

Why Do Consumers Subvert Brand? Investigating the Influence of Subjective Well-Being on Brand Avoidance

Abstract

Negative consumer–brand interactions often result in consumer subversion, in which consumers actively reject or avoid brands. To date, the role of positive emotional states, such as subjective well-being, in brand avoidance remains a crucial oversight in the literature seeking to address consumer subversion. In this study, comprising three studies, we examine why and when subjective well-being influences brand avoidance. Drawing on self-control theory and the literature related to anti-consumption, we argue and demonstrate in Study 1 (N = 330) that subjective well-being enhances consumers' ability to avoid brands that transgress moral and ethical norms. Study 2 (N = 251) reveals the underlying psychological process by which subjective well-being engenders greater self-control in consumers who, as a response, exhibit brand avoidance behavior. Study 3 (N = 243) indicates that anti-consumption attitude serves as the boundary condition; it specifically demonstrates that a macro-oriented anti-consumption attitude accentuates the influence of subjective well-being on brand avoidance, whereas a micro-oriented anti-consumption attitude does not have any effect. Our research contributes to the consumer subversion literature by evaluating the influence of subjective well-being on moral brand avoidance. This study offers key insights for marketing managers entering markets containing consumers with high or low subjective well-being.

Keywords: anti-consumption , brand avoidance, consumer subversion, self-control theory, subjective well-being

1. Introduction

Negative consumer–brand interactions can unfavorably influence brand equity (Mishra, 2016), potentially resulting in consumer subversion; this has implications for branding (Robson et al., 2020), the elements of the marketing mix (Wilson et al., 2021), and marketing research (Plangger & Montecchi, 2020; Plangger & Watson, 2015). Individuals often subvert consumption by exhibiting anti-consumption behavior (Duke, 2003; Makri et al., 2020), such as brand avoidance (Lee et al., 2009b). According to the 2018 Edelman Earned Brand study, 64% of customers subvert the marketing strategies of firms by avoiding a brand or boycotting a company based on societal or environmental issues. More recently, in the wake of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, an article by Brown (2020) described how disgruntled consumers threatened to boycott/avoid brands they perceived as insensitive and inconsiderate. Moreover, Makri et al. (2020) indicated that brand avoidance has greater implications for companies than do other forms of anti-consumption at the meso level. Accordingly, there have been several calls for more research into what influences brand avoidance (Banister & Hogg, 2004; Lee et al., 2009a; Knittel et al., 2016).

While the influence of affective states on the deliberate avoidance of brands has generated considerable interest (Andrade, 2005; Fedorikhin & Patrick, 2010; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015), a greater emphasis has thus far been placed on the influence of negative affective states, such as dislike, sadness, anger, hate, and worry (Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015; Kucuk, 2018; Romani et al., 2009, 2012). In contrast, scant attention has been paid to the influence of positive affective states, such as subjective well-being, on anti-consumption behavior. To the best of our knowledge, no study has yet examined the possible influence of subjective well-being on consumer subversion behaviors, such as brand avoidance. Therefore, in this study, we integrate self-control theory (Baumeister et al., 2018) and the literature related to subjective well-being (Diener, 2009; Zhong & Mitchell, 2012) as our overarching theoretical framework, to explore why and when subjective well-being influences brand avoidance. In this paper, we contribute to the literature on subjective well-being and its capacities (Ifcher & Zarghamee, 2011; Zhong & Mitchell, 2012) as well as expand the current understanding of consumer subversion behaviors (Matthew et al., 2021).

Brand avoidance refers to the deliberate avoidance of specific brands and products due to a lack of congruence, negative associations (e.g., negative corporate imagery), or negative user stereotypes (Hogg et al., 2009). Scenarios of brand avoidance due to a lack of affordability, accessibility, or availability on the consumer's end are not considered brand avoidance (Makri et al., 2020) and, hence, are beyond the scope of this study. In this study, we focus specifically

on moral avoidance, which occurs when a consumer's ideological beliefs are at odds with a brand's values. This often occurs due to a moral transgression on the part of the brand.

Self-control theory notes that when consumers are in pursuit of avoidance goals, they employ psychological resources, resulting in the depletion of those resources (Oertig et al., 2013; Roskes et al., 2014). We argue that when consumers are highly engaged in moral brand avoidance, they use up some of their resources, leading, naturally, to a state of depleted resources; however, building on self-control theory, we also posit that a state of subjective well-being could help consumers replenish lost resources, thereby increasing their potential to achieve brand avoidance goals. We further suggest that the current understanding of the psychological mechanisms underlying subjective well-being and brand avoidance is limited, and that self-control may mediate the relationship between the two. Finally, we argue that the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance remains incomplete without considering the boundary conditions. Hence, in this study, we also examine whether a macro anti-consumption attitude and a micro anti-consumption attitude serve as boundary conditions for this effect. In sum, we develop and test a theoretical framework that highlights the influence of subjective well-being on brand avoidance, along with the underlying mechanism and boundary conditions for this relationship. To test this theoretical model, we conduct three empirical studies using multisource data.

This study contributes to the literature in several ways. First, it contributes to the literature exploring consumer well-being by extending the concept of subjective well-being to a consumer subversion context. Past studies have failed to consider how positive states, such as subjective well-being, influence subversion. Our research broadens this area of study by demonstrating how subjective well-being replenishes the resources at the disposal of an individual that are necessary to avoid a brand when its association/values are perceived by the consumer to be incongruous with the consumer's own ideological beliefs (Lee et al., 2009b, 2009a). Our findings are consistent with the central argument in the subjective well-being literature, which postulates that life satisfaction, a component of subjective well-being, lends stability to individuals (Eid & Diener, 2004). This enables individuals to avoid immediate consumption for short-term gains, in favor of more rewarding future gains (Ifcher & Zarghamee, 2011) and sustainable behavior (Bechtel et al., 2006). Thus, in this study, we advance the understanding of subjective well-being and its ability to enable brand avoidance.

Second, this study contributes to the literature on consumer subversion. The research presents evidence of the underlying mechanism (i.e., self-control) moderating between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. In other words, we confirm that an individual's

ability to regulate his or her desires and urges (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000) plays a crucial role in marshalling subjective well-being resources for brand avoidance, a form of subversion. Our research further demonstrates that subjective well-being enhances self-control, which individuals employ to resist or avoid morally deviant brands. We thus provide support for the idea that self-control influences subversion behavior.

Third, we contribute to the research on anti-consumption by describing the moderating role of anti-consumption attitudes (both macro and micro), which extends our current understanding of the boundary conditions of the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. While macro anti-consumption focuses on societal reasons for being against consumption, micro anti-consumption involves being against consumption for personal reasons, such as wanting to lead a simpler life. Our findings demonstrate that individuals with macro anti-consumption attitudes are more likely to avoid brands than are those with micro anti-consumption attitudes, in terms of the effect that self-control has on brand avoidance intention.

In sum, this study contributes to the literature related to consumer well-being, consumer subversion, and anti-consumption. In so doing, this paper also quells concerns arising from the lack of consensus in past consumer psychology research (Schlauch et al., 2013) about the influence of positive affective states on avoidance behavior. Schlauch et al. (2013) showed that a positive affective state may attenuate or strengthen craving behavior by employing self-regulatory resources (Tice et al., 2007). However, our findings, across three studies, unequivocally demonstrate the positive influence of subjective well-being on brand avoidance. The results are consistent with the findings of past research (Andrade, 2005; Labroo & Patrick, 2009) that indicated that individuals with positive affective states maintain consistency and authenticity in their inner self and external manifestations. This study demonstrates that subjective well-being also influences brand avoidance through self-control, a novel mediation route.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Brand Avoidance

The marketing literature identifies a range of contexts in which consumers work to subvert marketers to further their own goals (Plangger & Montecchi 2020; Plangger & Watson, 2015., Robson et al., 2020). With the rapidly growing information technology infrastructure and superior consumer–brand interactions, consumers have become more powerful (Labrecque et al., 2013; Pitt et al., 2002; Rezabakhsh et al., 2006). This enhanced power has allowed

consumers to weaponize their choices and enact their own will, thereby leading to a rise in consumer subversion in the marketplace.

While consumer subversion may benefit firms in some cases, as a form of market research or feedback, in most cases, it is damaging. For instance, advocating for and participating in anti-consumption movements (Lee et al., 2020., Makri et al., 2020) can be detrimental to the interests of businesses. The main idea behind anti-consumption is that it is directed against consumption (Craig-Lees, 2006; Lee et al., 2009a). However, anti-consumption does not merely require a general reduction in consumption or non-consumption; it can also be targeted at specific products and brands. In recent years, there has been increased interest in anti-consumption and one of its specific manifestations: brand avoidance (Iyer & Muncy, 2009; Lee et al., 2011). Brand avoidance is an emerging area of research, and the current literature exploring the topic still lacks both depth and breadth (Lee et al., 2009b; Lee et al., 2009a; Truong & McColl 2011).

Brand avoidance has been described as the “phenomenon in which people purposefully avoid or reject a brand” (Lee et al., 2009a, p. 422). It refers to intentionally abstaining from the purchase or use of a certain brand (Knittel et al., 2016). This behavior emerges when customers purposefully avoid a brand, despite having access to the brand and the financial means to buy its products (Lee et al., 2009b). As a result, situations in which customers refrain from patronizing brands due to their inaccessibility, unavailability, or excessive cost are not regarded as instances of brand avoidance. In contrast to these situations in which customers are unable to choose, brand avoidance focuses on the deliberate rejection of a brand when the consumer is free to choose (Hogg & Banister, 2001).

Indeed, the seminal paper on consumer subversion by Wilson et al. (2021, p. 2) defines *subversion* as, “consumer acts that are intended to impede the ability of marketers to develop and implement a marketing strategy, including market segmentation, target marketing, and the formulation of a marketing mix (4Ps).” Using this definition, we believe that brand avoidance falls into their category of the “higher subversion of consumption,” which includes the boycotting of businesses. While not all forms of anti-consumption are subversive—in particular, those that do not seek to undermine marketing efforts—anti-consumption actions that do seek to undermine the marketing success of a business can be considered subversive (Wilson et al., 2021). Along these lines, some acts of brand avoidance are indeed driven by a motivation to undermine the success of the focal brand(s). For example, avoiding brands to prevent them from becoming monopolies or boycotting brands to put a stop to socially irresponsible business practices (Lee et al., 2009a) are subversive behaviors. As a

multidimensional phenomenon, previous research has examined some of the causes of brand avoidance, as well as the kinds and dimensions of brand avoidance (see Appendix A). They include the avoidance of unpleasant experiences, identity avoidance, deficit value avoidance, and moral avoidance (Knittel et al., 2016., Lee et al., 2009a).

By design, our research is related to the concept of moral brand avoidance, which may occur when a consumer's ideological beliefs clash with a brand's values and relationships (Lee et al., 2009a). This type of avoidance is often ascribed to marketing assertions that contradict consumers' social or political beliefs (Lee et al., 2009a; Sandkc & Ekici, 2009). The extant literature on moral emotions also includes hate (Grégoire & Fisher, 2008., Kucuk, 2018), contempt (Gopaldas, 2014), and anger (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011). According to past studies, acts marked by moral violation and transgression (Graham et al., 2009) warrant avoidance. The stream of research related to brand hate also prescribes separation and dissociation from the hated brand as a less costly approach to avoiding potential harm from the brand (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011).

