	λ	α	CR	AVE	M (SD)	λ	α	CR	AVE	M (SD)
Perceived Corporate Greed																
Source: Antonetti and Maklan (2016)	1. The company intends to take advantage of the situation.	.78	.87	.87	.63	4.11 (1.18)	.87	.92	.93	.76	4.67 (1.34)	.87	.93	.93	.77	4.50 (1.44)
Response format: seven-point	2. The company has bad intentions.	.74					.87					.83				
Likert scales, anchored by 1 =	3. The company is acting out of selfishness.	.78					.86					.90				
"strongly disagree," and 7 = "strongly agree"	4. The company is acting out of greed.	.86					.87					.90				
Condemning Emotions																
Source: Xie et al. (2015)	1. Contempt	.91	.92	.93	.81	3.88 (1.43)	.94	.96	.96	.88	4.17 (1.55)	.94	.95	.95	.87	3.78 (1.52)
Response format: seven-point	2. Anger	.86					.91					.90				
scales, anchored by 1 = "very weak," and 7 = "very strong"	3. Disgust	.91					.96					.95				
Negative WOM Intentions																
Source: Joireman et al. (2013) Response format: seven-point	1. I will tell others about the scandal in which the company is involved.	.83	.89	.89	.74	4.32 (1.45)				—					—	
Likert scale, anchored by 1 = "strongly disagree," and 7 =	2. I will warn friends and relatives not to buy from the company.	.93														
"strongly agree"	3. I will complain to friends and relatives about this company.	.80														
Boycott Intentions																
Source: Klein et al. (2004) Response format: seven-point bipolar scale	1. I will (not) boycott the products of the company.				—		1.00	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.87 (1.87)	1.00	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.62 (1.71)

Notes: Model fit indices, Study 1: $\chi^2(32) = 72.31$, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .03, CFI = .99, NNFI = .98; model fit indices, Study 2: $\chi^2(18) = 54.36$, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .03, CFI = .98, NNFI = .98; model fit indices, Study 3: $\chi^2(18) = 86.39$, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .04, CFI = .98, NNFI = .97; M = mean value, SD = standard deviation, λ = latent factor loading in the CFA, α = Cronbach's alpha, CR = composite reliability, AVE = average variance extracted, n.a. = not applicable due to single-item measurement. Bivariate correlations among perceived corporate greed (PCGreed), condemning emotions (CEmotions), and consumer retaliation (CRetaliation) across studies: PCGreed–CEmotions = .58–.74, PCGreed–CRetaliation = .36–.50, CEmotions–CRetaliation = .49–.58 (all significant at $p < .01$).

Table 4. Model Estimations.

	Panel A			Panel B			Panel C			
	Study 1			Study 2			Study 3			
Relationships	b (SE)	*p*	[CI]	b (SE)	*p*	[CI]	CT[a]	b (SE)	*p*	[CI]
Direct Effects										
CWarmth → PCGreed	−**.34** (.13)	< .01	[−.60, −.09]	−**.37** (.16)	.02	[−.67, −.06]	CA:	−**.66** (.20)	< .01	[−1.06, −.26]
							CV:	−.04 (.19)	.82	[−.41, .32]
PCGreed → CEmotions	**.67** (.06)	< .01	[.56, .78]	**.86** (.05)	< .01	[.77, .96]		**.64** (.04)	< .01	[.55, .72]
CEmotions → CRetaliation	**.47** (.06)	< .01	[.35, .59]	**.39** (.08)	< .01	[.23, .55]		**.45** (.06)	< .01	[.33, .56]
CWarmth → CRetaliation	−.05 (.14)	.74	[−.32, .23]	−**.47** (.17)	< .01	[−.81, −.14]		−**.33** (.15)	.03	[−.62, −.04]
Indirect Effects										
CWarmth →…→ CEmotions	−**.23** (.09)	—	[−.42, −.06]	−**.32** (.13)	—	[−.58, −.06]	CA:	−**.42** (.13)	—	[−.69, −.17]
							CV:	−.03 (.12)	—	[−.26, .21]
CWarmth →…→ CRetaliation	−**.11** (.05)	—	[−.22, −.03]	−**.12** (.06)	—	[−.28, −.03]	CA:	−**.19** (.07)	—	[−.32, −.07]
							CV:	−.01 (.05)	—	[−.12, .09]
Interactive Effects										
Crisis type → PCGreed	—			—				**.62** (.20)	< .01	[.24, .99]
Crisis type × CWarmth → PCGreed	—			—				**.62** (.28)	.03	[.07, 1.16]
Control Paths[b]										
CWarmth → CEmotions	−**.38** (.13)	< .01	[−.63, −.12]	.06 (.13)	.60	[−.18, .31]		−.14 (.12)	.25	[−.39, .10]
PCGreed → CRetaliation	.10 (.07)	.14	[−.04, .25]	**.39** (.10)	< .01	[.20, .58]		**.18** (.06)	.01	[.05, .30]
CCompetence → PCGreed	−.19 (.13)	.13	[−.44, .06]	.17 (.15)	.28	[−.14, .48]		−.18 (.14)	.19	[−.45, .09]
CCompetence → CEmotions	.19 (.13)	.15	[−.07, .44]	−.02 (.12)	.88	[−.26, .23]		−.13 (.12)	.29	[−.38, .11]
CCompetence → CRetaliation	−.23 (.14)	.10	[−.50, .04]	.06 (.17)	.73	[−.27, .39]		.04 (.15)	.78	[−.25, .33]
Index of moderated mediation	—			—				**.17** (.08)	—	[.02, .35]
N		327			283				398	
Adjusted R^2 (CRetaliation)		.29			.45				.29	
F value (*p*)		15.92 (< .01)			47.37 (< .01)				23.17 (< .01)	

Notes: All reported beta coefficients are unstandardized. Statistically significant coefficients ($p < .05$) are highlighted in boldface. The reported 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CI) are based on 10,000 resamples. CWarmth = country warmth, PCGreed = perceived corporate greed, CEmotions = condemning emotions, CRetaliation = consumer retaliation (Study 1: negative WOM intentions; Studies 2 and 3: boycott intentions).

[a]CT refers to crisis type (CA crisis = 0; CV crisis = 1).

[b]In all studies, we further controlled for respondents' age, gender, education level, and consumer ethnocentrism (except for Study 3).

perceived corporate greed ($b_{indirect} = -.23$, CI [−.42, −.06]). We also find evidence of a significant indirect effect of country warmth on negative WOM through perceived corporate greed and condemning emotions ($b_{indirect} = -.11$, CI [−.22, −.03]). The direct effect of country warmth on retaliatory intent is not significant (b = .05, $p = .74$, CI [−.32, .23]). Likewise, country competence shows no significant impact on any of the model variables (perceived corporate greed: b = −.19, $p = .13$, CI [−.44, .06]; condemning emotions: b = .19, $p = .15$, CI [−.07, .44]; negative WOM: b = −.23, $p = .10$, CI [−.50, .04]). These results provide support for H_1, H_2, and H_3.

