DECOY EFFECTS IN BRAND POSITIONING

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ABSTRACT

Marketing academics and practitioners consider brand positioning to be a key element of modern marketing management, branding, and strategy, given today's increasingly competitive marketplace. By way of its position, an offering seeks to take possession of a unique place in the minds of the targeted consumers, and in so doing, differentiates itself from the competition. Extant research confirms the importance of brand positioning, demonstrating that it positively affects, among other key factors, brand equity and value; consumer loyalty; and customer willingness to search and pay premium for a brand, market share, and the overall financial performance of the firm.

Throughout the literature, various positioning typologies have been developed and used in the management and application of positioning. In addition, both firm-centred and customer-centred approaches have been adopted to evaluate the effectiveness and success of positioning strategies. Although considerable amounts of research have been devoted to the management of positioning, these efforts have focused primarily on the positioning new offerings, and re-positioning existing offerings to new target markets. However, despite the accorded importance of an offering's position in the long run, the review fails to identify research devoted to strengthening the already-established position of offerings over time. Consequently, the aim of this study is to empirically examine positioning strategies to strengthen the perceptions of the positions of existing offerings, hereby offering a proactive and deliberate approach to positioning, beyond the scope of extant research on positioning strategies. The lack of suitable theory within the positioning literature led to a search and eventual use of the decoy effect, a phenomenon explained by theories within social and consumer psychology.

In addressing the research aim, the decoy effect provides a theoretically-grounded conceptual framework to underpin the research. This framework proposes that the consumers' perception of the position of an existing offering (denoted in the study as, the *Focal offering*), is enhanced by the introduction of a new offering that is positioned similar yet inferior to the focal, i.e. an asymmetrically-dominated decoy (denoted as a *decoy-positioned offering*). This framework is empirically tested within the consumer product domain of washing detergents, and with the use of a field experiment. A 2 x 2 between-subjects design is applied to test the impact of two types of decoys (frequency and range) across two types of positioning bases (feature-, and benefit-oriented positioning). Data, collected using an electronic self-completion questionnaire from a random sample (n = 1200) of adult (18 and above) UK consumers, are analysed using analysis of covariance. The results confirm that the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering enhances the position of the focal offering across the four dimensions of perceived positioning – i.e., favourability, differentiation, credibility, and uniqueness. Of these dimensions, the decoy is most influential in enhancing perceived differentiation and uniqueness of the focal offering on the introduction of the decoy. Comparing the two decoys, the results show that the frequency decoy exerts a stronger impact than the range decoy on positioning perceptions. In terms of positioning bases, decoys are found more effective in the context of benefit-oriented positioning as compared to feature-oriented positioning.

This study advances the literature in several ways; primarily as the first theoretically-grounded effort to examine how a brand can strengthen the position of existing offerings, thus addressing the calls for a theoretical foundation to investigate the concept of positioning. The study also demonstrates the prudence of taking into account both the specific dimensions of the positioning concept, and the perceived-importance of the attributes on which an offering is positioned. To practitioners, the study provides guidance as to how the firm can strengthen the position of its existing offerings amidst the competitive dynamics of today's marketplace.

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Part A: INTRODUCTION

Chapter A1 **Aim and scope of the chapter**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the present research, and thus, a foundation for the rest of the thesis. It introduces the construct of interest, brand positioning, presenting a brief discussion on the background and scope of extant research on the subject matter. The discussion is followed by a brief account of the issues that pervade the literature, and then identifies the focal issue of concern to this research. The aim and objectives are then articulated, proceeding to an account of the adopted research design. The chapter concludes by presenting the limitations of the study, and finally outlines the organisation of the thesis.

A1.1 Background and domain of the research

Marketers and academics alike are giving increasing acknowledgement to the importance of brand positioning given the dynamics of today's competitive marketplace, over-communicated and inundated by the homogeneity of new and existing offerings (e.g., Clancy and Krieg, 2007; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007; Hooley, Piercy and Nicoulaud, 2012; Shanka and Phau, 2008; Diwan and Bodla 2011; Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2011; Riezebos and van der Grinten, 2012; Kapferer, 2012; Urde and Koch, 2014). Amidst such pressure of competition, where even the strongest of brands are challenged to effectively differentiate their offerings, brand positioning is regarded as the tool for competitive warfare (Ries and Trout, 2001; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010).

The positioning of a brand involves associating its offering with [a] tangible and/or intangible attribute(s), and actively communicating this association in such a way to occupy a unique place, relative to competitors, i.e. a position, in the minds of the targeted consumers (Aaker, 1996; Ries and Trout, 2001; Kotler, 2003; Ghodeswar, 2008). In other words, brand positioning entails creating a distinctly appealing perception of the offering in consumers' minds; one that squarely communicates "to its target that... it (the offering) will fulfil their needs better than competing brands" (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007, pg. 7). It is this perception, according to Rossiter and Bellman (2005), that differentiates the brand in the marketplace, and ultimately stimulates preference for the brand's offering(s) (Rossiter and Bellman, 2005; Riezebos and van der Grinten, 2012).

Based on an extensive review of the literature, positioning is considered a prerequisite to the success of the firm, its brand(s), and its offerings (e.g., Aaker, 1996; Ottum, 1996; Guiltinan, 1999; Jalkala and Keränen, 2014). This assertion, according to the literature, is based on the view that (1) positioning represents the foundation of branding and marketing strategy (Kotler, 2003; Anderson and Carpenter, 2005; Keller and Lehmann, 2006), (2) marketing activities and programs are largely determined by the positioning adopted by the firm (Park, Jaworski and MacInnis, 1986; Porter, 1996; Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2011), and (3) positioning is related to all marketing activities directed to the customer (Aaker, Batra, and Myers, 1992; Fill, 2013).

Furthermore, Kotler (2003, pg. 308), from a strategic perspective, asserts that "if a company does a poor job of positioning, the market will be confused as to what to expect" of its brand(s), and its offerings. The above underscores the need for the firm to understand how to effectively position its offering so that it takes hold of a distinct place in the minds of target audience (Riezebos and van der Grinten; 2012). Kotler (2003) adds that failing to do so, makes the brand vulnerable to, what he refers to as, the 'four cardinal errors of positioning': under-positioning, over-positioning, confused positioning, and doubtful positioning[1]. The firm's effective management of the positioning results in "the successful creation of a customer-focused value proposition; a cogent reason why the target market should buy *its offering*" (Kotler, 2003, pg. 308).

A1.2 Scope of extant research

With respect to scope, extant literature on brand positioning is dominated by two broad and interrelated areas of research: (1) positioning strategies and typologies (e.g., Crawford, 1985; Kalafatis, Tsogas and Blankson, 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004), and, (2) evaluating the effectiveness of positioning (e.g., Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012; Blankson and Crawford, 2012). These broad areas have been studied primarily in the B2C marketing domain, however, with some attention to the B2B domain (e.g., Kalafatis, Tsogas and

[1] (i) under-positioning, where the consumer has an ambiguous perceived positioning of the brand; (ii) over-positioning, in contrast to the above, where the customer has a narrow perceived positioning of the brand; (iii) confused positioning, where customers has an unstable or otherwise cluttered perceived positioning of the brand, and, finally (iv) doubtful positioning, where the customer insistently questions the credibility of the brand's positioning.

Blankson, 2000; Roberts and Merrilees, 2007; Davis, Golicic and Marquardt, 2008; Beverland, Napoli and Farrelly, 2010; Jalkala and Keränen, 2014).

In addition to the two above-mentioned areas of research, scattered throughout the literature are smaller streams of research that investigate the influence of positioning with an array of marketing and non-marketing constructs, such as: corporate social responsibility (Brüggenwirth, 2006; Makasi, Govender and Munyoro, 2014), co-branding (e.g., Singh Kalafatis and Ledden, 2014), elections and political candidacy (e.g., Smith, 2005; Davies and Mian, 2010), and human resource management (e.g., Aurand, Gorchels and Bishop, 2005).

A1.2.1 Positioning strategies and typologies

By positioning strategy, the literature refers to decisions regarding the type of attributes the firm uses to position an offering(s), and the manner in which it conveys information about its offering to the targeted consumers (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Kotler, 2006; Baines and Fill, 2014). To position its offering, the firm can base its positioning strategy on a diverse range of tangible and intangible attributes, often termed positioning attributes (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010; Eryigit and Eryigit, 2014). Selecting an appropriate positioning attribute becomes a critical decision in the firm's attempt to successfully position its offering in the minds of consumers. To guide this process, scholars have devoted extensive attention to grouping similar positioning attributes into parsimonious positioning bases. A positioning base thus comprises of a set of conceptually related attributes and constitutes a means to convey a differential advantage of an offering in consumers' minds (Fuchs, 2008). Among other scholars, Blankson and Kalafatis (2004) have gone further to develop classification schemes that group positioning bases into parsimonious positioning typologies (Crawford 1985; Arnott, 1992, 1994; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Fuchs, 2008; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010).

In the literature, positioning typologies have been either conceptually or empirically-derived, and developed from either the manager's perspective (Kalafatis et al., 2000) or from that of the consumer (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Burton and Easingwood, 2006). In terms of number of positioning bases, typologies proposed in the literature range from the more generic that offers as little as two positioning bases (Crawford, Urban and Buzas, 1983) to the more complex that offers as many as 16 positioning bases (e.g., Arnott, 1992). Of the positioning typologies proposed over the years, Crawford's (1985) seminal typology

represents the most widely cited in the extant positioning literature. In its development, Crawford (1985) applied a content analysis of print adverts from which he proposed three generic positioning bases: feature, benefit, and surrogate-oriented. The introduction of this typology sparked the development of varying typologies in the literature, some of which, as observed in the review of the literature (Chapter B3) represent conceptual extensions to the strategies originally proposed in Crawford's (1985) work (e.g., Porter, 1996; Kotler and Armstrong, 1997; Hooley, Saunders, and Piercy, 1998).

In their review, Blankson and Kalafatis (2004) found existing typologies were largely descriptive and lacking empirical verification. In response, these scholars proposed an empirically-derived customer-based typology, comprising the following eight positioning strategies: top-of-the-range; service; value-for-money; reliability; attractiveness; country-of-origin; the brand name; and selectivity. As the first empirical typology, developed from the customer's perspective, Blankson and Kalafatis' (2004) typology has received much attention in the literature (Dahlén, Lange and Smith, 2009; Schiffman, O'Cass, Paladino and Carlson, 2011).

A1.2.2 Evaluating the effectiveness of positioning

The other broad area of positioning research centres on evaluating the effectiveness of positioning and positioning strategies (Darley and Smith, 1993; Suzuki, 2000; Romaniuk, 2001; Gwin and Gwin, 2003; Hartmann, Ibanez and Sainz, 2005; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). The literature has investigated this area of research from the perspective of the firm, as well as that of the consumer. From the firm's perspective, positioning effectiveness is examined in terms of various financial performance indicators such as, return on investments (ROI) and market share (e.g., Suzuki, 2000; Miles and Mangold, 2005; Blankson and Crawford, 2012). For instance, Blankson and Crawford (2012), based on a case study of retail service stores in the US, report that a firm's positioning strategy is directly related to its sales, bottom-line profits, return on investment (ROI) and market share. Prior to this, Suzuki (2000) reported similar results within the context of the airline carrier industry. In both the above studies, positioning effectiveness is examined exclusively at the level of the firm.

At the product level, Gwin and Gwin (2003) proposed a model of positioning effectiveness based on a combination of four performance indicators – brand price, attribute ratings,

budget constraint and indifference curves. Despite its merits, Gwin and Gwin's (2003) model is essentially conceptual; its complexity makes it difficult for practitioners to effectively use as a tool to position offerings in the minds of consumers.

In addition to financial performance indicators, literature has examined positioning effectiveness in terms of non-financial customer-centred indicators; such as, brand salience and recall (Alba and Chattopadhyay, 1986), brand equity and value (Knox, 2004; Hartmann et al., 2005), as well as consumers' loyalty and willingness to search and pay premium price for a brand (e.g., DiMingo, 1988; Kalra and Goodstein, 1998; Martos-Partal and González-Benito, 2011). For instance, in their work on compact cars, Hartmann et al. (2005) find that a brand's position is significantly related to consumer attitudes and purchase intensions.

Different to the one-dimensional measurements of positioning effectiveness as highlighted above, Fuchs (2008) along with Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010) proposed a multi-dimensional measurement of positioning effectiveness. An offering's position, according to the scholars, constitutes four underlying components (dimensions) - favourability, differentiation, credibility and uniqueness. Capturing positioning from the perspective of consumers, Fuchs and Diamantopoulos' (2010) work has been refined over the years (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2012), and continues to attract attention in recent literature on brand positioning (Blankson, Cowan, Crawford, Kalafatis, Singh and Coffie, 2013; Eryigit and Eryigit, 2014).

A1.3 Issues in brand positioning research

Notwithstanding the merits of existing research on brand positioning, an extensive review of the literature reveals the following issues:

- lack in congruence in the core meaning and definition of the concept of brand positioning (Rigger, 1995; Butt and Murphy, 2007; Urde and Koch, 2014);
- the absence of an underlying theoretical foundation for the concept of brand positioning (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Butt, 2010; Pike and Mason, 2011);
- the lack of research into strengthening the positions of existing offerings despite wide-agreement regarding the importance of the long-term position of an offering (Kotler, 2003; Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007).

Moreover, the review finds that although considerable amounts of research have been devoted to the management of positioning, these efforts have focused primarily on activities for positioning new offerings and re-positioning existing ones to new target

markets (Jewell, 2005; Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2011), without devoting attention to the equally important concern of strengthening the position of existing offerings. The latter, as suggested by the literature, is an integral concern of brands in today's competitive environment (Arnott, 1994). Moreover, despite the accorded importance of the a brand's position over time (Crawford, 1985; Hooley, Greenley, Fahy and Cadogan, 2001; Hooley and Greenly, 2005), the review of the literature fails to identify research devoted to strengthening the already-established position of an offering. Consequently, this forms the basis of the empirical focus of the study – to investigate positioning strategies to strengthen consumer perceptions of the position of existing offerings in the minds of target consumers. This focal issue is illustrated using the following scenario:

> Consider that the firm offers a premium-priced battery with an expected life of 20 hours and priced £2.30 (20 hours/£2.30), against a competing value-for-money offering with an expected life of 14 hours, priced at £1.95 (14 hours/£1.95). The question at hand is how can the firm strengthen its offering's position in terms of durability in the minds of the targeted consumers?

In relation to the above scenario, this study seeks to empirically investigate positioning strategies that take deliberate and proactive action to strengthen perceptions of the position of existing offerings relative to that of competitors. Put differently, the study is underpinned by the question of whether and to what extent a brand can strengthen the position of its offering in the minds of the targeted consumers.

A1.4 Theoretical foundation for the research

To provide a theoretical underpinning for the research, consideration is given to the body of theories adopted in previous studies examining the concept of brand positioning (e.g., categorisation and signalling theories). These theories are identified through a systematic review of the extant brand positioning literature (see Section B1.1.1, and list of theories in Table B1.3). Each theory is closely evaluated against the focus of the present research – i.e., strengthening perceived positions of existing offerings. However, none of these theories are found applicable to the strengthening of positioning perceptions. For instance, categorisation theory provides an appropriate framework to examine the extent to which brands are associated with their intended positioning bases (Fuchs, 2008; Punj and Moon, 2002); whilst signalling theory provides an appropriate framework to examine the impact of parent brands' positioning on perceptions of co-branded offerings (Singh et al., 2014). Notwithstanding their merits, neither of above-mentioned theories, nor those identified in

the extant positioning literature provide an appropriate framework to underpin the focus of the research.

Following the expanded search and evaluation of theories, the researcher finds appropriate three theories that are used to explain the phenomenon of the decoy effect: value-shift, emergent value, and weight change (Huber, Payne and Puto, 1982; Simonson, 1991; Wedell, 1991; Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Moran and Meyer, 2006). The decoy effect, as explained in the section that follows, stems from the wider research domain that investigates context effects (e.g., Simonson and Tversky,1992; Dhar and Simonson, 2003; Bakamitsos and Siomkos, 2004). Although the three above-mentioned theories have been primarily used to explain the decoy effect in the context of preference and choice decisions, close evaluation of the theories confirms their relevance to underpin the strengthening of positioning perceptions. The explanatory powers of the value-shift, emergent value, and weight change theories are thus empirically tested so as to provide understanding of the decoy effect in the context of brand positioning.

A1.4.1 Context effects

Context effects occur when preference towards a focal object changes, not as a result of characteristics of the object itself, but as a result of changes made to the context surrounding the object, which, although external to the object, are present and affect an evaluation of it (Tversky and Simonson, 1993; Todorović, 2010). The related literature investigates how varying contextual factors – such as weather conditions, consumer mood, inventory display, product names and content labels – affect preference and choice-decision making (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1993; Meyvis, Goldsmith and Dhar, 2011).

Context effects are grouped into a number of categories based on the nature of the contextual factors, and the impact these factors exert on a focal object within a consideration set. Context effects most widely studied in the literature include the assimilation and contrast effects, compromise effect, and the decoy effect (Levin and Levin, 2000; Schwarz and Bless, 2007; Ha, Park and Ahn, 2009; Bless and Schwarz, 2010). Of the varying context effects, the decoy effect provides an appropriate framework on which to base the research.

A1.4.2 Decoy effect

Introduced in the seminal work of Huber and colleagues (Huber, Payne and Puto, 1982; Huber and Puto, 1983), research on the decoy effect (also termed the asymmetrically-dominated effect, and the attraction effect) has focused almost exclusively on consumer preference and choice decisions (e.g., Huber et al., 1982; Nowlis and Simonson, 2000). The decoy effect demonstrates that, in a consideration set comprising two offerings, described along two relevant attributes, preference and choice likelihood of the focal brand increases on the introduction of a third [decoy] offering which is similar but inferior to the focal brand on one of the two attributes. Three decoy effects have been studied in the literature: frequency, range, and frequency-range decoy (each described in Chapter C1).

Being inferior to alternatives in a consideration set, the decoy is almost *never* chosen as a preferred offering (Ratneshwar, Shocker and Stewart, 1987). However, theory demonstrates that its presence functions to draw cognitive attention (i.e., salience) to the attribute on which the focal brand is superior – consequently increasing overall attractiveness and choice likelihood of the focal brand (Simonson, 1989; Parducci, 1995; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000). Empirical research on the decoy effect exhibits consistent and robust findings across diverse product and service categories, including compact cars, mobile phones and computers, airline and vacation packages, job and political candidates, as well as intimate relationships (e.g., Ariely and Wallsten, 1995; Highhouse, 1996; Frederick, Lee and Baskin, 2014). These studies demonstrate that the preference and/or choice for the focal brand systematically increases when a decoy is introduced into the consideration set.

The decoy effect thus presents an appropriate framework on which to conduct the study (Chapter C1). This framework proposes that consumers' perception of the position of an existing [focal] offering can be enhanced by the introduction of a new offering that is positioned similar yet dominated by the focal, i.e. an asymmetrically-dominated offering (denoted as a *decoy-positioned offering*). The research aim and objectives are specified below.

A1.5 Research aim and objectives

The aim of the study is to empirically investigate positioning strategies to strengthen perceptions of the position of existing offerings through the introduction of new offerings

positioned as decoys (i.e., decoy-positioned offerings). This aim is achieved by addressing the following five objectives:

1. To construct a theoretically-grounded conceptual framework that proposes a logical sequence of procedures to strengthen the perceptions of the position of an offering in the minds of targeted consumers.
2. To gauge the extent to which the introduction of a new offering, decoy-positioned, affects consumers' perceptions of the position of an existing focal offering; more specifically, to evaluate whether the position of a [focal] offering is enhanced by the firm's deliberate action to introduce a new decoy-positioned offering in the marketplace.
3. To evaluate whether the effect that the decoy has on the perceived position of the focal offering varies across types of positioning bases; in other words, to determine the stability of the results under conditions of Objective 1 when offerings [in the consideration set] are positioned along different positioning bases (i.e., feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning bases).
4. To examine whether the effect that the decoy has on the perceived position of the focal offering varies according to the type of decoy introduced into the consideration set; put differently, to evaluate the consistency of the results under the conditions in Objectives 1 and 2 when different types of decoys (i.e., the frequency and range) are applied in the context of the study.
5. To test the explanatory powers of existing decoy theories in providing an understanding of the occurrence of decoy effects within brand positioning; in other words, to examine, among the theories explaining the decoy effect in preference of choice decisions, which best explains the proposed positioning-evoked decoy effects.

A1.6 Research design

To address the foregoing aim and objectives, the conceptual framework is empirically tested within the consumer product domain of washing detergents. Justification for the use of this domain is provided in Chapter B1. On evaluation of several research designs, an experiment is deemed most appropriate for conducting the research. A 2 x 2 between-subjects experimental design examines the impact of two types of decoys (frequency and range) across two types of positioning bases (feature-oriented and benefit-oriented). Perceived positioning (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010), is identified as the main dependent variable. Data, collected using an electronic self-completion questionnaire from a random sample (n = 1200) of adult (18 and above) UK consumers, are analysed using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) in SPSS.

In addition to being the first theoretically-grounded effort to investigate how a firm can enhance the position of its existing offerings, the outcome of the research makes considerable contributions to knowledge on the subject matter. These contributions provide a foundation offering managers specific guidelines on how to enhance positioning perceptions of existing offerings.

A1.7 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised into five parts (Parts A – E), with further divisions into one or more constituent chapters. The structure of the thesis is as follow.

Part A comprises a single chapter (Chapter A) that lays the foundation for the research by providing a background of the focal construct of interest, brand positioning. The research aim and objectives, together with a brief account of the theoretical underpinning, are presented in Sections A1.5. A brief description of the research design and methodological considerations are presented.

Part B establishes the state of brand positioning research through an extensive critical review of extant literature. A combination of empirical and conceptual research, reported in marketing and management journals and text books, forms the basis for the review. The discussion and findings of the review is organised into three chapters (Chapters B1 to B3): Chapter B1, 'The nature, definition and theoretical underpinning of the positioning concept'; B2, 'The role and importance of brand positioning; and B3, 'Positioning typologies and strategies'.

In order to empirically address the research aim and objectives (presented in Chapter A), a range of conceptual and methodological decisions are taken for which justification is provided in Part C. This part of the thesis is organised into four chapters (Chapters C1 to C4). Chapter C1 presents the conceptual framework with a set of corresponding propositions (Section C1.4). Chapter C2 outlines the philosophical orientation of the researcher, and the corresponding paradigm within which the study is conducted. The adopted experimental design is identified and justified. In the final two chapters, Chapters C3 and C4, the researcher provides an extensive debate as to the specific steps and decisions taken during the collection and analysis of the data.

Part D, the penultimate part of the thesis, is devoted to analysis of collected data organised into two chapters (Chapters D1 and D2). Chapter D1 presents the results of conventional psychometric tests and justification for the main analytical procedure – analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), while Chapter D2 provides a thorough account of the results of testing the research propositions.

Part E, constituting a single chapter (Chapter E1), provides a debate of the results in relation to the stated aim and objectives of the research. The chapter proceeds by discussing the contributions the study makes to marketing knowledge and practice (Section E1.6). It concludes the thesis by outlining the limitations of the study, together with suggestions for future research (Section E1.7).

Part B: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter B1 **The nature of brand positioning**

B1.1 Introduction

The concept of brand positioning continues to attract increasing attention in the marketing literature (e.g., Ries and Trout, 1986; Aaker, 1996; Trout and Rivkin, 1999; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Clancy and Trout 2002; Kotler, 2003; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004, 2007; González-Benito and Martos-Partal, 2012; Diwan and Bodla 2011; Kapferer, 2012; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2012; Urde and Koch, 2014). Both marketing scholars and practitioners agree that brand positioning is a central element of modern marketing management (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Hooley and Greenley, 2005; Hooley et al., 2012). This agreement is based on the recognition that positioning is the foundation of branding and marketing strategy (Anderson and Carpenter, 2005; Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Kotler and Armstrong, 2013), and that the long-term competitive success of the firm is largely determined by the position its offerings hold in the minds of consumers relative to that of competitors (Gwin and Gwin, 2003; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007; Kotler and Keller, 2009; Hooley et al., 2012).