Consumers may seek to ostracize businesses that they view as having exhibited certain morally repulsive behaviors (e.g., discrimination, unfair trade practices, forced labor, or non-transparency). For example, consumers may avoid certain brands owing to the manufacturing firm's visible lack of social responsibility (Kozinets & Handelman, 2004), unethical behavior (Rindell et al., 2014), or monopolistic behavior (which results in consumer disempowerment due to a lack of options). Cromie and Ewing (2009) argued that this form of avoidance is motivated by consumer behaviors targeted at decreasing total brand consumption. According to Lee et al. (2009a), Lee et al. (2009b), multinational companies bear the brunt of such avoidance due to their prominence, which puts them under more scrutiny.

Through an analysis of the current literature on brand avoidance and its antecedents, we have identified some research gaps (see Appendix A). First, a limited number of studies have focused on the concept of moral avoidance, even though it is one of the most prevalent reasons why individuals avoid brands (Rindell et al., 2014). A recent study by Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher (2018) empirically evaluated ethical and environmental beliefs as drivers of moral avoidance behavior. However, the study focused on the aging demographic only. Second, the current literature suggests that consumers display brand avoidance behaviors when negative attitudes, beliefs, and emotions toward a brand become strong and act as barriers to purchasing. In other words, brand avoidance has mainly been explored through a negative lens. However, the existing literature related to positive psychology suggests that positive affective states also influence moral decision making.

Third, most studies exploring brand avoidance focus on the direct relationships between motivations and behaviors, with scant evidence about their underlying mechanisms. Our approach in this study is to explore brand avoidance through the lens of self-control theory (Nepomuceno & Laroche, 2017., Tangney et al., 2004). While self-control is negatively associated with impulsive consumption, it correlates positively with anti-consumption behaviors such as frugality and tightwadism (Nepomuceno & Laroche, 2017). Furthermore, we examine subjective well-being as a resource, along with its influence on brand avoidance and whether any macro/micro anti-consumption attitudes serve as boundary conditions for this relationship.

Insert Appendix A here

2.2. Subjective Well-being as a Resource

Subjective well-being, a well-developed psychological state, is defined as the cognitive and affective evaluation of one's life wherein one has more positive than negative feelings, experiences more pleasure than pain, and is more content than discontent with life (Diener et al., 1999). According to self-control theory, resources are "those things, personal traits, circumstances, or energy that an individual values" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). In the current context, having resources allows people to abstain from undesirable actions or to achieve their goals (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

There are many reasons why subjective well-being is an important resource for demonstrating self-control and, ultimately, for pursuing meaningful goals. First, subjective well-being can provide valuable strength (or energy) to emotionally depleted individuals. Subjective well-being has three major components: satisfaction with life (i.e., cognitive component), positive affect, and negative affect (i.e., affective components; Diener et al., 1999). Past researchers have increasingly focused on how subjective well-being can influence motivational processes and may, in fact, be a resource for engaging in pursuing meaningful goals (Hasse et al., 2020).

Second, drawing on the broaden-and-build theory, Fredrickson (2001, 2013) we argue that positive emotions and other aspects of subjective well-being build enduring psychological, physical, and social resources by broadening thought-and-action repertoires (Fredrickson, 2013). This sheds light on the diverging perspectives of subjective well-being as a resource. Furthermore, Schulz and Heckhausen (1996) stated that one of the core aspects of well-

being/subjective well-being is to serve as a resource for goal engagement, as subjective well-being constitutes an important motivational resource.

Individuals in a state of subjective well-being are more likely to have necessary resources and, hence, to experience greater resource gains. Finally, much theoretical work has focused on how cognitive aspects of subjective well-being (notably, life satisfaction) shape psychological processes (Luhmann & Hennecke, 2017). One of the core assumptions about subjective well-being is that it serves as a signal that things are going well and that resources are readily available (Kahneman et al., 1999). The value of subjective well-being as a resource is also judged by how much it aids in the acquisition of other kinds of self-control resources.

2.3. Self-Control Theory

Self-control refers to a person's capacity to manage his or her wants, desires, and reactions that may arise out of temptations, impulses, or undesirable physiological processes (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Self-control is a battle between willpower and desire caused by preferences that are contradictory to one's standards or aims (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991). Self-control consists of three components: a goal, actions aimed toward the goal, and tracking progress toward the goal. Self-control failures occur when an individual's higher-order objectives—which provide long-term advantages—clash with lower-order goals—which provide immediate benefits (Heatherton & Tice, 1994.M., Loewenstein, 1996). Without self-control, an individual's conduct is more likely to be influenced by what feels good or what results in short-term benefits. Thus, self-control is a kind of energy that serves to override the individual's thoughts (e.g., repressing undesirable urges) and impulses (e.g., avoiding temptation; Haws et al., 2012; Jain, 2012).

Understanding why some individuals are better than others at self-control is an ongoing quest in consumer psychology (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). According to self-control theory, individuals have limited reserves of resources, such as strength or energy, which become exhausted when they engage in a task that requires regulation. These reserves must be replenished for future acts of self-control (Baumeister et al., 2018; Vohs & Heatherton, 2000). In other words, when people's resources are exhausted, they experience ego depletion and lose their ability to control their actions. Consumers experience ego depletion as a result of engaging in shortsighted actions such as excessive spending, insufficient saving, impulsive buying, overeating, and procrastination, which companies then exploit (Vosgerau et al., 2020). Accordingly, consumers' failure to restore their self-control resources puts them in danger of

even more impulsive purchases. This complicates customers' effort to practice self-control in the form of avoiding brands.

Self-control theory has been developed as a critical paradigm for gaining a better understanding of consumer self-control (Baumeister, 2002). It implies that a variety of processes may affect whether people effectively exercise self-control (Lian et al., 2017). Such processes have been divided into two phases: activation, in which people are made aware of the need for self-control, and exertion, in which individuals exercise self-control when necessary. Consumers must be made aware of desires (e.g., to buy a brand with poor moral standards) that clash with higher-order objectives during the activation phase. When this "desire-goal conflict" is identified, self-control may be exercised. Hoch and Loewenstein (1991) proposed three self-control strategies: avoidance, delay, and substitution. Among them, avoidance actions consume the greatest energy, because they occur in real time and the cost of failure is considerable (Oertig et al., 2013). According to past research, when consumers' egos are depleted, they tend to gravitate toward "less edifying and more self-indulgent fare" (Baumeister et al., 2008, pp. 9–10) and have a stronger motivation to spend more money (Vohs & Faber, 2007).

In this study, we adapt self-control theory to the context of consumer subversion and suggest that subjective well-being can replenish resources that have been diminished by the demands of making consumption decisions. A decision to avoid brands that reflect low/incongruent moral values is primarily a cognitive activity relating to the maintenance of appropriate attention in the face of distracting stimuli (Schmidt & Diestel, 2015). We argue that subjective well-being helps provide consumers with the resources needed to actively pay attention to information about the moral values espoused by brands. This leads to greater self-control abilities and increases consumer subversion behaviors, such as brand avoidance. In addition, when consumers experience high subjective well-being, they do not experience negative emotions, thereby ensuring that their subversion is not outwardly negative.

In sum, our model theorizes that subjective well-being, as a relatively stable state, may be useful in strengthening and rebooting depleted personal resources among individuals, influencing consumer subversion behaviors such as brand avoidance. We argue that self-control mediates this relationship and that macro and micro anti-consumption attitudes moderate it. We discuss these mechanisms further in later sections, but we first examine the links between subjective well-being and brand avoidance.

3. Hypothesis Development

3.1. Subjective well-being and Brand Avoidance

Research on subversion behaviors such as brand avoidance often draws upon the importance of self-control abilities. Moral brand avoidance arises when the consumer's ideological beliefs clash with certain brand values or associations. Moral brand avoidance is concerned with avoiding or trying to stay away from a negative outcome or psychological condition associated with purchasing from a brand. Such avoidance sometimes results in a variety of unpleasant psychological processes, including perceptual, attentional, mental control, affective, or behavioral processes (e.g., distracting thoughts or anticipatory anxiety; Derryberry & Reed, 2002). These avoidance-based processes are often seen as urgent and imminent, because the consequences of failing to regulate avoidance are often severe (Baumeister et al., 2001; David et al., 1997).

While avoidance behaviors are normal, avoiding brands with low/incongruent moral values can be challenging for consumers, as the "morality" of such brands might be conditional or situational, and consumers might have conflicting conceptions of the matter (Mooijman et al., 2018); this can place a significant strain on self-control resources, eventually depleting them. For example, resources are needed to inhibit distracting thoughts, change emotional reactions, and resist the desire to flee the goal-relevant circumstance, resulting in a depleted resource pool. Thus, we argue that brand avoidance is a self-regulatory vulnerability because it is resource intensive and therefore likely to exhaust individuals' resources. The effect of this resource depletion may be more prominent when the brand to be avoided is one that was previously consumed as a habit or tradition, was part of a reference group or lifestyle, or was simply easily accessible. In contrast, acts of consumption tend to be less taxing because most developed and developing economies encourage consumption and strive to make consumption as easy as possible. Overall, this study argues that acts of subversion, such as brand avoidance, are cognitively taxing.

The positive affective state and other dimensions associated with subjective well-being have been hypothesized to help individuals develop their personal resources, which range from physical, social, and intellectual to psychological resources (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). Notably, the personal resources amassed during positive affective states are permanent, and therefore, people may use them to aid in goal engagement and decision making. Existing research has indicated that a positive affect may be linked with an increased self-regulation ability (e.g., Tice et al., 2007) and cognitive flexibility (Garland et al., 2010); thus, it may activate self-regulatory mechanisms involved with avoidance behavior (Schlauch et al., 2013;

Tice et al., 2007). This perspective is compatible with Frederickson's (2001, 2013) broaden-and-build theory, which postulates that a positive affect may enhance an individual's cognitive ability by expanding the individual's repertoire of resources. Furthermore, there is an abundance of evidence that positive emotion regulation strategies aid in the maintenance of positive emotions (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007) and promote emotional integrity and authenticity (Diener et al., 2020) by striking an alignment between the inner self and its outer manifestation. It is functionally less draining for individuals to behave in a manner that is compatible with their inner self and congruent with their ideology.

We reason that a positive affective state, such as subjective well-being, provides a sense of purpose and optimism, as well as integrative cognition (Isen et al., 1991). Individuals with a positive affect and cognitive resources are more optimistic and tend to assign higher probabilities to future positive events (Bower & Cohen, 1982). Such positive resources may engender satisficing solutions (Simon, 1955) and, thus, result in deliberative judgments that are more consistent with an individual's ideal "prescriptive" judgment. In addition, the cognitive aspects of subjective well-being help shape psychological processes and help individuals align with their ideal perspective (e.g., Kahneman et al., 1999; Luhmann & Hennecke, 2017). We suggest that this may also influence judgments when it comes to avoiding a brand due to ideological incompatibility (Lee et al., 2009b). For example, Labroo and Patrick (2009) showed that positive affective states result in the preference of products with long-term benefits. As such, the cognitive and affective elements of subjective well-being act as resources providing the necessary energy to act in alignment with one's moral inclination. Thus, consumers who have greater subjective well-being are more attentive and likely to have the cognitive capabilities to avoid brands with low/incongruent moral value.