To enhance confidence in our findings, we carried out additional analyses. First, we tested for potential interactions between country warmth and competence in influencing the dependent variables. The results of univariate analyses revealed no significant interactive effects of country warmth and competence on perceived corporate greed ($F(1, 319) = 1.05$, $p = .31$), condemning emotions ($F(1, 319) = .20$, $p = .65$), or negative WOM ($F(1, 319) < .01$, $p = .99$). Second, we estimated a rival model that included fear as an additional mediator (PROCESS Model 81) to rule out the possibility that the observed effects were due to negative moral emotions other than condemning emotions. The results showed that fear did not mediate the effect of country warmth ($b_{indirect} = -.01$, CI [−.04, .01]), while the mediating effect of condemning emotions remained significant ($b_{indirect} = -.09$, CI [−.18, −.02]). These results lend support to the notion that condemning emotions are more suitable antecedents of retaliatory intent toward an offending party than more passive and internalized emotions, such as fear.

Discussion

The findings from Study 1 provide initial evidence for the asymmetric effects of country stereotypes on consumers' condemning emotions and subsequent retaliatory intent (negative WOM) in the context of an ambiguous product-harm crisis. When a company is associated with a country evoking high levels of warmth, this stereotype operates as an insurance policy against the negative impact of product harm. Conversely, when a company's COO evokes high levels of competence, it does not significantly influence condemning emotions and negative WOM.

Furthermore, we provide an explanation for *why* country warmth influences condemning emotions and retaliatory intent. Specifically, we demonstrate that a halo of country warmth is extended to otherwise unrelated consumer judgments. The cue of country warmth, which could be perceived as independent of attributions and responses in corporate crises, does indeed matter in these contexts. The stereotype of high (low) warmth evoked by a company's COO spills over into lower (higher) attributions of corporate greed, which in turn lead to decreased condemning emotions and intentions to spread negative information about the company at fault.

Study 2

Research Design

In Study 2, we aim to replicate and extend the findings from Study 1. We test H_1–H_3 using different country stimuli, a different product-harm crisis setting, different evidence of responsibility, and a different outcome variable to measure consumer retaliation (i.e., consumers' intention to boycott the offending company and its products). Again, we use a 2 (country warmth: low vs. high) × 2 (country competence: low vs. high) between-subjects experiment. As country stimuli, we use the United States (high warmth, high competence), Greece (high warmth, low competence), Switzerland (low warmth, high competence), and Albania (low warmth, low competence), which we pretested with a sample of 53 adult consumers (perceived warmth: $F(3, 49) = 4.93$, $p < .01$; perceived competence ($F(3, 323) = 11.43$, $p < .01$; Web Appendix B, Panel B). The scenario describes "SML," an American (Greek/Swiss/Albanian) clothing company involved in an environmental scandal (i.e., discharging toxic chemicals into waterways caused by the malfunctioning of the company's water pipe). In contrast with Study 1, which involved an ambiguous product-harm crisis, SML is undoubtedly the direct source of the crisis (see Web Appendix A).

The questionnaire structure was identical to that of Study 1, except for the outcome variable. To increase confidence in the robustness of our findings, we changed our measure of consumer retaliation in Study 2. Instead of measuring consumers' negative WOM intentions, we captured their intention to boycott the products of the focal company. Table 3, Panel B, reports the measurement scales, their properties, and sources. The data were collected online by a market research agency.

In total, 296 consumers completed the questionnaire, with 13 being disqualified for failing the attention checks. The final sample consisted of 283 consumers (age groups: 18–25 years = 23%, 26–35 years = 18%, 36–45 years = 19%, 46–55 years = 15%, 55+ years = 22%; gender: 51% male).

Data Analysis and Results

Manipulation checks and measurement assessment. Respondents perceived the manipulated countries as expected (country warmth: ($F(3, 279) = 43.61$, $p < .01$); country competence ($F(3, 279) = 54.06$, $p < .01$; see Web Appendix B, Panel B, for details). The CFA results, which we document in Panel B of Table 3, further show that all construct measures are valid and reliable.

Direct and indirect effects. Similar to Study 1, we test the hypothesized relationships by specifying a serial mediation model using the PROCESS Model 6. Table 4, Panel B, reports the results. Again, country competence, age, gender, education level, and consumer ethnocentrism served as covariates. The results indicate that country warmth mitigates perceptions of corporate greed (b = −.37, $p = .02$, CI [−.67, −.07]), which significantly affects consumers' condemning emotions (b = .86, $p < .01$, CI [.77, .96]) and, ultimately, their intention to boycott the company (b = .39, $p < .01$, CI [.23, .55]). The model explains 45% of the variance in the dependent variable. In line with our theoretical expectations, country warmth also affects consumers' retaliatory intent through perceived corporate greed and condemning emotions ($b_{indirect} = -.12$, CI [−.28, −.03]). While country warmth also directly affects retaliatory intent (b = −.47, $p < .01$, CI [−.81, −.14]), country competence does not significantly affect any of the model variables (corporate greed: b = .17, $p = .28$, CI [−.14, .48]; condemning emotions: b = −.02, $p = .88$, CI [−.26, .23]; boycott intentions: b = .06, $p = .73$, CI [−.27, .39]). Therefore, Study 2 also fully supports H_1–H_3. Again, additional univariate analyses yielded no evidence of potential interactive effects of country warmth and competence on perceived corporate greed ($F(1, 275) = 2.50$, $p = .12$), condemning emotions ($F(1, 275) = 1.10$, $p = .30$), or boycott intentions ($F(1, 275) = .09$, $p = .76$).

Discussion

Study 2 corroborates the findings from Study 1. Importantly, Study 2 demonstrates that country warmth biases consumer attributions of corporate greed, condemning emotions, and boycott intentions, even when the company is undoubtedly the direct source of the product-harm crisis. By using different country stimuli than those of Study 1, we further rule out that these effects are country-specific.

Study 3

Research Design

Study 3 complements Studies 1 and 2 by clarifying the conditions under which the buffering effect of country warmth may occur. In this study, we test the hypothesis that the effects of country warmth (low vs. high) depend on the type of crisis (CA crisis vs. CV crisis)—that is, that high country warmth will (not) buffer the negative consequences of CA (CV) crises (H_{4a} and H_{4b}). Although country warmth and crisis type are the focus of this study, we also manipulate country competence (low vs. high) and include it as a covariate. Therefore, we employ a 2 (country warmth: low vs. high) × 2 (country competence: low vs. high) × 2 (crisis type: CA crisis vs. CV crisis) between-subjects design for our experiment.

The manipulated countries were the same as in Study 2. The scenario describes the case of "T&S Networks," an American (Greek/Swiss/Albanian) e-commerce company involved in a scandal for violating rules regarding customers' personal data protection (see Web Appendix A). We told respondents exposed to the CA crisis condition that the company was to be blamed for its inadequate quality and safety standards. Conversely, we told respondents exposed to the CV crisis condition that the company was to be blamed for its dearth of higher moral standards and obscure practices regarding customers' personal information. Each respondent was exposed to only one of the eight conditions.