Positioning is considered a complex concept (Bhat and Reddy, 1998; Ellson, 2004), mainly because it represents interplay between the firm's activities that are directed to consumers concerning its offerings; and the perceptions consumers develop of these offerings (Aaker, 1996). Owing to this complexity, the literature offers a plethora of varying definitions of the concept over the years (e.g., Arnott, 1992; Kotler, 2003; Butt, 2010; Lovelock, Patterson, and Wirtz, 2014). In many of these definitions, however, authors highlight only specific aspects of brand positioning – for instance, those aspects related to the firm's activities or its offerings, or those related to consumers' perceptions or the communication aspect of brand positioning. In so doing, a failure to capture the encompassing nature of the concept of positioning has left room for a more thorough definition. By accepting the existing fragmented definitions over the years, literature has also accepted ambiguity regarding the core meaning of brand positioning (Rigger, 1995). Since 1982 Aaker and Shansby, pointed out that 'positioning may very well mean different things to different people'. Such indistinctness is still apparent within the current positioning literature as highlighted by Butt and Murphy (2007) and Urde and Koch (2014).

Against this backdrop, and as a logical starting point to critically evaluate the literature on brand positioning, this chapter provides a debate on the nature of the brand positioning concept. More specifically, it discusses the origin and development of the concept over the years, and delineates the underlying components (i.e., themes) of the positioning concept. The latter is conducted in an effort to propose a unifying definition in order to advance the rest of the literature review and the positioning research domain as a whole. Since theory represents a central element to the development of marketing research constructs (Hunt, 2002), the chapter also critically reviews the use and application of theory within the extant body of positioning research.

B1.2 Origin and development of the concept of brand positioning

Al Ries and Jack Trout (Ries and Trout, 1981, 2001), advertising executives, are most often credited with the popularity of the concept of brand positioning – 'the fathers of positioning', as it were (Wilson and Galligan, 2005; Uggla, 2015). Reviewing the wider marketing literature, however, shows that the term positioning first appeared in earlier writings on market structures, particularly in response to the changing competitive environment during the 1960s and early 1970s as noted by Kalafatis et al. (2000) and Ellson (2004). Wind (1982) gives an account that positioning was largely discussed as part of the three-stage 'segmentation, targeting, and positioning' (STP) process, which today is still considered a fundamental aspect of marketing strategy (Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007; Kotler and Keller, 2012; Armstrong and Kotler, 2012).

To provide a background, STP begins with the process of segmentation (Wind, 1982); here, the firm subdivides a heterogeneous market into homogenous sub-groups based on similar wants, needs, and demand characteristics. Targeting follows, where the firm determines the specific sub-group(s) (i.e., target audience) to focus its marketing efforts based on a pre-determined set of criteria, such as, the strength and capacity of the firm, and the profitability of the sub-groups (Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007; Armstrong and Kotler, 2012). Positioning then comes into play – the process of locating an offering in a unique place relative to its competition in the minds of the targeted consumers (Kotler, 2003, 2009; Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007).

Although defined in terms of a process, the concept was primarily used with respect to the output of the positioning process, formally termed the offering's *position* – the perception of the offering relative to that of competitors in consumers' minds (Wind, 1983). A closely

related concept is that of market position; this is where the marketer employs perceptual mapping techniques as a means of situating the offering in a unique place along a dimensional attribute space reflecting its position in the marketplace competitive marketplace (Wind, 1982; Dillon, Domzal, and Madden 1986; Darling, Heller and Tablada, 2009). A clear delineation should be made between the positioning as above-defined, and the offering's position – the perceptual space the offering occupies in the mind of the consumer.

From this product-centred perspective, the term position, and more so, the act of positioning, moved toward a more consumer-centric perspective in the literature. This transition is credited to the seminal works of Ries and Trout (1986, 2001). The two advertising executives described positioning as a marketing communication function, one involving changing the mind of the consumer about a brand as opposed to making changes to the physical characteristics of the product. Ries and Trout (2001) defined positioning as the act of communicating distinct tangible or intangible attributes of an offering so that it occupies a unique place relative to others in the mind of the targeted consumers. In their view "positioning is not what you do to the product... [*but*] is what you do to the mind of a prospect... that is, you position the product in the mind of the prospect" (pg. 2). Out of Ries and Trout's (1986) work, was derived the term *brand positioning*, which soon attracted attention from several leading marketing academics (e.g., Park et al., 1986; Aaker, 1996; Kotler, 2003). Kotler's (2003, pg. 308) widely cited definition of brand positioning, stems directly from that proposed by Ries and Trout (1986) – "the act of designing the company's offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the mind of the target market."

In addition to the product- and customer-centric views, another is that positioning encompasses an overall firm-level concern, formally termed *strategic positioning* (Porter, 1996; Evans, Moutinho and Raaij, 1996; Dahlen, Lange and Smith, 2010). This view of positioning involves a more strategic set of considerations that are interwoven with the firm's mission and capabilities, together with its goal to generate competitive advantage from its offerings (Porter, 1996, Hassan and Craft, 2005). Evans et al. (1996) define positioning as the competitive market standing of the firm against its competitors, where a firm seeks to find ways for deploying its resources and assets to build positional advantages in the markets in which it competes. James (2014) offers a more holistic view of strategic

positioning, contending that it impacts how the firm acts, what it offers, and what it says, both internally to its employees and externally to its customers through its marketing communication activities. The latter is in line with Porter's (2001, pg. 70) view, in which he asserts that strategic positioning is "doing things differently from competitors, in a way that delivers a unique type of value to customers". This aspect of positioning evolved in what the literature generally refers to as *strategic* positioning (Seggev, 1982; Porter, 1996; Hooley et al., 2012).

Blankson and Kalafatis (1999) point out that positioning became associated with much confusion concerning the core meaning of the term. Rigger (1995) asserts that 'people think of different things when referring to the concept of positioning'. While marketing practitioners were convinced that positioning was primarily an advertising activity (e.g., Ries and Trout, 1986), other scholars considered it a marketing function confined within the STP Framework (e.g., Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Wind, 1982). Still, other scholars maintained that positioning represented an all-encompassing strategic function that involved differentiating the firm and its brand(s) in the minds of consumers relative to the completion (e.g., Doyle, 1983; Park et al., 1986; Porter, 1996).

Notwithstanding the inconsistencies associated with the core meaning of positioning, the notion of positioning was expanded across disparate offering and research domains, such as: human resource management (e.g., Aurand, Gorchels and Bishop, 2005); museums, religious and charitable organisations (e.g., Abreu, 2006; Chew and Osborne, 2008); elections and political candidacy (Smith, 2005; Davies and Mian, 2010); and even funeral services (Vargas-Henandez, 2013).

The definitional quandary was further exacerbated by the literature's introduction of several prefixed terminologies to described different streams of positioning research, such as: *market* positioning (e.g., Day, 1990; Blankson et al., 2013); service positioning (Arnott; 1992; Shostack, 1987; Hooley and Greenly, 2005; Hooley et al., 2012); *competitive* positioning (Kale and Arditi, 2002); *organisational* positioning (Devlin, Ennew, and Mirza, 1995) *product-market* positioning (Morgan, Strong and McGuinness, 2003). While accepting the fact that the introduction of these terms serves to advance the positioning research domain, Butt and Murphy (2007, pg. 550) point out that it "is not clear if they are used interchangeably or if they are intended to refer to different types of positioning". Rigger (1995) blames the lack of a single underlying definition of positioning as a main reason producing this quandary

(Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999; Kalafatis et al., 2000). Different to the above view, Arnott (1992) contends that the different positioning terminologies represent 'several sides of the same coin'.

In light of the foregoing debate regarding the inconsistences of the core meaning of the positioning construct, and the researcher's conviction that robust social science research begins with a clear underlying meaning of the phenomenon in question (Pastrana et al., 2008), attention is given to clarifying and updating the central meaning of positioning, particularly, brand positioning.

B1.3 Towards an underlying definition of brand positioning

This section of the review provides consensus regarding the core definition and meaning of positioning through an exhaustive review of positioning definitions proposed in the literature over the years. It starts by outlining the steps taken to gather and analyse the definitions, and follows with a detailed discussion of the findings.

In order to develop a consensus and thorough understanding of what the literature defines as brand positioning, content analysis is conducted using a [carefully drawn] purposive sample of positioning definitions proposed by marketing practitioners and scholars. The collection and analytical procedures broadly follow those applied by Butt (2010). Different to Butt's (2010) work however, which was narrowly based on the frequency of positioning-related keywords in the definitions, this review adopts a grounded qualitative approach (i.e., inductive coding) in order to develop a more in-depth insight into the underlying meaning of different authors' interpretation of positioning.

Gathering the definitions of positioning;

- A purposive sample of 68 positioning definitions was collected from marketing textbooks and peer-reviewed journal articles published between 1980 and 2014. These were gathered by scanning the pages of available sources - particularly, through resident and inter-library loan services of Kingston University; and a range of Internet-based resources such as Google Books and Scopus. The researcher determines that this sampling frame is adequate given the scope and purpose of the review.

Analysing the positioning definitions from the pool; this involved a three-step process:

- Having collected the definitions, the first step involved checking for duplications. This included instances where (i) journal articles referenced definitions from marketing textbooks which were already collected by the researcher, (ii) a single

source rephrased a definition using different words, and (iii) instances where the authors determined the definition to inherently represent a passing comment rather than an attempt to render an interpretation of the positioning concept. Following the above procedures, 14 definitions were removed, leaving 54 for analysis as listed in Table B1.1.

- The second step involved subjecting the remaining definitions to an iterative line-by-line coding procedure (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). This involved carefully reading and re-reading each definition, and then assigning a code to each aspect of the definition found to convey a unique element of the positioning[2] construct. This procedure identified nine underlying facets (hereon referred, as themes) emerging from the coding procedure.
- The third step involved omitting from further analysis the themes with less than four coding references. In particular, these themes were deemed to capture only trivial aspects of the positioning concept. Further coding and re-coding procedures were undertaken with the objective of merging and synthesizing the nine themes based on inherent relationships among them.

Table B1.1 List of existing positioning typologies

	Authors	Positioning definition	Managerial function T1	Perception in mind T2	Differentiation T3	Relative. Nature T4
1.	Wind (1980)	"Place a product occupies in a given market as perceived by the target segment"		✓		
2.	Lodish (1986, pg. 183)	The process of trying to improve the perception of your product by a market segment	✓	✓		
3.	Ries and Trout (1986, pg. 2; 2001)	"Positioning is not what you do the product. Positioning is what you do to the mind of a prospect. That is, you position the product in the mind of the prospect"	✓	✓		
4.	Harrison (1987)	"Sum of those attributes normally ascribed to it by the customers – its standing, its quality, the type of people who use it, its strengths, its weaknesses, and any other unusual or memorable characteristics it may possess, its price and value it represents."		✓	✓	
5.	Domingo (1988)	"Process that the firm or the product takes shape of differences from the rivals"				
6.	Day (1990)	"A theme that provides a meaningful distinction for customers"			✓	

[2] An illustration is provided using Kotler's (2000, 2003) definition - 'the act of designing a company's offering and image so that they occupy a meaningful and distinct competitive place in the target market's minds'. The component 'act of designing a company's offering and image' is labelled with the code managerial function, whereas the component 'a meaningful and distinct competitive place in the target market's minds' is labelled with the code cognitive perception in the minds of consumers.

7.	Arnott (1992, pg. 111)	"Deliberate, proactive, iterative process of defining, modifying and monitoring consumer perceptions of a marketable object"	✓	✓		
8.	Aaker (1992)	"Part of a brand's identity and value proposition, which is actively communicated to target markets"	✓		✓	
9.	Arnott (1993 pg. 113)	"Management's attempt to modify the tangible characteristics, and the intangible perceptions of a marketable offering in relation to the competition"	✓		✓	✓
10.	McCarty and Perreault (1994)	"Shows where customers locate proposed and/or present brands in the market."		✓		
11.	O'Shaughnessy (1995, pg.225)	"Process by which the firm decides how it should best depict the product in the market/market segment vis-à-vis competition and hopefully, in the mind of the consumer"	✓	✓	✓	✓
12.	Aaker (1996)	Customer's whole perception about the firm or the product or the service in contrast with the rival's		✓		✓
13.	Trout and Rivkin (1996, pg. 73)	"Process that the marketers try to build certain image or unique identity in the mind of the customers of the target market"	✓	✓	✓	
14.	Kotler and Armstrong (1997)	"Process of designing the company's product/services and image based on consumers' perceptions relative to that of competitors."	✓	✓		✓
15.	Hooley et al. (1998)	Act of designing the company's offering and image so that they occupy a meaningful and distinct competitive advantage.	✓	✓	✓	
16.	Drummond and Ensor (1999)	"Establishing an organisation's product in the mind of a customer, in a position relative to other products in the market."	✓	✓		✓
17.	Proctor (2000, pg. 199)	"Decisions and activities intended to create and maintain a firm's product concept in consumers' minds."	✓	✓		
18.	Jain (2000, pg. 359)	"Placing a brand in that part of the market where it will receive a favourable perception compared to competing products."	✓	✓		✓
19.	Dibb and Simkin (2001)	"Creation of a distinctive image for a product or brand that enhances the appeal of the product in question for the targeted customers and helps differentiate it from rival products."	✓	✓	✓	✓
20.	Dibb et al. (2002)	Process of creating an image for a product in the minds of target consumers	✓	✓		
21.	Marsden (2002, pg. 307)	"How a brand is positioned in the mind of a consumer in respect to attributes with which it is differently associated with, or attributes which it 'owns."		✓	✓	
22.	Kotler (2003, pg. 308)	"Act of designing a company's offering and image so that they occupy a meaningful and distinct competitive position in the target market's minds."	✓	✓	✓	
23.	Blythe (2003)	"The place the product occupies in the individual customer's perceptual map."		✓		
24.	Czinkota and Ronkainen (2004, pg. 335)	"Customers' perception of a product, service, brand or company as a whole to evoke a positive and differentiated mental image"		✓	✓	

25.	Masterson and Pickton (2004, pg. 418)	"The place a product is perceived to occupy in the minds of customers/consumers of the relevant target market relative to other competing brands"		✓		✓
26.	Palmer (2004, pg. 199)	"Decisions about how the marketing mix of a company's product should be developed in comparison to the marketing mix of competing products"	✓		✓	✓
27.	Rossiter and Bellman (2005)	An attempt to create and maintain a unique perception of the brand in consumers' minds relative to competitors, a perception that is expected differentiate the brand in the marketplace, and ultimately stimulate preference for the brand's offering.		✓	✓	✓
28.	Cohen (2006)	"Position of a product in relation to those of competing products in the minds of consumers"		✓		✓
29.	Baker (2007)	"An organised system for finding a window in the mind which is based on the concept that communication; and can only take place at the right time and under the right circumstances"	✓	✓		
30.	Jewell (2007)	"Process of establishing a strong link in consumer memory between a brand-name node and an attribute-node"	✓	✓		
31.	Jobber (2007, pg.305)	"Choice of target market (where the company wishes to compete), and deferential advantage (how the company wishes to compete)"	✓		✓	
32.	Blythe (2008i)*	"Place the product occupies in the consumers' perceptual map"		✓		
33.	Blythe (2008ii)	"The way consumers perceive the product compared with their perceptions of competition"		✓		✓
34.	Baines et al. (2008, pg. 251)	"Way that an audience of consumers or buyers perceive a product or service, particularly as a result of the marketing communications process aimed at a target audience"	✓	✓		
35.	Keller et al. (2008i)	Identifying and establishing points of parity and points of differences; to establish the *right* brand identity and to create the *proper* brand image.	✓	✓	✓	
36.	Keller et al. (2008ii, pg. 361)	"Associating unique, meaningful points of difference to the brand to provide a competitive advantage and 'reason why' customers should buy it"	✓		✓	
37.	Moutinho and Chien (2008, pg. 131)	"Placing a brand in that part of the market where it will receive a favourable reception compared with competing products"	✓			✓
38.	Kotler and Keller (2009, pg. 310)	"Act of designing a company's offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the mind of the target market"	✓	✓	✓	
39.	Fill (2009i)	Process whereby information about the organisation is or product is communicated in such a way that the object is perceived by the consumer/stakeholder to be differentiated from the competition, to occupy a particular space in the market.	✓	✓	✓	

40.	Fill (2009ii)	"Process by which marketers attempt to create a distinctive image or identity in the minds of consumers in designated target market(s) for their product, brand, or organization"	✓	✓	✓	
41.	Blythe (2009)	"Putting the product in an appropriate position in the consumer's mind."	✓	✓		
42.	Dahlén et al. (2010)	Positioning describes the actual and perceived position of the brand in the mind space in terms of the customer's expectations of the unique aspects of the brand and perception of other competing brands.		✓	✓	✓
43.	Boone and Kurtz (2010)	"Placing a product in a certain point or location within a market in the minds of perspective buyers"	✓	✓		
44.	Hollensen (2010i)	"Process of creating in the mind of consumers an image, reputation, or perception of the company, or its products relative to competitors"	✓	✓		✓
45.	Hollensen (2010ii)	"Perceive fit between a particular product and the needs of the target market."		✓		
46.	Clow and Baack (2010, pg. 69)	"Process of creating a perception in the consumer's mind regarding the nature of a company and its products relative to competitors"	✓	✓		✓
47.	DeSarbo (2011)	"Relative competitive comparison that a product/brand/organization occupies in a given market as perceived by the target market segment(s)"		✓		✓
48.	Westburn Dictionary of Marketing (2011, pg. 303)	"the location of a product (or service) relative to others in the same marketplace and then promoting it in such a way as the reinforce or change its position"	✓			✓
49.	DeSarbo (2011, pg. 2)	"the process by which marketers attempt to create a distinctive image or identity in the minds of consumers in designated target market(s) for their product, brand, or organization"	✓	✓	✓	
50.	Armstrong and Kotler (2012)	"Arranging for a market offering to occupy a clear, distinctive, and desirable place relative to competing products in the minds of target consumers"	✓	✓	✓	✓
51.	Kotler *et al.* (2011)	"Act of designing a company's offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the minds of the target market."	✓			
52.	Riezebos and van der Grinten, (2012)	a marketing function that involves brand managers making strategic and well-considered decisions regarding the attribute(s) of a brand to emphasise to the prospect	✓		✓	
53.	Kapferer (2012, pg. 99)	"Two-step process, in which the first step is to clarify which product category the brand should be compared to, and associated with. In the second step, the brand's differentiating characteristics are identified and communicated"	✓		✓	✓
54.	Lovelock, Patterson and Wirtz (2014)	"Establishing a distinctive place in the minds of consumers relative to competing products."	✓	✓		✓

* Several sources provide more than one positioning definition (e.g., Keller et al. 2008; Fill, 2009); roman numerals are used to denote these instances.

B1.3.1 Themes underlying the concept of brand positioning

The foregoing steps resulted in four core themes:

- T1. 'Managerial function';
- T2. 'Perception in the minds of consumers';
- T3. 'Differentiation';
- T4. 'Relative nature of the construct'.

Table B1.2 provides a description of each theme, and denotes how many times each theme is found in the pool of positioning definitions. For instance, the theme 'managerial function', T1, is identified in 37 of the 54 of the positioning definitions.

Table B1.2 Core themes underlying brand positioning

Core themes	Theme	Meaning	Frequency of occurrence
Managerial function	T1	A managerial function that involves marketers/brand managers taking initiative towards measuring, modifying and monitoring perceptions of the offering.	37
Perception in the minds of consumers	T2	Establishing or evoking changes in consumers' minds regarding offering.	42
Differentiation	T3	Creating and communicating meaningful distinct tangible and/or intangible attribute(s) of the offering,	26
Relative nature of construct	T4	Evaluative comparisons of a focal product/brand/firm, in relation to another, in a consideration set.	21

The researcher contends that these themes all represent fundamental elements of the concept that delineates positioning from related concepts in the literature, such as, branding, brand image, segmentation, and targeting. However, they were not all captured by every definition. Each theme is discussed in turn.

T1. Managerial function

The theme 'managerial function', as already mentioned, is found in 37 of the 54 (69%) definitions listed in Table B1.1. This theme underlies the idea that positioning is inherently a managerial function involving marketers taking initiatives towards defining, establishing, modifying and monitoring perceptions of the firm and/or its offerings. (Arnott, 1992; Kotler, 2003). The theme is clearly articulated in several of the definitions, and in particular, that offered by Riezebos and van der Grinten (2012), a marketing function that involves brand managers making strategic and well-considered decisions regarding the attribute(s) of a

brand. Similarly, Trout and Rivkin (1996, pg. 73) articulate the same in their definition, "a process where marketers attempt to build a unique image of a brand in the minds of customers". Some scholars go further to suggest that positioning entails establishing a strong link in consumer memory between a brand and a distinct attribute (Jewell, 2007), and agree that this link is underpinned by decisions about how the marketing mix, particularly promotion, is tailored to convey the positioning intended by the brand (Palmer, 2004).

T2. Perception in the minds of consumers

The theme 'perception in the minds of consumers' (T2) captures the idea that the act of positioning seeks to purposefully evoke changes to the minds of consumers (Ries and Trout, 1986, 2001). This theme is dominant as it was identified in 42 of the 54 (78%) positioning definitions. The perception in consumers' minds' theme is rooted in Ries and Trout's (1986) seminal work on positioning and in particular, the popularity of the phrase 'in the minds of the consumer'. While the previous theme (T1) ('managerial function'), depicts an active process initiated by the firm, this theme (T2) ('perception in the minds of consumers'), encompasses a static facet of positioning; one that represents the outcome of the positioning process. T2 is clearly asserted in several definitions, for instance, in Blythe's (2003), the place the product occupies in the individual customer's perceptual map. Similarly, T2 is asserted in Masterson and Pickton's (2010, pg. 418) definition, "the place a product is perceived to occupy in the minds of customers/consumers of the relevant target market relative to other competing brands". It is this theme of a 'perception in the minds of consumers' which the literature refers to as the brand's position.

Several definitions were found to encompass only this theme, (perception in the minds of consumers), without explicitly or implicitly capturing the dynamic aspect undertaken by the firm as in T1 (managerial function). Aaker (1996) for instance, defines positioning as 'customer's whole perception about the firm or the product or the service in contrast to rivals'. Perreault and McCarty (1994) likewise define it as where customers locate in their minds the brand's offering in the market.

T3. Differentiation

Differentiation is evidenced in 26 of the 54 (48%) positioning definitions. This theme captures the notion that creating meaningful differentiation in an offering represents a key facet of the concept of positioning. Such differentiation is created by designing and/or modifying tangible and/or intangible attribute(s) of the offering, and communicating this to

the target audience (Arnott, 1993; O'Shaughnessy, 1995; Kotler, 2003; Hooley et al., 1998). T3 is captured in Hooley et al.'s (1998) definition, the act of designing the company's offering and image so that they occupy a meaningful and distinct competitive advantage. Likewise, Arnott (1992, pg. 113) defines positioning as "management's attempt to modify the tangible characteristics, and the intangible perceptions of a marketable offering in relation to the competition". T3 is consistent with the widely-accepted view that differentiating an offering is a cornerstone to the positioning of a brand, and therein, the success of the brand in the marketplace (Wind, 1982; Bhat and Reddy, 1998; Hooley et al., 1998). Accepting the view that differentiation represents the cornerstone of the positioning concept, the researcher found it surprising that more definitions from the pool do not capture this theme.

T4. Relative nature of the construct

The relative nature of positioning, is evident in 21 of the 54 (39%) of the definitions. This theme encompasses the view that positioning involves the customer making evaluative comparisons of a firm's offering relative to others in a consideration set. In other words, this theme represents the perceptions assessed against an explicit frame of reference of alternatives (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Along with T3 (differentiation), T4 can also be considered a cornerstone of positioning in that it delineates the concept of positioning from related constructs such as brand image. Brand image involves the evaluation of an offering on its own merits (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990), while brand positioning involves the evaluation of an offering relative to that of its competitors.