The cognitive elements of subjective well-being (notably, life satisfaction) increase the availability of cognitive resources that can be harnessed by individuals to trigger more introspection, develop a sense of empathy toward the environment, and be more sensitive to the existence of a moral dilemma. Thus, we argue that subjective well-being, a positive emotional state, helps individuals replenish their resources and expand their capacity for self-regulation, thereby leading to the avoidance of brands that are either ideologically incongruent or guilty of moral transgression. We posit the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Subjective well-being has a positive influence on consumers' brand avoidance.

3.2. Mediating Influence of Perceived Self-Control

Although prior research has examined the relationship between positive states and moral decision making, its underlying psychological mechanism has not been thoroughly investigated. Baumeister and Exline (1999) suggested that self-control acts as a moral muscle to help individuals override, inhibit, or resist an undesirable behavior. Past research has suggested that self-control influences adaptive behaviors (Baumeister et al., 1998; Muraven et al., 1998), such as maintaining a healthy diet (Hofmann et al., 2007). According to this view, self-control increases the likelihood of moral behavior when it comes to choosing brands.

Individuals' subjective well-being enhances mechanisms such as self-control, which in turn help them avoid morally deviant brands. We propose that positive states such as subjective well-being influence self-control mechanisms at both the self-control activation and exertion stages. We argue that a positive affect promotes self-control during the self-control activation phase by detecting and deactivating desire, thus increasing individuals' efficacy in driving future actions. Subjective well-being elicits more caution and more avoidance behaviors in consumers who are exposed to unpleasant stimuli. When unpleasant information must be handled, or it is in an individual's long-term interest to do so, individuals in positive affect states interact with (rather than ignore) the information. Consumers experiencing a positive affect attempt to safeguard themselves against loss by increasing their exposure to unfavorable content. For instance, a positive affect facilitates the activation of self-control, allowing consumers to identify brands' moral violations and decrease their desire to consume that brand, thus enabling avoidance behaviors.

With respect to self-control, we argue that subjective well-being facilitates self-control by replenishing cognitive resources, thus increasing the capacity for self-control. The models of psychic energy and vitality suggest that both psychological and somatic factors contribute to the strength of one's self-control (Ryan & Frederick, 1997; Thayer, 1996). Psychological nutrients such as a positive affect can boost resources that make self-control more accessible to the self (Wenzel et al., 2014). Hence, positive psychological resources are needed to either conserve or enhance self-control strength. Several researchers have postulated that positive affective states, such as subjective well-being, promote self-control even in an individual with depleted resources (Tice et al., 2007). In a similar vein, Fredrickson (2001) and Fredrickson et al. (2000) highlighted that a positive affect could replenish a weakened system with depleted resources to a large extent, the detrimental physiological consequences of a negative affect can be reversed with the aid of a positive affect (Fredrickson et al., 2000; Fredrickson & Levenson, 1998); thus, an upward spiral of positive affectivity is created (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002).

Hence, we posit that self-control among consumers mediates the relationship between subjective well-being and cognitive ability to avoid brands. Specifically, we argue that subjective well-being allows individuals to muster their personal resources and, hence, to experience greater self-control. This is because subjective well-being acts as a resource replenisher when consumers are in a state of diminished resources. This ability to self-control enhances individuals' emotional and cognitive abilities and willingness to avoid brands with low moral values, because high levels of subjective well-being infuse into consumers the positive resources required for self-regulation; accordingly, these resources influences subversion behaviors such as brand avoidance. Indeed, the extant literature agrees that self-control fosters the ability to avoid or limit consumption (Baumeister, 2003; Muraven & Shmueli, 2006). We argue that a positive state such as subjective well-being replenishes individuals' self-control resources, allowing them to be less impacted by actual or anticipated self-control depletion due to brand avoidance and, consequently, to be better equipped to continue practicing brand avoidance. Taken as a whole, subjective well-being influences the activation and exertion of self-control by detecting and defusing desires; by increasing the capacity for self-control, it helps individuals avoid brands. Therefore, we posit the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): *Subjective well-being has a positive influence on self-control.*

Hypothesis 3 (H3): *Self-control mediates the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance.*

3.3. Moderating Influence of Macro and Micro Anti-Consumption Attitudes

The behavioral manifestations of anti-consumption, such as moral brand avoidance, can be driven by negative attitudes toward consumption for either societal reasons or personal reasons (Chatzidakis & Lee, 2013). Iyer and Muncy (2016) proposed a difference between individuals who oppose consumption for social reasons (e.g., ethical or moral concerns) and those who oppose consumption for personal reasons (e.g., the desire to live a simpler life). *Macro anti-consumption* refers to arguments against consumption based on social concerns. Concerns about the detrimental effect of excessive consumption on society as a whole drive macro anti-consumption attitudes. By contrast, *micro anti-consumption* refers to being opposed to consumption for personal reasons; this involves the readiness and desire to abstain from excessive consumerism in favor of a simpler lifestyle. According to past research, those who have unfavorable attitudes toward consumption for social reasons are not always negative

toward consuming for personal reasons, and vice versa (Chatzidakis & Lee, 2013; Richetin et al., 2012).

Individuals with macro anti-consumption attitudes will likely perform better than those with micro anti-consumption attitudes in terms of self-control for two main reasons. First, research suggests that individuals may experience a motivational conflict between engaging in an altruistic act and being tempted to act selfishly. Specifically, while avoiding brands for societal reasons, individuals face a conflict between their pro-social and pro-self-motivations. Individuals may need to overcome their selfish urges and to act pro-socially. Doing so, however, requires the employment of self-control, which acts like energy (Baumeister et al., 1998) to alter or inhibit undesirable behavior (Vohs & Faber, 2007). In a similar vein, Balliet and Joireman (2010) indicated that ego depletion reduces cooperative behaviors in social dilemmas only among those individuals who had previously been identified as holding strong pro-self attitudes. In contrast, ego depletion does not strongly influence the cooperation levels of those with weak pro-self-attitudes (Balliet & Joireman, 2010). In other words, strong pro-social attitudes may bolster self-control, whereas strong pro-self attitudes may deplete self-control. Hence, strong macro anti-consumption attitudes will strengthen the influence of subjective well-being on brand avoidance, whereas strong micro anti-consumption attitudes will reduce the impact.

Second, Masuda and Nisbett (2001) suggested that individuals with pro-social orientations exhibit a greater capacity for holistic attention, which involves the use of abstract, general terms (i.e., high-level construal) rather than concrete, detailed terms (i.e., low-level construal); put another way, macro-oriented individuals may pay more attention to context. Similarly, Fujita et al. (2006) demonstrated that participants who engage in high-level construal exercise more effective self-control than do those who engage in low-level construal, possibly because pro-social orientations result in enhanced self-control via a high-level construal mindset. As a result, macro anti-consumption attitudes are more likely to enhance self-control through a high-level construal mentality, while micro anti-consumption attitudes are more likely to erode self-control via a low-level construal mindset. As a result, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): *A macro anti-consumption attitude positively moderates the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance.*

Hypothesis 5 (H5): *A micro anti-consumption attitude negatively moderates the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance.*

4. Overview of the Studies and Empirical Approach

It is anticipated that subjective well-being positively influences brand avoidance. The underlying mechanism of this relationship is explained by self-control, such that a high level of subjective well-being results in high self-control, which in turn influences brand avoidance. The link between subjective well-being and brand avoidance is also moderated by the consumer's anti-consumption attitude. Within this study, three studies are conducted to validate the theoretical model. Study 1 establishes that subjective well-being positively influences brand avoidance. Study 2 replicates the findings of study 1 and further examines the mediating role of self-control. Study 3 examines whether anti-consumption attitudes serve as boundary conditions to this effect. Several researchers (Ferris et al., 2006; Lykken, 1968) have argued for the use of replications to demonstrate consistency that is not feasible when findings from a single-study design are provided. Replications are especially essential in research with complex connections because they verify that findings are reproducible and not artifactual to samples and/or circumstances. As a result, our research generalizes results from study one utilizing larger, more varied samples from studies two and three. In addition to assessing the moderation connection, study three offers an or literal replication (Ferris et al., 2006) of the direct and mediation relationships.

In accordance with previous research, all models control for gender, age, and income (Sudbury-Riley & Kohlbacher, 2018). This is critical for increasing the credibility of our results. Age, for example, seems to be the most important socio-demographic antecedent of anti-consumption activities; current research indicates that older people are more likely to participate in anti-consumption practices, particularly in the area of energy consumption reduction (Hori et al., 2013; Martinsson et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011). Similarly, gender seems to be a driver of anti-consumption behaviors across domains (Sarabia-Sánchez et al., 2014; Sharp et al., 2010). In addition, income has been found to be related to anti-consumption attitudes and actions (Sekhon & Armstrong Soule, 2020). In our models, not adding these controls could have resulted in artificially inflated or decreased coefficients. Figure 1 shows a graphical summary of the various studies.

Insert Figure 1 about here.

4.1. Study 1: Direct Effect of subjective well-being on Brand Avoidance

The purpose of study 1 was to offer initial evidence that consumers with greater subjective well-being are more likely to avoid brands that do not meet their moral standards. We present the study's method, measures, and results in the following section.

4.1.1. Participants and procedure

Participants. We conducted an online survey, drawing our sample from the executive Master of Business Administration (MBA) students at an Indian university using a non-probability sampling technique. The respondents received personalized invitations to complete the survey. Of the 520 subjects that were initially contacted, a total of 330 participated in our study, with a response rate of nearly 63%. One week after the surveys were sent out, these respondents received a follow-up call from the researcher's secretary to verify that they had completed the questionnaire. This resulted in response rate of 63%. Most of the respondents were male (69%), and the majority (63%) were in the age range of 25 to 44 years. All participants held an undergraduate degree or higher.

Measures. We utilized Diener et al.'s (1985) 5-item scale to measure subjective well-being (7-point Likert scale items, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"). In the subjective well-being scale (Diener et al., 1985), participants used a 7-point Likert scale to indicate their level of agreement (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) with statements such as, "In most ways, my life is close to my ideal," "The conditions of my life are excellent," "I am satisfied with my life," and "So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life." Cronbach's α for this measure was 0.87. Brand avoidance was measured using an adapted version of the scale presented by Webb et al. (2008; 7-point Likert scale items, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"). Participants indicated their level of agreement, on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree), with statements such as, "I will avoid buying from brands that harm endangered plants or animals," "I will avoid buying from brands that pollute the air," "I will make an effort to avoid brands that cause environmental damage," and "I will avoid buying from brands selling products made from endangered animals." Cronbach's α for this measure was 0.89.

4.1.2. Analysis and results

Scale evaluations. We used SmartPLS 3.0 to check the reliability and validity of the measures. A good fit was achieved for the overall measurement model. The convergent validity of the

model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) was supported, as the average variance extracted (AVE) for all constructs was > 0.5 , which was the threshold score (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The composite reliability (CR) indices ranged from 0.83 to 0.93, indicating acceptable reliability. The heterotrait–monotrait ratio (HTMT) results indicated scores < 0.90 , confirming the discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). The scale evaluations and correlational statistics are displayed in Table 1 and Table 2.

Insert Table 1 about here.

Insert Table 2 about here.

