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From Intention to Action: How Boycott Motivation Influences Consumer Behavior toward Israel-Affiliated Brands

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Abstract

Background: The dynamics of global politics can profoundly impact international trade. The Israel-Palestine conflict has sparked renewed interest, prompting global criticism of Israel's human rights violations. The conflict has also sparked a boycott campaign in Indonesia.

Purpose: This study examines the effects of motivations for boycotting, classified by trigger, promoters, and inhibitors, on boycott intentions and their impact on boycott behavior.

Method: The study employs a quantitative research design and uses a purposive sample of 185 participants. Data were collected through a survey that distributed questionnaires to respondents. The data analysis employed descriptive statistics and Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM).

Findings: The findings indicate a positive influence of subjective norms, self-enhancement, and perceived behavioral control on boycott intention. Counter-arguments demonstrate an adverse effect. Neither animosity nor brand image affects boycott intention. Firm boycott intention significantly impacts behavior.

Conclusions: The study reveals that the primary factor affecting an individual's intention to boycott is the ability to carry it out. Moreover, individuals who feel that boycotting can elevate their self-esteem are more inclined to participate.

Research implication: Companies should communicate more proactively. They should explain their stance on politics and issues without contradicting their values. Having clear ethics and empathy can help maintain consumer trust during boycotts.

Keywords: animosity, boycott behavior, counter-argument, Israel-affiliated brands boycott, perceived behavioral control

JEL Classification: M21, M31, M37



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PUBLIC INTEREST STATEMENT

The global boycott of brands affiliated with Israel is considered a widespread consumer reaction to corporate actions perceived as conflicting with personal or collective values. In Indonesia, this phenomenon has resulted in a statistically significant decline in sales for numerous brands. However, the commitment to boycott movements exhibits variability among consumers. Some participate for brief periods, while others demonstrate a longer-term dedication. This study explores the underlying promoters and inhibitors that influence such behavior, highlighting the role of intrinsic factors such as perceived behavioral control and self-enhancement. The findings offer valuable insights for businesses, advocacy groups, and policymakers seeking to understand consumer activism and develop informed strategies to navigate or respond to boycott movements.



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1. Introduction

Recent geopolitical developments have exerted considerable influence on the global trade sector and consumer behavior. The conflict between Israel and Palestine, for instance, has drawn censure from across the international community due to Israel's perceived violations of human rights. Following an escalation in hostilities, Israel launched an aerial bombardment of Rafah on May 26, 2024, killing 45 individuals (Revo, 2024). The 'All Eyes on Rafah' campaign was widely circulated on social media (Hardiantoro & Afifah, 2024). Simultaneously, there was significant support for the Boycott, Divestment, and Sanctions (BDS) movement, accompanied by a notable surge in calls for action on social media. Initiated in 2005, the BDS movement is a global campaign spearheaded by Palestinians, focused on advocating for the human rights of individuals in Palestine (BDS, 2024). This movement has generated considerable resistance and support from various parties, including non-governmental organizations, companies, consumers, students, universities, and the public (Cooper & Herman, 2020). The BDS campaign could exert pressure on entities profiting from the Israel-Palestine conflict. The Israeli government, along with the Rand Corporation, has projected that the annual economic burden of the BDS movement will reach \$6 billion (Awad, 2021).

A boycott allows consumers to express their discontent with a company's unethical behavior, thereby posing a significant threat to the industry that is subject to the boycott (Delistavrou et al., 2020; Braunsberger & Buckler, 2011). The threat faced by a boycotted company is a decline in sales and profits (Cossío-Silva et al., 2019). The efficacy of the boycott is determined by the extent of the decline in sales of the product targeted by the boycott (Abdul-Talib & Mohd Adnan, 2017). Therefore, the larger the number of participants supporting the boycott, the greater the impact. Massive BDS campaigns can effectively counter key global BDS targets, including AXA, Pillsbury Company, and G4S (Barghouti, 2021). The occurrence of such a significant consumer boycott can be explained by the TPB proposed by Ajzen (1991). Delistavrou (2022) concluded that TPB can explain 67% of the variance in consumer intentions regarding participation in boycotts.

However, the consistency of participation in the boycott varies and is influenced by several factors (Ishak et al., 2018). Some individuals engage in boycotts for a short period, and others consistently participate in such actions over a long period. Therefore, mapping individual boycott motivations based on triggers, promoters, and inhibitors is important for examining the motivations that can trigger boycott actions, encourage individuals to continue boycotting, and identify factors that can discourage individuals' intention to participate in boycotts (Lasarov et al., 2023).

Several prior studies have examined the influence of various consumer motivations on boycott intentions in different contexts (Bravo & Chapa, 2024; Delistavrou et al., 2020; Hino, 2023; Hino & Nebenzahl, 2021; Hong & Li, 2020; Jae & Jeon, 2016). However, these studies do not examine the actual behavior of consumers who intend to boycott. Consequently, it is imperative to assess the actual behavior of consumers in boycotts (Yan et al., 2024). This study aims to examine the effects of boycott motivation, classified by trigger (animosity), promoters (subjective norms, self-enhancement, and perceived behavioral control), and inhibitors (counter-argument and brand image) on boycott intentions and their impact on boycott behavior.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

This research adopts the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) to evaluate an individual's intention to support a boycott. The TPB is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (TRA) and can predict a person's behavioral intention (Ajzen, 1991). Intention is considered to be a factor that motivates individuals to act. A strong intention in an individual results in particular behaviors (Ajzen, 2020). Subsequently, this intention is tested to determine its influence on boycott behavior. A substantial body of research has previously examined the TPB in various contexts, including boycotts. In a boycott, an individual's intention was significantly predicted by attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Asnawi et al., 2019; Delistavrou, 2022; Kim et al., 2023).

A promoter is the motivation that drives an individual to participate in a boycott movement (Lasarov et al., 2023). Subjective norms refer to individual perceptions of public opinion and social pressure that influence whether or not someone participates in a boycott (Kim et al., 2023). Subjective norms are beliefs that influence behavior based on reference groups and society's standards (Hino, 2023). Perceived behavioral control (PCB) is an individual's belief regarding their ability to control their behavior (Kim et al., 2023). Perceived behavioral control measures a person's ability to behave (Ajzen, 2002, 2020).

2.2 Animosity

Certain triggering events can serve as catalysts for boycott participation (Klein et al., 2004). Consumers' unfavorable perceptions of a company's conduct can act as a catalyst for such participation (Hoffmann & Müller, 2009). This research views animosity as a trigger of boycott intentions, with animosity denoting negative sentiments towards a nation arising from past occurrences influenced by military, economic, or political variables that exert an influence on consumer purchasing behaviors (Lee et al., 2021; Zdravkovic et al., 2021; Roswinanto & Suwanda, 2023). Consumer animosity towards brands can result in various consequences, including switching brands or making public or private complaints.