After reading the scenario, respondents answered the same set of questions as in Study 2. Regarding the manipulations, we measured respondents' perceptions of the CA and CV crisis with a single-item statement ("the negative event is caused by a lack of the company's ability" and "the negative event is caused by a lack of the company's morality," respectively; both scales anchored by 1 = "not at all" and 7 = "completely"). All measurement scales, their properties, and sources appear in Panel C of Table 3.

We recruited the respondents following the same procedure as in Study 2. In total, 445 consumers participated in the study, with 47 being disqualified for failing the attention checks. The final sample consisted of 398 consumers (age groups: 18–25 years = 16%, 26–35 years = 19%, 36–45 years = 21%, 46–55 years = 17%, 55+ years = 26%; gender: 50% male).

Data Analysis and Results

Manipulation check and measurement assessment. Respondents perceived the manipulated countries as expected (see Web Appendix B, Panel C, for means and standard deviations; country warmth: $F(3, 394) = 64.27$, $p < .01$; country competence: $F(3, 394) = 53.24$, $p < .01$). The respondents exposed to the CA crisis scenario attributed statistically higher CA scores than CV scores to the crisis ($M_{CA} = 4.51$, $SD_{CA} = 1.59$; $M_{CV} = 3.90$, $SD_{CV} = 1.52$; $t(182) = 5.02$, $p < .01$), whereas respondents exposed to the CV crisis scenario attributed statistically higher CV scores than CA scores to it ($M_{CV} = 4.85$, $SD_{CV} = 1.61$; $M_{CA} = 3.89$, $SD_{CA} = 1.52$; $t(214) = 7.48$, $p < .01$). The CFA results, which we report in Table 3, Panel C, show that all construct measures are valid and reliable.[2]

Conditional and indirect effects. To test the relationships of interest, including the moderating role of crisis type, we specified a moderated (serial) mediation model using PROCESS Model 83. Again, we included country competence and respondents' age, gender, and education level as covariates. Table 4, Panel C, reports the results. As hypothesized, we observe a significant interaction between country warmth and crisis type. In the case of CA crisis, country warmth substantially mitigates perceived corporate greed (b = −.66, $p < .01$, CI [−1.06, −.26]). Conversely, in the case of CV crisis, the effect of country warmth is not significant (b = −.04, $p = .82$, CI [−.41, .32]). Similarly, the indirect effect of country warmth on consumers' boycott intentions through perceived corporate greed

[2] We also assessed the discriminant validity between respondents' perceptions of country warmth (CW), lack of corporate benevolence (LB), country competence (CC), and lack of company ability (LA). Because we captured crisis type perceptions using single items, we proceeded in two steps. First, we report all bivariate correlations "so that readers can draw their own conclusions" (Voorhees et al. 2016, p. 132): CW–CC = .42, CW–LB = −.24, CW–LA = −.20, CC–LB = −.17, CC–LA = −.12, and LB–LA = .28. Second, as a formal test, we used the overlapping confidence interval (CI) technique (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). This complementary assessment showed that the 95% CIs around the estimates did not overlap with 1. We thank an anonymous reviewer for suggesting this additional check.

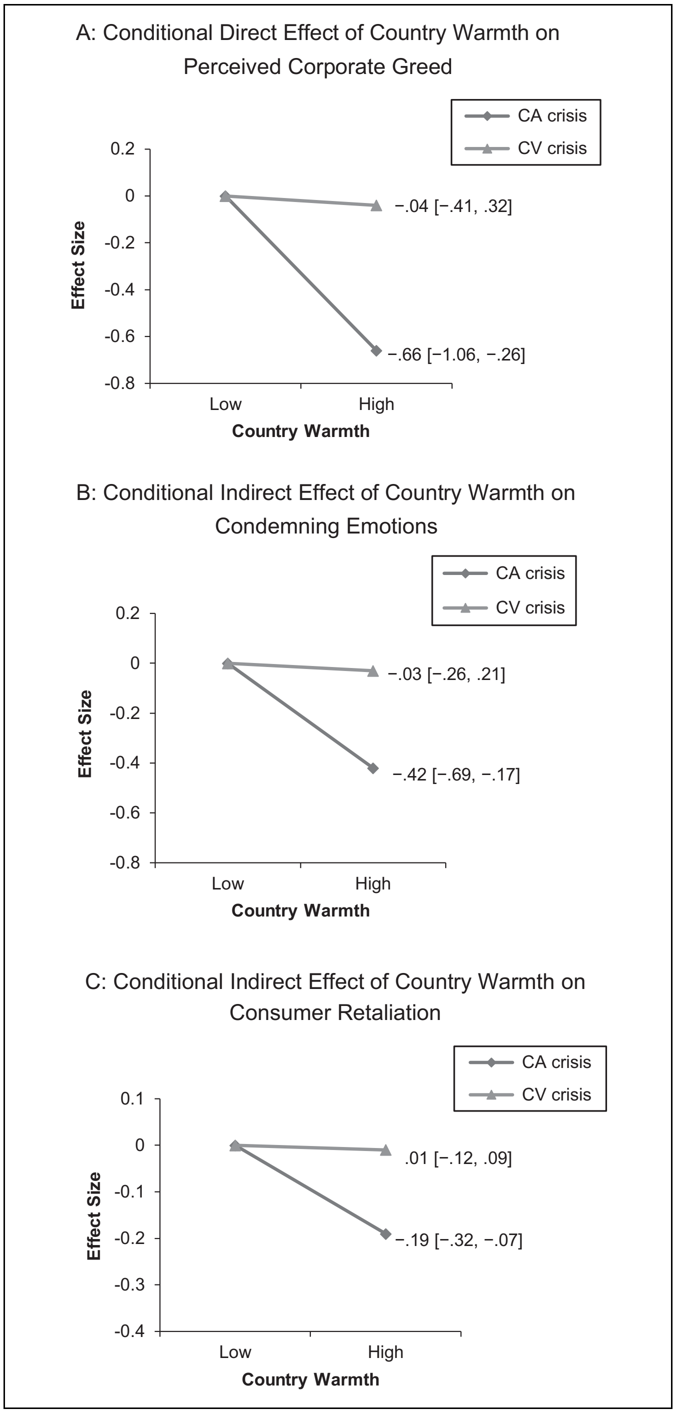

Figure 2. Interactive effects.

and condemning emotions is significant in the case of CA crisis ($b_{indirect} = -.19$, CI [$-.32$, $-.07$]) but not in the case of CV crisis ($b_{indirect} = -.01$, CI [$-.12$, .09]). Importantly, though, we observe a direct negative relationship between country warmth and retaliatory intent ($b = -.33$, $p = .03$, CI [$-.62$, $-.04$]), similar to Study 2. These results provide support for H_{4a} and H_{4b}. To better illustrate the role of crisis type as a contingency factor, Figure 2 plots the conditional direct effect of country warmth on perceived corporate greed (Panel A) as well as its conditional indirect effects on condemning emotions (Panel B) and boycott intentions (Panel C).