T4 is evident in several definitions as listed in Table B1.1. Clow and Baack (2010, pg. 69), defines brand positioning as "creating a perception in the consumer's mind regarding the nature of a company and its products relative to competitors". Among others, including Masterson and Pickton (2004), Cohen (2006), Blythe, (2008), Kapferer (2012), and Lovelock et al. (2014) also account for the 'relative nature of the construct'. In line with Kapferer's (2012), it is this relative nature of positioning (T4) that reminds the marketer that consumers' evaluative and preference decisions are based on making comparisons rather than by virtue only of the undertaking of the firm as captured in managerial function (T1).

B1.3.2 Defining the concept of brand positioning

Despite the numerous positioning definitions proposed in the literature over the years (Table B1.1), a single, universally-accepted definition of positioning is yet to emerge

(Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999). In the absence of a unifying definition, brand positioning has been associated with much uncertainty, suggesting a dearth in clarity of understanding of the meaning of positioning (Rigger, 1995; Butt and Murphy, 2007; Urde and Koch, 2014). Based on the evaluation of the pool of positioning definitions, the researcher contends that this quandary partly stems from the continuous use of definitions that emphasise only particular facets (i.e., core themes) of the positioning concept. To graphically illustrate this finding, Table B1.1 (four right-most columns) denotes the positioning themes that are found evident in each of the positioning definitions. Only three of the definitions (O'Shaughnessy, 1995; Dibb and Simkin; 2001, Armstrong and Kotler, 2012) explicitly convey the four facets of positioning. The use and re-use of the remaining fragmented definitions in the literature explain the uncertainly that is associated with the positioning concept. For instance, Kotler's (2003, pg. 308) definition, which is one of the most widely cited in the literature, conveys only three of the positioning definitions – 'managerial function' (T1), 'perception in consumer's mind' (T2) and 'differentiation' (T3).

Based on (1) the quintessence of the themes as discussed in the foregoing section, (2) the acknowledged need for an universally-accepted definition of brand positioning (Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999; Kalafatis et al., 2000), and (3) the ambiguity that has resulted from the lack of such a definition in the literature (Butt and Murphy, 2007; Urde and Koch, 2014), the researcher therefore proposes the following definition of [brand] positioning encompassing the four underlying positioning themes. Brand positioning is thus defined as:

> the process whereby the firm attempts (managerial function, T1) to associate its offering with a distinct attribute (differentiation, T3) so that the offering occupies a unique place relative to competitors' (relative nature of the construct, T4) in the minds of the targeted consumers (perception in the minds of consumers, T2).

This definition provides a thorough foundation on which to advance future research on positioning, and furthermore, to clarify the core meaning of the concept of brand positioning. The section that follows discusses the importance of theory to developing research, with particular focus on the use of theory within the brand positioning research domain.

B1.4 The importance of theory and its use in brand positioning research

The literature is clear regarding the fundamental importance of theory in business and management research (Melnyk and Handfield, 1998; Hunt, 2002; Mackenzie, 2003). Melnyk and Handfield (1998) write 'that theory focuses research', in that it helps the researcher to

identify relevant constructs, and provides an impetus for explaining patterns and relationships resulting from empirical observations. The importance of theory is also echoed in the papers presented in a *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* special issue on the advancement in marketing research. Herein, Mackenzie (2003) posits that due to the literature's failure to adequately specify the theoretical explanations a number of marketing constructs have most resulted in poor conceptualisations.

In a similar vein, Butt and Murphy (2007, pg. 549) point out that theory development is "one of the major objectives of research, and is critical to the continued success of science". Specific to the positioning research domain, the authors state that "efforts to develop positioning theory should start with [*a clear*] understanding of what positioning is, including its scope, the other marketing concepts that are related to it, and the ways positioning is actually implemented by industry" (ibid). Building upon the core meaning and scope of the positioning construct in Section B1.3.2 this section reviews the use and application of theory within the related literature.

B1.4.1 Exploring the use of theory in brand positioning research

A working definition is first established for the term *theory* - "a systematically related set of statements, including some law-like generalizations that are empirically testable" (Hunt 2002, pg. 4). A pool of 62 peer-reviewed marketing journal articles, published between 1981 and 2014, forms the basis of the review (i.e., the 33 years spanning the existence of positioning literature). Close attention is given to ensure that the title and contents of each article specifically relates to the concept of brand positioning, rather than other positioning-related concepts such as 'strategic positioning', 'competitive positioning' or 'market position'. Purposive literature reviews are not included in the pool of journal articles. The methodological aspect of the review is conducted by the following a three-step procedure:

- **Step 1;** this initial step involves identifying and subsequently removing articles where no explicit mention is made of the term 'theory', or 'theoretical' or 'framework'. To aid this process, the NVivo version 10, computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) package is employed (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). A query/search function enables the researcher to systematically identify and remove the articles not having the key words specified above. 16 articles were removed, leaving 46 for the remainder of the review.
- **Step 2**; in the remaining articles, attention is given to determine whether the term 'theory' (and related terms), as found in the articles, represent a reference to a

formal theory (based on Hunt, 2002), or a passing comment about theory in general (e.g., 'contribution to knowledge and theory'), or the use of the term *theory* in the name or title of a referenced article (such as, *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*). 35 articles were removed following the foregoing procedures; the remaining 22 were found to exhibit evidence of some underlying theory as shown in Table B1.3.

- **Step 3**; the remaining 11 articles are carefully read and examined in order to understand how the identified theories are used and applied. Table B1.3 provides a summary of the findings; it lists the names of the theories along with the names of the articles in which these theories are applied.

Table B1.3 Theories used in extant positioning research

NO#	Theories	Number of occurrences	Positioning articles
1	Information processing theory (schema)	3	Sujan and Bettman (1989) Jewell and Barone (2007) Dou et al. (2010)
2	Associative Network Theory	2	Romaniuk and Sharp (2002) Romaniuk (2001)
3	Categorization theory	1	Punj and Moon (2002)
4	Semiotics theory	1	Alden et al. (1999)
5	Means-end chain theory	1	Pike (2012)
6	Signalling theory	1	Singh, Kalafatis, and Ledden (2014)
7	Resource- advantage theory	1	Hooley et al. (2001)
8	Consumer culture theory	1	Akaka and Alden (2010)
9	Positioning typology	8	Crawford (1985) Kalafatis et al. (2000) Blankson and Kalafatis (1999, 2001, 2004, 2007) Blankson et al. (2008) Diwan and Bodla (2011)
10	Theory development	3	Blankson and Strutton (2011) Blankson and Crawford (2012) Beverland Napoli and Farrelly (2010)

Table B1.3 shows that only 11 of the initial pool of (n=62) articles constitute some form of theory. In the articles, eight theories are found evident with six used on a one-off basis. The associative network theory and the information processing theory are used more than once. The information processing theory is applied in three articles within similar experimental settings to examine consumer attitudes towards the position of varying new and re-positioned offerings (Sujan and Bettman, 1989; Jewell and Barone, 2007; Dou et al., 2010). The associative network theory is used by Romaniuk (2001) and Romaniuk and Sharp (2002)

to explain findings related to brand and advertising recall. Each theory is closely evaluated against the focus of the research – i.e., strengthening perceived positions of existing offerings. However, none of these theories are found applicable to the strengthening of positioning perceptions. For instance, categorisation theory provides an appropriate framework to examine the extent to which brands are associated with positioning bases (e.g., Fuchs, 2008; Punj and Moon, 2002). Signalling theory provides a framework to examine the impact of parent brands' positioning on perceptions of co-branded offerings (Singh, Kalafatis and Ledden, 2014). Notwithstanding their merits, neither of the above-mentioned theories, nor those identified in Table B1.3 provides an appropriate framework to underpin the strengthening of positioning perceptions, the focus of this research.

Also shown in the table are the positioning typologies which are given *theory-status* in the context of the review, which is however an on-going debate in the literature. Blankson and Strutton (2011) point out that positioning typologies have long been criticised as offering simple attribute-based classifications of positioning strategies rather than theoretical explanations. Similarly, Burton and Easingwood (2006) contend that a positioning typology is developed to reflect specific outcomes rather than a mere classification scheme. This is echoed by Doty and Glick (1994, pg. 234), who assert that "unlike classification systems, typologies do not provide division rules for classifying organisations. Instead, typologies identify multiple idea types, each of which represents a unique combination of the organisational attributes that are believed to determine the relevant outcome(s)". It can therefore be argued that, owing to the rigour employed in their development, only empirically-derived positioning typologies (e.g., Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Diwan and Bodla, 2011) meet the criteria to be regarded as *theory*. Consequently, conceptually-derived typologies proposed in the literature are not regarded as theories (e.g., Berry, 1982; Hooley et al., 1998; Punj and Moon, 2002). Consistent with this debate, the eight positioning typologies identified are developed base on empirical data, and are thus regarded as theory in the context of the present review (e.g., Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Morgan, Strong and McGuinness, 2003; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004).

Given the dearth of theories in brand positioning literature, recently scholars have devoted more attention to developing grounded theories within the brand positioning domain (Beverland et al., 2010; Blankson and Strutton, 2011; Blankson and Crawford, 2012). These efforts have, however, been confined to only understanding positioning strategies, rather than explaining the central concept of brand positioning.

B1.5 Conclusion

The discussion in this chapter focused on the nature of the brand positioning construct, which is considered a logical foundation towards critically reviewing extant literature. Section B1.2 traces the origin and development of positioning within the literature, and establishes its primacy as a topic for research. Positioning is widely applied across the broad spectrum of marketing activities even without a clear theoretical basis underlying the construct (Rigger, 1995) - from segmentation and targeting, to advertising and marketing communication, and even to marketing strategy. Consequently, this resulted in positioning being associated with considerable ambiguities regarding its meaning and application.

Section B1.3 discusses the results of an exhaustive content analysis of positioning definitions proposed within the literature over the years. Despite these efforts marketing researchers are still unable to agree on a single, unifying definition of positioning (Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999). This review, however, found four fundamental facets to underlie the core meaning of the positioning construct. These are used as the basis for proposing an updated and all-encompassing definition of brand positioning: 'the process where the firm ('managerial function') attempts to associate a brand's offering with a distinct tangible and/or intangible attribute ('differentiate') so that it occupies a unique place relative to competitors' ('relative nature') in the minds of the targeted consumers ('perception in consumers' minds')'.

The review uncovers that only a handful of studies employed theory in their deliberations on brand positioning. In these, very little attention is given to developing a theory that underpins the positioning concept. A plausible argument stems from the view of marketing as a cognitive and practical activity. Moreover, scholars within the positioning domain emphasise the critical role of theory in developing positioning research (Butt and Murphy, 2007). Having established the central meaning and theoretical scope of the concept of positioning, the next chapter moves the debate along to the role and importance of positioning as captured by the existing positioning literature.

Chapter B2 **Role and importance of brand positioning**

B2.1 Introduction

Having clarified the origin and core meaning of brand positioning, together with a discussion on theory in the foregoing chapter, this chapter provides an extensive review of the literature in respect to the accorded role and importance of positioning. Though interrelated, for the purpose of the review a distinction is made between the role and importance of positioning. The former is viewed as the function or part played by the concept within the wider domain of marketing, while the latter is viewed as the potential or realised output/outcome of having implemented the construct.

It is widely agreed that brand positioning plays a fundamental role in modern marketing and brand management among marketing scholars (Aaker, 1982; Kotler, 2003; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Aaker and McLoughin, 2007; Talke and Hultink, 2010; Hooley et al., 2012); and practitioners (e.g., Ries and Trout, 1986, 2001; Treacy and Wiersema, 1997; Clancy and Krieg, 2007; Trout and Revkin, 2010). In particular, several authors, including Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010) point out that the role of positioning has become increasingly important in today's competitive markets (Aaker and McLoughin, 2007; Clancy and Krieg, 2007; Pike, 2012) - characterised by a 'homogeneity and imitation' of attributes offered by competing offerings (Hatch and Schultz, 2001). Moreover, Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2012) assert that even the strongest brands (e.g., Coca Cola, Apple) are confronted with the challenge of competing within an over-crowded and over-communicated consumer market. Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003), based on interviews with marketing managers, report that successful brands are more and more challenged to create meaningful differentiations that clearly distinguish their offerings from those of competitors. Within such a competitive environment, positioning is acknowledged as a tool for competitive warfare (Ries and Trout, 2001). Moreover, brand positioning is a tool that enables the brand to occupy a distinct place in the mind of targeted consumers (Pike, 2012; Kapferer, 2012), and to create that which Kotler (2003, pg. 308) refers to as "a customer-focused value proposition, a cogent reason why the target market should buy the product".

Brand positioning, according to Ries and Trout (2001), functions to succinctly communicate the unique associations of the brand to the minds of consumers. Specifically, the authors assert that positioning is based on three propositions:

- Consumers live in an over-communicated society, bombarded with an increasing amount of information about competing and substitute brand offerings.
- With the limited capacity in their minds, consumers develop mental slots (i.e., positions) to de-clutter and selectively organise information about brands based on relevant product attributes.
- Thus, the only way for a brand to occupy a distinct position in the mind of targeted consumers is through a focused message that evokes unique associations about the brand relative to competing offerings.

This view is echoed by Aaker (2003), in his review on the differentiating role of brand positioning in competitive markets. Herein, Aaker (2003) writes that positioning guides the firm to create and convey a meaningful brand differentiator – i.e., a unique set of tangible and/or intangible attributes distinct from those offered by competitors.

Similarly, Pike (2012) suggests that positioning is the differentiating aspect of the brand which serves to cut through the noise of competing offerings, and evokes distinct perceptions[3] of the brand in the minds of the consumers. Vigar-Ellis, Barrett and Chiweshe (2009) agree with this view, highlighting that a differentiating aspects of a brand ensure that product and service offerings do not degenerate into commodities.

Through positioning, the firm attempts to identify and take possession of strong purchasing rationale for its brand (Kapferer, 2012); one that gives consumers a real reason why the brand should be perceived as distinct from its competition (Treacy and Wiersema, 1997; Baines and Fill, 2014). In this context, a well-positioned brand is considered one that appeals strongly to the needs of the targeted consumers and "squarely communicates to its target that... [*the brand*] will fulfil their needs better than competing brands" (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007, pg. 7).

In addition to its role in product and brand-level marketing activities, positioning is considered to play a central role in directing the strategic focus of the firm (Tyagi, 2000; Palmer, 2004; Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007; Butt, 2010). Aaker and McLoughlin (2007) state that strategic and communication initiatives are driven by positioning. In a similar manner, Butt (2010, pg. 176) points out that positioning informs the firm's overall marketing

[3] Perception in this context depicts where the consumer, through a process of learning about competing brands on selective product/service attributes, forms a unique subjective judgement and perceptual meaning of specific brands (Pan and Lehmann, 1993; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004).

strategy, and goes on to suggest "that an effective marketing mix can only be developed once a company has crafted a distinct positioning strategy". Having determined a positioning [strategy] deemed appropriate for the brand, the firm attempts to translate the brand's [intended] positioning into tangible and/or intangible attributes by tailoring different elements of the marketing mix (Kaul and Rao, 1995). This process generally involves modifying one or more elements of the marketing mix[4] - i.e., the product itself; price; place; and most often, promotion, (Brooksbank, 1994; Lilien and Rangaswamy, 2003). Arguably, modifying such elements of the marketing mix may in turn alter the perception consumers have of an offering. As a result, such changes are applicable for positioning new offerings and re-positioning existing offerings in the market.

Among the [marketing] communication tools, advertising is generally considered 'the main vehicle for brand positioning' (Carpenter, 1989; Carpenter and Nakamoto, 1989; Palmer, 2004; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007). The literature has made less frequent use of other communication tools, in comparison to advertisement, to empirically examine the construct of positioning – e.g., sponsorship (e.g., Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Alexander, 2009), sales promotion (Brooksbank, 1994; Alden et al., 1999), and endorsements (see Malik and Sudhakar, 2014 for a review). The literature makes use of various forms of advertising media in studying brand positioning including magazine, newspaper, television and different internet adverts (e.g., Crawford, 1985; Pechmann and Ratneshwar, 1991; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004, 2007).

For the most part, these forms of adverts are used as (i) a means of interpreting the positioning of offerings – for example, Crawford (1985), and Blankson and Kalafatis' (2004) analysis of print adverts; and (ii) research stimulus in order to convey and subsequently evaluate a specific brand positioning strategy [among research participants] – for example, Fuchs and Diamantopoulos' (2010) use of automobile print adverts to examine the effectiveness of abstract vs. direct benefit positioning strategies.

B2.2 Importance of brand positioning

The underlying role of positioning is to create a distinct perception of a brand relative to competitors in the minds of the targeted consumers (O'Shaughessy, 1995). Effectively deployed, positioning functions to cut through the clutter that pervades today's over-

[4] The author acknowledges the expanded 7 P's mix for services (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2003).

communicated consumer and business markets (Ries and Trout, 2001), giving consumers a cogent reason why a brand should be preferred over the competition (Kotler, 2003; Armstrong and Kotler, 2012. Reviewing the literature uncovers several comments and empirical evidence concerning the vital role of positioning; these are important and relevant with consumer marketing, both at the brand-level and level of strategic marketing activities. In reflecting on the central role of positioning, arguably, the concept of positioning is situated at the heart of marketing activities directed to the consumer. This assertion corresponds to Dovel's (1990) view that positioning represents the *backbone* of marketing and business plans.

As discussed, the role of brand positioning centres on locating an offering in a distinct place in the minds of consumers relative to the competition. This distinct mind-set is achieved by designing and succinctly conveying key associations of the brand that clearly differentiate the brand from others in the marketplace. Whilst these activities involve creating and modifying tangible or intangible attributes of the brand (Arnott, 1992), the overarching act of positioning goes beyond 'what is done to the product itself' (Ries and Trout, 2001). At its core, the objective of these positioning activities is to establish and evoke changes in consumers' mental schema about the brand (Sujan and Bettman, 1989). The latter is what Ries and Trout (2001, pg., 2) means by the phrase – "you position the product in the mind of the prospect".

Like other marketing functions undertaken by the firm, brand positioning is driven by the firm's ultimate objective to realise financial and non-financial returns (Fuchs, 2008; Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007). Positioning activities are costly (Bhat and Reddy, 1998; Rossiter and Percy, 1997; Hooley and Greenley, 2005), and understandably so, direct or indirect returns is a reasonable expectation of the firm; one recognised as an underlying objective of positioning. Nonetheless, as the goal of positioning centres on creating differentiated perceptions of the brand in the minds of consumers, rather than company-specific performance rewards (Blankson and Crawford, 2012) issues regarding the manifest outcomes and accorded importance continue to stir debates in the literature.

In reviewing positioning-specific book chapters and peer-reviewed journal articles, comments regarding the importance of positioning cannot be overemphasized (Wind, 1982; Crawford, 1985; Suzuki, 2000; Kotler, 2003; Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007; Fill, 2009; Baines and Fill, 2010; Blankson and Crawford, 2012; Hooley et al., 2012; Kotler and Keller, 2012). For

the most part, these claims are evidenced by extensive conceptual deliberations (e.g., Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007; Hooley et al., 2012) along with a recently growing stream of empirical research on the importance of brand positioning (e.g., Suzuki, 2000; Blankson and Crawford, 2012; Blankson et al., 2013).

B2.2.1 Subjective and objective rewards of positioning

The rewards associated with the firm's positioning activities can be categorised as subjective and objective (Blankson et al., 2008). Subjective returns generally comprise qualitative measures of success to the firm and/or its brand(s), such as, competitive advantage, increased product/brand image, and enhanced customer loyalty (Kalra and Goodstein, 1998; Kapferer, 2012); objective returns comprise key quantitative financial measures, including sales, profit, return-on-investments, and market share (Blankson et al., 2008).

In respect to subjective rewards, positioning is most often cited to positively affect the competitive advantage of a firm (e.g., Hooley and Greenley, 2005). A well-positioned brand, enhances the overall competitiveness of the brand, and generates a sustainable competitive advantage for the firm (Porter, 2001; Kotler, 2003; Aaker and McLoughlin, 2007; Ghodeswar, 2008; Hooley et al., 2012). Blankson et al. (2013) explain that such competitive advantage is derived from the brand's ability, by way of its positioning, to sync with the wants and aspirations of target consumers and thereby outperforming competitive offerings (see Kaul and Rao, 1995, for a review). Agreeing with this view, Hooley and Greenley (2005) provide empirical evidence to suggest that brands with unique and differentiated brand positions most often lead to superior performance in the marketplace. In their extensive survey of UK senior marketing executives, the authors report that brands with distinct and difficult-to-imitate positions (e.g., that based on superior service or innovation) are inherently defensible against competitor imitation and encroachment. On a strategic level of positioning, Fahy et al. (2000) point out that a firm's ability to build and maintain such defensible market positions underpins the company's marketing initiatives.

In addition to competitive advantages, the literature provides several comments and empirical evidence regarding the effects of positioning activities on other subjective performance rewards of the firm (e.g., DiMingo, 1988; Kalra and Goodstein, 1998; Martos-Partal and González-Benito, 2011; Rungtrakulchai, 2013). Kalra and Goodstein (1998) found that consumers are willing to pay significantly higher premium for a minor (vs. major) brand

with a unique and differentiated position. Even more, their results suggest that positioning activities reduce consumer price sensitivity; by showing that price becomes less of an important criterion when presented with differentiated brand offerings. In a study of Thai consumers, Rungtrakulchai (2013) found a significantly positive relationship between positioning activities and perceived brand image and brand value. Based on these findings, he postulates that positioning enhances consumer loyalty as well as their willingness to search for the brand. From the foregoing, effective positioning is the means through which strong brands set themselves apart from the 'me-too' (Carpenter and Nakamoto, 1990; Rossiter, 1997; Wilke and Zaichkowsky, 1999), and imitation offerings that saturate today's marketplace (Riezebos and van der Grinten, 2012; Kapferer, 2012).

The above is in line with Kotler (2003), who asserts that if a firm does a poor job at positioning, the market is confused as to what to expect of its brands; however, if it does an effective job at managing the positioning of its brand, the end result is "the successful creation of a customer-focused value proposition, a cogent reason why the target market should buy the product" (Kotler, ibid., 308).

Chapter B3 **Positioning strategies and positioning effectiveness**

B3.1 Positioning strategy

The role and importance of positioning is established in Chapter B2. According to the literature the brand's position – i.e., the extent to which consumers perceive the brand as differentiated from competitors (Wind, 1980; Aaker, 1996; Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Kotler et al., 2014) – is of integral importance to the success and long-term competitive advantage of the firm. Of equal importance, is the brand's positioning strategy - the actions the firm undertakes in an attempt to situate a brand in a distinct perceptual space in the mind-set of the targeted consumers (Dillon, Domzal and Madden 1986; Brooksbank, 1994; Kotler, 2003).

B3.1.1 Benefits of positioning strategy

While acknowledging the relevance of Clow and Baack's (2010, pg. 69) assertion – that "it is the customer who ultimately determines what position the product holds"` - the literature strongly agrees that the strategy employed to position the brand, and so differentiate it from competitors is an integral facet of the concept of brand positioning (Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Hartmann et al., 2005; Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Hooley et al., 1998; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012). A positioning strategy depicts how the brand competes against rivals in the marketplace (Brooksbank, 1994); it conveys "what the brand stands for, and the values and beliefs that customers will come to associate with the particular brand" (Fill, 2009; pg. 342). It is these key brand associations that customers use as the basis of making evaluative, preference and purchase decisions among offerings within a product/service category (Pan and Lehmann, 1993; Fill, 2009; Pham and Muthukrishnan, 2002). In a similar manner, Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010) investigating the effectiveness of positioning strategies, report that a well-implemented strategy leads to a differentiated, credible, and favourable perception of an offering in relation to the competition.