2.3 Self-enhancement

Within the framework of boycott engagement, self-enhancement signifies the belief that participation in a boycott contributes to an individual's self-esteem by affirming their moral integrity (Muhamad et al., 2019). Self-enhancement is the benefit experienced by an individual who engages in a boycott, including an elevated sense of self-esteem and a favorable perception of others (Ali, 2021). Participation in a boycott can increase self-esteem and avoid negative consequences that can reduce image and self-esteem, such as guilt and public condemnation (Abdul-Talib et al., 2016).

2.4 Counter-argument

As Lasarov et al. (2023) posit, inhibitors are factors that can prevent individuals from participating in a boycott. Alongside the benefits participants gain, there are costs or prices to be paid (Klein et al., 2004). Consumers who do not engage in such boycotts argue that such actions can result in adverse consequences. According to Sen et al. (2001), a consumer boycott can be regarded as a social dilemma, in the sense that participation in such a boycott is likely to entail adverse consequences or increased costs.

According to social dilemma theory, an individual must decide whether to contribute to a costly system, which can entail indirect costs if they participate in a boycott (Lindenmeier et al., 2012).

2.5 Brand Image

A brand is an offering from a familiar source. Companies build a brand image through strong associations (Kotler & Keller, 2016). Brand image is customers' beliefs, perceptions, feelings, impressions, and attitudes toward a brand that have an impact on their product choice decisions (Song et al., 2019). Brand image is a brand's schematic memory that distinguishes it from competitors (Mothersbaugh et al., 2020). Indicators to measure brand image are functional image, affective image, and reputation image (Ansary & Nik Hashim, 2018).

2.6 Boycott

A boycott is a form of consumer protest where customers stop buying from a company because of its perceived violations of moral or ethical standards (Shim et al., 2021). A boycott is a way for consumers to stop buying products from hostile nations to achieve specific objectives (Xie et al., 2023). Participation in consumer boycotts can be explained by the perception among consumers that a brand does not uphold human rights or adhere to ethical business practices (Kalliny et al., 2018). Boycotts can be defined as voluntary acts of solidarity intended to demonstrate opposition to acts that violate human rights (Ishak et al., 2018). A boycott is characterized by intention, desire, and decision (Salma & Aji, 2023). The characteristics of boycott intention comprise the intention to boycott a brand, the decision not to purchase from that brand, and the recommendation to others to refrain from doing so (Cossío-Silva et al., 2019). Boycott behavior is characterized by the refusal to purchase the brand, and consumers instead select an alternative that is not subject to the same boycott (Palacios-Florenco et al., 2021).

2.7 Relationship between Animosity and Boycott Intention

As previous studies have demonstrated, animosity correlates with a stronger tendency to boycott and a lower interest in buying goods or services (Salma & Aji, 2023; Kim et al., 2023; Verma, 2022; Wang et al., 2021). People are reluctant to buy products from a country perceived as having a high degree of animosity (Siahaan et al., 2021). A study of Malaysian consumers found that their animosity towards Israel led to a reluctance to purchase goods associated with Israel (Abdul-Talib & Mohd Adnan, 2017). Kurdish consumers are boycotting Turkish products because of their high level of animosity towards Turkey (Ali, 2021). In the Ukraine-Russia conflict, Europeans have boycotted Russian brands due to animosity (Akhtar et al., 2024).

H1: Animosity positively affects boycott intention

2.8 Relationship between Subjective Norms and Boycott Intention

Reference groups that frequently engage with consumers play an important role in shaping individuals' consumption behavior, as they provide information about products (Hartatin & Simanjuntak, 2016; Retnaningsih & Junedi, 2024). Peer pressure is a crucial influence on an individual's behavior, particularly among young consumers who seek acceptance within their group and prioritize gaining group approval (Sari & Games, 2024). The decision to boycott is influenced by prominent individuals within the individual's social circle who also support the boycott (Hamzah & Mustafa, 2019). Research by Delistavrou (2022) concluded that subjective norms represent the primary influence on

the decision to engage in a boycott. Malaysian Muslim consumers' intentions to boycott US food brands due to conformity with religious groups are driven by social pressure (Muhamad et al., 2019).

H2: Subjective norms positively affect boycott intention

2.9 Relationship between Self-Enhancement and Boycott Intention

In this research context, if someone purchases a product associated with Israel and feels that it contradicts their values, they experience cognitive dissonance. They may stop the purchase or change their belief by using counterarguments to eliminate the dissonance. Nguyen et al. (2018) categorized self-enhancement as a non-instrumental motivation that influences ecological boycotts. Individuals experience cognitive dissonance when they feel conflicted about two opposing thoughts (Wang et al., 2021). Consumers may experience a sense of cognitive dissonance, questioning their moral principles, particularly when consuming products from brands that have been subject to a boycott (Jedicke et al., 2025). Consequently, individuals experiencing cognitive dissonance will undertake efforts to mitigate this discomfort. According to Muhamad et al. (2019), the characteristics of self-enhancement include feelings of guilt, feelings of discomfort, and an improved sense of self-worth.

H3: Self-enhancement positively affects boycott intention

2.10 Relationship between Perceived Behavioral Control and Boycott Intention

Xu et al. (2022) suggest that an individual's belief in their abilities significantly influences their likelihood of taking specific actions, thereby enhancing self-confidence and motivation. This belief affects the probability of a behavior occurring, contingent upon factors such as the availability of resources, including time and money (Ajzen, 2020). The concept of perceived behavioral control measures an individual's capacity to behave in a certain manner, specifically the extent to which they can exercise control over their behavior (Ajzen, 2020). Perceived behavioral control is a key factor in the decision of international Muslim students to boycott international products that support LGBT (Asnawi et al., 2019). Research by Kim et al. (2023) also found that South Korean consumers' perceived behavioral control directly increases their boycott intention towards Japanese companies.

H4: Perceived behavioral control positively affects boycott intention

2.11 Relationship between Counter-argument and Boycott Intention

A counterargument posits that boycott participation is unnecessary, as it is ineffective and can unintentionally harm others. Consequently, individuals tend not to participate in boycotts (Ali, 2021). A person who thinks a boycott will have a negative impact or feels that it will not affect anything is less likely to participate in a boycott (Klein et al., 2004). In some previous studies, counter-arguments have been found to contribute to the reduction of boycott intentions (Jae & Jeon, 2016; Salma & Aji, 2023).