Hypothesis testing. The path coefficient was assessed with a particular emphasis on the magnitude of the t-statistics, coefficients of determination (R^2), and path coefficients (Falk & Miller, 1992). The nonparametric bootstrapping method, as implemented in the SmartPLS 3.0 software, was used to obtain the t-values and to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference (Sarstedt et al., 2011). We found a significant positive direct effect of subjective well-being on brand avoidance (H1: $b = 0.267$, $p = 0.000$), providing support for H1. In terms of the control variables, none of the three control variables—gender ($b = 0.035$, $p = 0.491$), age ($b = 0.131$, $p = 0.052$), and income ($b = 0.031$, $p = 0.651$)—had a statistically significant effect on brand avoidance. Overall, the model explained 9.6% of the variance in brand avoidance (Table 3).

Insert Table 3 about here.

Discussion. Overall, the findings of study 1 provide preliminary support for the hypothesis that there is a direct relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. High (vs. low) subjective well-being scores were associated with a greater (vs. lower) likelihood of participants avoiding brands that were considered as being unethical or having unethical business practices. Despite its encouraging findings, study 1 has certain limitations that must be considered. First, past studies have indicated that mediating, moderating, and other conditional variables need to be considered to better understand subjective well-being and its consequences (Avey et al., 2008). The R^2 value for brand avoidance indicated in the results

(0.08) points toward possible mediating and moderating relationships for the proposed theoretical model. Second, the scope of this study was limited in terms of the items on the brand avoidance scale, which were mainly concerned with environmental and sustainability issues. The existing research, however, has indicated that moral avoidance behaviors arise from a wider range of issues, such as social, ethical, and hegemonic concerns. An additional feature of the research is that it was carried out using a student sample; as a result, it is unclear whether the theoretical model holds up when applied to a more varied sample of consumers. Study 2 attempts to overcome these limitations.

4.2. Study 2: Indirect Effect of subjective well-being on Brand Avoidance Through Self-Control

Our objectives in Study 2 were to retest H1 and to assess the robustness of the results from Study 1, as well as to present a better understanding of the nature of focused interaction via a cross-sectional evaluation of the mediation models (H2 and H3). For this reason, we investigated the variations in brand avoidance among the participants as a predictor of their self-rated subjective well-being, as well as the mediating effects of self-control. When compared to Study 1—which relied on scale items related to brand avoidance and was mainly concerned with environmental and conservation behaviors—Study 2 considered the essential components of moral avoidance. *Anti-hegemony* is characterized by a social emphasis that goes beyond the demands of the individual, instead focusing on opposing oppressive/dominant forces and on the idea that it is a moral obligation to avoid morally deviant brands. In this study, we utilized the brand avoidance scale (Lee et al., 2009a), which captures additional elements of moral brand avoidance, allowing us to generalize our results more broadly.

4.2.1. Participants and procedure

Participants. Using Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), a total of 251 United States (US) workers with a historical human intelligence task (HIT) approval rate of over 90% were identified and agreed to take part in the study. Each respondent was paid US\$0.6 for participation in the study. Of these 251 participants, 71.3% were men, 88% had a bachelor's degree or higher, and 56.5% had annual earnings of \$50,000 or higher.

Measures. Similar to Study 1, we utilized Diener et al.'s (1985) 5-item scale to measure subjective well-being (7-point Likert scale items, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”). For measuring self-control, the impulse control subscale (Ferrari & Chivers, 2009) derived from the brief self-control scale (Tangney et al., 2004) was used. Participants used a

7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) to indicate their level of agreement with items such as, “I am good at resisting temptation,” “I refuse things that are bad for me,” “People would say that I have iron-like self-discipline,” and “I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals.” Cronbach’s α for this measure was 0.78, which was acceptable considering the prescribed value of 0.70.

Brand avoidance was measured using items drawn from Lee et al.’s (2009b) seminal conceptualization of brand avoidance. Participants indicated their level of agreement, on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree), with items such as, “I avoid brands that act irresponsibly,” “I avoid brands that violate moral standards,” “I avoid brands that are unethical,” “I avoid brands that don’t match my values and beliefs,” and “I would not like it if the brands I avoid were the only option available.” Cronbach’s alpha for this measure was 0.83, indicating the reliability of the scale (Table 4). We randomized the order of the question blocks to mitigate any potential order bias.

Insert Table 4 about here.

4.2.2. Analysis and results

Scale evaluations. The convergent validity of the model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) was supported, as the AVE for all constructs was > 0.5 , which was the threshold score (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The CR indices ranged from 0.85 to 0.90, indicating acceptable reliability. Consequently, the results showed acceptable convergent validity (Table 4). The HTMT results indicated scores < 0.90 , confirming the discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). The assessment of a specific latent variable with all the scale items as indicators did not display strongly correlated variables; this ruled out the possibility of common method bias (CMB). The correlational statistics are displayed in Table 5.

Insert Table 5 about here.

Hypothesis testing. The path analysis findings (Table 6) were significant and positive; thus, the two direct effects were supported. subjective well-being had a positive and significant influence on brand avoidance (H1: $b = 0.328$, $p = 0.000$). Similarly, subjective well-being had a positive and significant influence on self-control (H2: $b = 0.599$, $p = 0.000$). The proposed mediating effect (H3) also showed a significant and positive result ($b = 0.229$, $p = 0.000$). Thus,

H3 was supported. In terms of the control variables, gender had a significant negative effect on self-control ($b = -.138, p = 0.008$) and brand avoidance ($b = -.134, p = 0.004$). Age did not have a statistically significant effect on self-control ($b = .019, p = 0.718$) or brand avoidance ($b = -.014, p = 0.783$). Similarly, income did not have a statistically significant effect on self-control ($b = -.020, p = 0.652$) or brand avoidance ($b = -.102, p = 0.073$). Overall, the model explained 38.7% of the variance in self-control and 44.9% of the variance in brand avoidance.

Insert Table 6 about here.

Discussion. Study 2 corroborated the findings of Study 1 using a diverse online consumer panel. As in Study 1, consumers who reported greater subjective well-being were more likely to also report a higher likelihood of avoiding morally deviant brands. In addition, Study 2 sheds light on why a high level of subjective well-being helps to boost self-control, which in turn helps consumers avoid certain brands.

4.3. Study 3: Moderating Effect of Anti-Consumption Attitude

Our goals in Study 3 were to test H1, H2, and H3 again; to check the robustness of the findings of Study 1 and Study 2; and to assess the boundary conditions influencing the nature of focal interaction. We employed moderation models (H4 and H5) using a cross-sectional design. In doing so, we analyzed the differences in the brand avoidance of the participants as a correlate of their self-rated subjective well-being, the mediating effect of self-control, and the moderating effects of macro anti-consumption and micro anti-consumption attitudes.

4.3.1. Participants and procedure

Participants. Using MTurk, a total of 243 US workers with a historical HIT approval rate of over 90% agreed to take part in the study. Each participant was paid \$0.6 for participating in the activity. Of these 243 participants, 62.1% were men, 87.2% had a bachelor's degree or higher, and 60.3% had annual earnings of \$50,000 or higher.

Measures. We utilized Diener et al.'s (1985) 5-item scale to measure subjective well-being (see Study 1 and Study 2). For measuring self-control, the impulse control subscale (Ferrari & Chivers, 2009) derived from the brief self-control scale (Tangney et al., 2004) was used (see Study 2). Brand avoidance was measured using a brand avoidance scale based on the work of Lee et al. (2009a; see Study 2). Both micro and macro anti-consumption attitudes were measured using Muncy and Iyer's (2021) scale. Three out of four items related to macro anti-

consumption attitudes: “It would benefit future generations if people today would quit consuming so much,” “We must all do our part to conserve,” and “People should not buy so many things that they do not need.” One item was deleted due to poor loading. Cronbach’s α for this measure was 0.76. Five items were related to micro anti-consumption attitudes: “I love living a life free from the clutter of too many material things,” “If I don’t need it, I don’t buy it,” “I avoid having too many things that will clutter up my life,” “I like a simpler life, not one filled with material things,” and “The fewer things I own, the better I feel.” Cronbach’s α for this measure was 0.82 (Table 7). We randomized the order of the question blocks to mitigate any potential order bias.

Insert Table 7 about here.

4.3.2. Analysis and results

Scale evaluations. The measures were evaluated for reliability indications as well as for convergent and discriminant validity. The convergent validity was demonstrated through the values of Cronbach’s α , the composite reliabilities, and the AVE reaching the required thresholds (Hair et al., 2013), indicating that the convergent validity was acceptable for the measurement model (Table 7). To test the discriminant validity, we used latent variable correlations (Table 8), the square root of the AVE, and the HTMT (Henseler et al., 2015). The AVE estimation exceeded the squared inter-construct correlation of the highest shared square variance and the average shared square variance values, thereby demonstrating discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2013). The HTMT values were below the suggested level of 0.90, establishing the discriminant validity (Gold et al., 2001).

Insert Table 8 about here.

Hypotheses testing. The path analysis findings (Table 9) were significant and positive, thus supporting both direct effects. subjective well-being had a positive and significant influence on brand avoidance (H1: $b = .221$, $p = 0.031$). Similarly, subjective well-being had a positive and significant influence on self-control (H2: $b = .532$, $p = 0.000$). The proposed mediating effect (H3) also showed a significant and positive result ($b = .163$, $p = 0.001$). Thus, H3 was supported. In terms of the control variables, none of the three control variables (gender, age,

and income) had a statistically significant effect on self-control or brand avoidance. Gender did not have a statistically significant effect on self-control ($b = -.063$, $p = 0.246$) or brand avoidance ($b = -.073$, $p = 0.130$). Age did not have a statistically significant effect on self-control ($b = .037$, $p = 0.531$) or brand avoidance ($b = .073$, $p = 0.115$). Similarly, income did not have a statistically significant effect on self-control ($b = .007$, $p = 0.906$) or brand avoidance ($b = .073$, $p = 0.115$). Overall, the model explained 42.4% of the variance in brand avoidance.

Insert Table 9 about here.

The moderation models for macro anti-consumption attitudes and micro anti-consumption attitudes were tested separately. We modeled the moderating effects along with the direct and mediation effects, using the interaction terms in the direct effects model, per the product indicator approach. First, we evaluated the moderating influence of macro anti-consumption attitudes in the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. Macro anti-consumption attitudes positively moderated the link between subjective well-being and brand avoidance ($b = .107$, $p = 0.039$), supporting H4 (Table 10).

Furthermore, we used a simple slope analysis (Figure 2) to interpret the moderation findings. The relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance was positive for all three lines shown in Figure 2, as indicated by their positive slopes. The upper line (in green)—which represents a higher level of macro anti-consumption attitudes (i.e., the moderator)—has a steeper slope, whereas the lower line (in blue) has a flatter slope. The simple slope plot demonstrates the positive interaction: higher levels of macro anti-consumption attitudes are associated with a stronger relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance, and vice versa.

Second, we evaluated the moderating influence of micro anti-consumption attitudes in the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. Micro anti-consumption attitudes did not moderate the link between subjective well-being and brand avoidance ($b = .092$, $p = 0.133$) (Table 11), thus failing to support H5. Furthermore, a simple slope analysis (Figure 3) showed that both the upper line (in green in Figure 3)—which represents a higher level of macro anti-consumption attitudes (i.e., the moderator)—and the lower line (in blue)—which represents a lower level of micro anti-consumption attitudes—have relatively flatter slopes, indicating an insignificant moderating effect.