Alongside its function to differentiate the brand relative to competitors, several scholars make the point that the positioning strategy guides the development of marketing programs (e.g., Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Keller, 1993; Palmer, 2004; Harrison-Walker, 2011). In their view, a clear positioning strategy ensures that the marketing mix is congruent with the overall strategy of the firm and generate long-term growth and competitive advantages (Porter, 1996; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000; Harrison-Walker, 2011). As noted by Blankson

and Kalafatis (2004, pg. 7), "companies who ignore the long-term benefits of positioning strategies and instead opt for operational efficiency, would not be able to take advantage of the benefits of long term growth".

In light of the foregoing debate, it is not surprising to find that several academics point out that the decision of selecting an effective positioning strategy is a central challenge for brand managers (Kotler, 2003; Aaker and McMoulogh, 2007; Hartmann et al., 2005; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). Kotler (2003) perhaps best postulates this view asserting that "if a firm does a poor job at positioning, the market will be confused as to what to expect of its brands; however, if it does an effective job at managing the positioning of its brands, [the end result is] the successful creation of a customer-focused value proposition, a cogent reason why the target market should buy the product" (pg. 308).

The past three decades have shown a growth in research devoted to the development, testing, and implementation of positioning strategies (e.g., Ries and Trout, 1986, 2001; Clancy and Krieg, 2007; Crawford, 1985; Arnott, 1993; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). Conceptual and empirical research focus primarily on four interrelated areas concerning positioning strategies: (i) alternative dimensions on which to base a brand's positioning strategy (i.e., positioning bases); (ii) developing and testing typologies that group positioning bases into parsimonious categories (i.e., positioning typologies); (iii) developing systematic procedures in an attempt to implement a brand's positioning strategy; and finally, (iv) having implemented a brand's positioning strategy, evaluating the effectiveness of a brand's positioning in consumers' minds.

B3.1.2 Positioning attributes and bases

Firms can position their offerings based on a diverse range of tangible and intangible positioning attributes (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010; Eryigit and Eryigit, 2014). For instance, a firm with a mobile phone offering can position its brand based on portability (129 grams), memory storage capacity (128 GB), battery life (2-day battery), screen display (LED-backlit Retina display), ease of use (one-click photo capture) - only to name a few positioning attributes. On the basis of one [or a group] of positioning attributes, the firm attempts to associate its brand with a distinct attribute that differentiates its offering from

that of competitors in the marketplace (Crawford, 1985; Hooley et al., 2012; Eryigit and Eruigit, 2014).

Over the years, marketing scholars and practitioners have proposed a plethora of tangible and intangible attributes to position offerings across different product and service categories (e.g., Crawford, 1985; Arontt, 1992; Ries and Trout; 2001; Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2011; Hartmann et al., 2005; Eryigit and Eruigit, 2014). For example, just for shampoo, Crawford, Urban, and Buzas (1983), through a longitudinal content analysis of print adverts, identified as many as 40 attributes used by brands to position their offerings; these attributes include 'feature', 'function', 'endorsement', and 'parentage'. Eryigit and Eryigit (2014) identified as many as 60 attributes employed in positioning automobile offerings, including 'fuel efficiency', 'affordability', 'unique interior', and 'environmental sensitivity'. In a similar manner, Romaniuk (2001) found more than 10 attributes employed by four leading financial institutions, including, 'convenient branches', 'suitable fees and changes', 'safe', and 'good at financial management'.

Selecting an appropriate positioning attribute becomes a critical decision in the firm's attempt to successfully position its offering in the minds of the targeted consumers. To guide this process, scholars have devoted extensive attention to grouping similar positioning attributes into parsimonious positioning bases. A positioning base thus comprises of a set of conceptually related attributes and constitutes a means to convey a differential advantage of an offering in consumers' minds (Fuchs, 2008). Among other scholars, Blankson and Kalafatis (2004) have developed classification schemes that group positioning bases into parsimonious positioning typologies (Crawford 1985; Arnott, 1992, 1994; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Fuchs, 2008; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010).

B3.1.3 Positioning typologies

A positioning typology refers to a conceptually-derived (and, in a few instances, empirically-validated) set of positioning bases used in the management and operationalisation of the positioning construct (Blankson and Strutton, 2011). A search of the positioning literature identifies 22 positioning typologies (e.g., Buskirk, 1975; Crawford, 1985; Arnott, 1992; Hooley et al., 1998; Kim and Mouborgne, 2000; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2001, 2004). These typologies range from those comprising a limited number of broad and generic positioning bases – e.g., Crawford (1985) and Berry (1982) three and four bases,

respectively; to elaborate ones offerings more detailed, and in some instances complex, positioning bases - e.g., Easingwood and Mahajan (1989) and Arnott (1994), with eight and 16 bases respectively. A full list of the identified typologies, along with their comprising positioning bases, (i.e., attributes) is provided in Table B3.1.

With the exception of Crawford (1985), the review finds most of the early typologies to be primarily conceptual, reflecting mere suggestions by scholars without empirical validation (Buskirk, 1975; Brown and Sims, 1976; Berry, 1982; Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Ries and Trout, 2001). Differently, Crawford's (1985) typology was developed based on an extensive content analysis of adverts conveying positioning strategies of consumer and industrial product/service offerings. Initial work on his typology stems from an earlier [unpublished] working paper (Crawford et al., 1983) that focused primarily on the consumer shampoo market. In part, for being the first to provide empirical validation to a proposed positioning typology, Crawford's (1985) seminal work spurred attention among scholars to developing empirically-derived positioning typologies (e.g., Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Arnott, 1993, 1994; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004), but remains one of the most widely cited position typologies (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012; Diwan and Bodla, 2011; Eryigit and Eryigit, 2014).

Of the 22 identified typologies, only three reflect positioning strategies based on empirical evidence from the perspective of the consumer (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Burton and Easingwood, 2006; Diwan and Bodla, 2011). The remaining typologies, ignore the consumer's perspective and propose positioning strategies based on how the marketer intends [and would like] the brand to be positioned in the marketplace. Despite the wide agreement that positioning is a consumer-centred phenomenon, and calls for more consumer-based positioning typologies (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004), scholars continue to propose typologies that are developed from the manager's perspective (e.g., Beverland et al., 2010). While the above convention reflects the notion that the process of positioning is initiated by the firm (see Section B1.3), this convention ignores the view that "it is the customer who ultimately determines what position the product holds" (Clow and Baack, 2010; pg. 69). Table B3.1 also indicates whether the respective typologies are based on conceptual vs. empirical evidence, and also additionally developed from the manager vs. consumer perspective. Of the three empirical consumer-derived typologies (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Burton and Easingwood, 2006; Diwan and Bodla, 2011), that proposed by

Burton and Easingwood (2006) presents methodological concerns raising questions regarding the validity of the typology. More specifically, this typology is developed based on case study data prepared by advertising agencies. Given that these case studies were prepared on behalf of clients increases the potential for biases in the reported data and inaccuracies in reflecting consumer perceptions (de Vaus, 2005).

Contrastingly, Diwan and Bodla's (2011) typology is developed based on consumer survey data. In developing the typology, Diwan and Bodla (2011) mirror both the methodological and analytical approaches employed by Blankson and Kalafatis (2004) to propose a positioning typology specific to the automobile industry. Robustly developed, the typology comprises eight distinct positioning strategies ('visual artistic', 'contemporary features', 'basic features', 'security measures', 'brand image', 'dealer network and services', 'promotional campaign', 'cost and finance'). The application of Diwan and Bodla's (2011) typology is however confined to positioning automobile offerings, compared to the wider applicability of Blankson and Kalafatis' (2004) generic positioning typology. In fact, Blankson and Kalafatis' (2004) typology has been applied in several product and marketing research domains, such as: examining positioning strategies of international and multinational credit card offerings (Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007), investigating the impact of positioning on corporate performance of retail service stores (Blankson and Crawford, 2012); evaluating the positioning strategies employed by firms conducting business in liberalized sub-Saharan African region (Blankson and Strutton, 2011), and more recently, examining consumer perceptions of co-brands (Singh, Kalafatis and Ledden, 2014).

Despite the growing acceptance and application of Blankson and Kalafatis' (2004) empirical consumer-derived typology, that proposed by Crawford (1985) is still the most widely cited, and perhaps regarded the most prominent in the positioning literature (Section B3.1.3). Nevertheless, there still remain calls in the literature to develop typologies of positioning strategies that are developed from the consumer point of view as opposed to the growing convention to develop typologies from perspective of the firm.

Table B3.1 List of existing positioning typologies

Positioning typology	# Bases	Empirical (E)	Conceptual (C)	Customer-oriented (Cu)	Managerial-oriented (M)	Classification	Positioning bases
Buskirk (1975)	4		C		M	**CM**	(1) Features; (2) price; (3) advertising; (4) distribution
Brown and Sims (1976)	4		C		M	**CM**	(1) Problems solved; (2) usage situation; (3) users; (4) competitors
Berry (1982)	4		C		M	**CM**	(1) Value; (2) time efficiency; (3) high contact; (4) sensory
Wind (1982)	5		C		M	**CM**	(1) Product features/benefits; (3) problem solution or need; (4) usage occasions/ user; (4) against another product; (5) product class association.
Aaker and Shansby (1982)	6		C		M	**CM**	(1) Attributes; (2) price/quality; (3) competition; (4) application; (5) product user, (6) product class
Crawford, Urban and Buzas (1983)	2	E			M	**EM**	(1) Attributes (feature, function and benefit); (2) surrogates (competitors, endorsement, experience, manufacture, parentage, rank, target)
Crawford (1985)	3	E			M	**EM**	(1) Features; (2) benefits (direct/indirect); (3) surrogates
Ries and Trout (1986, 2001)	5		C		M	**CM**	(1) Market leader; (2) follower; (3) reposition the company; (4) use the name; (5) line extension
Easingwood and Mahajan (1989)	8	E			M	**EM**	(1) Reputation capabilities of organisation; (2) argumentation of product offering; (3) people advantage; (4) more attractive package offering; (5) superior product through technology; (6) accessibility; (7) extra attention given to individual requirements through customization; (8) satisfaction of more user needs within sector
Arnott (1992, 1994)	16	E			M	**EM**	(1) Sensory; (2) price; (3) usage; (4) user; (5) association/comparison; (6) communications (7) people; (8) process; (9) access; (10) experience;; (11) assurance; (12) reliability; (13) empathy; (14) innovation; (15) technology; (16) social accountability.
Porter (1996)	3		C		M	**CM**	(1) Varity-based; (2) needs-based; (3) access-based
Kalafatis *et al.* (2000)	13	E			M	**EM**	(1) Pricing; (2) easy to do business; (3) personal contact; (4) product performance; (5) range of offerings; (6) presence; (7) safety; (8) leadership; (9) distinct identity; (10) status; (11) country identity; (12) differentiation; (13) attractiveness.
Hooley *et al.* (1998)	6		C		M	**CM**	(1) low price – high price; (2) premium quality – basic quality; (3) innovation – imitation; (4) superior service – limited service; (5) differentiated benefits – undifferentiated features; (6) tailored offering – standard offering.

Kalra and Goodstein (1998)	6		C		M	**CM**	(1) Value-orientation; (2) comparison with premium player; (3) unique attribute; (4) meaningless attribute; (5) endorsement by product-relevant celebrities; (6) premium versus premium brand comparison
Kim and Mouborgne (2000)	6		C		M	**CM**	(1) Customer productivity; (2) simplicity; (3) convenience; (4) risk reduction; (5) fun and image; (6) environmental friendliness
Punj and Moon (2002)	5		C		M	**CM**	(1) Product market definition; (2) market/company structure (industry organization and history; (3) market share condition; (4) product category's life cycle stage; (5) consumer knowledge
Blankson and Kalafatis (2004)	8	E		Cu		**ECu**	(1) Top of the range; (2) service; (3) value for money; (4) reliability; (5) attractiveness; (6) country of origin (7) the brand name; (8) selectivity
Burton and Easingwood (2006)	6	E		Cu		**EC**	(1) Customer productivity; (2) simplicity; (3) convenience; (4) risk function, social, and psychological); (5) environmental friendliness hedonic benefit (image, emotional benefit); (6) sensual/sensuous benefit
Romaniuk (2001)	6	E			M	**EM**	(1) Price; (2) relationship/services benefit; (3) security benefit; (4) user type; (5) accessibility benefit; (6) perceived quality
Diwan and Bodla (2011)	8	E			M	**ECu**	(1) Visual artistic; (2) contemporary features; (3) basic features; (4) security measure; (5) brand image, (6) dealer network and services; (7) promotional campaign; (8) cost and finance.
Beverland Napoli and Farrelly (2010)	4	E		Cu		**EM**	(1) Market-driven incremental innovations; (2) market-driven radical innovations; (3) driving market incremental innovations; (4) driving markets' radical innovations
Morgan, Strong, and McGuinness (2003)	6	E		Cu		**EM**	(1) Production process orientation; (2) marketing capabilities; (3) quality orientation; (4) price-cost leadership; (5) product scope and development; (6) differentiation focus
Pike (2004)	10		C		M	**CMu**	(1) Functional destination attribute; (2) affective qualities; (3) travel motivation benefits; (4) market segmentation; (5) symbols of self-expression; (6) countering risk; (7) brand leadership; (8) focus; (9) unfocused; (10) combinations of the above.

E = Empirically-derived; C = Conceptual-derived; Cu = Customer perspective; M = Managerial perspective.

B3.2 Evaluating the effectiveness of positioning strategies

As important as the selection of an appropriate brand positioning strategy, is the evaluation of the effectiveness of that positioning strategy (Keller, 1993; Pham and Muthukrishnan, 2002; Keller and Lehmann, 2006). In other words, it is important to evaluate the effectiveness of positioning strategies in order to assess the extent to which the brand occupies a distinct place, relative to the competition, in the minzds of consumers. By so doing, the firm achieves the accorded benefits associated with a well-positioned brand (debated in Section B2.3), particularly a sustained competitive advantage (Karla and Goodstein, 1998; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007; Blankson et al., 2008; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012).

Acknowledging the vital importance of a brand's positioning strategy, Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010) posit that the decisions involved in selecting an effective positioning strategy represent a central challenge for brand managers. The authors emphasise this view by asserting, that "if positioning is done effectively, it has the potential to build powerful brands; however, if done incorrectly, it can result in a disaster" (pg. 1764) for the brand, its offerings and the firm on a whole. This view is echoed by Kotler (2003), who points out that if a firm does a poor job at positioning, the market will be confused as to what to expect of its offering relative to competitors. In a similar manner, Bhat and Reddy (1998) state that positioning activities particularly advertising represent a substantive investment to the firm. Getting positioning wrong - i.e. "selecting positioning dimensions which are not perceived as being relevant and important by consumers and/or do not sufficiently differentiate the brand from rival brands" (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, pg. 1766) – can only be a disadvantage to the firm. As implied by the above discussion, the importance of monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of positioning strategies overtime cannot be overemphasised (Crawford, 1985; Arnott, 1992; Gilmore, 1999; Lehu, 2004).

Over the years, researchers have taken different approaches to evaluating the effectiveness of positioning strategies (Gwin and Gwin, 2003; Miles and Mangold, 2005). Most recently Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010, 2012), in their review of the literature, make the distinction between firm-based and customer/consumer-based approaches to evaluating and measuring 'positioning effectiveness'.

Firm-based methods involve first a clear understanding of a brand's positioning strategy as intended by brand managers, and then assessing this against the firm's key financial performance measures, such as sales, profits, return on investment (ROI), and market share (Gwin and Gwin, 2003; Blankson et al., 2008). In this context, a well-positioned brand is considered one which provides sales and profitable returns to the firm (Blankson and Crawford, 2012). A number of studies evaluate positioning effectiveness in this manner (e.g., Roth, 1992, 1995; Suzuki, 2000; Blankson et al., 2008; Blankson and Crawford, 2012). Using a case study approach, Blankson and Crawford (2010) conducted in-depth interviews and covert observations in retail stores looking at store ambience, promotions, target audience, and quality of products and customer service in order gain insights of the stores' intended positioning strategies. The researchers then corroborated the stores' intended positioning to as actual sales, profits, ROI and other performance measures. Their findings suggest that specific positioning strategies (e.g., 'value-for-money', 'service', and 'attractiveness') are more associated with retail service brands.

Similarly, from a quantitative perspective, Suzuki (2000) developed a model which suggests that positioning strategies associated with 'high quality service' and 'affordable airfares' are positively related to profitability for airline service providers. Despite the usefulness of this model to gauge positioning by way of objective bottom-line measures, its main shortcoming is the fact that sales and financial performance is often connected to and determined by a number of micro and macro performance factors which are often outside the control of brand managers (Wind, 1982; Lodish, 1986).

Another commonly used firm-based approach to evaluating positioning, particular to new products is perceptual mapping techniques (Dröge and Darmon, 1987; Dillon, Domzal and Madden 1986; Myers, 1996). This involves brand managers graphically illustrating the positions occupied by competitors within a multi-dimensional perceptual space (e.g., price and quality), and in so doing, identifying potentially untapped positions (otherwise called 'niches' or 'gaps') on which a brand can be positioned (Kotler and Keller, 2009). In this context, a well-positioned brand is considered one which is situated within a distinct and profitable position relative to competing others (Romaniuk and Sharp, 2002) – i.e., a competitive market position (Wind, 1982; Hooley et al., 2001). A number of studies have employed perceptual mapping techniques for evaluating the competitive positions among category offerings (e.g., Romaniuk and Sharp 2002; Zhou and Wang, 2010). Najafizadeh,

Elahi, Moemeni and Lotfi (2012) propose a competitive ranking of five major laundry detergent brands based on a perceptual mapping of a two-dimensional space of 'quality' and 'advertisement factors' (i.e., packaging and price). In a similar manner, Zhou and Wang (2010) delineate the competitive positions to two Chinese city destinations based on a two-dimensional 'comprehensive function' and 'historical culture' perceptual space. An underlying critique of this method of assessing positioning effectiveness is that it generally presents a static view of a brand's position from the perspective of the manager, which does not necessarily reflect the actual position of the brand in the minds of consumers (Brown, Dacin, Pratt and Whetten, 2006; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2012). As Lovelock (1996, pg. 168) clearly articulates, "people make their decisions based on their individual perceptions of reality, rather than on the marketer's definition of that reality".

Evaluating positioning effectiveness from the customer's perspective primarily involves surveying consumers to assess their perceptual and behavioural responses to a brand relative to competitors (Kotler, 2003; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). More specifically, some scholars have adopted attribute-specific measurements of positioning effectiveness (e.g., Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Hartmann et al., 2005; Brown et al., 2006; Blankson et al., 2008), where consumers are asked to evaluate an offering in respect to a specific positioning dimension (e.g., a laundry detergent offering in respect to 'stain-removing ability'). This approach is underpinned by the notion that a well-positioned brand is one that holds a clear association with a differentiating attribute in the minds of consumers - in other words, one in which its perceived positioning is congruent with the positioning intended by the firm. Several studies have employed this method (e.g., Blankson, 2004; Pike and Mason, 2010). Blankson (2004), for example, established effectiveness of two major UK store card brands (Marks & Spencer, and Harrods) with respect to observed congruence between the positioning information communicated in the brand's marketing communication and the brands' positions as perceived by consumers. A similar method was adopted by Pike and Mason (2010) but within the context of tourist destinations.

Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2012) criticise this attribute-specific method of measuring positioning effectiveness, pointing out that while the method allows managers to examine the extent to which a brand's intended positioning is congruent with that perceived by consumers, the method fails to capture whether consumers actually like or prefer the brand's position relative to that of competitors. In response, Fuchs and Diamantopoulos

(2012) propose an alternative method of measuring positioning effectiveness. This method captures consumer perceptions of a brand's position and it does so by measuring four underlying factors: 'differentiation', 'favourability', 'uniqueness' and 'credibility'. The method was developed and validated across seven studies; and is found to be robust across diverse product categories, including automobiles, shower gels, and wrist watches. Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2012) assert that rather than intended as an optimal measurement, the proposed method complements other consumer-based approaches to evaluating positioning effectiveness.

As demonstrated in the foregoing debate, the literature is clear regarding the importance of monitoring an evaluating the effectiveness of a brand's positioning strategy. Over the years, several methods appeared in the literature which conceptually can be group into two categories: firm-based and customer/consumer-based approaches. The methods constituting the two overarching approaches are widely applied in the literature. Moreover, whilst both methods are informative, the literature provides a stronger debate for adopting consumer-based methods for assessing the effectiveness of brand positioning, and in this respect using both attribute- and product-specific methods.

B3.3 Conclusion

There is a growing literature on positioning strategies which has focused primarily on areas of research including developing typologies of positioning strategies (e.g., Crawford, 1982; Kalafatis et al., 2000; Arnott, 1992, 1993; Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999, 2000, 2004), and evaluating the effectiveness of various positioning strategies (e.g., Blankson and Kalafatis; 2007; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012).

With respect to positioning typologies, the review of the literature identifies 22 typologies proposed by academics and practitioners (Section B3.1). Despite the literature's (Rigger, 1995; Yip, 1997) repeated call for empirically-derived, consumer-based positioning typologies, the majority of those identified in the literature are conceptual and developed mainly form the manager's point of view - an observation noted in Blankson and Kalafatis' (2004) earlier review. This is with the exception of a few typologies such as Blankson and Kalafatis (2004), Kalafatis et al. (2000), Morgan, Strong and McGuinness (2003) among others specified in Table B3.1 Blankson and Kalafatis (2004) developed a rigorous

empirically-derived, consumer-based typology, comprising eight generic positioning strategies (e.g., 'top of the range', reliability', 'selectivity', and 'attractiveness').

Recent studies (e.g., Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007; Blankson et al., 2008; Blankson and Crawford, 2012; Singh et al., 2014) finds this typology stable across a number of product/service and research domains (e.g., positioning perceptions of multi-national card service brands, and co-branded product offerings). Alongside the proposed typologies of Blankson and Kalafatis (2004) and Crawford (1985) is another more widely cited in the literature; this is accorded primarily to this one being the first empirically-derived typology to appear in the literature, and its simple yet generic positioning categories offered by the typology – features, benefit, and surrogate. Despite initially developed from the managerial perspective, this typology has been operationalised from the consumer's perspective, most recently by Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010, 2012), in their extensive works on positioning effectiveness. Furthermore, Crawford's (1985) typology underpins Crawford and Di Benedetto (2011) long-standing work on new products' positioning strategies.

Part C: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter C1 **Conceptual framework**

C1.1 Introduction

The debate in Section B1.1 and ongoing references throughout the literature review establishes brand positioning as central component of modern marketing management. This view is supported by a substantial body of conceptual research demonstrating the role and importance of positioning to the competitive success of a brand, its offerings, and the long-term competitive advantage of the firm (Section B2.2). Still growing is the body of empirical research substantiating the accorded importance of positioning in terms of its direct impact on the firm's subjective and objective performance indicators, such as brand preference and loyalty, sales and bottom-line profit returns (Section B2.3). As debated in Section B3.2, the rationale offered in this respect surrounds the methodological and practical challenges of measuring positioning effectiveness, and delineating the direct influence of positioning from other initiatives undertaken by the firm (Kalafatis et al., 2000; Blankson and Crawford, 2010).

Despite the extensive attention devoted to positioning, Section B1.2 demonstrates that the literature offers fragmented and often inconsistent definitions of the concept of positioning. The section also highlights that scholars and practitioners have yet to agree on a single, universally-accepted definition of positioning. Towards this quandary, Section B1.3 presents the findings of an extensive content analysis that uncovers four facets (themes) underlying the core meaning of positioning: 'firm-initiated function (T.1)', 'perception in minds of consumers' (T.2), 'differentiation' (T.3), and 'relative nature' (T.4) (See Table B1.2 for description of each theme). These themes are incorporated to propose an updated and all-encompassing definition of the concept of brand positioning - 'a proactive attempt to associate an offering with a distinct attribute, so as to establish and maintain a distinct perception of the offering in the minds of the targeted consumers relative to that of competitors'.