H5: Counter-argument negatively affects boycott intention

2.12 Relationship between Brand Image and Boycott Intention

When consumers perceive a brand's image as positive, it builds trust in the brand and influences purchase intentions (Kim & Chao, 2019). Greater levels of consumer trust are associated with a reduced likelihood of involvement in boycotts (Hoffmann & Müller, 2009). A strong brand image can diminish an individual's intention to engage in a boycott (Lasarov et al., 2023). A positive brand can help reduce the intention of Muslim consumers in Indonesia to boycott France based on their animosity towards the country (Salma & Aji, 2023).

H6: Brand image negatively affects boycott intention

2.13 Relationship between Boycott Intention and Boycott Behavior

According to the TPB, behavioral intentions can be predicted by factors within this theoretical framework, such that a strong intention increases the likelihood of the behavior being performed (Ajzen, 1991). An individual who intends to engage in a boycott against brands associated with Israel does not necessarily engage in a boycott (Palacios-Florenco et al., 2021). This study examined actual boycott behavior, defined as the avoidance and cessation of purchases of Israeli-affiliated brands. As demonstrated in earlier studies, a noticeable relationship exists between the intention to engage in a boycott and the corresponding actions taken.

Research outcomes indicate that an individual's desire to engage in a boycott plays a crucial role in determining their real participation in the boycott (Cossio-Silva et al., 2019). Boycott behavior can therefore be defined as an action undertaken by consumers based on the moral standards they have personally adopted (Bravo & Chapa, 2024). In the context of a collective action, such as a boycott, consumers are expected to refrain from purchasing the products of the targeted entity (Hino & Nebenzahl, 2021). Individual efforts to avoid buying boycotted products aim to achieve specific goals (Verma, 2022).

H7: Boycott intention positively affects boycott behavior

3. Conceptual Framework

Considering the empirical research discussed earlier, it is hypothesized that animosity serves as a trigger, while subjective norms, self-enhancement, and perceived behavioral control function as promoters. Meanwhile, counterarguments and brand image are identified as inhibitors that affect boycott intention. This study examines the relationship between boycott intention and various factors that influence individuals' intentions to participate in boycotts and their actual boycott behaviors. The conceptual framework that guides this research is outlined in Figure 1.

The hypotheses proposed in this study are as follows:

- H1: Animosity positively affects boycott intention
- H2: Subjective norms positively affect boycott intention
- H3: Self-enhancement positively affects boycott intention
- H4: Perceived behavioral control positively affects boycott intention
- H5: Counter-argument negatively affects boycott intention
- H6: Brand image negatively affects boycott intention
- H7: Boycott intention positively affects boycott behavior

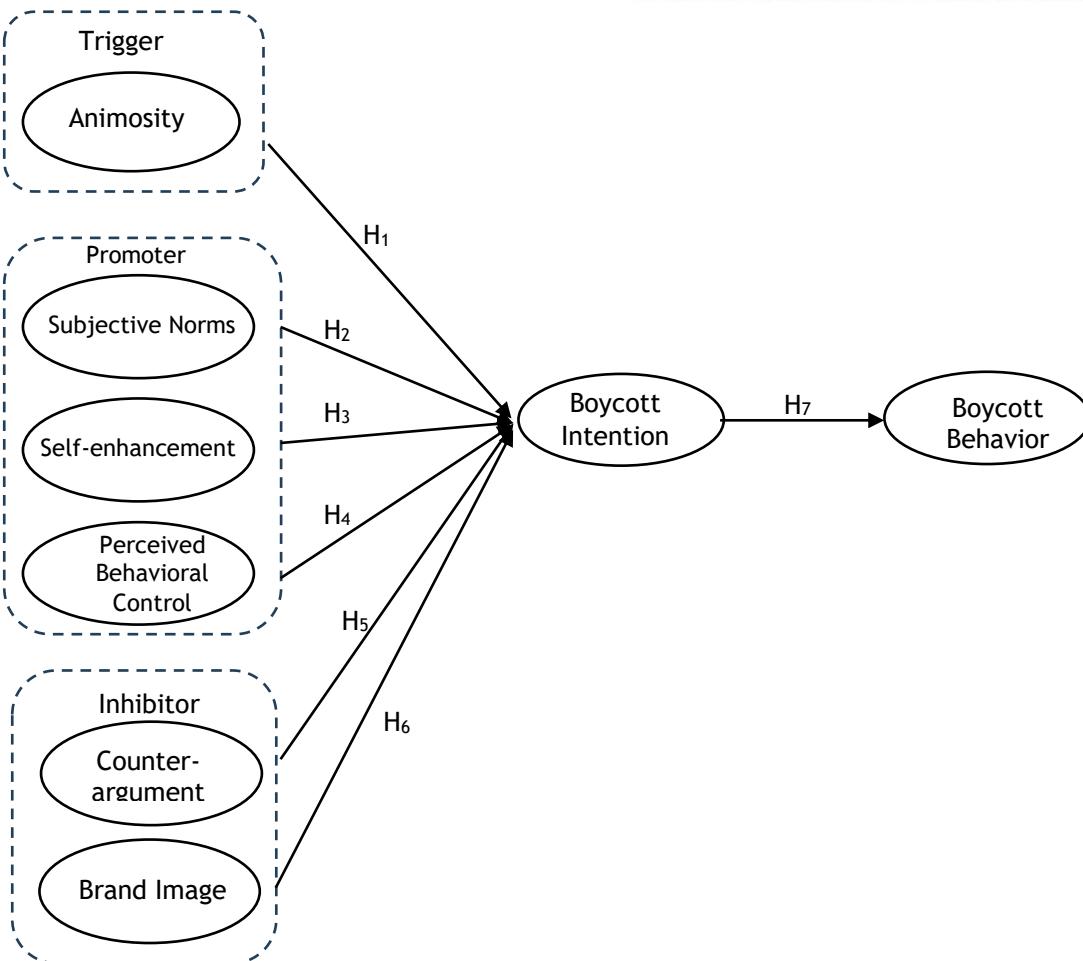


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of factors influencing boycott intention, which in turn affects boycott behavior

4. Methods

4.1 Research Design

The study employed a quantitative research design to examine the ongoing boycotts against brands affiliated with Israel. Primary data were obtained from an online survey administered to respondents. The study investigates the brands that BDS Indonesia has advocated for a boycott via social media, including HP, Intel, AXA, Disney, McDonald's, Burger King, Pizza Hut, Domino's Pizza, and Puma, which are affiliated with Israel and have been called for a boycott. However, the list of boycotted brands is not exclusively limited to those listed by BDS Indonesia. Some brands are also subject to consumer boycotts over organic issues.

4.2 Sampling

The study used a survey method, distributing online questionnaires via various social media platforms. Respondents were selected using purposive sampling techniques to collect specific information. Therefore, only eligible respondents completed the questionnaire. The researcher established three criteria for inclusion in the study: participants must be at least 17 years old, residents of Indonesia, and must be aware of, have purchased, and consumed boycott-affiliated brands. The minimum sample size, as determined by Hair et al. (2022), was established at 155, based on a significance level of 5% and a minimum path coefficient of 0.2. In this research, a total of 185 respondents met the sample criteria.