Similar to Studies 1 and 2, we also tested for potential interactive effects of country warmth and competence on the dependent variables, none of which were statistically significant (perceived corporate greed: $F(3, 391) = .25, p = .62$; condemning emotions: $F(3, 391) < .01, p = .94$; boycott intentions: $F(3, 391) = 2.95, p = .09$). We also tested for potential interactive effects of country competence and crisis type on condemning emotions but found no significant interactions ($F(3, 391) = .23$, $p = .63$).

Discussion

The results of Study 3 confirm the presumed buffering effect of country warmth in the case of CA crisis. When consumers believe that the company originates from a well-intentioned, friendly, and trustworthy country, their beliefs work as an insurance policy for the company during such crises. Consumers likely go through biased information processing that confirms their prior, positive country warmth beliefs and discounts negative information about the CA scandal.

However, the results of Study 3 paint a markedly different picture of country warmth effects in the case of CV crisis. As expected, the mitigating effect of country warmth on the model variables vanishes when a company faces a CV crisis. In addition, the indirect effect of country warmth on consumer retaliatory intent through perceived corporate greed and condemning emotions is not significant. Consumers seem to focus more on a company's deceitful motives than on its inferred benevolence when its morality is called into question due to a crisis.

General Discussion

Ample research has investigated consumers' responses to corporate crises, the underlying psychological mechanism, and contingency factors (e.g., Cleeren, Dekimpe, and Van Heerde 2017; Gao et al. 2015; Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi 2013a, 2013b; Xie and Bagozzi 2019), but the roles of the origin of offending companies and the associated country stereotypes in consumers' appraisal of corporate crises remain unclear. To address this gap in the international marketing literature, we theorize and empirically test (1) the effects of country stereotypes of warmth on consumers' condemning emotions and retaliatory intent, (2) the underlying psychological mechanism through which these effects occur, and (3) the role of crisis type as a crucial contingency factor.

Study 1 provides evidence for the buffering effect of country warmth—but not of country competence—on consumers' condemning emotions and subsequent retaliatory intent in the context of an ambiguous product-harm crisis. It also establishes perceived corporate greed as the key mechanism underlying the effect of country warmth on condemning emotions. Study 2 replicates the findings of Study 1 by using different countries, product-harm scenarios, evidence of responsibility, and a different outcome variable. Finally, Study 3 clarifies the boundary conditions for the hypothesized effects and identifies the type of crisis as a crucial contingency factor that facilitates or suppresses the country warmth bias. In the case of CA crises, country warmth mitigates consumers' adverse responses, which indicates that consumers discount negative information to reduce cognitive dissonance (i.e., to reconcile the event with their country-induced benevolence inferences). Conversely, in CV crises, country warmth does not translate into lowered perceived corporate greed and, consequently, has no influence on the relevant outcomes, which implies that country-induced inferences of benevolence cannot "gloss over" a company's moral shortcomings.

Theoretical Contributions

Our findings contribute in four ways to the growing but still limited stream of literature on the role of country stereotypes in the context of corporate crises. First, our study underscores the importance consumers (consciously or unconsciously) attach to a company's nationality in crisis settings, thus complementing international marketing research in noncrisis settings (e.g., Choi et al. 2016; Herz and Diamantopoulos 2017; Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf 2019). As part of the activation of company associations that occur when consumers appraise a crisis, country stereotypes of warmth lead consumers to infer the benevolence of a company, which in turn results in diminished perceptions of corporate greed. The findings that a company's COO and associated stereotypes (i.e., extrinsic cues) affect how consumers react to corporate misconduct are an important extension of prior literature that focuses on (internal) strategies and actions (e.g., CSR; Kim and Choi 2018, 2019; Klein and Dawar 2004) that companies purposely employ to increase consumers' goodwill.

Second, this study demonstrates that the two dimensions of the SCM are not equally relevant for consumers' emotional responses to corporate crises. Whereas country warmth significantly affects consumers' condemning emotions, which in turn stimulate retaliatory intent, country competence has no impact on the same outcomes. Although recent studies provide initial evidence for the primacy of warmth over competence during product-harm crises, these studies exclusively focus on consumers' cognitive responses (Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons 2018; Xu, Leung, and Yan 2013). Because consumers' reactions to corporate crises are often affect-laden, we focus on their emotional responses and emotion-driven retaliation and find additional evidence of the primacy of warmth over competence beyond cognitive evaluations.

Third, we provide novel insights into the underresearched psychological mechanisms that explain why consumers emotionally respond as they do to offending companies of different nationalities. We theoretically propose and empirically verify that perceived corporate greed plays a key role in generating emotion-driven retaliation against offending agents (Crossley 2009; Gilbert and Malone 1995; Grégoire, Laufer, and Tripp 2010). By elucidating the connection between country warmth and condemning emotions through inferred perceptions of corporate greed, we improve understanding of the mechanisms through which country associations affect consumer emotional reactions to offending companies of different nationalities.

Fourth, we shed light on the boundary conditions of the buffering effect of country warmth. Previous research has found that ability (vs. morality) violations are perceived differently (Skowronski and Carlston 1987; Wojciszke 1994, 2005). We build on this work and also establish that the type of crisis acts as a crucial contingency factor that facilitates (CA crisis) or suppresses (CV crisis) the buffering effect of country warmth. While previous studies have specified moderators of the effects of country stereotypes on consumer evaluations (Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons 2018; Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada 2008), our findings regarding the conditional effects of country warmth depending on the crisis type are novel and have important implications for managerial practice.

Managerial Implications

Our results offer practical implications for international marketers who (expect to) face a corporate crisis of global or local (i.e., in a single-country market) scope. In the aftermath of a corporate scandal, companies generally opt for specific response strategies to mitigate the negative effects of the crisis. This article focuses on sets of corporate crises in which the company is deemed at least partly responsible for the negative event, thus excluding cases in which the company itself is a victim of unpredictable natural disasters or disinformation (Coombs 2017). Previous research suggests that when companies are at least partly responsible for a critical event, they should develop repair strategies, such as apologizing, proposing remedial actions (e.g., compensation), and/or developing strong justifications for their misconduct (Coombs 2017). While our findings do not substitute previous research's guidelines on the selection of effective postcrisis response strategies, they complement these by providing additional elements that are useful in the development of effective responses. Our results show that, despite being seemingly ancillary elements, an offending company's COO and the related stereotype of country warmth do matter for consumers in a crisis context: their emotional responses and emotion-driven retaliation vary depending on the warmth the company's COO evokes and the type of crisis (CA vs. CV crisis) in which it is involved.