The extensive review and debate presented in Section B1.4, demonstrates that the use of theory, for the most part, has been neglected in extant brand positioning research. The foregoing issue arises notwithstanding wide agreement, among leading scholars in positioning research, that theory plays a critical role in developing and advancing sound

marketing knowledge. As demonstrated in Section B1.4.1, only a handful of studies incorporate formal theory to underpin and guide their deliberations. The need for a clear theoretical foundation to underpin and guide the application of the positioning construct is an ongoing call for decades in extant positioning literature (Rigger, 1995; Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999; Butt and Murphy, 2007; Butt, 2010; Urde and Koch, 2014). To date, efforts to develop and empirically validate a central theory to underpin positioning research have been made in a fragmented manner based on Ries and Trout's (1981) early deliberations on the concept (e.g., Blankson and Strutton, 2011; Blankson and Crawford, 2012; Beverland et al., 2010). Ries and Trout's (1986) deliberations are based on their extensive practical experience in the advertising and communication industry; yet scholars over the years have loosely attributed their work as 'positioning theory' (e.g., Pike and Ryan, 2004; Romaniuk and Sharp, 2004). The view that marketing is as an applied and application-oriented domain as opposed to a theory-driven domain, provides justification for the paucity of theory applied in extant brand positioning research Burton (2005). Burton (2005) points out that the majority of RAE[5] submissions from highly ranked journals, such as *Journal of Marketing Management* and the *European Journal of Marketing* (1996 and 2001), were highly concentrated on marketing applications and with little attention to theory and its related implications.

The literature defines positioning strategy as the manner in which the firm communicates and reiterates the distinct attributes that differentiate its offering(s) from that of competitors. The debate in Chapter B3 demonstrates the accorded importance of positioning strategies, and provides a critical account of the extensive conceptual and empirical research on positioning strategies, positioning attributes and bases, and typologies. As revealed in Section B3.1, for the most part, extant positioning strategies focus primarily on establishing the positions of new offerings and re-positioning existing offerings to new target markets. Equally important, however ignored in the literature, is the development of positioning strategies to strengthen or otherwise enhance an offering's already-established position. Positioning strategies are of vital importance if ever the firm's current offerings are to remain competitive in today's dynamic marketplace - a marketplace characterised by the inevitable introduction of competitive entrants seeking to occupy distinct positions in consumers' minds, and imitate the position occupied by that offered by

[5] RAE (Research Assessment Exercise), replaced by REF (Research Excellence Framework) in 2014

the firm. For the success of existing offerings, such competitive pressures warrant the firm's deliberate and proactive effort to strengthen its offering's already-established position in the marketplace, rather than succumb to the threats of new and existing competitors.

Such a proactive approach to positioning is often advocated by scholars (e.g., Arnott, 1992; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004), yet overlooked by positioning strategies proposed in the literature. Moreover, despite the wide agreement on the need to sustain a brand's positioning overtime (Crawford, 1985; Arnott, 1992; Gilmore, 1999; Lehu, 2004, 2006), the literature review reveals no empirical research devoted to investigating positioning strategies to strengthen and enhance perceptions of the positions of existing offerings in the minds of the targeted consumers. A clear need for research thus emerges, providing the impetus for the present research. The aim of the study is to empirically investigate positioning strategies to strengthen perceptions of the position of existing offerings through the introduction of new offerings positioned as decoys (i.e., decoy-positioned offerings).

Before presenting the objectives of the research, focus turns to locating appropriate theory to underpin the aim of the research. To this end, consideration is first given to the theories used in past studies in the positioning research domain, as identified during the review of the literature (Section B1.4).

C1.2 Theoretical underpinning of the research

On close evaluation of each of the theories used in past positioning research (e.g., signalling theory, and categorisation theory) with respect to the aim of the research, none were found to provide an appropriate framework on which to underpin the research. Explanation for this situation stems from (1) the paucity of theories used in positioning research, and (2) the absence of research that investigates the strengthening of positioning of existing offerings.

In light of the foregoing, the researcher broadened the search for theory within the wider domain of marketing and in particular social and consumer psychology. Theories within the latter domain are carefully considered given that positioning is often considered a cognitive, schema-based phenomenon (Sujan, 1985; Sujan and Bettman, 1989; Punj and Moon, 2002). The search for theory identified phenomenon of context effects; close examination of the literature provides convincing evidence of its suitability to underpin the current research.

Before moving on to debate the suitability of context effects to underscore the focus of the research, a discussion is first presented on the general domain of context effects.

C1.2.1 Context effects

Consumers choose objects every day (e.g., products, brands, political candidates) and while generally of the view that preference and choice decisions reflect the true qualities of the objects they evaluate, research in context effects demonstrates that the outcome of such decisions are dependent on the *context* within which decisions are made (e.g., Sherman et al., 1978; Dhar, Nowlis and Sherman, 1999, 2000; Chien et al., 2010; Meyvis, et al., 2011).

Context effects are present when an individual's evaluation or preference towards an object changes, not as a result of the innate characteristics of the object itself, but as a result of changes made to contextual factors which, although external to the object, are present during the evaluation (Simonson and Tversky, 1992; Todorović, 2010). These *seemingly* irrelevant contextual factors – ranging from weather conditions, consumer mood, store lighting and ambience, to inventory display, product names and content labels – activate background associations which evoke meaning to an object under investigation (often called the *target* or *focal* object) (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1993). Nam and Sternthal (2008), among others, consider these contextual factors as reference points, evaluative anchors, and comparison standards against which individuals form choice decisions regarding an object in question, referred to as the focal object (Schwarz and Bless, 2007; Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1993; Mussweiler and Strack, 2000; Bless and Schwarz, 2010).

Although dated, a classic scenario from Levin and Gaeth (1988) provides an illustration of context effects. By way of a between-subjects experimental design, the researchers presented subjects with an identical ground beef offering labelled either as '75% lean' or '25% fat' content. Subjects were then asked to rate the offerings on several attributes, such as 'greasiness', and 'quality'. Their results indicated more favourable evaluations toward the offering '75% lean' even where actual tasting was not involved. In the scenario, the ground beef represented to focal object. This remains unchanged throughout the study. The research demonstrated that by changing the product labels, i.e., the contextual factor, served to change consumer evaluations of the focal ground beef offering in question. Following a similar context-focal object experimental design as described above, a

substantial body of literature has demonstrated the impact that different forms of contextual factors have on evaluative, and preference and choice decisions.

More recently, Wang and Lang (2015) reported that exposing grocery shoppers to a 'value-for-money' (vs. 'nutritional value') food displays significantly affected subsequent attitudes and preference decisions toward a [focal] offering. Particularly, the results indicated that exposure to the value-for-money display activated a value-oriented mind-set, which stimulated preference towards a lower-priced offering; and in a similar manner, exposure to the natural nutritional value display stimulated nutritional-focus mind-set where subjects showed preference towards a nutritional-value offering and willingness to pay a higher price in this respect. Zhu and Meyers-Levy (2009) report similar results, showing that the type of surface material on which products are displayed (burlap vs. metallic tablecloth), significantly influenced mode of cognition, and in turn, evaluations of particular offerings.

Context effects are grouped into a number of categories based on the nature of the contextual factors, and the impact they exert on the focal object under consideration. Most widely studied context effects include *assimilation* and *contrast* effects (e.g., Levin and Levin, 2000; Schwarz and Bless, 2007), *accommodation* effect (e.g., Sujan and Bettman, 1989; Fiedler, 2001), *spill-over/carry-over* effect (e.g., Simonin and Ruth, 1998), *similarity* effects (e.g., Busemeyer, Barkan, Mehta and Chaturvedi, 2007; Rooderkerk, Van Heerde and Bijmolt 2011); *phantom* effect (Colman Pulford and Bolger 2006; Hedgcock, Rao and Chen, 2009); *compromise* effect (Simonson, 1989; Pechtl, 2009; Khan, Zhu and Kalra, 2011); and the *decoy* effect (e.g., Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Ha, Park and Ahn, 2009).

On careful examination of the varying context effects, the decoy effect, which depicts contextual factors as a set of alternatives within a consideration set, is considered an appropriate platform for the research. The following section presents an account of the nature of the decoy; this is followed by a discussion of the theoretical relevance of the decoy effect to underpin the strengthening of the positioning of an offering.

C1.2.2 The nature of the decoy effect

The notion of decoy effect first appeared in the seminal works of Huber and colleagues (Huber, Payne and Puto, 1982; Huber and Puto, 1983), and later developed by Ratneshwar et al. (1987). Throughout its development, the decoy effect is referred to as the *attraction* effect and *asymmetric dominance* effect (Ratneshwar et al., 1987; Pan and Lehmann, 1993;

Sen, 1998; Frederick et al., 2014; Simonson, 2014). The decoy effect centres on preference and choice decisions, and, as mentioned above, *context* is depicted as alternative offerings within a choice set.

To illustrate decoy effect, consider the following scenario: assume that a consumer is first presented with a consideration set comprising two brands (say Detergents, Brand F and Brand B), which are differentiated within a two-dimensional attribute space (Attribute 1, and Attribute 2). Brand F is superior on Attribute 1 relative to Brand B, and Brand B is superior on Attribute 2 relative to Brand F. These two offerings are graphically illustrated in Figure C1.1. On the assumption that the attributes are equally important to the consumer, preference and choice likelihood are deemed indifferent between Brand F and Brand B; such that, the consumer may choose either when presented with this consideration set (Huber and Puto, 1983). This choice indifference depicts what is formally called the efficient/competitive frontier, where the dashed line represents the indifference curve[6] (Chopin and Hummel, 2002). Assume that Brand F represents the focal offering in the set (i.e., that offered by a firm in question), and Brand B represents its competitor. According to the decoy effect, the introduction of a third offering (F^F) which is similar yet inferior to the focal Brand F, increases choice likelihood of Brand F relative to that of its competitor, Brand B.

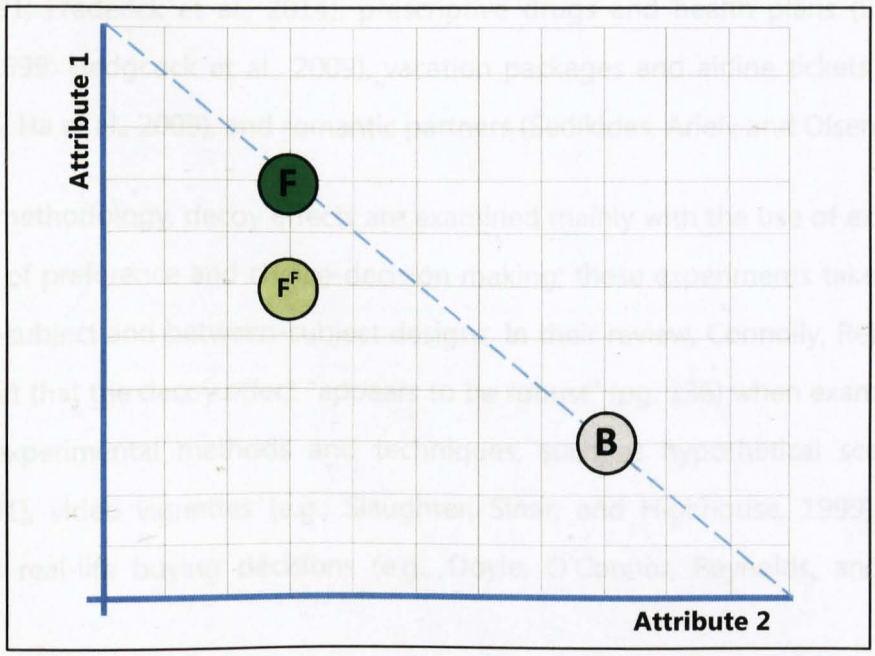


Figure C1.1 Graphical illustration of the decoy effect

[6] As the name suggests this represents the curve along which individuals are indifferent to the options presented in a consideration set, because the gains and losses of one alternative in respect to the [dimensional] attributes, equals that gained and lost if another option is chosen (Chopin and Hummel, 2002).

As illustrated in Figure C1.1, the decoy offering (F^F) is similar yet inferior only to the focal Brand F offering in the consideration set. This inferiority stems from the decoy possessing lower qualities or quantities of Attribute 1, i.e. the attribute on which the focal Brand F superior relative to Brand B. As the decoy is dominated only by the focal Brand F and not by its competitor (Brand B), it is often referred to as an 'asymmetrically-dominated' offering in the set (Pan, O'Curry and Pitts, 1995; Yang and Lynn, 2014).

Because of the apparent inferiority of the decoy relative to other offerings in the set, hardly is the decoy chosen as a preferred offering in the set (Huber et al, 1982; Huber and Puto, 1983). Empirical research shows, however, that the decoy functions to draw cognitive attention towards the relative superiority of focal offering, and in turn, increasing choice likelihood for the focal offering relative to that of competing offerings in a consideration set (Huber and Puto, 1993; Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Frederick et al., 2014). The decoy effect has shown to be robust within a number of choice domains across diverse product/service categories, including: job and political candidate (e.g., Pan, O'Curry and Pitts 1995; Slaughter, 2007); Schwartz and Chapman (1999); films and restaurants (Huber and Puto, 1983; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000); automobiles (Olsen and Burton, 2000; Hedgcock, Rao and Chen, 2009); shopping discounts (Tentori et al., 2001; Kim and Hasher, 2005), gambling (Wedell, 1991; Frederick et al., 2014), prescriptive drugs and health plans (Schwartz and Chapman, 1999; Hedgcock et al., 2009), vacation packages and airline tickets (Moran and Meyer, 2006; Ha et al., 2009), and romantic partners (Sedikides, Ariely and Olsen, 1999).

In terms of methodology, decoy effects are examined mainly with the use of experiments in the domain of preference and choice-decision making; these experiments take the form of both within-subject and between-subject designs. In their review, Connolly, Reb and Kausel (2011), report that the decoy effect "appears to be robust" (pg. 136) when examined using a variety of experimental methods and techniques, such as hypothetical scenarios (e.g., Wedell, 1991), video vignettes (e.g., Slaughter, Sinar, and Highhouse, 1999), advertising stimuli, and real-life buying decisions (e.g., Doyle, O'Connor, Reynolds, and Bottomley, 1999).

C1.2.2.1 Forms of the decoy

Three forms of the decoy are generally studied in the literature: (1) frequency decoy, (2) range decoy, and (3) range-frequency decoy (Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Dhār and Glazer,

1996). Among these decoys, the literature has given attention mainly to examining the frequency and range decoys. Figure C1.2 presents a graphical illustration of the three forms of decoy. Brand F represents the focal brand and Brand B, the competitor. As in the previous example, both offerings are situated within a two-dimensional attribute space. The attribute on which the focal brand is superior is considered the 'pivotal attribute', while the attribute on which the focal brand is inferior is considered the 'non-pivotal attribute'.

- *The frequency decoy*, depicted as F^F, is identical to the focal brand in terms of the non-pivotal attribute, and inferior to the focal brand in terms of the pivotal attribute.
- *The range decoy*, depicted as Brand F^R, is identical to the focal brand in terms of the pivotal attribute, but inferior to the focal brand in terms of the non-pivotal attribute.
- *The range-frequency decoy* is depicted as Brand F^{RF}. As its name suggests, this decoy combines facets of the range and frequency decoys, such that it is inferior to the focal brand on both the pivotal and non-pivotal attributes.

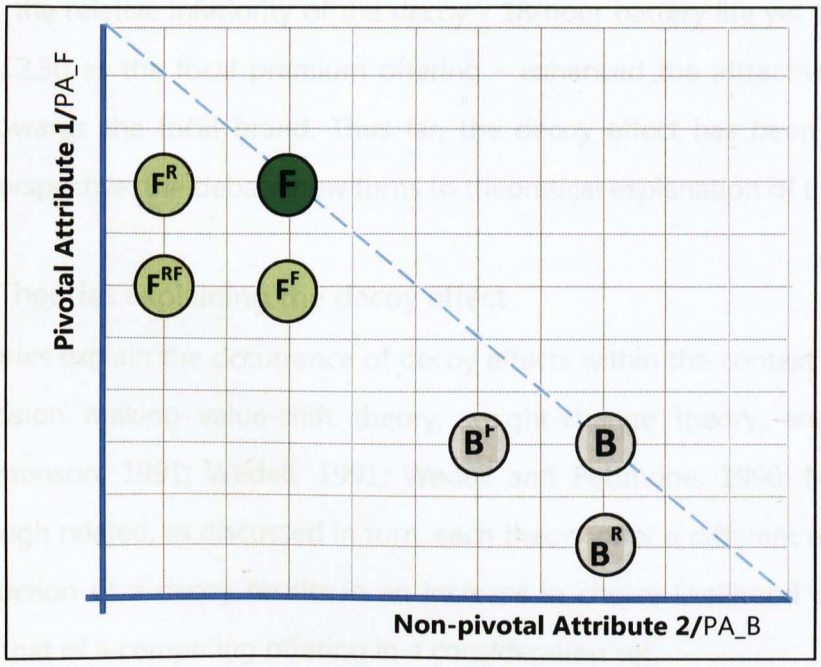


Figure C1.2 Graphical illustration of three forms of the decoy

C1.2.2.2 Implications of decoy effects in marketing

Although initially introduced in the context of social psychology, research in consumer psychology demonstrate that the decoy effect holds both practical and theoretical implications for key marketing areas, such as, consumer behaviour and pricing, and particularly under conditions involving consumer choice and decision making (Chopin and Hummel, 2002; Moran and Meyer, 2006). An example from Moran and Meyer (2006) is

adapted to advance the debate on the implications of decoy effects. The example concerns three brands; their attributes are summarised in Table C1.1.

Table C1.1 Decoy effects in marketing context

Attributes	Choice-set offerings		
	Focal brand	Competitor brand	Decoy brand[7]
Battery life (hours)	20 hours	15 hours	18 hours
Price (£)	£2.30	£1.95	£2.30

Imagine a retailer who is interested in increasing sales of a premium-priced battery offering which has an expected life of 20 hours and priced £2.30 per pair (for short, 20 hours/£2.30), at the expense of a value-oriented offering with an expected life of 15 hours and priced at £1.95 per pair (similarly, 15 hours/£1.95). The retailer observes that the introduction of an 18 hours/£2.30 decoy offering leads to an increase in sales of the focal 20 hours/£2.30 battery. Essentially, the relative inferiority of the decoy - 18-hour battery life yet priced the same at the same £2.30 as the focal premium offering - enhanced the attractiveness, and in turn demand towards the focal brand. Thus far, the decoy effect has been discussed from a practical perspective; the debate now turns to theoretical explanation of the decoy effect.

C1.2.2.3 Theories explaining the decoy effect

Three theories explain the occurrence of decoy effects within the context of preference and choice-decision making value-shift theory, weight-change theory, and emergent-value theory (Simonson, 1991; Wedell, 1991; Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Moran and Meyer, 2006). Though related, as discussed in turn, each theory offer a different explanation of how the introduction of a decoy results in an increase in choice likelihood of a focal offering relative to that of a competing offering in a consideration set.

Value-shift theory

According to the value-shift theory, the decoy effect occurs as a result of changes to the subjective evaluation of the values associated with the attributes on which offerings in the consideration set are described (Huber et al., 1982; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Hedgcock et al., 2009). The theory posits that the introduction of a decoy enhances the subjective

[7] The example uses the frequency decoy.

evaluation of the values associated with the focal brand's pivotal and/or non-pivotal attributes (Wedell, 1991; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000).

To illustrate, consider the earlier retailer battery scenario with the retailer's goal of increasing sales of the focal 20 hours/£2.30 battery offering by introducing the 18 hours/£2.30 decoy. Herein, according to the value-shift theory, the relatively lower expected life of the decoy enhances subjective evaluation of the 20-hours expected life of the focal offering. Additionally, although identical in respect to price, the decoy serves also to enhance the subjective evaluation of the monetary value of the focal offering.

Weight-change theory

When making decisions, consumers assign importance to the attributes that are relevant to offerings in a consideration set (Simonson, 1991). The weight-change theory assumes that adding a decoy changes the weighted-importance of particular attributes that describe offerings in the set (Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Moran and Meyer, 2006). In line with this theory, the introduction of a decoy increases salience of the attribute on which the focal offering is positioned – i.e., the pivotal positioning attribute (Park and Kim, 2005). This increase stems from a shift in cognitive attention towards the pivotal positioning attribute, and away from the non-pivotal positioning attribute – i.e., the attribute on which a competing offering is positioned.

Lehmann and Pan (1994), among others, postulate that the presence of a decoy extends the perceptual distance between the focal and its competitors (Ariely and Wallsten, 1995; Hedgcock et al., 2009). In accordance with Hedgcock et al. (2009), the introduction of a decoy creates a perceptual cluster of offerings that are perceived as superior on the pivotal attribute relative to the non-pivotal attribute. This cluster conveys to consumers that the pivotal attribute should be paramount in their evaluative decisions about offerings presented in the set (Parducci, 1974; Wedell, 1991; Moran and Meyer, 2006).

To illustrate the application of the weight-change theory in the context of positioning, the reader is again asked to refer to the battery scenario presented in Table C1.1. On the basis of the weight-change theory, introduction of the decoy [18 hour/£2.30] offering is expected to increase the salience and weighted-importance of the battery-life attribute relative to that of the value-for-money attribute. As both the focal and decoy offerings are perceived superior along the pivotal and salient positioning attribute, the perception of the position of

the focal offering is enhanced relative to that of the competing [15 hour/£1.95] value-for-money offering in the set.

Emergent-value theory

Different to the value-shift and weight-change theories, which provide an attribute-based explanation of the decoy effect, emergent-value theory assumes that the decoy effect occurs for reasons other than shifts/changes in the subjective value or weighted-importance of the attributes on which the offerings are described (Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Moran and Meyer, 2006; Pechtl, 2009; Hedgcock et al., 2009). According to Pettibone and Wedell (2000, pg. 303), the theory is "based on the processing of *configural* information concerning the relationships among the alternatives in a set that can provide additional reasons to make a choice". These additional reasons are essentially what the literature refers to as emergent values, in that, they emerge and become apparent only when comparisons are made between different offerings in a set Hedgcock et al., 2009). Two such emergent values are: dominance valuing and ease-of-justification (Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Moran and Meyer, 2006).

Dominance-valuing is based on the notion that individuals employ cognitive heuristics in order to search for and detect the potential of dominance relationships among offerings evaluated within in a consideration set (Simonson, 1989; Wedell, 1991) - i.e., where one offering is superior or inferior to another. As such, an offering found to dominate another in the set is considered as having a higher perceived value than others in the set. Hence, and in line with dominance-valuing, the introduction of the decoy, evokes the perception that the focal dominates not only the decoy offering, but also the competitor offering in the set – thus producing decoy effects.

Ease-of-justification asserts that the mental demands of deciding among competing alternatives evoke cognitive dissonance in mind of the decision maker. This decision is deemed complex as it inherently involves the cognitive tasks of accepting disadvantages of one alternative while foregoing the advantages of another (Moran and Meyer, 2006; Park and Kim, 2005). To reduce this complexity, Ariely and Wallsten (1995) explain that individuals resort to employing a justifiability heuristic that involves making choice decisions based on how easy a choice can be justified to others - i.e., spouse, friend, family, or PhD supervisor. As such, when presented with competing offerings, individuals most often

choose the one that provides the choice rationale over others in the set – a rationale as simple as 'this one is at least better another' (Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Bettman, Johnson and Payne, 1991; Simonson, 1989). Consistent with ease-of-justification, the introduction of the decoy which is similar yet inferior to the focal offering provides such rational, which was otherwise absent prior to the introduction of the decoy in the consideration set (Chopin and Hummel, 2005; Pechtl, 2009).

To illustrate dominance-valuing and ease-of-justification, a final reference is made to the retailer battery scenario. The relative comparison between the focal and the [asymmetrically-dominated] decoy, evokes the perception that the focal is superior not only to the decoy, but also the competitor offering in the set (dominance-valuing). In a similar manner, the decoy presents a justifiable rationale for choosing the focal rather over others in the set (ease-of-justification).