4.3 Measurement

The questionnaire is organized into five sections. The first section describes the study's objectives. The subsequent sections include filtration questions. The third section gathers information about the respondents' demographics. The fourth and fifth sections address the research variables and provide a concluding remark. The survey collected information regarding demographics, brands from which respondents had purchased products, duration of consumption, duration of the boycott, and reasons for the boycott. In the fourth section, the present study develops the operationalization of the variables. The measurement scale employs a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

The operationalization of the animosity variable is adopted from Abdul-Talib and Mohd Adnan (2017), Verma (2022), specifically adjusted to address the context of boycotting brands related to Israel. Five items measuring subjective norms were adopted from Xu et al. (2022). To assess the self-enhancement variable, a set of three items from Muhamad et al. (2019) was employed. The perceived behavioral control variable consists of five items adopted from Xu et al. (2022), measuring self-efficacy and perceived controllability in boycotting. Four items from Abdul-Talib et al. (2016) and Salma and Aji (2023) were used to measure the counter-argument variable regarding boycott intention. Six items from Ansary and Nik Hashim (2018) were used to measure the brand image of Israel-affiliated brands. To evaluate boycott intention, three items were drawn from the studies conducted by Cossío-Silva et al. (2019), Hong and Li (2020), and Palacios-Florenco et al. (2021). Then, three items to measure boycott intention and three items to measure boycott behavior from Cossío-Silva et al. (2019) and Palacios-Florenco et al. (2021) were used. An individual is considered to have engaged in a boycott if they deliberately abstain from purchasing products from boycotted brands and instead opt for alternative products that have not been subject to the same boycott.

Table 1. Operational definition and indicators of boycott intention determinant factors, and boycott behavior

Variables	Operational Definition	Indicators	Sources
Animosity	A negative emotional response by consumers toward Israel	1) I feel angry towards Israel (AN1) 2) I dislike Israel (AN2) 3) We should not forget what Israel has done to Palestine (AN3) 4) I feel that Israel does not care what other countries think (AN4) 5) Israel must pay for what they have done (AN5)	Abdul-Talib & Mohd Adnan (2017) and Verma (2022)
Subjective Norms	Social pressures experienced by individuals that influence their decision to engage in a boycott of brands associated with Israel	1) Most people in my social network want me to boycott brands affiliated with Israel (SN1) 2) People around me will approve if I boycott brands affiliated with Israel (SN2) 3) People around me think I should boycott brands affiliated with Israel (SN3)	Xu et al. (2022)

Table 1. Operational definition and indicators of boycott intention determinant factors, and boycott behavior (Continue)

Variables	Operational Definition	Indicators	Sources
Subjective Norms	Social pressures experienced by individuals that influence their decision to engage in a boycott of brands associated with Israel	4) Most of my family boycotts brands affiliated with Israel (SN4) 5) Most of my friends boycott brands affiliated with Israel (SN5)	Xu et al. (2022)
Self-enhancement	Intrinsic motivation for individuals to boycott Israeli-affiliated product brands, to create a favorable social image of themselves	1) I will feel guilty if I buy brands affiliated with Israel (SE1) 2) I will feel better about myself when I buy other brands that are not affiliated with Israel (SE2) 3) I feel uncomfortable when others see me buying brands affiliated with Israel (SE3)	Muhamad et al. (2019)
Perceived Behavioral Control	An individual's beliefs about their capacity to manage their behavior. It affects whether people decide to boycott brands associated with Israel.	1) I feel confident in boycotting brands affiliated with Israel (PBC1) 2) I can overcome the challenges preventing me from boycotting brands affiliated with Israel (PBC2) 3) I believe that I can boycott brands affiliated with Israel (PBC3) 4) I have sufficient control over boycotting Israel-affiliated and unaffiliated brands (PBC4)	Xu et al. (2022)
Counter-argument	A view opposing the boycott of products linked to Israel because it's seen as harmful and ineffective	1) I don't want to participate in the boycott because it may lead to mass layoffs (CA1) 2) I don't want to take part in a boycott because other people have already taken part in a boycott (CA2) 3) I don't want to participate in the boycott because it's useless (CA3) 4) I don't need to participate in the boycott because I rarely buy brands affiliated with Israel (CA4)	Abdul-Talib et al. (2016) and Salma & Aji (2023)

Table 1. Operational definition and indicators of boycott intention determinant factors, and boycott behavior (Continue)

Variables	Operational Definition	Indicators	Sources
Brand Image	The consumer's perception of the uniqueness of the brand associated with Israel, which distinguishes it from its competitors	1) Brands affiliated with Israel are of high quality (BI1) 2) Israel-affiliated brands have better characteristics than competing brands (BI2) 3) Israel-affiliated brands have a personality that distinguishes them from competing brands (BI3) 4) Israel-affiliated brands will not disappoint customers (BI4) 5) Israeli-affiliated brands are some of the best brands in their sector (BI5) 6) Israel-affiliated brands are stable in the marketplace (BI6)	Ansary & Nik Hashim (2018)
Boycott Intention	A personal decision to stop purchasing products from brands affiliated with Israel to show disapproval of the company's actions	1) I will boycott brands associated with Israel (BIN1) 2) I won't buy brands affiliated with Israel (BIN2) 3) I will recommend my acquaintances not to buy brands affiliated with Israel (BIN3)	Cossío-Silva et al. (2019) and Palacios-Florenco et al. (2021)
Boycott Behavior	The actual act of an individual's decision to participate in a boycott of product brands affiliated with Israel	1) I have stopped buying products from brands affiliated with Israel (BB1) 2) I don't look at whether a brand is associated with Israel, but I don't buy products from brands that are affiliated with Israel (BB2) 3) I prefer to buy products from alternative brands (BB3)	Cossío-Silva et al. (2019) and Palacios-Florenco et al. (2021)

4.4 Data Collection

The data collection was conducted using a questionnaire distributed via Google Forms to consumers aged 17 who lived in Indonesia and had knowledge of, purchased, and consumed products associated with Israel. The data collection spanned 25 days. The dissemination of the questionnaire was facilitated through various social media platforms, such as Instagram, X, LinkedIn, WhatsApp, Line, and Telegram. However, the majority of responses came from Java and Madura, reflecting higher response rates in these regions. The researcher received 265 responses to the questionnaire, but only 185 were suitable for processing.