Our findings suggest that practitioners should first assess whether consumers in the relevant country markets associate the company at fault with a specific COO and, if this is the case, detect the stereotypes, specifically warmth, evoked by that country. Do consumers perceive the company's COO as warm, friendly, and trustworthy? Answering this question is of pivotal importance because our results show that under certain circumstances, country warmth works as an insurance policy for a foreign wrongdoer against the unfavorable consequences of a crisis. Practitioners should also assess how consumers perceive the type of crisis in which the company is involved. Do consumers perceive the crisis as being caused by a lack of the company's ability or morality? Answering this question is important because our results indicate that the effects of country warmth work differently when consumers witness CA or CV crises.

Thus, if the foreign company is associated with a "warm" country and is involved in a CA crisis, practitioners can leverage the company's origin by emphasizing its ties to its home country that consumers consider friendly, trustworthy, and well-intentioned. Emphasizing the warmth dimension supports consumer inferences of corporate benevolence, which lowers perceptions of corporate greed and mitigates emotion-driven retaliation. Conversely, when a company is associated with a "cold" country, marketers should ideally dissociate the company from its COO. This can be achieved primarily by communicating a company's connectedness with and concern for the local market or, in more abstract terms, positioning the company as a "rootless" global player (Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020). Notably, it is possible that consumers' stereotypical beliefs are biased in a way that disadvantages local companies. In such cases, nation branding strategies can help educate consumers about the desirable (ideally warm) traits of a nation (Avraham 2020). Another strategy is to compensate for the detrimental country-induced inferences of corporate greed by actively signaling the company's benevolence by, for example, highlighting its active engagement in local CSR activities, which may disconfirm consumers' inferences of the company's ill intentions.

Finally, marketers should also be aware that consumers condemn offending companies more when they violate ethical standards than when their professional competence is at issue. Importantly, moral standards differ between cultures (e.g., Ford et al. 1997; Singh et al. 2007), which implies the need for international marketers to carefully assess how exactly consumers in the affected markets perceive the corporate crisis. Our results also reveal that if consumers perceive a crisis to be value-related, the buffering effect of country warmth vanishes. Therefore, marketers should rely on the buffering effect of country warmth only if the crisis is related to its ability to meet quality standards. As such, marketers should try to prevent media from framing a crisis as resulting from the company's lack of morality and engage in counterbalancing actions specifically when the company is depicted as a moral transgressor.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Our study has limitations that provide avenues for further research. First, we opted for an experimental approach to establish causality and ensure high levels of internal validity. We used fictitious brand stimuli to avoid any brand-induced confounding effects, which is a common practice in experimental research in international marketing (e.g., Davvetas, Diamantopoulos, and Liu 2020; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019; Herz and Diamantopoulos 2013; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2015). We expect the demonstrated country warmth bias to extend to real brands but to be weaker, as the diagnosticity of country cues depends on consumers' level of brand familiarity and knowledge (Laufer, Gillespie, and Silvera 2009). If consumers have extensive experience with a brand and have formed strong beliefs about its values and behaviors, they are less likely to infer its benevolent or greedy motives from its origin. Nonetheless, because country-induced effects operate automatically and unconsciously (Herz and Diamantopoulos 2013, 2017), the country warmth bias may also apply to well-known brands, even if to a lesser extent. Accordingly, we call for research to explore the robustness and potential boundary conditions of this effect using real brands.

Second, recent advances suggest that country stereotypes can interact with a brand's positioning (Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016). For example, Magnusson, Westjohn, and Sirianni (2019) investigate the case of brands originating from different (warm and competent) countries that are positioned in a consistent (vs. inconsistent) manner with the brand's home country personality. They find that consumers evaluate brands more favorably if they are positioned in a manner that is congruent (vs. incongruent) with their home country's personality stereotype. Therefore, future studies should extend our findings by testing if and to what extent the investigated relationships vary depending on a brand's positioning.

Third, in addition to the hypothesized indirect pathway, we observe a direct effect of country warmth on retaliatory intent in Studies 2 and 3. Given that these studies use a different set of country stimuli than those used in Study 1, this direct effect might be due to unobserved differences in country-specific attitudes. For example, increased levels of consumer affinity (Oberecker, Riefler, and Diamantopoulos 2008) or reduced levels of animosity (Harmeling, Magnusson, and Singh 2015) toward the sampled (warm) countries could prevent consumers from taking retaliatory actions more directly (in addition to the indirect pathway through perceived corporate greed and condemning emotions). Therefore, future studies should focus on the role of prominent consumer dispositions toward foreign countries, such as consumer ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and consumer affinity/animosity (for a review, see Bartsch, Riefler, and Diamantopoulos 2016), which may affect how consumers respond to misconduct of companies from different countries.

Fourth, crises are by definition extraordinary critical events that differ, for example, from minor product defects that cause only mild inconveniences to consumers. Accordingly, in our empirical studies, we considered sets of corporate crises that had rather severe consequences, though we did not statistically control for the perceived severity of the crisis. Thus, we cannot exclude that the effects we observed could have had different sizes in less severe crises. We speculate that consumers rely less on stereotypes in highly critical contexts: as the perceived severity of an event increases, the activation of automatic, heuristic, and stereotype-based information-processing systems may decrease. Thus, the effects of country warmth stereotypes provide a rather conservative test. Similarly, while we distinguish between CA and CV crises, corporate crises could further differ in additional dimensions, such as the intentionality (purposeful or accidental) of the company's actions.

Future research could test our conceptual model by including perceived severity and intentionality as statistical controls and/or moderating variables.

Fifth, we used the adapted versions (Maher and Carter 2011) of Fiske et al.'s (2002) original scales to assess a country's perceived warmth and competence. Although these dimensions represent well-established theoretical constructs that are widely used across disciplines, their operationalization in empirical marketing research has been somewhat problematic (Halkias and Diamantopoulos 2020). Future studies should replicate our findings using alternative scales to measure a country's warmth and competence, such as those recently developed by Halkias and Diamantopoulos (2020).

Finally, our study focuses on condemning emotions and emotion-driven retaliation against offending companies of different nationalities. We encourage future research to test cognitive and emotional responses to corporate crises side-by-side and over time. It could be that consumers' condemning emotions in response to corporate crises play a primary role in the short run but fade over time. In the long run, consumers may weigh their moral concerns against the subjective utility they can obtain from a company's offerings, which might also be affected by stereotypes of country competence. Further research could adopt such a holistic perspective to delve into the interplay and dynamics of emotional and cognitive responses to corporate crises.

Associate Editor

Michael Haenlein

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

References

Aaker, Jennifer, Kathleen D. Vohs, and Cassie Mogilner (2010), "Nonprofits Are Seen as Warm and For-Profits as Competent: Firm Stereotypes Matter," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37 (2), 224–37.

Allman, Helena F., Anton P. Fenik, Kelly Hewett, and Felicia N. Morgan (2015), "Brand Image Evaluations: The Interactive Role of Country of Manufacture, Brand Concept, and Vertical Line Extension Type," *Journal of International Marketing*, 24 (2), 40–61.

Anderson, James C. and David W. Gerbing (1988), "Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach," *Psychological Bulletin*, 103 (3), 411–23.