C1.2.3 Implications for decoy effects in brand positioning

Insights, based on the extensive review of positioning (Chapters B1, B2), and foregoing debate on context and decoy effects, suggest that parallels can be drawn between the concept of brand positioning and the notion of the decoy effect.

First, both concepts are context-dependent phenomena. Section B1.3 established brand positioning as a relative construct (T4, 'relative nature of the construct'), meaning the position of an offering in the minds of consumers represents a perceptual representation of the offering against an explicit frame of reference – its competition (Aaker and Shansby, 1982). Put differently, the perception of the position of a focal offering is an interplay between (i) the perception of the focal offering itself in terms of its innate attributes (e.g., name, packaging, price), and (ii) perceptions of competitive offerings. As already discussed in Section C1.2.1, this typifies the focal-context convention of studying the decoy effect.

Second, as with the decoy effect, objects under consideration are differentiated on the basis of specific attributes within a two-dimensional space. With regards to positioning, this vignette reflects the manner in which brands are often situated within perceptual positioning maps. More specific to the act of brand positioning, brands are positioned on the basis of unique positioning attributes in an attempt to differentiate its offerings from that of competitors (T3, 'differentiation').

Third, both constructs embody similar objectives - evoking (perceptual or behavioural) changes towards a focal object with little or no changes made to the focal object itself. As debated in Section C1.2.2, extensive empirical evidence shows that preference and choice share of a focal object increases when a decoy is introduced in a choice set; and that such an increase warrants virtually no changes to the focal object itself (Huber and Puto, 1983; Ratneshwar et al., 1987). In a similar manner, the objective of positioning is to change perceptions in the minds of consumers (T2, 'perception in the minds of consumers') which, as debated in Section B1.3, may or may not involve changing physical attributes of the offering itself (e.g., price, package, name, distribution).

In respect to changes to the offering itself, the firm's attempt to position a new offering necessarily involves designing tangible and intangible attributes so as to establish a position of the offering in consumers' minds. Similarly, repositioning an existing offering involves modifying attributes of the offering so that current and newly-targeted consumers come to grips with the [new] intended position of the offering (Nylen, 1990; Jewell, 2007; Anselmsson and Johansson, 2007). An equally important function is the firm's effort to strengthen and enhance consumers' perception of the position of an existing offering. To avoid the risk of confusing the perception of the [established] position of the offering, ideally no changes should be made to the tangible and intangible attributes of the offering. The above assertion finds support from Ries and Trout's (2001):

> "... positioning is not what you do to the product... [but] is what you do to the mind of a prospect... that is, you position the product in the mind of the prospect...Not that positioning doesn't involve change. It often does. But changes made to the name, the price, and the packages are really not changes in the product at all. They're basically cosmetic changes done for the purpose of securing a worthwhile position in the prospect's mind." (pg. 2).

Conceptually, Ries and Trout's (2001) view regarding positioning an offering without changing the tangible attributes of the offering itself, arguably mirrors the premise of decoy effect, particularly the notion of increasing preference and choice share of a focal object without making changes to the object itself.

In addition to the preceding debate regarding the parallels between the concept of brand positioning and decoy effects, it should be noted that a number of authors studying the decoy effect have offered passing comments suggesting implications for decoy effect for product/brand positioning (Simonson and Tversky, 1992; Ha et al., 2009). For example,

having evidenced decoy effects in respect to choice-decision making, Simonson and Tversky (1992, pg. 293) suggest that their findings present important "practical implications...for product positioning, communications, and competitive strategies". Similarly, Ha et al. (2009), based on their study of decoy effects with respect to categorical attributes, comment that decoy effects have "practical implications for manufacturers' and retailers' competitive positioning... and product display strategies" (pg. 475). Furthermore, a group of authors make explicit reference to the terms 'position' and 'positioning' in their study on decoy effects (e.g., Pan and Lehmann, 1993; Sheng, Parker, and Nakamoto, 2005). On close inspection, however, these terms are loosely used to depict the numerical value accorded to choice offerings on specific dimensions (e.g., 20-hour battery), rather than used to reflect the core meaning of positioning as already debated in at lengths in Section C1.2.

As demonstrated in the foregoing debates, the decoy effect holds substantive implications for brand positioning, and in particular for developing positioning strategies to strengthen and enhance perceptions of the position of existing offerings. As revealed during the review of the extent literature (Section B3.2), this is acknowledged as critical area of concern, but which have yet to receive empirical attention. In light of the above circumstance, the research proceeds by presenting a conceptual framework and related propositions to investigate positioning strategies for enhancing perceived positioning of an existing offerings. In the section that follows, the research aim and objectives are again presented in context of theoretical underpinning of the decoy effect.

C1.3 Research aim and objectives

The aim of the research is to empirically investigate positioning strategies to strengthen perceptions of the position of existing offerings through the introduction of new offerings positioned as decoys (i.e., decoy-positioned offerings). This aim is advanced by five research objectives:

1. To construct a theoretically-grounded conceptual framework that proposes a logical sequence of procedures to strengthen the perceptions of the position of an offering in the minds of the targeted consumers.
2. To gauge the extent to which the introduction of a new offering, decoy-positioned, affects consumers' perceptions of the position of an existing focal offering; more specifically, to see whether the position of the [focal] offering is enhanced by the firm's deliberate action to introduce a new decoy-positioned offering in the marketplace.

3. To evaluate whether the effect that the decoy has on the perceived position of the focal offering varies across types of positioning bases; in other words, to determine the stability of the results under conditions of Objective 1 when offerings [in the consideration set] are positioned on the basis of different types of positioning attributes (e.g., feature-oriented and benefit-oriented bases).
4. To examine whether the effect that the decoy has on perceived position of the focal offering varies according to the type of decoy introduced into the consideration set; put differently, to evaluate the consistency of the results under the conditions in Objectives 1 and 2 when different types of decoys (e.g., frequency and range decoy) are applied in the context of the study.
5. To test the explanatory powers of existing decoy theories in providing an understanding of the occurrence of decoy effects within brand positioning; in other words, to examine, among the theories explaining the decoy effect in preference of choice decisions, which best explains the proposed positioning-evoked decoy effects.

C1.4 Conceptual framework

Figure C1.3 provides a graphical representation of the conceptual framework. This constitutes (i) two independent variables, 'type of decoy', and 'type of positioning base', (ii) the dependent variable, 'perceived positioning', (iii) an interacting variable, 'attribute importance', and (iv) the two control variables, 'category knowledge' and 'category involvement'.

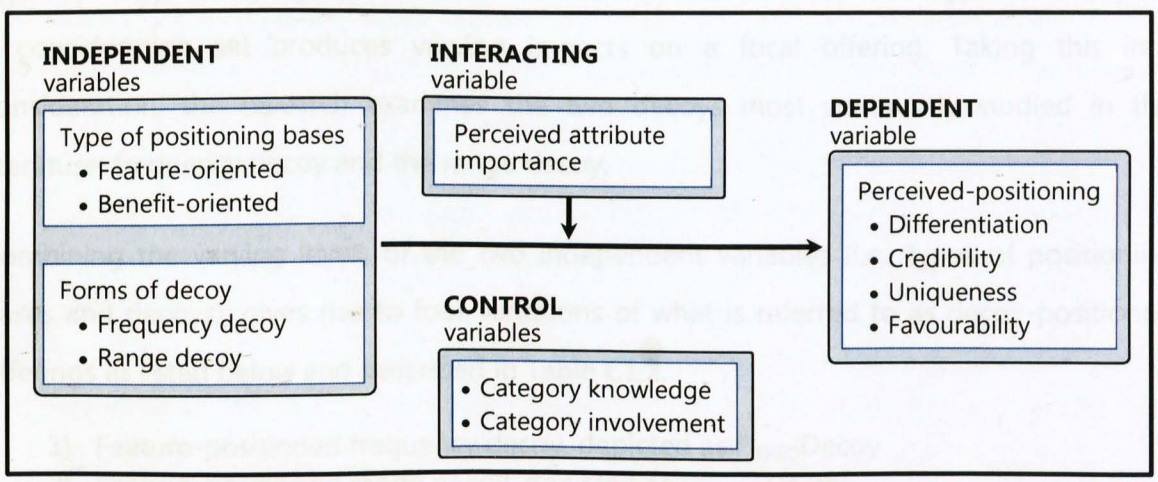


Figure C1.3 The conceptual framework

Independent variables

Positioning bases; different positioning bases have varying impacts on consumer perception of the position of offerings (Aaker, 1991; Romaniuk, 2001). According to Romaniuk (2001), the base on which an offering is positioned significantly affects consumer evaluations and perceptions. Similarly, Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010), examining positioning of car brands, report significant differences in the perceptions of brands positioned along feature and benefit-oriented positioning bases. The two aforementioned positioning bases, i.e. feature and benefit-oriented, are most widely studied in the literature and are thus investigated in the present research.

For clarity, the reader is asked to again consider the graphical illustration of the positioning bases in Figure C1.2. The two bases are depicted along the vertical and horizontal axes on the graph presented in Figure: feature positioning attribute (PA_F) and benefit positioning attribute (PA_B), respectively. Herein, Brand F is specified as having a superior perceived position on PA_F, while Brand B is specified as having a superior perceived position on PA_B. Moreover, where a focal offering specified, its superior positioning attribute is referred to as its pivotal attribute and its inferior attribute is referred to as its non-pivotal attribute. As an illustration, where Brand F is specified as the focal offering PA_F (its superior positioning base] is considered its pivotal attribute, while PA_B (its inferior positioning base) is considered its non-pivotal attribute.

Types of decoy; as highlighted in Section C1.2.2, introduction of different types of decoys in a consideration set produces varying impacts on a focal offering. Taking this into consideration, the research examines the two decoys most commonly studied in the literature: frequency decoy and the range decoy.

Combining the varying levels of the two independent variables (i.e., types of positioning bases and decoys), gives rise to four variations of what is referred to as decoy-positioned offerings as listed below and described in Table C1.2.

1) Feature-positioned frequency decoy, depicted as $F'_{FREQ}Decoy$
2) Feature-positioned range decoy, depicted as $F''_{RANGE}Decoy$
3) Benefit-positioned frequency decoy, depicted as $B'_{FREQ}Decoy$
4) Benefit-positioned range decoy, depicted as $B''_{RANGE}Decoy$

Table C1.2 Four forms of decoy-positioned offerings

Types of decoy-positioned offering	Notation	Description
Feature-positioned frequency decoy	$F'_{FREQ}Decoy$	A decoy dominated by a focal feature-positioned offering in respect to its pivotal feature attribute, but identical in respect to its non-pivotal benefit attribute.
Feature-positioned range decoy	$F''_{RANGE}Decoy$	A decoy dominated by a focal feature-positioned offering in respect to its non-pivotal benefit attribute, but identical in respect to its pivotal feature attribute.
Benefit-positioned frequency decoy	$B'_{FREQ}Decoy$	A decoy dominated by a focal benefit-positioned offering in respect to its pivotal benefit attribute, but identical in respect to its non-pivotal feature attribute.
Benefit-positioned range decoy	$B''_{RANGE}Decoy$	A decoy dominated by a focal benefit-positioned offering in respect to its non-pivotal feature attribute, but identical in respect to its pivotal benefit attribute.

Dependent variable

Perceived position: this represents the main dependent variable in the study. As the name suggests, it captures consumer perception of the position of an offering. In the context of the study, the variable is used to evaluate the extent to which perceived position of a focal offering is affected by the introduction of a decoy. The variable is adapted from Fuchs (2008) and Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010), capturing the extent to which a brand is perceived to occupy a favourable, dissimilar, unique and credible position in the minds of target consumers. An overview is provided of the four abovementioned positioning dimensions:

- *Favourability,* the extent to which consumers hold a positive (favourable) perception toward the focal offering (Alpert and Kamins, 1995). According to Keller (2009), this dimension embodies a key characteristic of a well-positioned brand – one that the customer has positive cognitive and affective disposition towards (Fuchs, 2008).
- *Differentiation,* the degree to which consumers perceive the focal brand to be differentiated relative to competitors (Sujan and Bettman, 1989; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). Differentiation, as debated in Section B3.2, represents a core facet of the positioning construct (Theme #2). An effectively-positioned brand is one that is sufficiently differentiated on a distinct attribute in consumers' minds (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Clow and Baack, 2010).
- *Uniqueness,* the extent to which consumers perceive the focal offering to be meaningfully distinct by virtue of innate tangible and/or intangible attribute(s) that are unique to the offering (Chaturvedi and Carroll, 1998). According to Fuchs (2008), this dimension embodies the idea that a brand should be able to achieve its own 'stamp of uniqueness' as a viable offering in the marketplace.
- *Credibility*, the degree to which consumers perceive the differences between the focal offering and the competitor as believable (Keller, 2003). This dimension underscores

the view that effective positioning requires believable points of differences from the perspective of the consumer (Keller, Sternthal and Tybout, 2002).

Interacting variable

Perceived attribute importance; captures consumer differences in terms of the degree to which a positioning base/attribute is perceived important relative to other positioning attributes (Malaviya and Sivakumar, 1998). These differences are likely to influence consumer evaluations and positioning perceptions of offerings in a consideration set. In terms of the decoy effect, Malaviya and Sivakumar (1998) show that attribute importance influence the magnitude of the decoy effect. They provide evidence suggesting that individuals giving more importance to a specific attribute relative to other attributes are inclined to give greater attention to this attribute during evaluative decisions. The study proposes that perceived attribute importance as an interacting variable, influencing the extent to which the introduction of a decoy affects perceived position of a focal offering.

Control variables category

Category knowledge and category involvement reflect individual differences among consumers (Alba and Hutchinson 1987; Park et al., 1994; Beatty and Talpade, 1994). These differences have shown to have significant effects in studies on brand positioning (e.g. Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010) and the decoy effect (e.g. Malaviya and Sivakumar, 1998). These variables may confound the effect of the introduction of a decoy on positioning perceptions. Consequently, category knowledge and involvement are statistically controlled as covariates in the context of the study.

C1.4.1 Research propositions

In light of the debates in Section C1.2.2 it is argued that similarly how the introduction of a decoy increases preference and choice towards of a focal offering, the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering will enhance the perceived position of a focal offering. Accordingly, positioned-induced decoy effects are evidenced by way of increases in positioning perceptions in respect to favourability, differentiation, uniqueness, and credibility.

Each of the four decoy-positioned offerings (Table C1.2) are examined in separate studies, starting with the feature-positioned frequency decoy in Study 1, and following the other decoys in Studies 2, 3, and 4 respectively. In what follows, the propositions related to Study

1 are presented, i.e. those for testing the feature-positioned frequency decoy. The same logic follows for the propositions for testing the three remaining decoys (see Section C1.2).

C1.4.1.1 Testing positioning-induced decoy effects

- *Main effect, introduction of decoy-positioned offering*
  In a consideration set comprising a feature-positioned focal and benefit-positioned competitor offering, introduction of a feature-positioned frequency decoy will increase positioning perceptions of the focal offering in respect to favourability (P 1.1a), differentiation (P 1.1b), uniqueness (P 1.1c), and credibility (P 1.1d).
- *Main effect, attribute-importance*
  Participants who consider an offering's pivotal attribute relatively more (vs. less) important than its non-pivotal attribute will report higher mean ratings for positioning perceptions of the focal offering in respect to favourability (P 1.1e), differentiation (P 1.1f), uniqueness (P 1.1g), and credibility (P 1.1h).
- *Interaction effects, introduction of decoy-positioned offering x attribute-importance*
  The impact that the introduction of a feature-positioned decoy has on perceived positioning of a focal brand interacts with attribute-focus with respect to favourability (P 1.1i), differentiation (P 1.1j), uniqueness (P 1.1k), and credibility (P 1.1l).

C1.4.1.2 Testing explanatory powers of decoy theories

Value-shift theory

As debated in Section C1.2.2, the value-shift theory assert that introducing a decoy increases the subjective evaluations of the (objective]) values associated with the attributes describing the focal offering (Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Hedgcock et al., 2009). Doing so enhances the overall subjective evaluation of the focal offering which shows evidence of decoy effects. For the brand positioning context within the study, subjective evaluations are conceptualised as the extent to which a focal brand is perceived to be associated with its pivotal, non-pivotal, and summed-score of its positioning attributes. Accordingly, if by introducing a decoy-positioned offering, perceived attribute association increases, positioning-induced decoy effects are evidenced. These predictions are formalised in the following three propositions:

- *Main effect, introduction of decoy-positioned offering*
  In the presence (vs. absence) of a feature-positioned frequency decoy, the feature-positioned focal offering is perceived strongly associated with the pivotal feature attribute (P 1.2a), non-pivotal benefit attribute (P 1.2b), and the summed score of both attributes (P 1.2c).

- *Main effect, attribute-focus*

  Participants who consider the pivotal feature attribute relatively more (vs. less) important than the non-pivotal benefit attribute, will perceived the feature-positioned focal offering to be strongly associated with the pivotal feature attribute (P 1.2d), the non-pivotal benefit attribute (P 1.2e), and the summed score of both attributes (P 1.2f).

- *Interaction effects, introduction of decoy-positioned offering x attribute-focus*

  Perceived attribute importance interacts with the impact that the introduction of a (feature-positioned) decoy has on the perceived position of a focal offering along the pivotal feature attribute (P 1.2g), the non-pivotal benefit attribute (P 1.2h), and the summed score of both attributes (P 1.2i).

Emergent-value theory, dominance-value and ease-of-justification

Emergent-value theory suggests that individuals adopt decision heuristics (short-cuts) to avoid the cognitive demands associated with choosing among alternatives (Moran and Meyer, 2006; Huber et al., 1982). The two heuristics discussed in Section C1.2.2.3 are dominance-value perception and ease-of-justification. Evidence that individuals adopt such heuristics when a decoy is introduced in a consideration set demonstrates the presence of the decoy effect (Simonion, 1989; Ariely and Wallsten, 1995). In the context of the present research, if the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering (i) increases the extent to which a focal brand is perceived as the superior offering in the set, or (ii) increases the extent with which individuals can justify choice of the focal brand – positioning-induced decoy effects are assumed. The foregoing predictions are captured in the following propositions.

- *Main effect, introduction of decoy-positioned offering*

  Perceived dominance; mean rating for perceived-dominance value of the focal brand is higher in a condition where the feature-positioned frequency decoy is present (vs. absent) in the consideration set (P 1.3a).

  Ease-of-justification; the ease with which subjects are able to justify preference for the focal brand is higher in the condition where a feature-positioned frequency decoy is present (vs. absent) in the consideration set (P 1.3b).

- *Main effect, attribute-focus*

  Participants who consider the pivotal feature attribute relatively more (vs. less) important than the non-pivotal benefit attribute, will report higher mean ratings for the feature-positioned focal offering with respect to perceived-dominance value (P 1.3c), and ease-of-justification (P 1.3d).

- *Interaction effects, introduction of decoy-positioned offering x attribute-focus*

  The impact that the introduction of a feature-positioned decoy has on the focal offering interacts with attribute-focus with respect to perceived-dominance value (P 1.3e), and ease-of-justification (P 1.3f).

Weight-change theory

The weight-change theory, according to the debate in Section C1.2.2, posits that decoy effects result from changes in the weighted-importance of the attributes on which the offerings are described (e.g., Simonson, 1991; Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Moran and Meyer, 2006). The theory holds that if, by introducing a decoy, greater weight is given to a focal offering's pivotal attribute relative to its non-pivotal attribute, decoy effects are evidence.

Weighted-importance is contextualized as the perceived importance of the attributes on which the focal offering is positioning (i.e., the pivotal and non-pivotal positioning attributes). As such, an increase in the reported perceived importance of the pivotal attribute exhibits evidence of the decoy effect. This prediction is summarised in the following proposition:

- *Main effect, introduction of decoy-positioned offering*

  Mean ratings for perceived importance of the pivotal attribute will be higher in the condition where the feature-positioned frequency decoy is present (vs. absent) in the consideration set (P 1.4a).

Chapter C2 **Philosophical orientation and research design**

C2.1 Introduction

Research is a systematic process of inquiry, undertaken to acquire and advance knowledge of phenomena (Matthews and Ross, 2010; Bryman and Bell, 2011). The procedures adopted in undertaking research are collectively referred to as methodology (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Methodology is organized by a coherent set of philosophical assumptions that dictate fundamental aspects of research, including, how a research problem is defined, what constitutes an appropriate aim and set of objectives to guide the research, as well as key decisions regarding suitable methods of collecting and analysing data that are consistent with the philosophical assumptions of the research. For this reason, the purpose of this chapter is to discuss the philosophical orientation of the present research and to explain and justify the purpose and design chosen to conduct the research.

C2.2 Philosophical orientation of the researcher

In undertaking research, it is possible to approach a phenomenon and the social world from different perspectives, and approach the same phenomenon differently depending upon the philosophical orientation adopted by the researcher (Denscombe, 2010) – put differently – the same event may have multiple realities, none of which is in error (Hunt, 2002). The philosophical stance of the one observing that event determines the interpretation of it. The foregoing idea highlights the importance of delineating issues surrounding research philosophy and paradigms at the onset of conducting research. Philosophical orientation is framed by a person's basic beliefs and assumptions about what constitutes research, and how such research should be conducted (Blaikie, 2009).

These assumptions are governed by two contrasting paradigms which pervade both business and social science research; they are positivism and constructionism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012). These paradigms differ in respect to three underlying assumptions: (i) ontology, assumptions regarding the nature of what constitutes social reality, (ii) epistemology, assumptions concerning what comprises knowledge of social reality, and the development of such reality in a research context, and finally, (iii) methodology, those assumptions that dictate appropriate methods and techniques for collecting, analysing, and interpreting data about reality of the phenomenon of interest (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Denscombe, 2010).

Blaikie (2009) offers an extensive debate regarding the beliefs and assumptions of the contrasting paradigms. Table C2.1 provides a summary of these paradigms in respect to their underlying ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions. As shown, the paradigms encourage almost contrasting directives regarding how the researcher should approach and study a research problem. As shown, one of the main differences lies in the paradigms' contrasting ontological assumption; positivism claims the existence of a single objective 'truth' and reality of a phenomenon, whereas constructionism holds the view of the existence of multiple realities that are jointly constructed and subjectively interpreted by the mere act of conducting research.

Table C2.1 Underlying assumptions of research paradigms

Fundamental assumptions	Main research paradigms	
	Positivism	**Constructionism**
Ontology	• Social reality is external and independent to researcher • Single objective reality regarding phenomenon • Knowledge and truth of reality is deduced 'purely from facts'	• Social reality is subjective and jointly constructed through researcher's interaction within social reality • Reality is socially constructed based on system of meaning attributed by participants
Epistemology	• Knowledge developed through deduction - validating theory and testing hypotheses based on empirical observation • Knowledge is quantifiable/measurable to represent the broad inference across	• Knowledge developed through induction - observation of data leads to development of theory to explain reality within different social contexts • Knowledge of reality not adequately captured through quantification, but rather through in-depth and contextual understanding
Methodology	• Advocates the use of scientific methods of inquiry to observe facts regarding phenomena • Quantitative methods applied to collect and analyse statistical data using large samples	• Advocates the use of unstructured and semi-structured methods to uncover motivations and reason behind behaviours • Qualitative methods applied to collect and analyse data using small purposive samples

Source: Compiled based on Easterby-Smith et al. (2012), *Management Research*, London: Sage; and Denscombe (2010), *Ground Rules for Social Research: Guidelines for Good Practice*, Berkshire: Open University Press.

In addition to the foregoing discussion, close attention is given to debates regarding the tension between the positivist-interpretivist divide in marketing research (e.g., Arndt, 1985; Brown, 1996), which cautions researchers from employing a one-dimensional philosophical mind-set when investigating a phenomenon. Whilst acknowledging these debates, the present research is located within the positivist research domain.

The way in which the research topic is approached is also consistent with the positivist orientation of the researcher: first, undertaking a thorough review of the related literature (Chapters B1 and B3); second, developing a theoretically-based conceptual framework with a set of corresponding propositions (Sections C1.4); and finally collecting quantitative data in order to empirically test these propositions (Chapter D1). Furthermore, the positivist perspective corroborates with the researcher's intent to generalise the research findings to the broad domain of consumer marketing as it relates to brand positioning.