4.5 Data Analysis

This study employs descriptive statistics in SPSS version 25 and Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) in SmartPLS version 3 for data analysis. The descriptive statistics used in this study are frequency and average. The PLS-SEM data analysis procedure uses two models: the measurement and structural models. The measurement model tests its validity and reliability (Hair et al., 2022). This study uses reflective measurement, which has four criteria to ensure the validity and reliability of the model: indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Structural model testing assesses the relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent variables. The model is tested for collinearity issues, path coefficients, explanatory power, and predictive power.

5. Findings

5.1 Respondent Profile

The 185 respondents in this study comprise 60% females and 40% males. The majority of the respondents are from Java and Madura Island (95.14%). Although the survey reached various areas within Indonesia, the response rate was significantly higher in Java and Madura. Therefore, the results are primarily informed by consumers from those two islands. To verify brand affiliation, the study includes a question on product use. Respondents could select product brands identified by the Boycott, Divestment, Sanctions (BDS) Movement Indonesia, which calls for boycotting these brands to ensure source credibility. Additionally, respondents could write in other boycotted brands (Table 2).

Table 2. Respondents' characteristics

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	74	40.0
Female	111	60.0
Residence		
Java & Madura	176	95.14
Sumatra & Riau Island	3	1.62
Bali & Nusa Tenggara	1	0.54
Kalimantan	2	1.08
Sulawesi	2	1.08
Maluku	1	0.54
Level of studies		
Diploma III (D3)	1	0.54
Diploma IV (D4)	5	2.70
Bachelor	173	93.51
Master	6	3.24
Age (yo)		
18 - 21	139	75.13
22 - 30	46	24.87
Brands of products purchased and consumed (respondents can select more than one brand)		
McDonald's	149	22.31
Pizza Hut	116	17.37
Burger King	82	12.28
Domino's Pizza	76	11.38

Table 2. Respondents' characteristics (Continue)

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Brands of products purchased and consumed (respondents can select more than one brand)		
Disney	75	11.23
Intel	62	9.28
PUMA	34	5.09
HP	32	4.79
Unilever	10	1.50
KFC	5	0.75
Coca Cola	3	0.45
Nestle	3	0.45
Starbuck	2	0.30
AXA	1	0.15
Others	18	2.69
Duration of product consumption		
≤ 1 year 9 months	71	38.38
1 year 9 months - 3 years 6 months	50	27.03
3 years 6 months - 5 years 3 months	31	16.76
≥ 5 years 3 months	33	17.83
Duration of the boycott		
≤ 1 year	94	50.81
> 1 year	16	8.65
Since there have been calls for boycotts, including the BDS Movement	29	15.68
Since the news of Israel's attack heated up again	32	17.30
Since discovering that the brand supports Israel	6	3.24
Since being forbidden by the family	1	0.54
Have boycotted but have stopped	4	2.16
Not boycotting	3	1.62

5.2 Measurement Model

All indicators were found to be reliable based on the indicator reliability test. Table 3 shows that 30 indicators had an outer loading value greater than 0.708, while 3 had values below this threshold. Despite their lower loadings, these three indicators were retained because Hair et al. (2022) state that outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 can be considered for either deletion or retention. Internal consistency and convergent validity also support the retention of these indicators. According to Hair and Alamer (2022), outer loading values in the range of 0.40 to 0.70 are acceptable. All composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha values are deemed acceptable, as evidenced by the test results, which show that all exceed 0.70 and do not exceed 0.95. As a result, the variables used in this research are considered reliable. The convergent validity test showed that all Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values for each variable exceed the recommended threshold of 0.50, indicating that all variables in this study are valid.

Table 3. Validity and reliability measurement result

Variable	Outer Loadings	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
Animosity				
AN1	0.842			
AN2	0.703	0.636	0.855	0.896
AN3	0.697			
AN4	0.843			

Table 3. Validity and reliability measurement result (Continue)

Variable	Outer Loadings	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
Animosity				
AN5	0.884	0.636	0.855	
Subjective Norms				
SN1	0.809			
SN2	0.824			
SN3	0.824	0.621	0.847	0.891
SN4	0.738			
SN5	0.741			
Self-enhancement				
SE1	0.903			
SE2	0.885	0.740	0.823	0.895
SE3	0.788			
Perceived Behavioral Control				
PBC1	0.898			
PBC2	0.893			
PBC3	0.889	0.739	0.881	0.918
PBC4	0.750			
Counter-argument				
CA1	0.806			
CA2	0.885			
CA3	0.880	0.664	0.827	0.887
CA4	0.670			
Brand Image				
BI1	0.844			
BI2	0.841			
BI3	0.723	0.592	0.877	0.896
BI4	0.841			
BI5	0.710			
BI6	0.631			
Boycott Intention				
BIN1	0.920			
BIN2	0.903	0.814	0.886	0.929
BIN3	0.884			
Boycott Behavior				
BB1	0.871			
BB2	0.751	0.694	0.779	0.871
BB3	0.871			

Notes: AN = animosity; SN = subjective norms; SE = self-enhancement; PBC = perceived behavioral control; CA = counter-argument; BI = brand image; BIN = boycott intention; BB = boycott behavior; AVE = average variance extracted

The constructs under consideration in this study are conceptually distinct, substantiated by the Fornell and Larcker criteria and the cross-loading criteria in the discriminant validity test. AVE values for each construct are less than the squared inter-construct correlation, thereby meeting the Fornell and Larcker criteria. All cross-loading values on related constructs are greater than those of other constructs, indicating that the requirements for cross-loading are met (Table 4).

Table 4. Fornell-Larcker Criterion

Variables	AN	BB	BIN	BI	CA	PBC	SE	SN
Animosity (AN)	0.797							
Boycott behavior (BB)	0.525	0.833						
Boycott intention (BIN)	0.563	0.765	0.902					
Brand image (BI)	-0.190	-0.132	-0.215	0.769				
Counter-argument (CA)	-0.502	-0.661	-0.720	0.192	0.815			
Perceived behavioral control (PBC)	0.499	0.762	0.777	-0.120	-0.646	0.860		
Self-enhancement (SE)	0.610	0.725	0.790	-0.212	-0.694	0.672	0.860	
Subjective norms (SN)	0.541	0.675	0.669	-0.189	-0.536	0.625	0.654	0.788

Notes: AN = animosity; SN = subjective norms; SE = self-enhancement; PBC = perceived behavioral control; CA = counter-argument; BI = brand image; BIN = boycott intention; BB = boycott behavior

Figure 2 illustrates the outcomes of the data processing from the inner- and outer-model tests conducted with Smart-PLS 3. It also demonstrates the reliability of all items in this study. Furthermore, the analysis revealed both positive and negative relationships among the variables.