Discussion. Study 3 corroborated the findings of Study 1 and Study 2. Specifically, it was found that consumers with subjective well-being are more likely to avoid morally deviant/incongruent brands. As in Study 2, Study 3 further validated the mediating role of self-control in the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. In addition, Study 3 explored the boundary conditions for the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. The findings of this study revealed that macro anti-consumption attitudes accentuate the influence of subjective well-being on brand avoidance, whereas micro anti-consumption attitudes have no effect on the relationship.

5. Discussion

The present investigation began with the research question of whether subjective well-being influences brand avoidance behavior. We empirically demonstrated that individuals with a higher level of subjective well-being are more inclined to report the avoidance of brands that have transgressed moral or ethical norms. Study 1 showed that subjective well-being positively influences brand avoidance. This relationship was further demonstrated among a nationally diverse consumer panel as part of studies 2 and 3.

Studies 2 and 3 further showed that self-control is a mediating factor between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. Self-control is an important factor that helps individuals who have a high level of subjective well-being to restrain their desires and avoid certain brands. Furthermore, we evaluated the moderating influence of anti-consumption attitudes on the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance in Study 3. Specifically, our findings demonstrated that a macro anti-consumption attitude (i.e., pro-social or general) enhances peoples' propensity to avoid brands. However, micro anti-consumption attitude (i.e., focused on personal, rather than moral, interests) had no impact, indicating the limited influence of attitudes based in self-interest in facilitating brand avoidance.

5.1. Theoretical Implications

There is a large corpus of academic literature related to how creative consumers practice subversion; this can be done by way of damaging advertisements (Campbell et al., 2011), engaging in non-collaborative co-creation (Kristal et al., 2018), practicing data secrecy (Plangger & Montecchi, 2020), and using deal collectives against firms (Campbell & Schau, 2019). The literature does not, however, offer sufficient insight into how consumers subvert consumption itself, by promoting anti-consumption practices such as brand avoidance. The present research contributes to the field of consumer subversion and brand avoidance by

offering a novel explanation of what drives consumers to subvert brands. Drawing from the brand avoidance literature and self-control theory, we examined how subjective well-being influences brand avoidance behavior of consumers and the specific conditions under which this influence is more likely to occur. The results of our study offer a new perspective and important theoretical implications for the literature related to subjective well-being and branding.

First, in a bid to comprehend what steers consumers toward brand avoidance, we found much of extant literature replete with evidence of negative causes of this phenomenon (Kleijnen et al., 2009). Specifically, pessimistic perceptions of undesirable selves, animosity, ethical considerations, and discontent have been seen as key factors contributing to the phenomenon of anti-consumption (Chatzidakis & Lee, 2013; Zavestoski, 2002). For such reasons, brand avoidance is often perceived as being inconvenient, annoying, and a personal sacrifice of materialistic things (Verdugo, 2012). Our study extends prior work that has examined the negative behavioral antecedents of anti-consumption (Lee et al., 2009b). We contribute to the field by generalizing the influence of a positive affective state, such as subjective well-being, on brand avoidance behavior. This research advances knowledge in the fields of consumer subversion and, specifically, brand avoidance by focusing on the impact of subjective well-being on brand avoidance through the replenishment of self-regulatory resources.

Second, our research examines the mechanism by which subjective well-being influences brand avoidance behavior. Previous studies have identified the influence of positive affective states on consumption resistance (Fedorikhin & Patrick, 2010). However, the role of positive emotional states as a resource replenisher has been explored relatively little, especially relating to consumer subversion behaviors such as brand avoidance. Ours is one of the few articles to build on self-control theory in the context of consumer subversion. We provide unique insight into how subjective well-being enhances self-control, thereby improving customers' brand avoidance behavior. Self-regulating behavior, such as resisting consumption by the deliberate abstinence from brands, is resource intensive (Oertig et al., 2013). We show that brand avoidance behavior results in the depletion of limited self-regulatory resources, making it difficult for most consumers to avoid (or continue avoiding) consumption (Leith & Baumeister, 1996). Moreover, we add to the existing knowledge about the role self-control plays in fostering brand avoidance as a new mechanism to cope with the loss of resources. We demonstrate that a positive state of mind, such as subjective well-being, is likely to restore the ability and willingness to exercise control and the volition required to enact brand avoidance behavior.

Third, the current study evaluates whether one's attitude toward anti-consumption interacts with subjective well-being to influence brand avoidance. To achieve this, we looked at people's attitudes toward anti-consumption in general (i.e., macro anti-consumption attitudes) and toward anti-consumption on a personal level (i.e., micro anti-consumption attitudes). Our study demonstrates that macro anti-consumption attitudes accentuate the influence of subjective well-being on brand avoidance behavior. Our research verifies that people with macro anti-consumption attitudes are cognizant of the long-term implications of consumption for society as a whole and, thus, exercise self-control to restrict consumption impulses. Therefore, their macro anti-consumption attitudes work in harmony with their goal of brand avoidance and enhance the influence of subjective well-being on brand avoidance.

However, we did not find any influence of micro anti-consumption on the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance. Micro anti-consumption attitudes are driven by goals such as living a simple life, having more control over personal consumption, and avoiding material things. Although these goals are in the interest of the self, they may not necessarily conflict with pro-social goals. For example, an individual's propensity to avoid McDonalds for ethical reasons may not conflict with his or her desire to lead a non-materialistic life. Therefore, micro anti-consumption attitudes may neither enhance nor further deplete the self-control resources required for enacting brand avoidance, hence explaining the non-significant moderating effect.

5.2. Practical Implications

The results of this research have a wide range of implications for marketers and public authorities committed to responsible branding and consumption. First, this study discusses why it is important to investigate brand avoidance, a phenomenon that presents unique challenges for marketers and regulators. In broad terms, this article adds to the body of research on negative consumer-brand relationships by expanding our understanding of the main factors that lead to brand avoidance. This study is particularly pertinent in an age of increasing animosity toward companies that fail to adequately address human, social, and environmental issues (Kotler & Sarkar, 2018). As a result, we advise managers to evaluate brand avoidance in connection with the growing ethical and moral concerns voiced by their consumers.

Second, this study demonstrates that people with a high degree of subjective well-being are more able to avoid morally incongruent/deviant brands. Our research highlights to policymakers the benefits of enhancing people's subjective well-being to promote consumption reduction, especially for brands transgressing moral and ethical norms. The market research

firm Mintel has reported that 56% of US consumers stop buying from companies they believe are unethical. Further, more than one-third (35%) of consumers stop buying from brands they perceive as unethical even if there is no substitute available, and 27% stop purchasing even if they think the competitor offers lower-quality products (Mintel News, 2015). Thus, policies that enhance the subjective well-being of a country's residents will reduce the consumption of products from brands that are unsustainable, thereby benefitting the country—and the world—in the long run.

Third, this study has tactical implications for global brands entering markets containing consumers who have high or low levels of subjective well-being. For example, firms coming from a market filled with consumers who are low on subjective well-being must be careful when entering a market in which the vast majority of consumers have high levels of subjective well-being. Although a firm might have gone unpunished in its home country's market even after indulging in morally deficient practices, consumers enjoying a healthy level of subjective well-being would likely subvert the brand for its unacceptable practices. Similarly, firms with sustainable positioning operating in markets with high levels of subjective well-being may face strong competition in markets with low levels of subjective well-being, as consumers with low levels of subjective well-being may not be inclined to avoid unsustainable brands and may not hesitate to pursue morally irresponsible cost advantages.

Fourth, this study indicates that macro anti-consumption attitudes accentuate the relationship between subjective well-being and brand avoidance, whereas micro anti-consumption attitudes have no role to play. This has important implications for marketers trying to abate brand avoidance in the marketplace and for regulators and consumer welfare groups trying to promote consumption reduction. As a result of this study, one can conclude that brands operating in markets with high levels of subjective well-being that are perceived as being unethical or unsustainable should stay away from using societal appeals in their promotions, as societal (i.e., macro) anti-consumption attitudes facilitate brand avoidance by bolstering self-control. Furthermore, for policymakers and consumer welfare groups, our results indicate that the most effective way to reduce the consumption of products from unsustainable brands is to emphasize the societal—rather than the personal—benefits of doing so.

5.3. Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite its contributions, this study is not free from limitations, which future research could address. Even though our results match our theoretical model, the structure of the data prevents us from directly testing the causal effects between the constructs of interest. Our central concept proposed a causal route from subjective well-being to brand avoidance. Despite the fact that the correlational data revealed a substantial connection, we were unable to prove causation. It is conceivable that avoiding brands leads to greater subjective well-being; although such explanation seems less likely than the one given in our focal model, we could not rule it out entirely based on the cross-sectional data we obtained. We propose that future studies use longitudinal techniques to examine the causative nature of the connections between subjective well-being, self-control, and brand avoidance.

Similarly, avoiding morally deficient brands can sometimes even increase consumers' self-control resources, as self-control resources may get bolstered because of positive emotions generated due to performing a moral behavior. However, our research has not dwelt on this aspect of brand avoidance. Future research can examine whether self-control resources improve after an individual engages in avoidance of transgressing brands.

In addition, the study populations of our three studies contained a high proportion of subjects with a high income and high levels of education. Research suggests that higher levels of income and education are associated with greater subjective well-being. Although the mean subjective well-being values of our samples are high (Study 1: mean [M] = 24.43, standard deviation [SD] = 5.3), these values are comparable with the subjective well-being values among an urban population in India (M = 24, SD = 5.6), which were identified as part of a large-scale study (N = 1099) conducted across multiple cities (Agrawal et al., 2011). Whether the observed changes and associations are present in a sample that is more representative of the population requires further exploration. Therefore, future research should conduct studies with different and more representative samples to better understand the effects of subjective well-being on brand avoidance. Next, while we included and tested the boundary conditions of macro and micro anti-consumption attitudes in Study 3, future research should explore other boundary conditions that may interact differently with the relationship between subjective well-being, self-control, and brand avoidance.

Finally, there are variety of reasons for which consumers avoid brands, including unmet expectations, conflicts with one's self-concept, quality concerns, and moral concerns (Lee et al., 2009b). The current research explored subjective well-being and its influence on moral avoidance. Future research could examine the influence of subjective well-being on other types

of consumer subversion behaviors. For instance, researchers could evaluate whether subjective well-being helps individuals cope with negative brand experiences (rather than just with brands perceived to be environmentally detrimental). Such research could then explain whether consumers with greater subjective well-being are less likely to avoid a brand than are individuals with low levels of subjective well-being.