C2.2.1 Purpose of the research

The purpose of research can be classified into three broad categories according to the state of current knowledge of the topic under investigation: exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory research (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010; Chisnall, 2005). The first two categories, as debated in Churchill and Iacobucci (2010), are oriented towards describing, exploring and uncovering in-depth meaning of a phenomenon. The third, explanatory research, is oriented towards examining correlational, and/or cause-and-effect relationships embedded in known phenomena. Since the present research seeks to examine the cause-and-effect relationship between two well-researched phenomena, i.e. brand positioning and the decoy effect, the purpose falls under the umbrella of explanatory research (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2010). The purpose of the research corresponds with the aim and positivist philosophical orientation discussed in the preceding section. The debate now turns to identifying the adopted research design.

C2.3 Research design

Central to any research undertaking is its design (Bryman and Bell, 2011) - an operational framework that guides the systematic collection and analysis of data and ensures that the research is undertaken in a manner consistent with the philosophical orientation, aim, purpose and of the research (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Sekaran and Bougie, 2012). For the most part, research designs applied in business and management fall into four broad categories: (1) experiment, (2) cross-sectional, (3) longitudinal, and (4) case study (de Vaus, 2005). de Vaus (2005), among others, provides elaborate debate on the appropriate use, as well of the advantages and disadvantages of the varying designs (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012). Table C2.2 provides an overview of these

designs in respect to four points of comparison: primary use, research paradigm, research purpose, and research approach.

Table C2.2 Comparison of research designs

Points of comparison	Experimental	Case study	Longitudinal	Cross-sectional
Primary use	Used to examine and infer causal relationships - change in a dependent variable cause by manipulated change in an independent variable within systematic controls.	Used for in-depth investigation a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context using multiple sources of evidence.	Used for examining change and trends in a phenomenon over an extended period of time through multiple waves of data collection	Use to examine a phenomenon at a particular point in time (snap-shot) using a single wave of data collection
Dominant research paradigm	Positivist	Can be positivist or interpretivist	Can be positivist or interpretivist	Can be positivist or interpretivist
Purpose of research	Explanatory testing	Can be exploratory, descriptive, explanatory	Can be exploratory, descriptive, explanatory	Can be exploratory, descriptive, explanatory
Research approach	Quantitative	Quantitative/ or qualitative	Quantitative/ or qualitative	Quantitative/ or qualitative

Source: Table compiled based on de Vaus (2005) *Research Design in Social Research*, London, Sage; and Saunders et al. (2012) *Research Methods for Business Students*, 6th edition, London: Pearson.

An experimental research design, unlike the other three, is used to examine cause and effect relationship between independent and dependent variables within an abstract environment with systematic controls (Charness, Gneezy and Kuhn, 2012; Kirk, 2013). The longitudinal design is employed to investigate trends and changes in a phenomenon over an extended period of time, whilst the cross-sectional design is employed to acquire a snapshot perspective of the phenomenon without systematic controls (Salkind, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). The case study is used for in-depth investigation of the phenomenon through multiple sources of evidence where the researcher has little or no control over the study environment (Swanborn, 2010; Yin, 2013). The merits and demerits of the research designs are well-debated in leading research methods textbooks (e.g., de Vaus, 2005; Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012; Sekaran and Bougie, 2012).

As already discussed in Section C2.2.1, the study involves testing hypothesised relationships between independent and dependent variables. Testing these propositions warrants the use

of a research design that enables the researcher to systematically manipulate the independent variables, and measure their impact (if any) on the dependent variable whilst controlling confounding influences of variables outside the scope of the study (i.e., extraneous variables). With such stringent criteria in mind, an experimental design is considered most appropriate. In addition, this design is consistent with studies examining decoy effects within the preference and choice-decision literature (e.g., Huber et al., 1982; Pan and Lehmann, 1993; Sen, 1998, Frederick et al., 2014; Simonson, 2014). Furthermore, the experimental design is congruent with the positivist orientation of the researcher as well as the explanatory purpose of the research.

C2.4 Elements of the experimental design

The design of an experiment is defined by varying elements, such as the experimental environment and the manner in which participants are allocated to the experimental conditions. These are briefly discussed in turn, followed by a specification of each element as it relates to the present study.

C2.4.1 Experimental environment

An experiment is classified as either a laboratory or field depending on the environment in which the study, particularly data collection, is conducted (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2012). As its name suggests, a laboratory experiment is conducted in an artificially-controlled environment setting in which subjects (i.e., participants) are invited to participate; this could take the form of a computer laboratory, or a room designed to mimic a mini-grocery store (Kirk, 2013; Tull and Hawkins, 1993). Such contrived settings are different from those in which a field experiment is conducted; herein the study is conducted within the non-contrived, everyday environment of the participants where 'life and work goes on as per normal' – such as, at their workplaces, or in the comfort of their homes (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Sekaran and Bougie, 2012).

Of the two designs, a laboratory experiment provides greater control over the manipulation of the independent variables, and the procedures involved in the data collection (de Vaus, 2005). Compared to a field experiment, a laboratory experiment permits a higher degree of internal validity due to its artificially-contrived setting (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010). However, this type of experiment is criticised for the limitations it imposes on the research findings (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012). For these reasons relating to the

cost and impracticality of accessing a specialised laboratory for the purpose of the present research, the decision is taken to undertake a field experiment. This design enables the researcher to generalise findings to a wider consumer marketing domain – an intent which requires substantive external validity in the chosen research design. Moreover, by utilizing a field experiment, the researcher minimises inherent biases and demand characteristics associated with conducting research within laboratory setting - e.g., participants providing answers they think meet the researcher's expectations (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

C2.4.2 Allocation of participants to treatment conditions

Experiments are classified based on the manner in which participants are allocated to the conditions created from manipulating the independent variable(s) of interest. The allocation of participants can take the form of a between-subjects or within-subjects design (Field and Hole, 2003; Kirk, 2013). In a between-subjects design, participants are allocated to only one of the treatment conditions during the course of the study; for instance, a participant is exposed to either the control or an experimental condition. This is different to the within-subjects design where participants are allocated to more than one of the conditions involved in the experiment; for instance where the participant is exposed to a control as well as an experimental condition.

With both designs, cause and effect estimates are attained as long as participants are randomly allocated to the conditions. The related literature provides arguments both for and against the different designs (e.g., Field and Hole, 2003; de Vaus, 2005; Charness et al., 2011; Kirk, 2013). While Charness et al. (2011) point out that the between-subjects or within-subjects most often yield similar results, the merits and shortcomings of both designs are carefully considered in light of the aim and practicality of the present research. Considering the above issues, and debate advanced by de Vaus (2005), a between-subjects design is chosen. Compared to the within-subjects design, this design negates concerns for confounding effects related exposing participants to multiple conditions in the study; such as respondent fatigue and carryover effects, and a higher degree of demand effects resulting from participants' interpretation of the expectations of the researcher (Charness et al., 2011). Additional rationale stems from the convention of using between-subjects experimental designs in examining decoy effects within the preference and choice literature.

This study is classified as a *true* experiment as the researcher randomly allocates participants to the conditions involved in the experiment while systematically controlling the influence of known extraneous factors (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Field and Hole, 2003). This is in contrast to a quasi-experiment, where the allocation of participants is outside the control of the researcher (Tull and Hawkins, 1993). The use of a true experiment minimises the incidence of selection bias – which stems from potential heterogeneity in the sample, and increases the statistical power of the inferred causal relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Field and Hole, 2003).

C2.5 Specific design of the experiment

Varying forms of between-subjects designs fall in the context of true experiments: *post-test only with* control, pretest *and post-test with control*, and the Solomon four-group design (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Field and Hole, 2003). Consideration is given to their merits and appropriate uses as advanced in debate by Field and Hole (2003). In light of this debate above, a *post-test only with control* design is deemed most appropriate for conducting the experiment. The overall design of the experiment is illustrated in Figure C2.1.

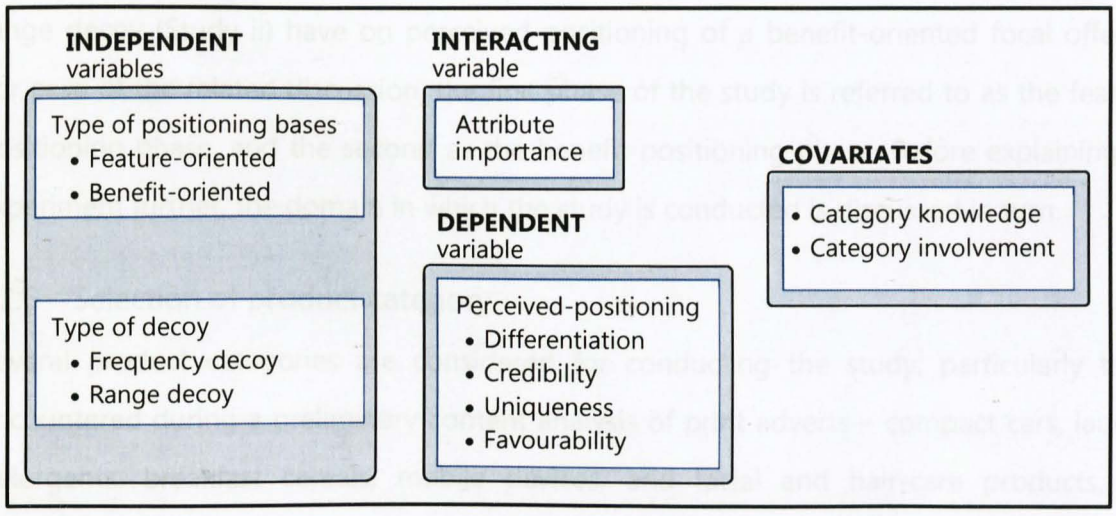


Figure C2.1 Design of the experiment

Guided by the conceptual framework (Section C.14), the figure lists all variables involved in the study: independent, dependent, and extraneous variables. With the adopted 2 x 2 between-subjects design, the study examines the impact of two types of decoys (frequency and range) across two types of positioning bases/strategies (feature-, and benefit-oriented positioning). The impact of manipulating these two independent variables is measured by

perceived-positioning (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). The latter, as elaborated in Section B3.2, comprises four dimensions of perceived positioning – differentiation, credibility, uniqueness, and favourability. The study also takes into account the potential for confounding effects of two identified extraneous variables, namely, category knowledge and category involvement.

To avoid potential complexities that may arise in manipulating and measuring the impact of two the independent variables within a single experiment, the decision is taken to conduct the research in two phases:

- Feature positioning phase, comprising Study 1 and Study 2
- Benefit positioning phase, comprising Study 3, and Study 4

The first phase, Phase 1, gives attention to feature-oriented positioning, and therein examines the impact that the introduction of a (i) feature-oriented frequency decoy (Study i), and (ii) a feature-oriented range decoy (Study ii) have on perceived positioning of a feature-oriented focal offering. The second phase turns attention to benefit-oriented positioning, and in like manner as the foregoing phase, examines the impact that the introduction of a (i) benefit-oriented frequency decoy (Study i), and (ii) a benefit-oriented range decoy (Study ii) have on perceived positioning of a benefit-oriented focal offering. For ease of the related discussion, the first phase of the study is referred to as the feature-positioning phase, and the second as the benefit-positioning phase. Before explaining the experiment further, the domain in which the study is conducted is discussed in turn.

C2.6 Selection of product category

Several product categories are considered for conducting the study, particularly those encountered during a preliminary content analysis of print adverts – compact cars, laundry detergents, breakfast cereals, mobile devices, and facial and hair-care products. The researcher deemed two criteria essential for selecting an appropriate product category, namely, (i) a relatively neutral product category which is sufficiently familiar to the target population - adult UK consumers; and (ii) a category with which participants are able to identify distinct attributes of different offerings through print adverts (i.e., the research stimuli). With these criteria in mind, washing detergent is considered appropriate for the study.

A number of additional reasons support this decision. First, the wide use of the washing detergent category in past studies on brand positioning (e.g., Chernev, 2007; Aggarwal, Vaidyanathan and Venkatesh, 2009), and decoy effects (e.g., Huber and Puto, 1983; Wiebach and Diels, 2011). Second, as revealed in a content analysis of a pool of detergent adverts (see Section C2.7.1), laundry detergents are generally positioned based on a number of different product attributes, such as 'stain-removal', 'eco-friendly', 'value-for-money', and 'fresh-scented clothes'. A third rationale for the use of laundry detergents is that it represents a basic and everyday rudimentary household product which is familiar to the wide cross-section of UK consumers (Whitson and Henry, 1996); a category for which consumers often base their purchasing decisions on the differentiating attributes communicated by brands.

C2.7 Study conditions

Each phase of the research comprises three study conditions: a control condition, and two experimental conditions. The two experimental conditions are created by manipulating the 'type of decoy', i.e., frequency and range decoys. Table C2.3 lists the conditions within the feature-, and benefit-positioning phases of the research.

Table C2.3 Overview of control and experimental conditions

Study phases	Studies & conditions		Brands presented
Feature positioning (Phase 1)	Control 1	Feature control	Brand F + Brand B
	Study 1	Feature Frequency decoy	Brand F + Brand B + Brand F' Decoy $_{FREQ}$
	Study 2	Feature Range decoy	Brand F + Brand B + Brand F" Decoy$_{RANGE}$
Benefit positioning (Phase 2)	Control 2	Benefit control	Brand B + Brand F
	Study 3	Benefit Frequency decoy	Brand B + Brand F + Brand B'Decoy $_{FREQ}$
	Study 4	Benefit Range decoy	Brand B + Brand F + Brand B"Decoy$_{RANGE}$

In the feature-positioning phase, the control condition (Control 1) presents participants with stimuli for two offerings: Brand F, a feature-positioned focal offering, and Brand B, a benefit-positioned competing offering. In the two experimental conditions, the first, the feature-frequency decoy condition, presents participants with stimuli for Brands F and B, and an added stimulus for a feature-positioned frequency decoy (Brand F'Decoy$_{FREQ}$). The second experimental condition, the feature-range decoy condition, presents participants with stimuli for Brands F and B, and a feature-positioned range decoy (Brand F"Decoy$_{RANGE}$). The same logic applies for the conditions comprising the benefit-positioning phase of the study as illustrated in the table.

C2.8 Experimental stimuli

The research stimuli take the form of print adverts. These are designed to convey the corresponding positions of the offerings involved in the study (as specified in Table C2.3). The use of print adverts is rationalised by (i) the accepted view that advertising represents the main vehicle for brand positioning (Crawford, 1985; Alden et al., 1999; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004), and (ii) the wide use of advertising stimulus in brand positioning research (e.g., Arnott, 1992; Hartmann et al., 2005; Bashar et al., 2011). More specific to the present research, a content analysis of print adverts is used to provide practical insights regarding (i) the positioning attributes used to differentiate existing detergent offerings, and (ii) the structure, format and layout of typical detergent print adverts. Findings from the content analysis, as discussed in Section C2.8.1, are incorporated into the design of stimuli.

C2.8.1 Stimuli development

The first step to developing credible, realistic and valid advertising stimuli was to conduct a content analysis of detergent print adverts. For this purpose, a pool of adverts is collected from publications (i.e., newspapers and magazines) typically read by the target population (details of the target population are presented in Section C3.1). Literature suggests that using experimental stimuli that reflect the real-life setting of participants enhances the realism and ecological validity of research (Derbaix, 1995).

Following good practice recommended by Weber (1990) and Neuendorf (2002), a deductive approach is adopted for conducting the content analysis. The procedure begins with the examination of copy content of a pool (n = 52) of detergent print adverts collected using a digital camera, from a variety of UK-based newspapers (e.g., 'The Telegraph' and 'Evening Standard') and consumer magazines (e.g., 'OK Magazine' and 'Good Housekeeping').

Following Weber (1990), the adverts are coded using an *a priori* coding scheme. This coding scheme is developed based on Crawford's (1985) positioning typology comprising three generic positioning bases: feature-oriented, benefit-oriented and surrogate-oriented positioning. The coding procedure is performed using NVivo, computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). This enables the researcher to systematically code the digital format of the print adverts, and in so doing, objectively meet the reliability criteria of content analysis – i.e., stability, accuracy and reproducibility (Frankfort-Nachmias and

Nachmias, 1996; Neuendorf, 2002). Information regarding frequency and nature of the different positioning attributes are summarised in Table C2.4 and Table C2.5.

Table C2.4 Content analysis results - frequency of positioning bases

Positioning bases	Frequency
Feature-oriented	14 (27%)
Benefit-oriented	18 (35%)
Surrogate-oriented	7 (13%)
Hybrid feature and benefit	9 (17%)
No explicit strategy employed	4 (4%)
Total	**52 (100%)**

Table C2.4 documents frequency with which the positioning attributes are identified in the pool of the print adverts (n = 52). As shown, detergents are positioned mainly on the basis of feature-oriented (14) and benefit-oriented (18) positioning bases/attributes. Another group of adverts (9) highlighted a specific feature and then the benefit of that feature; these are categorised as hybrid feature-benefit attributes in the table. Moreover, a small number of adverts (4) exhibited no evidence of an explicit positioning base. This was typically the case where adverts featured a large image of an offering or celebrity without supporting text to convey its position. Trout and Rivkin (1996) advocate that adverts with imagery alone convey little or no positioning information to consumers.

Table C2.5 provides details of the three attributes most frequently used to position detergent brands in respect to the positioning classifications. As shown, featured-oriented brands are positioned mainly on the basis of stain-removal and cleaning ability; benefit-oriented brands on the basis of 'value-for-money' attributes; and surrogate-oriented brands on the basis of specific user and task-related attributes such as 'specially-formulated for washing baby laundry'.

Table C2.5 Content analysis results - specific positioning bases

Feature-oriented	Benefit-oriented	Surrogate-oriented
• Stain removal (8) • Cleaning ability on ingredients (4) • Eco-friendly/natural ingredients (2)	• Value-for-money (10) • Fresh/pleasant scented (4) • Gentle and sensitive laundry (4)	• User specific (e.g., formulated for babies, denim) (2) • For high-efficiency washing (2) • Best in category detergent (3)

Based on the results of the content analysis, the decision is taken to use the most prevalent feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning attribute to position the detergent

offerings in the context of the experiment – i.e., 'stain-removal' and 'value-for-money', respectively. Moreover, feedback from an expert panel of five marketing managers confirmed the relevance of the two positioning attributes.

C2.8.1.1 Format and layout of the stimuli

The creative artwork, layout, and textual (copy) content encoded in an advert together convey the intended position of an offering (Trout and Rivkin, 1996; Naini, Shafia and Negar, 2012). Of these elements, a brand's position is explicitly conveyed by way of the textual content in the advert, as opposed to the creative and artistic elements which are more subtle by nature and more open to subjective interpretation by consumers (Naini et al., 2012). For this reason, only the textual content of the stimuli is used to directly manipulate the varying positions of the offerings in the experimental stimuli. In keeping with the typical design of detergent adverts as observed in the content analysis, some creative elements (e.g., brand name and graphical image of the offering) are incorporated into the experimental stimuli (see Figure C2.2). These are standardised across the different stimuli (i.e., designed as identical across the board). Doing so minimises confounding influences related to advertising creativity (Easingwood and Mahajan, 1989; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010).

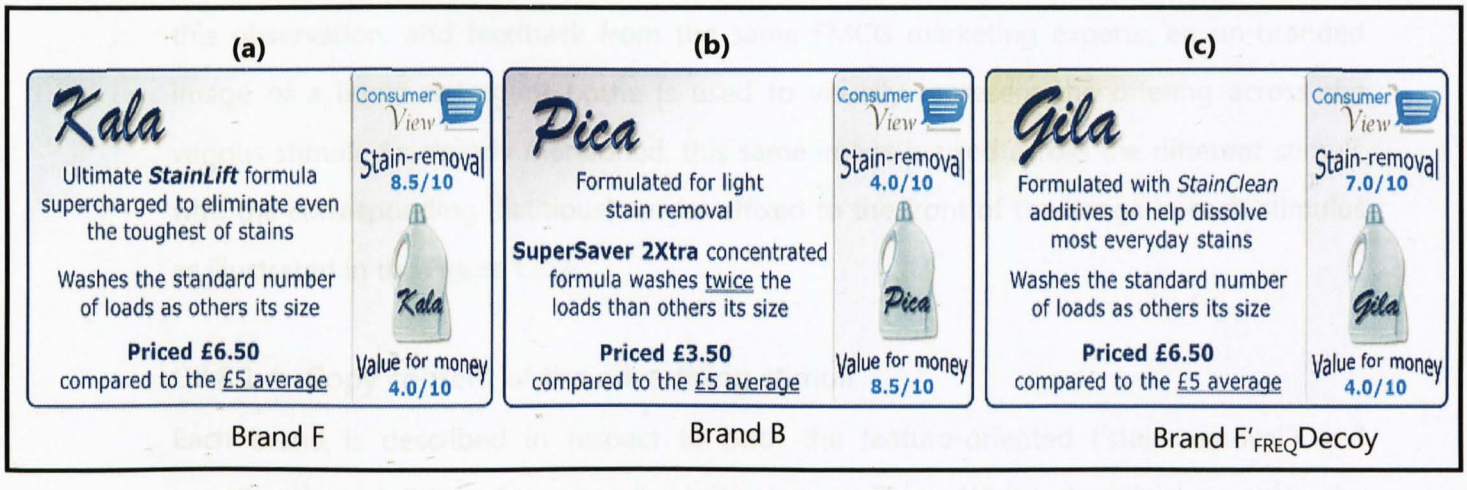


Figure C2.2 Experimental stimuli used in feature-positioning phase, Study (i)

In line with the layout of typical detergent adverts, each stimulus comprises (i) a brand name in large bold heading atop each stimulus, (ii) an image to graphically represent the offering, and (iii) short phrases that convey the position of the brand in question. Figure C2.2 presents the three stimuli used in the feature-positioning phase of the research (Phase

1, Study i). From left to right, the figure depicts the position of the feature-positioned focal brand (a), the benefit-positioned competitor brand (b), and the feature-positioned frequency decoy focal (c). The remaining stimuli are presented in Appendix C1.

C2.8.1.2 The fictitious brand names

Fictitious, rather than known or existing brand names are assigned to the detergent offerings so as to encourage participants to base their evaluations only on the textual positioning information presented in the stimuli. Doing so further serves the purpose of minimizing potential confounding effects related to participants' views and attitudes towards familiar brand names (Aaker, 1991; Holden and Vanhuele, 1999). The results of a pretest using a convenience sample (n = 20) of master's-degree students at Kingston Business School confirm that the assigned names - 'Kala', 'Pica' and 'Gila'- evoked no literal or symbolic meaning (at least) in the English language, nor association to existing detergent brand names.

C2.8.1.3 Graphical image of detergent offerings

Regarding the specific image used in the stimuli, the content analysis brought attention to the varying forms of washing detergent – i.e., powder, tablets, liquid. Of these, the liquid form was most prevalent among the adverts collected for the content analysis. Based on this observation, and feedback from the same FMCG marketing experts, an un-branded image of a liquid detergent bottle is used to visually represent the offering across the various stimuli. As already mentioned, this same image is used across the different stimuli, with the corresponding [fictitious] names affixed to the front of the image in each stimulus as illustrated in the Figure C2.2.

C2.8.1.4 Copy content of the advertising stimuli

Each brand is described in respect to both the feature-oriented ('stain-removal') and benefit-oriented ('value-for-money') positioning attribute. Whilst described as such, the underlying position of an offering is conveyed by describing the offering as superior (i.e., strongly associated) with respect to one of the two positioning attributes, and as relatively inferior (i.e., weakly associated) with respect to the other attribute. For instance, as with a feature-positioned detergent offering in Table C2.6, the offering is described as superior with respect to 'stain-removal' and relatively inferior with respect to 'value-for-money'. This

caveat of describing an offering as superior in terms of one (of the two) attributes is in line with the (i) the methodological convention of examining decoy effects (Section C1.2.1), and (ii) the common practice to differentiate brands based on a single positioning base rather than on a range of different positioning bases (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010).