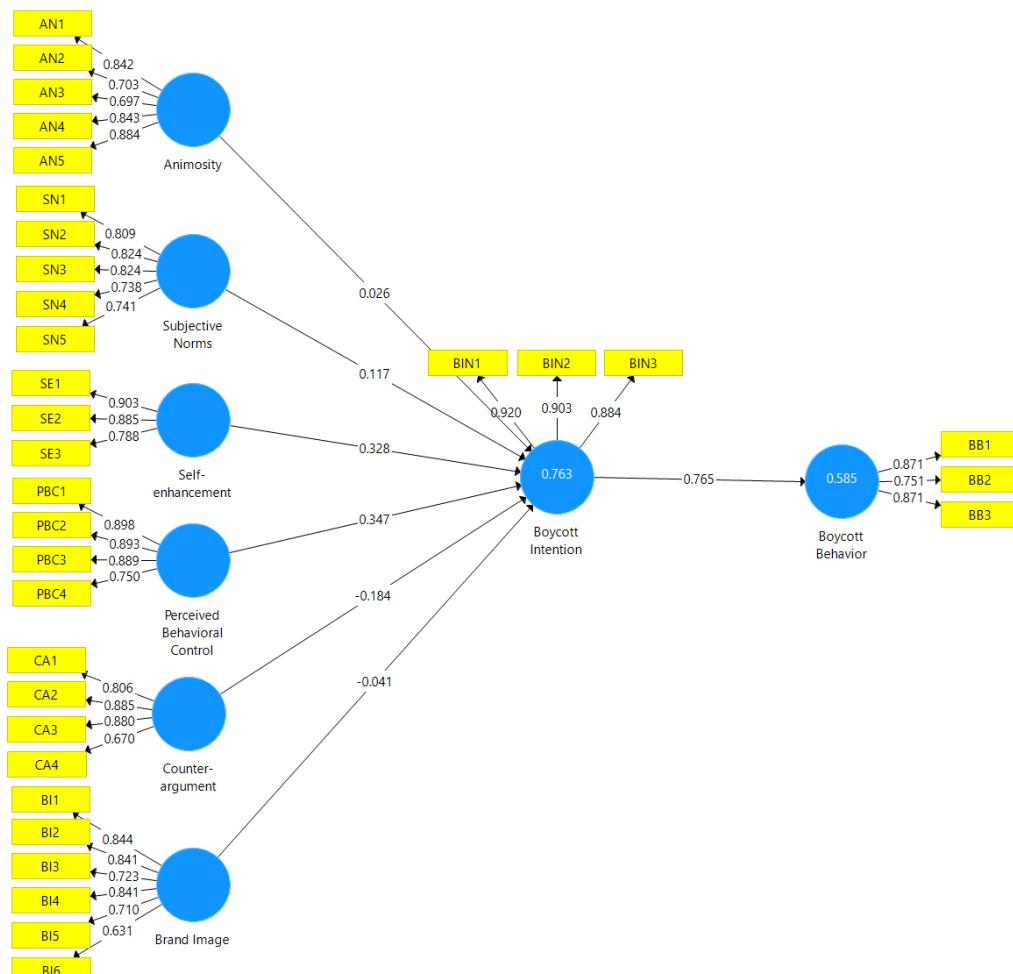


Figure 2. The PLS-SEM result of factors influencing boycott intention, which in turn affects boycott behavior

5.3 Structural Model

The structural model does not exhibit any signs of collinearity, as evidenced by the variance inflation factor (VIF) values presented in Table 5, all of which are less than 3. The path coefficient test results in Table 6 show positive and negative relationships between the variables. Hair and Alamer (2022) specify the path coefficient (B) in the structural model as weak (0 - 0.10), small (0.11 - 0.30), medium (0.31 - 0.50), and strong (> 0.50). The results of this research indicate that animosity and brand image have a weak effect on boycott intention. Furthermore, subjective norms and counter-argument have a small effect size on boycott intention. Interestingly, self-enhancement and perceived behavioral control have a larger effect size on boycott intention than other variables, indicating a medium effect size. Meanwhile, it is well established that boycott intention has a large effect on boycott behavior.

R^2 is used to see how much variance can be explained by endogenous constructs. Based on Figure 2, the R^2 value for boycott intention is 0.763 (76.3%), indicating substantial explanatory power. On the other hand, the R^2 value for boycott behavior is 0.585, explaining 58.5% of the total variance. This value shows a moderate explanatory power. The f^2 is the effect size that explains the change in R^2 when a construct is removed from the model. If the f^2 value of the exogenous variable is 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, it indicates a small, medium, and large effect size, respectively (Hair et al., 2022). However, if f^2 is less than 0.02, the construct is considered to have no measurable effect. In this study, animosity ($f^2 = 0.002$) and brand image ($f^2 = 0.007$) have no measurable effect on boycott intention. Subsequently, subjective norms ($f^2 = 0.028$) and counter-arguments ($f^2 = 0.065$) exert a small effect size on boycott intention.

Table 5. Structural model result

Variables	VIF	R^2	f^2
Animosity			0.002
AN1	2.526		
AN2	1.555		
AN3	1.516		
AN4	2.192		
AN5	2.881		
Subjective Norms			0.028
SN1	2.158		
SN2	2.157		
SN3	2.294		
SN4	1.593		
SN5	1.758		
Self-enhancement			0.158
SE1	2.306		
SE2	2.219		
SE3	1.543		
Perceived Behavioral Control			0.222
PBC1	2.869		
PBC2	2.990		
PBC3	2.641		
PBC4	1.619		
Counter-argument			0.065
CA1	1.820		
CA2	2.877		

Table 5. Structural model result (Continue)

Variables	VIF	R ²	f ²
Counter-argument			
CA3	2.679		
CA4	1.329		
Brand Image			0.007
BI1	2.313		
BI2	2.340		
BI3	2.013		
BI4	1.692		
BI5	2.052		
BI6	1.794		
Boycott Intention		0.763	1.409
BIN1	2.796		
BIN2	2.522		
BIN3	2.376		
Boycott Behavior			0.585
BB1	1.870		
BB2	1.419		
BB3	1.779		

Notes: AN = animosity; SN = subjective norms; SE = self-enhancement; PBC = perceived behavioral control; CA = counter-argument; BI = brand image; BIN = boycott intention; BB = boycott behavior

5.4 Hypothesis Testing

The findings from the hypothesis testing presented in Table 6, conducted via bootstrapping, indicate that subjective norms ($\beta = 0.117$; p-value < 0.05), self-enhancement ($\beta = 0.328$; p-value < 0.05), and perceived behavioral control ($\beta = 0.347$; p-value < 0.05) positively and significantly affect boycott intention. Consequently, hypotheses H2, H3, and H4 are substantiated in this study. Conversely, the findings of this study demonstrate that animosity ($\beta = 0.026$; p-value > 0.05) exerts no influence on boycott intention, thereby refuting H1.