Antonetti, Paolo and Stan Maklan (2016), "Social Identification and Corporate Irresponsibility: A Model of Stakeholder Punitive Intentions," *British Journal of Management*, 27 (3), 583–605.

Avraham, Eli (2020), "National Branding and Marketing Strategies for Combatting Tourism Crises and Stereotype Towards Destinations," *Journal of Business Research*, 116, 711–720.

Bagozzi, Richard P. and Youjae Yi (1988), "On the Evaluation of Structural Equation Models," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 16 (1), 74–94.

Barbarossa, Camilla, Patrick De Pelsmacker, and Ingrid Moons (2018), "Effects of Country-of-Origin Stereotypes on Consumer Responses to Product-Harm Crises," *International Marketing Review*, 35 (3), 362–89.

Bartsch, Fabian, Petra Riefler, and Adamantios Diamantopoulos (2016), "A Taxonomy and Review of Positive Consumer Dispositions Toward Foreign Countries and Globalization," *Journal of International Marketing*, 24 (1), 82–110.

BBC News (2016), "IKEA Recalls Malm Drawers in North America After Child Deaths," (June 28), www.bbc.com/news/business-36648589.

Bechwati, Nada N. and Maureen Morrin (2003), "Outraged Consumers: Getting Even at the Expense of Getting a Good Deal," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 13 (4), 440–53.

Brown, Tom J. and Peter A. Dacin (1997), "The Company and the Product: Corporate Associations and Consumer Product Responses," *Journal of Marketing*, 61 (1), 68–84.

Chattalas, Michael, Thomas Kramer, and Hirokazu Takada (2008), "The Impact of National Stereotypes on the Country of Origin Effect," *International Marketing Review*, 25 (1), 54–74.

Chen, Cathy Y., Pragya Mathur, and Durairaj Maheswaran (2014), "The Effects of Country-Related Affect on Product Evaluations," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 41 (4), 1033–46.

Choi, Jungsil, Young Kyun Chang, Yexin Jessica Li, and Myoung Gyun Jang (2016), "Doing Good in Another Neighborhood: Attributions of CSR Motivations Depend on Corporate Nationality and Cultural Orientation," *Journal of International Marketing*, 24 (4), 82–102.

Choi, Yoonhyeung and Ying-Hsuan Lin (2009), "Consumer Response to Crisis: Exploring the Concept of Involvement in Mattel Product Recalls," *Public Relations Review*, 35 (1), 18–22.

Cleeren, Kathleen, Marnik G. Dekimpe, and Harald J. van Heerde (2017), "Marketing Research on Product-Harm Crises: A Review, Managerial Implications, and an Agenda for Future Research," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 45 (5), 593–615.

Cleveland, Mark, Michel Laroche, and Nicolas G. Papadopoulos (2009), "Cosmopolitanism, Consumer Ethnocentrism, and Materialism: An Eight-Country Study of Antecedents and Outcomes," *Journal of International Marketing*, 17 (1), 116–46.

Coombs, W. Timothy (2017), "Revisiting Situational Crisis Communication Theory," in *Social Media and Crisis Communication*, Lucinda L. Austin and Yan Jin, eds. New York: Routledge, 21–37.

Crossley, Craig D. (2009), "Emotional and Behavioral Reactions to Social Undermining: A Closer Look at Perceived Offender Motives," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108 (1), 14–24.

Cuddy, Amy J., Susan T. Fiske, and Peter Glick (2008), "Warmth and Competence as Universal Dimensions of Social Perception: The Stereotype Content Model and the BIAS Map," *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 40, 61–149.

David, Prabu, Susan Kline, and Yang Dai (2005), "Corporate Social Responsibility Practices, Corporate Identity, and Purchase Intention: A Dual-Process Model," *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 17 (3), 291–313.

Davvetas, Vasileios, Adamantios Diamantopoulos, and Lucy Liu (2020), "Lit Up or Dimmed Down? Why, When, and How Regret Anticipation Affects Consumers' Use of the Global Brand Halo," *Journal of International Marketing*, 28 (3), 40–63.

Davvetas, Vasileios and Georgios Halkias (2019), "Global and Local Brand Stereotypes: Formation, Content Transfer, and Impact," *International Marketing Review*, 36 (5), 675–701.

Dawar, Niraj and Madan M. Pillutla (2000), "Impact of Product-Harm Crises on Brand Equity: The Moderating Role of Consumer Expectations," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37 (2), 215–26.

Diamantopoulos, Adamantios, Vasileios Davvetas, Fabian Bartsch, Timo Mandler, Maja Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Martin Eisend (2019), "On the Interplay Between Consumer Dispositions and Perceived Brand Globalness: Alternative Theoretical Perspectives and Empirical Assessment," *Journal of International Marketing*, 27 (4), 39–57.

Diamantopoulos, Adamantios, Arndt Florack, Georgios Halkias, and Johanna Palcu (2017), "Explicit Versus Implicit Country Stereotypes as Predictors of Product Preferences: Insights from the Stereotype Content Model," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 48 (8), 1023–36.

Ewing, Jack (2015), "Volkswagen Says 11 Million Cars Worldwide Are Affected in Diesel Deception," The New York Times (September 22), https://www.nytimes.com/2015/09/23/business/international/volkswagen-diesel-car-scandal.html.

Festinger, Leon (1957), *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson, & Co.

Fiske, Susan T. (2018), "Stereotype Content: Warmth and Competence Endure," *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 27 (2), 67–73.

Fiske, Susan T., Amy J. Cuddy, Peter Glick, and Xu Jun (2002), "A Model of (Often Mixed) Stereotype Content: Competence and Warmth Respectively Follow from Perceived Status and Competition," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82 (6), 878–902.

Fombrun, Charles and Cees Van Riel (1997), "The Reputational Landscape," *Corporate Reputation Review*, 1 (1/2), 5–13.

Ford, John B., Michael S. LaTour, Scott J. Vitell, and Warren A. French (1997), "Moral Judgment and Market Negotiations: A Comparison of Chinese and American Managers," *Journal of International Marketing*, 5 (2), 57–76.

Fornell, Claes and David F. Larcker (1981), "Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (1), 39–50.

Gao, Hongzhi, Hongxia Zhang, Xuan Zhang, and John G. Knight (2015), "Spillover of Distrust from Domestic to Imported Brands in a Crisis-Sensitized Market," *Journal of International Marketing*, 23 (1), 91–112.

Gilbert, Daniel T. and Patrick S. Malone (1995), "The Correspondence Bias," *Psychological Bulletin*, 117 (1), 21–38.

Grappi, Silvia, Simona Romani, and Richard P. Bagozzi (2013a), "Consumer Response to Corporate Irresponsible Behavior: Moral Emotions and Virtues," *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (10), 1814–21.

Grappi, Silvia, Simona Romani, and Richard P. Bagozzi (2013b), "The Effects of Company Offshoring Strategies on Consumer Responses," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 41 (6), 683–704.