References

- Agrawal, J., Murthy, P., Philip, M., Mehrotra, S., Thennarasu, K., John, J. P., ... & Isaac, M. (2011). Socio-demographic correlates of subjective well-being in urban India. *Social Indicators Research*, 101(3), 419-434.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological bulletin*, 103(3), 411.
- Andrade, E. B. (2005). Behavioral consequences of affect: Combining evaluative and regulatory mechanisms. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(3), 355-362.
- Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Luthans, F. (2008). Can positive employees help positive organizational change? Impact of psychological capital and emotions on relevant attitudes and behaviors. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 44(1), 48-70.
- Balliet, D., & Joireman, J. (2010). Ego depletion reduces proselves' concern with the well-being of others. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 13(2), 227-239.
- Banerjee, S., & Goel, P. (2020). Party brand hate in political market: antecedents and consequences. *Asian Journal of Political Science*, 28(2), 97-121.
- Banister, E. N., & Hogg, M. K. (2004). Negative symbolic consumption and consumers' drive for self-esteem: The case of the fashion industry. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38(7), 850-868.
- Baumeister, R. F. (2002). Yielding to temptation: Self-control failure, impulsive purchasing, and consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 28(4), 670-676.
- Baumeister, R. F. (2003). Ego depletion and self-regulation failure: A resource model of self-control. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research*, 27(2), 281-284.
- Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good. *Review of General Psychology*, 5(4), 323-370.
- Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Muraven, M., & Tice, D. M. (1998). Ego depletion: Is the active self a limited resource?. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(5), 1252.

- Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Muraven, M., & Tice, D. M. (2018). Ego depletion: Is the active self a limited resource?. In *Self-regulation and self-control* (pp. 16-44). Routledge.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Juola Exline, J. (1999). Virtue, personality, and social relations: Self-control as the moral muscle. *Journal of personality*, 67(6), 1165-1194.
- Baumeister, R. F., Sparks, E. A., Stillman, T. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2008). Free will in consumer behavior: Self-control, ego depletion, and choice. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 18(1), 4-13.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2007). Self-Regulation, ego depletion, and motivation. *Social and personality psychology compass*, 1(1), 115-128.
- Bechtel, R. B., Corral-Verdugo, V., Asai, M., & Riesle, A. G. (2006). A cross-cultural study of environmental belief structures in USA, Japan, Mexico, and Peru. *International Journal of Psychology*, 41(02), 145-151.
- Berndt, A., Petzer, D. J., & Mostert, P. (2019). Brand avoidance—a services perspective. *European Business Review*.
- Bower, G. H., & Cohen, P. R. (1982). Emotional influences in memory and thinking: Data and theory. *Affect and cognition*, 1.
- Brown, F. (2020, March 26). The companies people are vowing to boycott after the coronavirus crisis is over. Retrieved April 11, 2020, from <https://metro.co.uk/2020/03/26/companies-people-vowing-boycott-coronavirus-pandemic-12460345/>
- Campbell, C., Pitt, L. F., Parent, M., & Berthon, P. (2011). Tracking back-talk in consumer-generated advertising: an analysis of two interpretative approaches. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 51(1), 224-238.
- Campbell, C., & Schau, H. J. (2019). Let's make a "deal": how deal collectives coproduce unintended value from sales promotions. *Journal of Marketing*, 83(6), 43-60.
- Chatzidakis, A., & Lee, M. S. (2013). Anti-consumption as the study of reasons against. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 33(3), 190-203.
- Craig-Lees, M. (2006). Anti-Consumption: concept clarification and changing consumption behavior. Presentation at the International Centre for Anti-Consumption Research (ICAR). In *First Symposium on Anti-Consumption. Auckland: University of Auckland*.
- Cromie, J. G., & Ewing, M. T. (2009). The rejection of brand hegemony. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 218-230.
- David, J. P., Green, P. J., Martin, R., & Suls, J. (1997). Differential roles of neuroticism, extraversion, and event desirability for mood in daily life: an integrative model of top-down and bottom-up influences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(1), 149.

- Dawood, F., & Kashif, M. (2021). My love, I hate you: Rethinking brand jealousy to investigate emotional transition among rural customers. *Strategic Change*, 30(1), 45-52.
- Derryberry, D., & Reed, M. A. (2002). Anxiety-related attentional biases and their regulation by attentional control. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 111(2), 225.
- Diener, E. (2009). Subjective well-being. *The science of well-being*, 11-58.
- Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(2), 276.
- Diener, E., Thapa, S., & Tay, L. (2020). Positive emotions at work. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 7, 451-477.
- Diener, E. D., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1), 71-75.
- Duke, S. O. (2003). Ecophysiological aspects of allelopathy. *Planta*, 217(4), 529-539.
- Eid, M., & Diener, E. (2004). Global judgments of subjective well-being: Situational variability and long-term stability. *Social Indicators Research*, 65(3), 245-277.
- Elliot, A. J., & Church, M. A. (2002). Client articulated avoidance goals in the therapy context. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 49(2), 243.
- Falk, R. F., & Miller, N. B. (1992). *A primer for soft modeling*. University of Akron Press.
- Fedorikhin, A., & Patrick, V. M. (2010). Positive mood and resistance to temptation: The interfering influence of elevated arousal. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(4), 698-711.
- Ferrari, M. C., & Chivers, D. P. (2009). Sophisticated early life lessons: threat-sensitive generalization of predator recognition by embryonic amphibians. *Behavioral Ecology*, 20(6), 1295-1298.
- Ferris, G. R., Bowen, M. G., Treadway, D. C., Hochwarter, W. A., Hall, A. T., & Perrewé, P. L. (2006). The assumed linearity of organizational phenomena: Implications for occupational stress and well-being. In *Employee health, coping and methodologies*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions?. *Review of General Psychology*, 2(3), 300-319.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56(3), 218.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2013). Positive emotions broaden and build. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 47, pp. 1-53). Academic Press.

- Fredrickson, B. L., & Joiner, T. (2002). Positive emotions trigger upward spirals toward emotional well-being. *Psychological Science, 13*(2), 172-175.
- Fredrickson, B.L., & Levenson, R. W. (1998). Positive emotions speed recovery from the cardiovascular sequelae of negative emotions. *Cognition & emotion, 12*(2), 191-220.
- Fredrickson, B. L., Mancuso, R. A., Branigan, C., & Tugade, M. M. (2000). The undoing effect of positive emotions. *Motivation and Emotion, 24*(4), 237-258.
- Fujita, K., Trope, Y., Liberman, N., & Levin-Sagi, M. (2006). Construal levels and self-control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90*(3), 351.
- Garland, E. L., Fredrickson, B., Kring, A. M., Johnson, D. P., Meyer, P. S., & Penn, D. L. (2010). Upward spirals of positive emotions counter downward spirals of negativity: Insights from the broaden-and-build theory and affective neuroscience on the treatment of emotion dysfunctions and deficits in psychopathology. *Clinical Psychology Review, 30*(7), 849-864.
- Gold, A. H., Malhotra, A., & Segars, A. H. (2001). Knowledge management: An organizational capabilities perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems, 18*(1), 185-214.
- Gopaldas, A. (2014). Marketplace sentiments. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*(4), 995-1014.
- Graham, J., Haidt, J., & Nosek, B. A. (2009). Liberals and conservatives rely on different sets of moral foundations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 96*(5), 1029.
- Grégoire, Y., & Fisher, R. J. (2008). Customer betrayal and retaliation: when your best customers become your worst enemies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 36*(2), 247-261.
- Grégoire, Y., Tripp, T. M., & Legoux, R. (2009). When customer love turns into lasting hate: The effects of relationship strength and time on customer revenge and avoidance. *Journal of marketing, 73*(6), 18-32.
- Haase, C. M., Singer, T., Silbereisen, R. K., Heckhausen, J., & Wrosch, C. (2020). Well-being as a resource for goal reengagement: Evidence from two longitudinal studies. *Motivation Science, 7*(1), 21-31
- Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation modeling: Rigorous applications, better results and higher acceptance. *Long Range Planning, 46*(1-2), 1-12
- Halbesleben, J. R., Neveu, J. P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the “COR” understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Management, 40*(5), 1334-1364.
- Haws, K. L., Bearden, W. O., & Nenkov, G. Y. (2012). Consumer spending self-control effectiveness and outcome elaboration prompts. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 40*(5), 695-710.

- Heatherton, T., & Tice, D. M. (1994). *Losing control: How and why people fail at self-regulation*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, Inc.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(1), 115-135.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: a new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513.
- Hoch, S. J., & Loewenstein, G. F. (1991). Time-inconsistent preferences and consumer self-control. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17(4), 492-507.
- Hofmann, W., Rauch, W., & Gawronski, B. (2007). And deplete us not into temptation: Automatic attitudes, dietary restraint, and self-regulatory resources as determinants of eating behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 43(3), 497-504.
- Hogg, M. K., & Banister, E. N. (2001). Dislikes, distastes and the undesired self: conceptualising and exploring the role of the undesired end state in consumer experience. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 17(1-2), 73-104.
- Hogg, M. K., Banister, E. N., & Stephenson, C. A. (2009). Mapping symbolic (anti-) consumption. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 148-159.
- Hori, S., Kondo, K., Nogata, D., & Ben, H. (2013). The determinants of household energy-saving behavior: Survey and comparison in five major Asian cities. *Energy Policy*, 52, 354-362.
- Hutcherson, C. A., & Gross, J. J. (2011). The moral emotions: A social-functional account of anger, disgust, and contempt. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 100(4), 719.
- Ifcher, J., & Zarghamee, H. (2011). Happiness and time preference: The effect of positive affect in a random-assignment experiment. *American Economic Review*, 101(7), 3109-29.
- Isen, A. M., Rosenzweig, A. S., & Young, M. J. (1991). The influence of positive affect on clinical problem solving. *Medical Decision Making*, 11(3), 221-227.
- Iyer, R., & Muncy, J. A. (2009). Purpose and object of anti-consumption. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 160-168.
- Iyer, R., & Muncy, J. A. (2016). Attitude toward consumption and subjective well-being. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 50(1), 48-67.
- Jain, S. (2012). Marketing of vice goods: A strategic analysis of the package size decision. *Marketing Science*, 31(1), 36-51.
- Kahneman, D., Diener, E., & Schwarz, N. (Eds.). (1999). *Well-being: Foundations of hedonic psychology*. Russell Sage Foundation.

- Kavaliauskė, M., & Simanavičiūtė, E. (2015). Brand avoidance: relations between brand-related stimuli and negative emotions. *Organizations and markets in emerging economies*, 6, 44-77.
- Khan, S. I. (2018). Impact of Product Level Factors (Negative Past Experience, Unmet Expectations and Perceived Deception) on Brand Avoidance and the Mediating Role of Brand Hate. *J Account Mark*, 7(306), 2.
- Khan, H., Daryanto, A., & Liu, C. (2019). How anticipated regret influences the effect of economic animosity on consumers' reactions towards a foreign product. *International Business Review*, 28(2), 405-414.
- Khan, M. A., & Lee, M. S. (2014). Prepurchase determinants of brand avoidance: The moderating role of country-of-origin familiarity. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 27(5), 329-343.
- Kleijnen, M., Lee, N., & Wetzels, M. (2009). An exploration of consumer resistance to innovation and its antecedents. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 30(3), 344-357.
- Knittel, Z., Beurer, K., & Berndt, A. (2016). Brand avoidance among Generation Y consumers. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*.
- Kotler, P., & Sarkar, C. (2018). Stand for something: Brand activism at Nike. *The Marketing Journal*, 8.9.
- Kozinets, R. V., & Handelman, J. M. (2004). Adversaries of consumption: Consumer movements, activism, and ideology. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(3), 691-704.
- Kristal, S., Baumgarth, C., & Henseler, J. (2018). "Brand play" versus "Brand attack": the subversion of brand meaning in non-collaborative co-creation by professional artists and consumer activists. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 27(3), 334-347.
- Kucuk, S. U. (2018). Macro-level antecedents of consumer brand hate. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 35(5), 555-564.
- Labrecque, L. I., vor dem Esche, J., Mathwick, C., Novak, T. P., & Hofacker, C. F. (2013). Consumer power: Evolution in the digital age. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 27(4), 257-269.
- Labroo, A. A., & Patrick, V. M. (2009). Psychological distancing: Why happiness helps you see the big picture. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(5), 800-809.
- Lee, M., Roux, D., Cherrier, H., & Cova, B. (2011). Anti-consumption and consumer resistance: concepts, concerns, conflicts and convergence. *European Journal of Marketing*.45(11/12)
- Lee, M. S. W., Motion J., & Conroy D. (2009b). Anti-consumption and brand avoidance. *Journal of Business Research*, 62, 169–180.