Table 6. Results of hypothesis testing

Structural paths	Path coefficient	Suggested effect	t-statistics	p-values	Path results
Animosity → Boycott Intention	0.026	(+)	0.512	0.609	H1: Rejected
Subjective Norms → Boycott Intention	0.117	(+)	0.119	0.050	H2: Accepted
Self-Enhancement → Boycott Intention	0.328	(+)	3.891	0.000	H3: Accepted
Perceived Behavioral Control → Boycott Intention	0.347	(+)	5.712	0.000	H4: Accepted
Counter-Argument → Boycott Intention	-0.184	(-)	2.685	0.007	H5: Accepted
Brand Image → Boycott Intention	-0.041	(-)	1.089	0.277	H6: Rejected
Boycott Intention → Boycott Behavior	0.765	(+)	17.743	0.000	H7: Accepted

Notes: p-value < 0.05; t-statistics > 1.96

Furthermore, the findings indicate that counter-argument ($\beta = -0.184$; p-value < 0.05) negatively and significantly affects boycott intention. So, H5 is accepted in this study. Contrary to expectations, the study did not provide evidence supporting the hypothesis that brand image ($\beta = -0.041$; p-value > 0.05) significantly influences boycott intention. Therefore, H6 is rejected in this study. The results demonstrate that the intention to boycott ($\beta = 0.765$; p-value < 0.05) significantly and positively affects actual boycott behavior. Consequently, H7 is accepted in this study.

6. Discussion

This study aims to examine the motivations underlying consumer behavior in boycotting brands affiliated with Israel. To understand the consistency of individuals' participation in boycotts, the study categorizes motivations based on triggers, promoters, and inhibitors.

6.1 The Effect of Animosity on Boycott Intention

This research hypothesizes that animosity toward Israel can trigger individuals' intention to boycott. However, the findings indicate no substantial impact on the animosity concerning boycott intention. This result shows that animosity alone does not trigger a boycott. Other factors may play a bigger role. The results of this study align with previous research findings, which show that animosity does not influence boycotts in South Africa and India against US and Russian products (Krüger et al., 2024). It is argued that there are factors that bridge animosity and boycott intention. An individual must have strong beliefs and a willingness to support a boycott. Since animosity is a general emotion, other factors must strengthen it to motivate a boycott. Research by Salma and Aji (2023) shows that high social pressure affects hatred and then subsequently influences boycott intention.

Research indicates that individuals who value products from certain countries may reconsider their decision to participate in a boycott. Akhtar et al. (2024) suggest that negative feelings toward a country can influence perceptions of a brand, potentially leading to a boycott. Therefore, a boycott may only be considered if a brand is perceived negatively. As indicated by the findings of a previous study, animosity exerts an indirect influence on the phenomenon of boycotts, operating through the mediating mechanism of affective evaluation (Xie et al., 2023). Therefore, emotional evaluation could be a key factor in an individual's choice to undertake a boycott. A considerable body of research has been dedicated to examining the influence of emotions on consumers' propensity to demonstrate animosity towards a nation and the subsequent impact on their purchasing decisions (Zdravkovic et al., 2021). In this case, an individual who upholds social justice and world peace, referred to as universalism, may exhibit anger as an emotional response. Subsequently, the subjects' purchasing behaviors, including boycotts, are determined as a means of emotional coping.

6.2 The Effect of Subjective Norms on Boycott Intention

Research indicates that subjective norms can impact an individual's inclination to boycott. The influence of social approval on a person's intentions to engage in a boycott is a significant factor in the context of this study. This study aligns with previous findings that subjective norms increase the boycott intentions of South Korean consumers against Japanese companies (Kim et al., 2023). People are more likely to boycott an Israeli-affiliated product when others are doing the same. This creates social pressure to conform to fit in.

The findings of this research align with those of Sari and Games (2024), which asserts the importance of group approval in facilitating an individual's acceptance into a social group. Social pressure may play a significant role in an individual's decision to boycott. Previous research suggests that individuals are more likely to engage in a boycott when they feel a compulsion to take action (Delistavrou et al., 2020). Cross-country research shows that people in individualist countries are less likely to be affected by social pressure. Those in high collectivist countries, such as the UK and Germany, tend to boycott due to societal norms (Hino, 2023). In Indonesia, the collectivist culture and strong social norms drive consumer boycotts of Israeli-affiliated brands.

6.3 The Effect of Self-enhancement on Boycott Intention

Self-enhancement is hypothesized to positively affect boycott intention. The findings of this study reveal that greater self-enhancement is linked to an increased likelihood of intending to boycott. The intention to boycott brands affiliated with Israel is primarily driven by individuals who feel better about themselves when purchasing from non-boycotted brands. Findings from the study reveal that the self-enhancement derived from acquiring a brand that is not subject to a boycott significantly affects the likelihood of boycotting brands affiliated with Israel.

Participating in a boycott reduces the guilt associated with buying products from brands affiliated with Israel. Individuals assume that buying and consuming these products supports Israel's actions against Palestine. Therefore, people boycott these brands to avoid supporting violations of human rights. This aligns with Sari and Games (2024) findings that individuals experience a sense of personal pride and are motivated to engage in ethically sound actions. Individuals often present themselves as highly moral in public settings, as they are more sensitive to social judgment than in private situations (Dong et al., 2019). The extent to which individuals perceive a boycott as both beneficial and moral will directly impact their propensity to engage in such actions (Palacios-Florence et al., 2021).

6.4 The Effect of Perceived Behavioral Control on Boycott Intention

The respondents found it easy to boycott brands associated with Israel. This situation might encourage more individuals to take part in boycotts. The findings indicate that perceived behavioral control significantly affects individuals' intentions to boycott. Interestingly, the key factor that impacts consumers' intentions to take part in a boycott is their perceived behavioral control. This is in line with the findings of research by Delistavrou (2022), which shows that if consumers feel that it is easy to take part in a boycott, then these consumers will be encouraged to boycott. Consumers' perceived ease is partly due to the availability of substitutes for the boycotted products.

As shown in Table 1, most respondents chose fast food and drink brands based on what they had bought and consumed. Substitutes for these brands are not difficult to find. The results of this study align with previous research conducted by Kim et al. (2023), which suggests that perceived behavioral control can boost Korean consumers' inclination to engage in boycotts against Japanese companies. This research reinforces prior studies demonstrating the favorable effect of perceived behavioral control on the boycotting behavior of Malaysian consumers towards products and services affiliated with Israel (Hamzah & Mustafa, 2019).

6.5 The Effect of Counter-argument on Boycott Intention

The counter-argument is hypothesized to inhibit the intention to boycott, and the results demonstrate that the counter-argument exerts a negative and significant effect on boycott intention. However, the counter-argument does not appear to inhibit the boycott intention of respondents in this study. Most respondents intend to boycott brands affiliated with Israel because they believe it is a straightforward action that can enhance their positive self-image. Consequently, no other factors appear to be able to hinder the intention to boycott brands affiliated with Israel.