Grégoire, Yany, Daniel Laufer, and Thomas M. Tripp (2010), "A Comprehensive Model of Customer Direct and Indirect Revenge: Understanding the Effects of Perceived Greed and Customer Power," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38 (6), 738–58.

Haidt, Jonathan (2003), "The Moral Emotions," in *Handbook of Affective Sciences*, Richard J. Davidson, Klaus R. Scherer, and H. Hill Goldsmith, eds. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 852–70.

Halkias, Georgios, Vasileios Davvetas, and Adamantios Diamantopoulos (2016), "The Interplay Between Country Stereotypes and Perceived Brand Globalness/Localness as Drivers of Brand Preference," *Journal of Business Research*, 69 (9), 3621–28.

Halkias, Georgios and Adamantios Diamantopoulos (2020), "Universal Dimensions of Individuals' Perception: Revisiting the Operationalization of Warmth and Competence with a Mixed-Method Approach," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 37 (4), 714–36.

Harmeling, Colleen M., Peter Magnusson, and Nitish Singh (2015), "Beyond Anger: A Deeper Look at Consumer Animosity," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 46 (6), 676–93.

Hayes, Andrew F. (2017), *Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis: A Regression-Based Approach*. New York: Guilford Press.

Herz, Marc F. and Adamantios Diamantopoulos (2013), "Activation of Country Stereotypes: Automaticity, Consonance, and Impact," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 41 (4), 400–17.

Herz, Marc F. and Adamantios Diamantopoulos (2017), "I Use It but Will Tell You That I Don't: Consumers' Country-of-Origin Cue Usage Denial," *Journal of International Marketing*, 25 (2), 52–71.

Hutcherson, Cendri A. and James J. Gross (2011), "The Moral Emotions: A Social-Functionalist Account of Anger, Disgust, and Contempt," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 100 (4), 719–37.

Jarvis, Cheryl B., Scott B. MacKenzie, and Philip M. Podsakoff (2003), "A Critical Review of Construct Indicators and Measurement Model Misspecification in Marketing and Consumer Research," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30 (2), 199–218.

Joireman, Jeffrey, Yany Grégoire, Berna Devezer, and Thomas Tripp (2013), "When Do Customers Offer Firms a 'Second Chance' Following a Double Deviation? The Impact of Inferred Firm Motives on Customer Revenge and Reconciliation," *Journal of Retailing*, 89 (3), 315–37.

Kervyn, Nicolas, Susan T. Fiske, and Chris Malone (2012), "Brands as Intentional Agents Framework: How Perceived Intentions and Ability Can Map Brand Perception," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 22 (2), 166–76.

Kim, Sojung and Sejung M. Choi (2018), "Congruence Effects in Post-Crisis CSR Communication: The Mediating Role of Attribution of Corporate Motives," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 153 (2), 447–63.

Kim, Yoojung and Sejung M. Choi (2019), "When Good Becomes Bad: The Role of Corporate Crisis and Issue Congruence," *International Journal of Advertising*, 39 (4), 571–86.

Kirmani, Amna, Rebecca W. Hamilton, Debora V. Thompson, and Shannon Lantzy (2017), "Doing Well Versus Doing Good: The Differential Effect of Underdog Positioning on Moral and Competent Service Providers," *Journal of Marketing*, 81 (1), 103–17.

Klein, Jill G. and Niraj Dawar (2004), "Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumers' Attributions and Brand Evaluations in a Product-Harm Crisis," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 21 (3), 203–17.

Klein, Jill G., N. Craig Smith, and Andrew John (2004), "Why We Boycott: Consumer Motivations for Boycott Participation," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (3), 92–109.

Kock, Florian, Alexander Josiassen, and A. George Assaf (2019), "Toward a Universal Account of Country-Induced Predispositions: Integrative Framework and Measurement of Country-of-Origin Images and Country Emotions," *Journal of International Marketing*, 27 (3), 43–59.

Kolbl, Živa, Maja Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Adamantios Diamantopoulos (2019), "Stereotyping Global Brands: Is Warmth More Important Than Competence?" *Journal of Business Research*, 104, 614–21.

Koufteros, Xenophon, Sunil Babbar, and Mehdi Kaighobadi (2009), "A Paradigm for Examining Second-Order Factor Models Employing Structural Equation Modeling," *International Journal of Production Economics*, 120 (2), 633–52.

Kübler, Raoul V., Michael Langmaack, Sönke Albers, and Wayne D. Hoyer (2020), "The Impact of Value-Related Crises on Price and Product-Performance Elasticities," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 48, 776–94.

Lange, Donald and Nathan T. Washburn (2012), "Understanding Attributions of Corporate Social Irresponsibility," *Academy of Management Review*, 37 (2), 300–26.

Laufer, Daniel, Kate Gillespie, and David H. Silvera (2009), "The Role of Country of Manufacture in Consumers' Attributions of Blame in an Ambiguous Product-Harm Crisis," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 21 (3), 189–201.

Lazarus, Richard S. (1991), *Emotion and Adaptation*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lindell, Michael K. and David J. Whitney (2001), "Accounting for Common Method Variance in Cross-Sectional Research Design," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (1), 114–21.

MacKenzie, Scott B., Philip M. Podsakoff, and Nathan P. Podsakoff (2011), "Construct Measurement and Validation Procedures in MIS and Behavioral Research: Integrating New and Existing Techniques," *MIS Quarterly*, 35 (2), 293–334.

Magnusson, Peter, Stanford A. Westjohn, and Nancy J. Sirianni (2019), "Beyond Country Image Favorability: How Brand Positioning via Country Personality Stereotypes Enhances Brand Evaluations," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 50 (3), 318–38.

Magnusson, Peter, Stanford A. Westjohn, and Srdan Zdravkovic (2015), "An Examination of the Interplay Between Corporate Social Responsibility, the Brand's Home Country, and Consumer Global Identification," *International Marketing Review*, 32 (6), 663–85.

Maher, Amro A. and Larry L. Carter (2011), "The Affective and Cognitive Components of Country Image: Perceptions of American Products in Kuwait," *International Marketing Review*, 28 (6), 559–80.

Mandler, Timo, Fabian Bartsch, and C. Min Han (2020), "Brand Credibility and Marketplace Globalization: The Role of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness," *Journal of International Business Studies* (published online April 9), DOI:10.1057/s41267-020-00312-2.

McGarty, Craig, Vincent Y. Yzerbyt, and Russell Spears (2002), "Social, Cultural, and Cognitive Factors in Stereotype Formation," in *Stereotypes as Explanations: The Formation of Meaningful Beliefs About Social Groups*, Craig McGarty, Vincent Y. Yzerbyt, and Russell Spears, eds. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1–15.

Micevski, Milena, Adamantios Diamantopoulos, and Jennifer Erdbrügger (2020), "From Country Stereotypes to Country Emotions to Intentions to Visit a Country: Implications for a Country as a Destination Brand," *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 30 (1), 118–31.