- Lee, M. S., Ortega Egea, J. M., & Garcia de Frutos, N. (2020). Anti-consumption beyond boundaries: From niche topic to global phenomena, *Psychology & Marketing*, 37(2), 171-176.
- Lee, M. S., Motion, J., & Conroy, D. (2009a). Anti-consumption and brand avoidance. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 169-180.
- Leith, K. P., & Baumeister, R. F. (1996). Why do bad moods increase self-defeating behavior? Emotion, risk tasking, and self-regulation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(6), 1250.
- Lian, H., Yam, K. C., Ferris, D. L., & Brown, D. (2017). Self-control at work. *Academy of Management Annals*, 11(2), 703-732.
- Loewenstein, G. (1996). Out of control: Visceral influences on behavior. *Organizational behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 65(3), 272-292.
- Luhmann, M., & Hennecke, M. (2017). The motivational consequences of life satisfaction. *Motivation Science*, 3(1), 51.
- Lykken, D. T. (1968). Statistical significance in psychological research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 70(3, Pt.1), 151-159.
- Makri, K., Schlegelmilch, B. B., Mai, R., & Dinhof, K. (2020). What we know about anticonsumption: An attempt to nail jelly to the wall. *Psychology & Marketing*, 37(2), 177-215.
- Martinsson, J., Lundqvist, L. J., & Sundström, A. (2011). Energy saving in Swedish households. The (relative) importance of environmental attitudes. *Energy Policy*, 39(9), 5182-5191.
- Masuda, T., & Nisbett, R. E. (2001). Attending holistically versus analytically: comparing the context sensitivity of Japanese and Americans. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(5), 922.
- Mattison Thompson, F., & Siamagka, N. T. (2021). Counteracting consumer subversion: Organizational privacy ethical care as driver of online information sharing. *Psychology & Marketing*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.21579>
- Mintel News. (2015, November 18). 56% of Americans stop buying from brands they believe are unethical. Mintel. <https://www.mintel.com/press-centre/social-and-lifestyle/56-of-americans-stop-buying-from-brands-they-believe-are-unethical>
- Mishra, A. (2016). Attribute-based design perceptions and consumer-brand relationship: Role of user expertise. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(12), 5983-5992.

- Mooijman, M., Meindl, P., Oyserman, D., Monterosso, J., Dehghani, M., Doris, J. M., & Graham, J. (2018). Resisting temptation for the good of the group: Binding moral values and the moralization of self-control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 115*(3), 585.
- Muncy, J. A., & Iyer, R. (2021). Anti-consumer ethics: What consumers will not do for ethical reasons. *Strategic Change, 30*(1), 59-65.
- Muraven, M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). Self-regulation and depletion of limited resources: Does self-control resemble a muscle?. *Psychological Bulletin, 126*(2), 247.
- Muraven, M., & Shmueli, D. (2006). The self-control costs of fighting the temptation to drink. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 20*(2), 154.
- Muraven, M., Tice, D. M., & Baumeister, R. F. (1998). Self-control as a limited resource: regulatory depletion patterns. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(3), 774.
- Nepomuceno, M. V., & Laroche, M. (2017). When materialists intend to resist consumption: The moderating role of self-control and long-term orientation. *Journal of Business Ethics, 143*(3), 467-483.
- Odoom, R., Kosiba, J. P., Djamgbah, C. T., & Narh, L. (2019). Brand avoidance: underlying protocols and a practical scale. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 28*(5), 586-597
- Oertig, D., Schüler, J., Schnelle, J., Brandstätter, V., Roskes, M., & Elliot, A. J. (2013). Avoidance goal pursuit depletes self-regulatory resources. *Journal of Personality, 81*(4), 365-375.
- Pinto, O., & Brandão, A. (2020). Antecedents and consequences of brand hate: empirical evidence from the telecommunication industry. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics, 30*(1), 18-35
- Pitt, M. A., Myung, I. J., & Zhang, S. (2002). Toward a method of selecting among computational models of cognition. *Psychological Review, 109*(3), 472.
- Plangger, K., & Montecchi, M. (2020). Thinking beyond privacy calculus: Investigating reactions to customer surveillance. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 50*, 32-44.
- Plangger, K., & Watson, R. T. (2015). Balancing customer privacy, secrets, and surveillance: Insights and management. *Business Horizons, 58*(6), 625-633.
- Rezabakhsh, B., Bornemann, D., Hansen, U., & Schrader, U. (2006). Consumer power: a comparison of the old economy and the Internet economy. *Journal of Consumer Policy, 29*(1), 3-36.

- Richetin, J., Perugini, M., Conner, M., Adjali, I., Hurling, R., Sengupta, A., & Greetham, D. (2012). To reduce and not to reduce resource consumption? That is two questions. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 32(2), 112-122.
- Rindell, A., Svensson, G., Mysen, T., & Billström, A. (2014). Satisfaction as a mediator between quality metrics in manufacturer-supplier relationships. *International Journal of Business Excellence*, 7(1), 16-27.
- Robson, K., de Beer, J., & McCarthy, I. P. (2020). Open branding: Managing the unauthorized use of brand-related intellectual property. *Business Horizons*, 63(6), 773-785.
- Rodrigues, C., Brandão, A., & Rodrigues, P. (2020). I can't stop hating you: an anti-brand-community perspective on apple brand hate. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*.
- Romani, S., Grappi, S., & Dall'Aglio, D. (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.
- Roskes, M., Elliot, A. J., & De Dreu, C. K. (2014). Why is avoidance motivation problematic, and what can be done about it?. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 23(2), 133-138.
- Ryan, R. M., & Frederick, C. (1997). On energy, personality, and health: Subjective vitality as a dynamic reflection of well-being. *Journal of Personality*, 65(3), 529-565.
- Sandıkçı, Ö., & Ekici, A. (2009). Politically motivated brand rejection. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 208-217.
- Sarabia-Sánchez, F. J., Rodríguez-Sánchez, C., & Hyder, A. (2014). The role of personal involvement, credibility and efficacy of conduct in reported water conservation behaviour. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 38, 206-216.
- Sarstedt, M., Henseler, J., & Ringle, C. M. (2011). Multigroup analysis in partial least squares (PLS) path modeling: Alternative methods and empirical results. In *Measurement and research methods in international marketing*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Schlauch, R. C., Gwynn-Shapiro, D., Stasiewicz, P. R., Molnar, D. S., & Lang, A. R. (2013). Affect and craving: Positive and negative affect are differentially associated with approach and avoidance inclinations. *Addictive Behaviors*, 38(4), 1970-1979.
- Schmidt, K. H., & Diestel, S. (2015). Self-control demands. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*.
- Schulz, R., & Heckhausen, J. (1996). A life span model of successful aging. *American Psychologist*, 51(7), 702.

- Sekhon, T. S., & Armstrong Soule, C. A. (2020). Conspicuous anticonsumption: When green demarketing brands restore symbolic benefits to anticonsumers. *Psychology & Marketing*, 37(2), 278-290.
- Sharp, V., Giorgi, S., & Wilson, D. C. (2010). Methods to monitor and evaluate household waste prevention. *Waste Management & Research*, 28(3), 269-280.
- Shin, H., Casidy, R., Yoon, A., & Yoon, S. H. (2016). Brand trust and avoidance following brand crisis: A quasi-experiment on the effect of franchisor statements. *Journal of Brand Management*, 23(5), 1-23.
- Simon, H. A. (1955). A behavioral model of rational choice. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 69(1), 99-118.
- Strandvik, T., Rindell, A., & Wilén, K. (2013). Ethical consumers' brand avoidance. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*.
- Sudbury-Riley, L., & Kohlbacher, F. (2018). Moral avoidance for people and planet: anti-consumption drivers. *Management Decision*.
- Tan, T. M., Balaji, M. S., Oikarinen, E. L., Alatalo, S., & Salo, J. (2021). Recover from a service failure: The differential effects of brand betrayal and brand disappointment on an exclusive brand offering. *Journal of Business Research*, 123, 126-139.
- Tangney, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Boone, A. L. (2004). High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. *Journal of Personality*, 72(2), 271-324.
- Thayer, R. E. (1996). *The origin of everyday moods: Managing energy, tension, and stress*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Tice, D. M., Baumeister, R. F., Shmueli, D., & Muraven, M. (2007). Restoring the self: Positive affect helps improve self-regulation following ego depletion. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 43(3), 379-384.
- Truong, Y., & McColl, R. (2011). Intrinsic motivations, self-esteem, and luxury goods consumption. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 18(6), 555-561.
- Tugade, M. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2007). Regulation of positive emotions: Emotion regulation strategies that promote resilience. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 8(3), 311-333.
- Verdugo, V. C. (2012). The positive psychology of sustainability. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 14(5), 651-666.
- Vohs, K. D., & Faber, R. J. (2007). Spent resources: Self-regulatory resource availability affects impulse buying. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33(4), 537-547.

- Vohs, K. D., & Heatherton, T. F. (2000). Self-regulatory failure: A resource-depletion approach. *Psychological Science, 11*(3), 249-254.
- Vosgerau, J., Scopelliti, I., & Huh, Y. E. (2020). Exerting self-control ≠ sacrificing pleasure. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 30*(1), 181-200.
- Wang, W., Wang, S., Ma, X., & Gong, J. (2011). Recent advances in catalytic hydrogenation of carbon dioxide. *Chemical Society Reviews, 40*(7), 3703-3727.
- Webb, D. J., Mohr, L. A., & Harris, K. E. (2008). A re-examination of socially responsible consumption and its measurement. *Journal of Business Research, 61*(2), 91-98.
- Wenzel, M., Kubiak, T., & Conner, T. S. (2014). Positive affect and self-control: Attention to self-control demands mediates the influence of positive affect on consecutive self-control. *Cognition & Emotion, 28*(4), 747-755.
- Wilson, M., Robson, K., & Pitt, L. (2021). Consumer subversion and its relationship to anti-consumption, deviant and dysfunctional behaviors, and consumer revenge. *Psychology & Marketing*. DOI: 10.1002/mar.21583
- Zavestoski, S. (2002). The social-psychological bases of anticonsumption attitudes. *Psychology & Marketing, 19*(2), 149-165.
- Zhong, J. Y., & Mitchell, V. W. (2012). Does consumer well-being affect hedonic consumption?. *Psychology & Marketing, 29*(8), 583-594.