The findings of this study are in line with the conclusions drawn by Klein et al. (2004), highlighting the negative impact of counter-arguments on youth participation in the Bremmer factory boycott. However, Klein et al. (2004) suggest that concerns regarding employee impact, such as layoffs, are the most effective argument against participation. Notably, 61% of respondents did not take part in the boycott, likely due to these concerns. The results also support Jae and Jeon (2016) research shows that counter-arguments negatively and significantly impact boycott intentions among Korean and Canadian students.

6.6 The Effect of Brand Image on Boycott Intention

The present study hypothesizes that brand image exerts a negative effect on the intention to engage in boycotts. However, the findings reveal an interesting outcome that a positive brand image does not influence individuals' inclination to engage in a boycott of brands associated with Israel. This result suggests the presence of an internal conflict experienced by the individuals. This perception is supported by consumers' judgments that brands affiliated with Israel are of high quality. The theory of cognitive dissonance explains this (Wang et al., 2021). The moral values that consumers hold to support human rights are often in conflict with their brand loyalty, particularly as it relates to companies with affiliations to Israel. To reduce dissonance, consumers maintain their moral values despite the positive brand image.

The findings of this study contradict those of previous research conducted by Lasarov et al. (2023), which suggests that a favorable brand image can have a negative influence on their intention to engage in a boycott. Despite a consumer's evaluation of a product as being of high quality, the decision to engage in a boycott can be influenced by negative sentiments, serving as a form of punitive action against the targeted entity (Hino, 2023). Consumers' negative feelings toward unfavorable regional origins influence boycott decisions, even if they like the country of origin of dual-origin brands (Abdelwahab et al., 2020).

6.7 The Effect of Boycott Intention on Boycott Behavior

The objective of this study is to assess the role of intention in shaping boycott behavior. The findings corroborate the TPB, highlighting that a strong intention from an individual directly shapes their behavior in practice (Ajzen, 1991). Specifically, an increase in intention leads to a rise in boycott behavior, thereby supporting $H7_{BIN \rightarrow BB}$ of the study. As shown in Table 1, a considerable majority of respondents have taken part in the boycott. This is evidenced by the duration of their participation in the boycott, with the majority boycotting brands affiliated with Israel for ≤ 1 year. Therefore, consumers who intend to boycott brands associated with Israel tend to participate in the boycott. This study's findings align with prior research, showing that intentions to participate in a boycott influence subsequent behavior (Cossío-Silva et al., 2019). Additionally, results

from this study are consistent with research indicating that intentions to participate in a boycott lead to positive actual boycott behavior (Palacios-Florenco et al., 2021).

6.8 Managerial Implications

Advocacy groups can design effective boycott campaigns by emphasizing collective participation and social influence, as subjective norms have been demonstrated to influence boycott intentions. Messages that present boycotts as a way to actualize oneself, support moral values, and enhance self-esteem are also effective. Individuals must feel that they have control over their consumption, as perceived behavioral control influences boycott intentions.

However, a positive brand image alone is insufficient to prevent consumers from boycotting a company. This shows that reputation alone does not guarantee protection in situations of moral crisis or social conflict. Companies should communicate more proactively. They should explain their stance on politics and issues without contradicting their values. Having clear ethics and empathy can help maintain consumer trust during boycotts.

Furthermore, given the growing role of social media in rapidly disseminating campaign messages, policymakers must design regulations to ensure a safe and healthy digital space. While viral boycott campaigns can have positive impacts, they also risk spreading hoaxes and triggering conflicts if not properly controlled. Therefore, it is crucial to monitor campaign content on social media wisely, along with promoting digital literacy to help individuals critically assess information responsibly.

6.9 Theoretical Contribution

There has been extensive research on consumer motivations to participate in boycotts. However, few studies have fully incorporated various dimensions of motivation, both internal (moral values, emotions, identity) and external (brand image, social pressure). This study contributes to the TPB by including an internal motivation dimension, called self-enhancement, to explain intentions to boycott. The results suggest that an individual's values and the social pressure they feel as consumers also affect the decision to boycott.

This study challenges the idea that consumer animosity directly impacts boycott intentions. While consumers might have negative feelings toward Israel, such sentiments do not automatically lead them to boycott brands associated with it. This finding contributes to the existing body of literature on the intention-behavior gap by suggesting the presence of more complex mediating factors in the ethical decision-making process. These results also support the idea that an identity and moral values approach is valuable for understanding socially conscious consumer behavior and can be applied to other ethical contexts.

6.10 Limitations

It is acknowledged that the present study is not without its limitations. The findings are constrained by the fact that only 185 respondents provided valid answers to the questionnaire. A larger sample size would facilitate the establishment of more robust generalizations. Additionally, the respondents are concentrated in Java and Madura Islands, primarily representing the younger generation. Although the survey was distributed to respondents across Indonesia, the majority of the respondents who participated in the study were domiciled in Java and Madura, which may have influenced

the results. The higher response rate in these regions is attributable to the prevalence of the brands targeted by the boycott, particularly international franchise brands affiliated with Israel, which are common in Java and major cities. This familiarity increases the relevance and internal validity of the research. However, this may limit the generalizability of the findings to other regions, especially those with different characteristics and lower exposure. It is recommended that future research include a more diverse, geographically representative sample to enhance the understanding of consumer boycott behavior nationwide.

7. Conclusions

This study examines consumer boycott behavior, defined as the avoidance of products associated with Israel. The analysis reveals that two factors influence boycott intention. The primary influence is the perceived controllability of conducting a boycott. Individuals who believe their actions will enhance their self-esteem are more likely to engage in a boycott. Although consumer perceptions of brands associated with Israel remain positive, this does not prevent the boycott. Brands associated with Israel can mitigate this effect by maintaining quality, supporting consumers, and avoiding the escalation of tensions. Companies whose brands are not directly impacted by the boycott can maintain their alignment to avoid inadvertently supporting the opposition.

8. Recommendation

Future researchers may consider additional variables not explored in the present study and expand the geographic scope of respondents to include the major islands of Indonesia. Researchers are encouraged to implement alternative sampling techniques, such as quota sampling, in future studies to ensure adequate representation of respondents from each region and generational group. The findings suggest that the animosity variable is insufficient to trigger consumer boycott intentions. An examination of the respondents' reasons for boycotting reveals the role of empathy, indicating the need to explore how emotional resonance influences consumer decisions during geopolitical conflicts. Further research is recommended to assess the consistency of boycott motivations in stable contexts, in the absence of significant external triggers. It is also worthwhile to investigate how the boycott movement shifts consumer preferences toward domestic products and whether this shift is temporary or long-term.

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