News Shopper (2014), "Toxic Chemicals Found in Burberry Childrenswear," (January 28), https://www.newsshopper.co.uk/youngreporter/10969797.toxic-chemicals-found-in-burberry-childrenswear/.

Nisbett, Richard E. and Timothy. D. Wilson (1977), "The Halo Effect: Evidence for Unconscious Alteration of Judgments," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 35 (4), 250–56.

Nunnally, Jum C. (1978), *Psychometric Theory* (2nd ed.) New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nyer, Prashanth U. (2000), "An Investigation into Whether Complaining Can Cause Increased Consumer Satisfaction," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 17 (1), 9–19.

Oberecker, Eva M., Petra Riefler, and Adamantios Diamantopoulos (2008), "The Consumer Affinity Construct: Conceptualization, Qualitative Investigation, and Research Agenda," *Journal of International Marketing*, 16 (3), 23–56.

Peloza, John, Christine Ye, and William J. Montford (2015), "When Companies Do Good, Are Their Products Good for You? How Corporate Social Responsibility Creates a Health Halo," *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 34 (1), 19–31.

Povinelli, Daniel J. (2001), "On the Possibilities of Detecting Intentions Prior to Understanding Them," in *Intentionality: A Key to Human Understanding*, Bertram Malle, Dare Baldwin, and Louis J. Moses, eds. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 225–48.

Reeder, Glenn D., Shamala Kumar, Matthew S. Hesson-McInnis, and David Trafimow (2002), "Inferences About the Morality of an Aggressor: The Role of Perceived Motive," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83 (4), 789–803.

Romani, Simona, Silvia Grappi, and Daniele Dalli (2012), "Emotions That Drive Consumers Away from Brands: Measuring Negative Emotions Toward Brands and Their Behavioral Effects," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 29 (1), 55–67.

Rozin, Paul, Laura Lowery, Sumio Imada, and Jonathan Haidt (1999), "The CAD Triad Hypothesis: A Mapping Between Three Moral

Emotions (Contempt, Anger, Disgust) and Three Moral Codes (Community, Autonomy, Divinity)," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76 (4), 574–86.

Schoefer, Klaus and Christine T. Ennew (2005), "The Impact of Perceived Justice on Consumers' Emotional Responses to Service Complaint Experiences," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 19 (5), 261–70.

Shaver, Phillip, Judith Schwartz, Donald Kirson, and Cary O' Connor (1987), "Emotion Knowledge: Further Exploration of a Prototype Approach," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52 (6), 1061–86.

Singh, Jatlinder J., Scott J. Vitell, Jamal Al-Khatib, and Irvine Clark III (2007), "The Role of Moral Intensity and Personal Moral Philosophies in the Ethical Decision Making of Marketers: A Cross-Cultural Comparison of China and the United States," *Journal of International Marketing*, 15 (2), 86–112.

Skarmeas, Dionysis and Constantinos N. Leonidou (2013), "When Consumers Doubt, Watch Out! The Role of CSR Skepticism," *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (10), 1831–38.

Skowronski, John J. and Donal E. Carlston (1987), "Social Judgment and Social Memory: The Role of Cue Diagnosticity in Negativity, Positivity, and Extremity Biases," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52 (4), 689–99.

Sohn, Y. J. and Ruthann W. Lariscy (2015), "A 'Buffer' or 'Boomerang'? The Role of Corporate Reputation in Bad Times," *Communication Research*, 42 (2), 237–59.

Stäbler, Samuel and Marc Fischer (2020), "When Does Corporate Social Irresponsibility Become News? Evidence from More Than 1,000 Brand Transgressions Across Five Countries," *Journal of Marketing*, 84 (3), 46–67.

Swaminathan, Vanitha and Suyun Mah (2016), "What 100,000 Tweets About the Volkswagen Scandal Tell Us About Angry Customers," Harvard Business Review (September 2), https://hbr.org/2016/09/what-100000-tweets-about-the-volkswagen-scandal-tell-us-about-angry-customers.

Sweetin, Vernon H., Lynette L. Knowles, John H. Summey, and Kand S. McQueen (2013), "Willingness-to-Punish the Corporate Brand for Corporate Social Irresponsibility," *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (10), 1822–30.

The Guardian (2014), "Arizona Sues General Motors over Faulty Ignition Switch That Led to Global Recall," (November 20), www.theguardian.com/business/2014/nov/20/arizona-sues-general-motors-ignition-switch-fault.

Tran, Thi Tranh Huong and Nicholas G. Paparoidamis (2020), "Eco-Innovations in Global Markets: The Effect of Ecological (In)Congruence on Consumers' Adoption Intentions," *Journal of International Marketing*, 28 (3), 64–83.

Voorhees, Clay M., Michael K. Brady, Roger Calantone, and Edward Ramirez (2016), "Discriminant Validity Testing in Marketing: An Analysis, Causes for Concern, and Proposed Remedies," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 44 (1), 119–34.

Wang, Cheng Lu, Dongjin Li, Bradley R. Barnes, and Jongseok Ahn (2012), "Country Image, Product Image and Consumer Purchase Intention: Evidence from an Emerging Economy," *International Business Review*, 21 (6), 1041–51.

Wojciszke, Bogdan (1994), "Multiple Meanings of Behavior: Construing Actions in Terms of Competence or Morality," *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 67 (2), 222–31.

Wojciszke, Bogdan (2005), "Affective Concomitants of Information on Morality and Competence," *European Psychologist*, 10 (1), 60–70.

Xie, Chunyan and Richard P. Bagozzi (2014), "The Role of Moral Emotions and Consumer Values and Traits in the Decision to Support Nonprofits," *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 26 (4), 290–311.

Xie, Chunyan and Richard P. Bagozzi (2019), "Consumer Responses to Corporate Social Irresponsibility: The Role of Moral Emotions, Evaluations, and Social Cognitions," *Psychology & Marketing*, 36 (6), 565–86.

Xie, Chunyan, Richard P. Bagozzi, and Kjell Grønhaug (2015), "The Role of Moral Emotions and Individual Differences in Consumer Responses to Corporate Green and Non-Green Actions," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43 (3), 333–56.

Xu, Huimin, Ada Leung, and Ruoh-Nan T. Yan (2013), "It Is Nice to Be Important, but It Is More Important to Be Nice: Country-of-Origin's Perceived Warmth in Product Failures," *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 12 (4), 285–92.

Yoon, Yeosun, Zeynep Gürhan-Canli, and Beyza Bozok (2006), "Drawing Inferences About Others on the Basis of Corporate Associations," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34 (2), 167–73.

Yoon, Yeosun, Zeynep Gürhan-Canli, and Norbert Schwarz (2006), "The Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Activities on Companies with Bad Reputations," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16 (4), 377–90.

Zawisza, Magdalena and Chelsea Pittard (2015), "When Do Warmth and Competence Sell Best? The 'Golden Quadrant' Shifts as a Function of Congruity with the Product Type, Targets' Individual Differences, and Advertising Appeal Type," *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 37 (2), 131–41.