Tables

Table 1
Measurement of Study Constructs

Constructs (dimensions)	No of scale items					
	Original	Final	α	C.R	AVE	Item Loading
Brand Avoidance	4	3	0.894	0.934	0.825	0.891, 0.914, 0.920
Subjective well-being	5	5	0.847	0.887	0.614	0.834,0.842, 0.866,0.755,0.587

Table 2
Correlations among Variables

Fornell–Larcker Criterion	1	2
Brand Avoidance	0.908	
Subjective well-being	0.267	0.784

Table 3
Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta	SE	T Statistics	P Values	Decision
H1	Subjective well-being ->	0.267	0.058	4.564	0	Supported

Table 4
Measurement of Study Constructs

Constructs (dimensions)	No of scale items					
	Original	Final	α	C.R	AVE	Item Loading
Brand Avoidance	5	5	0.828	0.879	0.592	0.816,0.781,0.789,0.744, 0.715
Self-control	4	4	0.779	0.858	0.601	0.796, 0.773, 0.738, 0.739
Subjective well-being	5	5	0.869	0.905	0.657	0.851,0.831,0.825,0.809,0.731

Table 5
Correlations among Variables

Fornell–Larcker Criterion	1	2	3
Brand Avoidance	0.770		
Self-control	0.601	0.775	
Subjective well-being	0.554	0.604	0.811

Table 6
Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta	SE	T Statistics	P Values	Decision
------------	--------------	------	----	--------------	----------	----------

H1	Subjective well-being -> Brand avoidance	0.328	0.083	3.964	0	Supported
H2	Subjective well-being -> Self-control	0.599	0.055	10.947	0	Supported
H3	Mediating effect subjective well-being -> Self-control -> Brand avoidance	0.229	0.063	3.652	0	Supported

Table 7
Measurement of Study Constructs

Constructs (dimensions)	No of scale items					
	Original	Final	α	C.R	AVE	Item Loading
Brand Avoidance	5	5	0.828	0.879	0.593	0.812, 0.806, 0.883
Self-control	4	4	0.779	0.858	0.601	0.824, 0.757, 0.851, 0.848 0.856, 0.779
Subjective well-being	5	5	0.869	0.905	0.657	0.888, 0.890, 0.855
Macro anti-consumption attitude	4	3	0.806	0.873	0.632	0.928, 0.924
Micro anti-consumption attitude	5	5	0.817	0.873	0.579	0.91, 0.918

Table 8
Correlations among Variables

Fornell–Larcker Criterion	1	2	3	4	5	
Brand Avoidance		0.770				
Macro anti-consumption attitude		0.711	0.795			
Micro anti-consumption attitude		0.728	0.785	0.761		
Self-control		0.600	0.617	0.676	0.775	
Subjective well-being		0.553	0.564	0.604	0.604	0.811

Table 9
Hypothesis Testing: Direct and mediating effects

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta	SE	T Statistics	P Values	Decision
H1	Subjective well-being -> Brand avoidance	0.221	0.102	2.166	0.031	Supported
H2	Subjective well-being -> Self-control	0.532	0.059	9.016	0.000	Supported
H3	Mediating effect subjective well-being -> Self-control -> Brand avoidance	0.163	0.051	3.223	0.001	Supported

Table 10
Hypothesis Testing: Moderating effect (Macro Anti-consumption Attitude)

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta	SE	T Statistics	P Values	Decision
H4	Macro Anti-consumption Attitude	0.107	0.052	2.071	0.039	Supported

Table 11**Hypothesis Testing: Moderating effect (Micro Anti-consumption Attitude)**

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta	SE	T Statistics	P Values	Decision
H5	Micro Anti-consumption Attitude	0.092	0.061	1.503	0.133	Not Supported

Figures

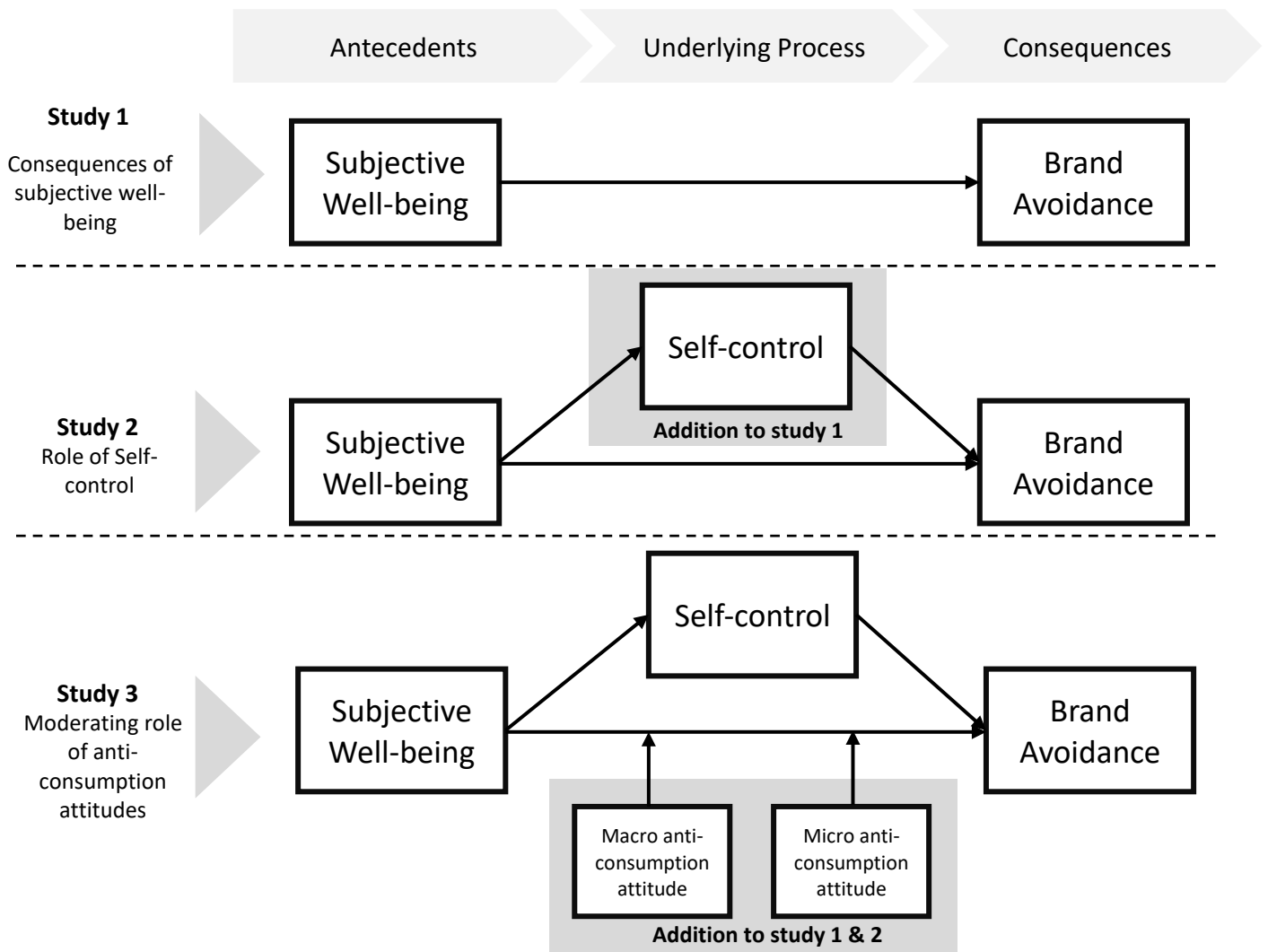


Figure 1
Overview of the studies

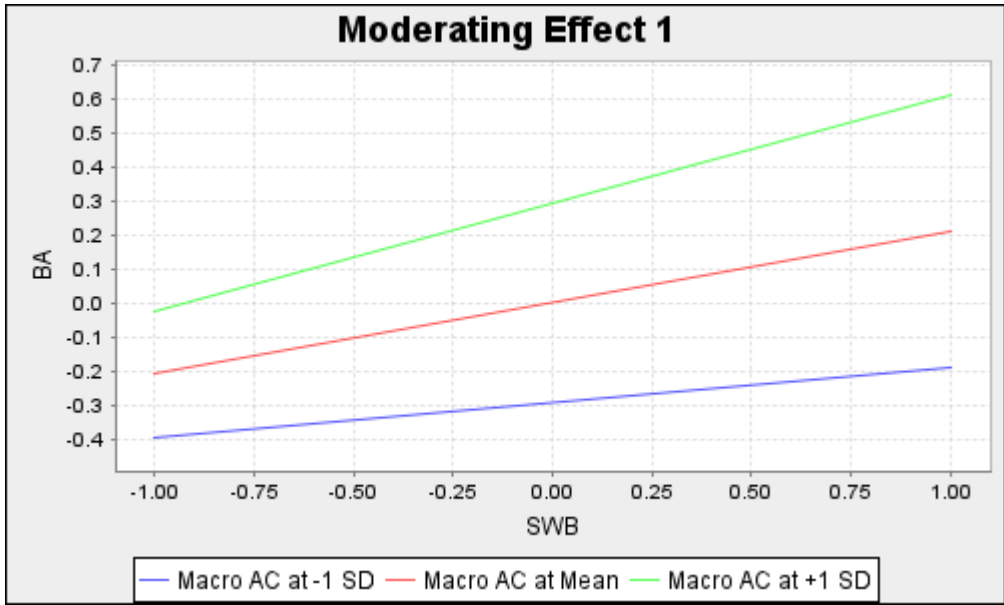


Figure 2
Moderating effect (Macro Anti-consumption Attitude)

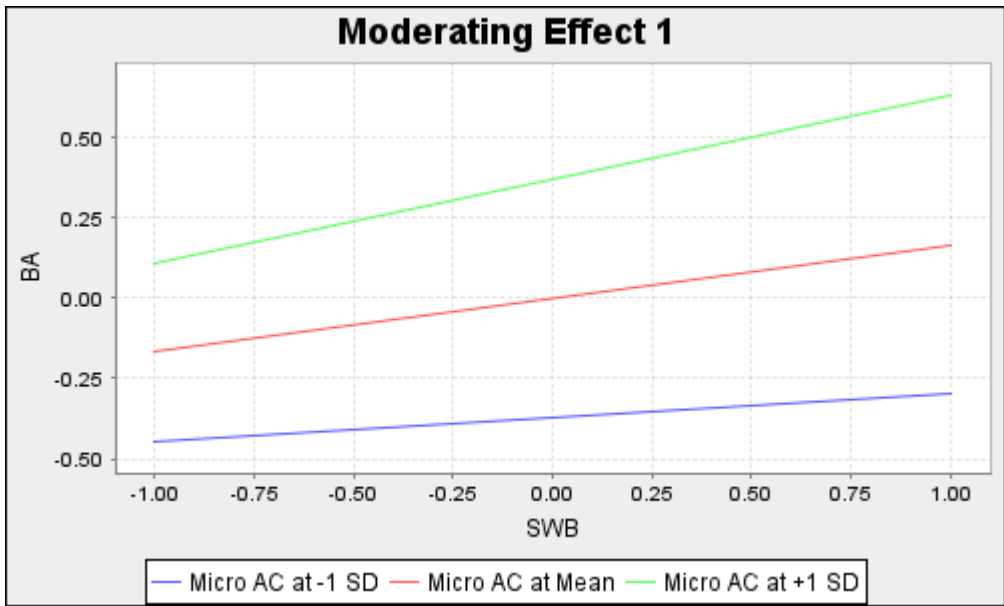


Figure 3
Moderating effect (Micro Anti-consumption Attitude)