Table C2.6 Copy content in experimental stimuli

Stimuli	**Copy content**			
	Stain-removal (feature-oriented attribute) CR* (10)		**Value-for-money** (benefit-oriented attribute) CR (10)	
Stimulus 1, feature-positioned focal (Brand F)	Ultimate StainLift formula supercharged to eliminate even the toughest of stains.	8.5	Washes the standard number of loads as others its size. Priced £6.50 compared to the £5.00 average.	4.0
Stimulus 2, feature-positioned frequency decoy (Brand F')	Formulated with StainClean additives to help dissolve most everyday stains.	7.0	Washes the standard number of loads as others its size. Priced £6.50 compared to the £5.00 average.	4.0
Stimulus 3, feature-positioned range decoy (Brand F")	Ultimate StainLift formula supercharged to eliminate even the toughest of stains.	8.5	Washes the standard number of loads as others its size. Priced £8.00 compared to the £5.00 average.	2.5
Stimulus 4, benefit-positioned focal (Brand B)	Formulated for light stain removal.	4.0	SuperSaver 2Xtra concentrated formula washes twice the loads than others its size. Priced £3.50 compared to the £5.00 average.	8.5
Stimulus 5, benefit-positioned frequency decoy (Brand B')	Formulated for light stain removal.	4.0	Concentrated formula washes more loads than others its size. Priced £4.00 compared to the £5.00 average.	7.0
Stimulus 6, benefit-positioned range decoy (Brand B")	Formulated ONLY for un-stained clothing	2.5	SuperSaver 2Xtra concentrated formula washes twice the loads than others its size. Priced £3.50 compared to the £5.00 average.	8.5

** CR = Consumer rating*

The positioning information in the stimuli is presented in three short phrases. In order to control the heuristic effect of word-length of the experimental stimuli (Jain, Buchanan and Maheswaran, 2000), each advert constituted approximately the same number of words (28 words), and the same number of paragraphs (three). The specific phrases used in each stimulus are presented in Table C2.6. The order of the verbal information is as follows: in the stimuli used in the feature-positioning phase of the study, information describing the feature-oriented-attribute is presented first (stain-removal'), followed by information describing the benefit-oriented attribute ('value-for-money') (see Stimuli 1, 2, and 3 in the

table). This presentation order of the positioning information is reversed for the stimuli used in the benefit-positioning phase of the research – i.e., information about the 'value-for-money' attribute is presented first followed by that for 'stain-removal' (see Stimuli 4, 5, and 6 in the table). Rationale for reversing the presentation order of the information stems from the advertising convention for brands to emphasise and give greater attention to the attributes that differentiate their offerings from competitors in the marketplace.

C2.9 Realism and manipulation checks

C2.9.1 Realism checks

Realism checks are pertinent to the external validity of experimental results (Perdue and Summers; 1986; Rossi and Anderson, 1982; Bornemann and Homburg 2011). In consequence, realism of the six detergent adverts (i.e., experimental stimuli) is assessed using both qualitative and quantitative methods following an approach adapted from Thomas et al. (2013). For the qualitative method, the adverts are assessed by a panel of four academics with experience and research expertise in advertising and brand positioning. The panel provided feedback regarding the readability, credibility, length, and realism of the adverts which informed minor adjustments made to the stimuli. Following these adjustments, the adverts were deemed realistic by the panel.

The quantitative realism checks assess the typicality of the adverts, and their consistency in terms of attitude towards the creative elements of the advertising stimuli. These checks are conducted base on Dabholkar (1994) - 'this advert is typical to those I've seen for detergents on the market'. Additionally, attitudes toward the content and design elements of the stimuli are evaluated by four items: 'this advert is informative', 'this advert is creative', 'the message in this advert is clearly conveyed', and 'I like the design aspect of this advert'. The above items are measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

Participants, (n = 60) Masters-level students at Kingston Business School, are asked to evaluate only one of the six adverts (listed in Table C2.6), and provide ratings on the realism measures. The resultant data are subjected mean comparisons using paired samples t-tests in SPSS. The results confirm the typicality of the adverts with mean values ranging from 5.96 to 6.02, significantly higher than the mid-point (4) of the scale (p <.05). The ranging mean

values are also not significantly different from each other (p >.05), validating consistency across the stimuli. Moreover, the results confirm consistency in attitude towards the creative elements of the adverts. Reported mean values are not significantly different from each other, ranging from 5.74 to 5.82 (p >.05). These findings therefore suggest that the stimuli are realistic, and furthermore consistent in terms of attitudes towards the creative incorporated in the design of the experimental stimuli.

The results indicate that while the participants who were shown the focal stimuli (for either feature-positioned or benefit-positioned) perceived that offering as intended. However, participants shown the decoy stimuli did not all perceive the relative inferior nature of the decoy-positioned offerings; hence, the rationale for incorporating the numerical information in the stimuli. Subsequently, the results of a second round of pretests showed that the positions of the corresponding offerings were then perceived as intended.

C2.9.2 Manipulation checks

Using a pretest, manipulation checks are conducted to confirm that the position of the brands in each stimuli are perceived as intended, from the perspective of the consumer (Cook and Campbell, 1979; Perdue and Summers, 1986). Similar to the realism checks, the positioning manipulations are checked using both quantitative and qualitative methods: (i) two scale items assessing perceived association of each brand with the two positioning attributes, (ii) a 'click and select' task evaluating the positioning information incorporated in the adverts, and (iii) an open-ended question capturing perceptions of

(i) Manipulations check; perceived attribute association

The manipulation checks are conducted using a random sample of adult UK consumers (n = 180), drawn from the target population (see Section C3.1). Each participant, after evaluating only one of the six brand adverts, rates the brand in terms of its association with the two positioning attributes: 'indicate how strongly you associate ____ (respective name of the brand) with (a) stain-removal, and (b) value-for-money'. Both items are measured on an 11-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1 = 'very weak association with attribute a/b') and 11 = 'very strong association with attribute a/b').

The information in Table C2.7 summarizes the expectations of the different stimuli in respect to the measure of perceived attribute association. The table is organised into two

sections; the top section (highlighted in blue) specifies the expectations of the stimuli used in the feature-positioning phase of the study, while the bottom section (highlighted in grey) specifies the expectations in respect to the stimuli used in the benefit-positioning phase.

The related data are subjected to mean comparisons using paired-samples *t*-tests; the results are summarised in Tables C2.8 and C2.9. Table C2.8 provides a summary of the results for stimuli used in the feature-positioning phase of the research, while Table C2.9 provides a summary of the results for the stimuli designed for the benefit-positioning phase.

Table C2.7 Summary of manipulations expectations

	Stimuli	Expectations
FEATURE-POSITIONIG PHASE	Brand F	superior to Brand B in terms of the feature attribute inferior to Brand B in terms of the benefit attribute superior to F'Decoy in terms of the feature attribute no different to F'Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute no different to F"Decoy in terms of the feature attribute superior to F"Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute
	F'_{FREQ}Decoy	inferior to F"Decoy in terms of the feature attribute superior to F"Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute superior to Brand B in terms of the feature attribute inferior to Brand B in terms of the benefit attribute
	F''_{RANGE}Decoy	superior to F'Decoy in terms of the feature attribute inferior to F'Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute superior to Brand B in terms of the feature attribute inferior to Brand B in terms of the benefit attribute
BENEFIT-POSITIONING PHASE	Brand B	superior to Brand F in terms of the benefit attribute inferior to Brand F in terms of the feature attribute superior to B'Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute no different to B'Decoy in terms of the feature attribute no different to B'Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute inferior B"Decoy in terms of the feature attribute
	B'_{FREQ}Decoy	superior to B"Decoy in terms of the feature attribute inferior to B"Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute superior to Brand F in terms of the benefit attribute inferior to Brand F in terms of the feature attribute
	B''_{RANGE}Decoy	superior to B'Decoy in terms of the benefit attribute inferior to B'Decoy in terms of the feature attribute superior to Brand F in terms of the benefit attribute inferior to Brand F in terms of the feature attribute

Brand F = feature-positioned focal brand; Brand F'Decoy = feature-positioned frequency decoy; Brand F" Decoy = feature-positioned range decoy; Brand B = benefit-positioned focal brand; Brand B' Decoy = benefit-positioned frequency decoy; Brand B" Decoy = benefit-positioned range decoy.

Table C2.8 Manipulation check; feature-positioning study phase

Positioning attribute	Brand	Feature attribute	Benefit attribute
Feature positioning phase	Brand F	9.33	4.85
	F′$_{FREQ}$Decoy	6.78	5.03
	F″$_{RANGE}$Decoy	8.95	3.65
	Brand B	4.43	8.90

Table C2.9 Manipulation check; benefit-positioning study phase

Positioning attribute	Brand	Benefit attribute	Feature attribute
Benefit positioning phase	Brand B	9.86	4.55
	B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy	6.94	4.86
	B″$_{RANGE}$Decoy	7.91	2.89
	Brand F	3.88	9.45

Together, these results confirm that the positioning manipulations are successful; in that, participants' ratings of the offerings presented in the stimuli are in accordance with the intended manipulations. As shown in

Table C2.9, with respect to the stimuli for the feature-positioning phase, the reported mean value of Brand F in terms of the feature-oriented attribute (M = 9.33) is significantly higher than both F′$_{FREQ}$Decoy and Brand B (M = 6.78, and M = 4.43, respectively; p < .05). Moreover, in line with the intended manipulation, the mean value for Brand F is not significantly different from the reported mean value for the F″$_{RANGE}$Decoy (M = 8.95, p >.05). For the same set of stimuli, in terms of the benefit-oriented attribute, reported mean value for Brand B (M = 9.45) is significantly higher than that for the three remaining brands (p < .05); mean values for Brand F and F′$_{FREQ}$Decoy are not significantly different (M = 4.95, and M = 5.03; p > .05); and finally mean values for Brand F and F′$_{FREQ}$Decoy on this attribute (M = 4.95, and M = 5.03) are significantly higher than that for F″$_{RANGE}$Decoy (M = 2.89, p < .05). These results are in line with that intended by the researcher for the stimuli developed for the feature-positioning phase of the study. As shown in the Table C.2.9, the same pattern of results follows for the stimuli for use in the benefit-positioning phase.

(ii) Manipulations check; click and select task

For the 'click and select' task, participants are asked to click on 'the one phrase that represents the most unique aspect of the brand' that they were presented. Consistent with

the foregoing manipulation check, results of this task confirm expectations regarding the manipulated positioning of the brands involved in both the feature-, and benefit-positioning phase of the study. For brevity, a summary of the procedures and results are presented only for three of the stimuli involved in the feature-positioning phase - Brand F, Decoy F', and Brand B.

As shown in Figure C2.3, phrases used to convey the 'stain-removal' (feature-positioning attribute) and 'value-for-money' (benefit positioning attribute) aspects of the brands are highlighted in the three coloured regions in stimuli. As such, Region #1 (green) depicts aspects of the stain-removal attribute; while Regions #2 (yellow) and #3 (magenta) depict the aspects of the value-for-money attribute. The results, in the form of click frequency, are summarised in the 'click-rate' box below each stimulus in the figure. This box presents the frequency with which each region in every advert is selected as an appropriate response. As shown, the pattern of results demonstrates that participants 'clicked and selected' the phrases intently used to accentuate the positioning of the respective brands. For example, Region #1 was most frequently clicked for Brand F, and Region #3 was most frequently clicked for Brand B.

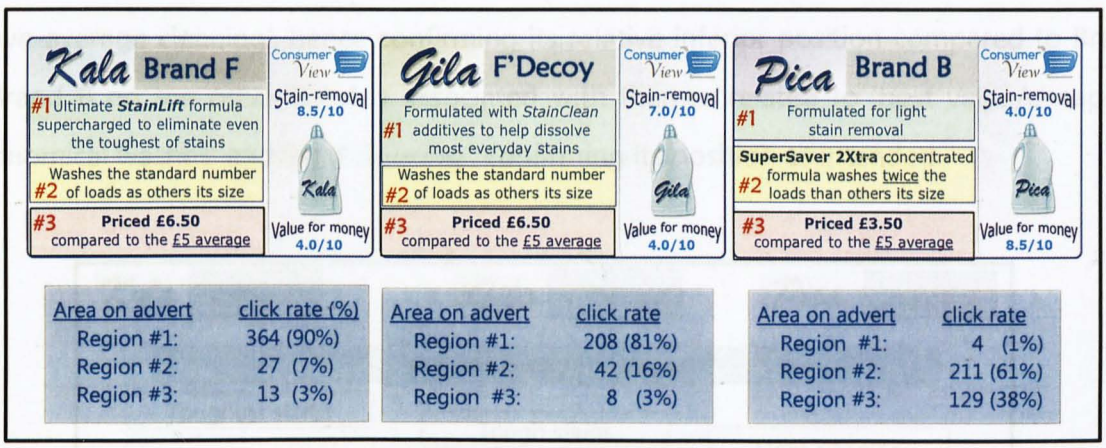


Figure C2.3 Manipulation check, 'click and select' task

To further assess the results, the fractional counts across the regions in each advert are subjected to Chi-Squared test for Uniformity (Field, 2009). For each stimulus, the results indicate that the distribution of the click-rate frequency is significantly different from that expected by a uniform frequency distribution: Brand F χ^2 (2) = 586.55, p = .000; F_{FREQ}Decoy χ^2 (2) = 266.33, p = .000; and Brand B, χ^2 (2) = 198.53, p = .000. Similar to the results of the

foregoing manipulation check, the results of the 'click and select' task confirm the positioning manipulations of the brands presented in the stimuli.

(iii) Manipulations check; open-ended question

As a final manipulation check, the stimuli are assessed by an open-ended question concerning the differentiating aspects of the brand in question: '96% of respondents taking this survey was able to discern with two differentiating aspects of this detergent brand. For brevity, only the results of three of the stimuli used in the feature-positioning phase of the study (namely, Brand F, Brand F'Decoy, and Brand B) are highlighted below.

The responses are analysed using a qualitative coding technique within NVivo 10 (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). A summary of the emergent themes resulting from the coding procedure is presented in Figure C2.4. The pattern of results suggests that participants consistently identified and delineated the respective aspects of the brands in a manner consistent with the intended manipulations. Brand F and F'Decoy share common themes that correspond with their superiority on the feature-positioning attribute - 'excellent stain-removal', 'tough, strong and superior cleaning'. Despite the similarity between their themes, F'Decoy is also associated with themes related to 'tough and strong/stains' and 'a little above-average cleaning', hence confirming its relative inferior position compared to Brand F. Brand B on the other hand is associated with themes related to 'best value/cheapest, 'economical washes' and 'light cleaning', confirming its position as intended.

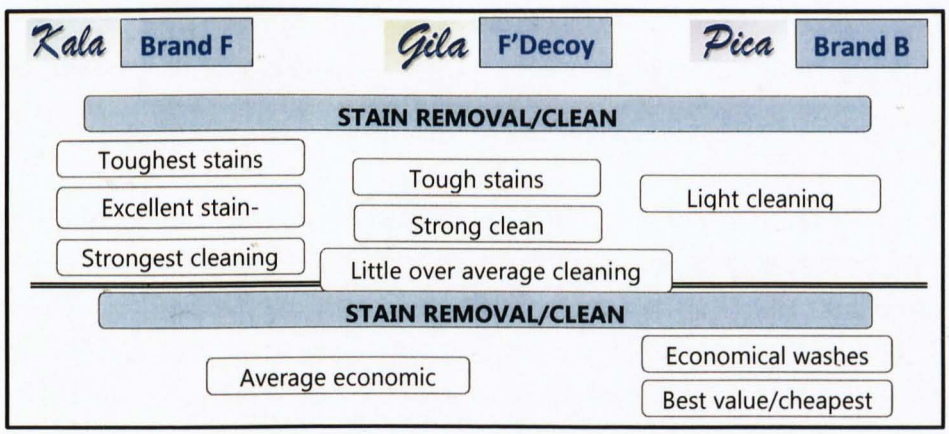


Figure C2.4 Manipulation check, open-ended question

The results of the three manipulation checks are consistent, and in different ways demonstrate that the stimuli are congruent with the intended manipulation of the two independent variables - (1) type of positioning base, and (2) type of decoy.

Chapter C3 **Research methodology**

C3.1 Sampling design

Sampling design is a fundamental element of marketing research (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010; Bradley, 2013). It involves identifying an appropriate target population, and then selecting a sub-set in a manner that matches both the purpose, and design of a research inquiry. Accepted good practice recommended by Malhotra and Birks (2007), and illustrated in Figure C3.1 is adopted for the sampling design considerations. The discussion in this section thus maps against the six interrelated procedures (i.e., steps) as illustrated in the figure.

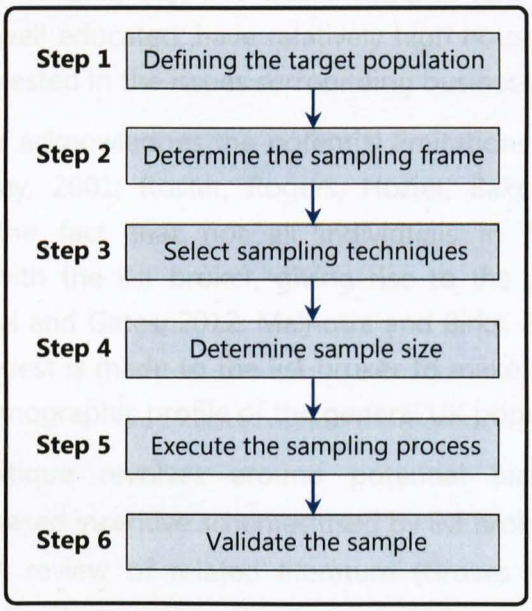


Figure C3.1 Figure C3.1 Steps of sampling design

Source: Malhotra, N. K. and Birks, D. F. (2007), *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach, 2nd European edition*, pg. 406, Harlow: Prentice Hall.

- **Step 1** involves defining the target population. For the purpose of this study, adult consumers (18 and over) who reside in the UK are identified as the target population. Rationale for the use of this broad cross-section of the population stems from its (i) familiarity with the product category under investigation (laundry detergent), as pointed out in the preceding section; and (ii) wide access to the Internet which is the mode used to administer the research instrument (see Section C3.2.1). Other considerations, such as cost and ease-of-access to potential respondents support the appropriate use of this target population; these are highlighted in the ensuing steps. Data are collected during the period January, 2014 – August, 2014.

- **Step 2** involves locating an appropriate sampling frame. For a number of reasons highlighted below, the decision is taken to allocated this and related tasks to a marketing list broker. First, the challenges encountered in gaining access to and conducting the study with alternative sampling frames during the pretest and pilot phase of the study (discussed in Chapter C4). Second, the use of list broker provided access to a wide cross section of readily-available UK consumers to participate in the research, in turn yielding considerable time and cost efficiencies. Third, as debated by Ray (2001), list brokers generally invest heavily in ensuring the quality of market research data, such as validating that respondents match the specifications of a target population, and identifying invalid respondents. Finally, a fourth rationale for the of a list broker, is its recent growth and accepted use in empirical marketing studies (e.g., Faroughian, Kalafatis and Ledden, 2012; Kalafatis, Riley and Singh, 2014). Roster et al. (2012) provide additional support for the use of a list broker in this regard, contending that web-based samples tended to draw respondents who are generally well educated, have relatively high household incomes, and are often genuinely interested in the issues surrounding business and marketing research.

  The researcher acknowledges the potential limitations associated with the use of a list broker (Ray, 2001; Roster, Rogers, Hozier, Baker and Albaum, 2007). Most apparent is the fact that not all individuals in the target population have membership with the list broker, giving rise to the potential for sampling-frame error (McDaniel and Gates, 2012; Malhotra and Birks, 2012). In light of this concern, an explicit request is made to the list broker to make use of a sampling frame that mirrors the demographic profile of the general UK population.

  A second critique revolves around potential bias that may emerge from participation-based incentive schemes used by list brokers to reward panel members (Ray, 2001). A review of related literature (Groves et al., 2006; Dillman, 2011), however, reveals that participation/incentive biases often stem from the use of monetary-based incentive schemes, as opposed to the points-based reward scheme employed by the list broker used in the study. Moreover, the literature points out that such points-based incentives scheme serves to motivate participants' engagement and involvement in the study, and hence increases response rates and data quality (Groves et al., 2006).

  Two marketing list brokers are considered: Maximiles, and Qualtrics Panel. In a separate pretest, data collected from a sample (n = 50) provided by the first (Maximiles) were found to be of a substantively low quality, e.g., high level of incomplete responses, and short (< 1 minute) completion times (noticeably lower than the expected duration to complete the questionnaire. The same pretest was administered with a sample (n = 50) provided by the second list broker (Qualtrics Panel). The results were found to be of a substantially higher quality compared to

the first list broker. As a result, the decision was taken to employ Qualtrics Panel for the purpose of the experiment.

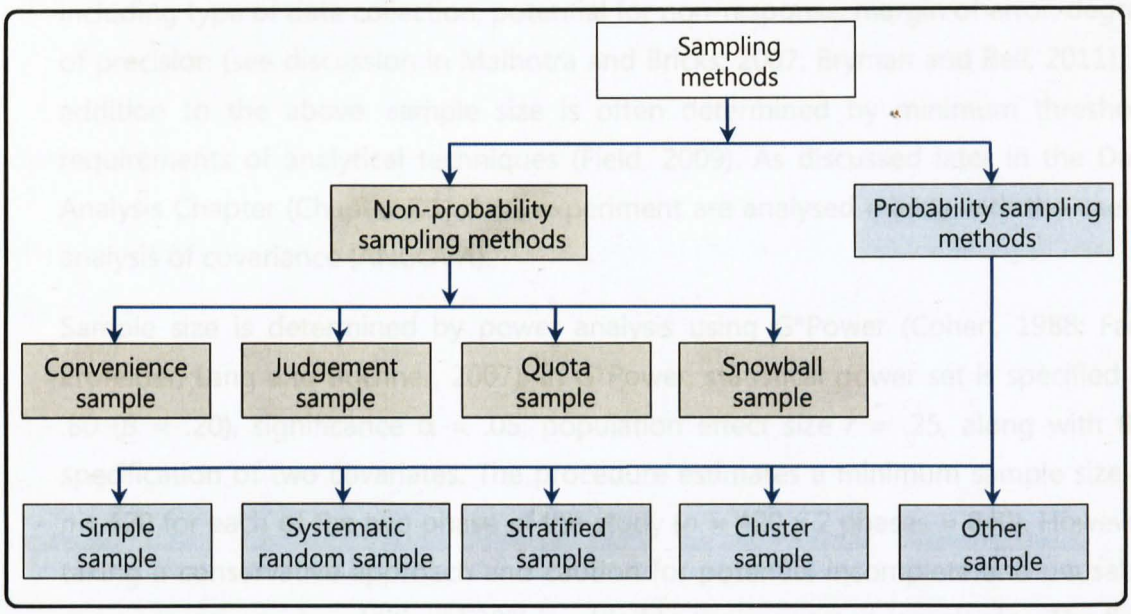


Figure C3.2 Classification of sampling techniques

Source: Adapted from Malhotra, N. K. and Birks, D. F. (2007), *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach, 2nd European edition*, pp. 411, Harlow: Prentice Hall.

- **Step 3** involves applying an appropriate method, i.e. probability or nonprobability, to select a sample of the population using an identified sampling frame (Bryman and Bell, 2011). With probability sampling, individuals of the target population have a known, predetermined and non-zero chance of being selected for the sample; whereas, in non-probability sampling, individuals are without a predetermined chance of inclusion in the sample, and are purposefully selected based on the subjective judgement of the researcher in light of the purpose of the research (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010). These two sampling methods give rise to the array of different samples used across social science research as illustrated in Figure C3.2. While the figure suggests a strict divide between probability vs. nonprobability sampling methods, research often adopt tailored versions of the various types of samples, but which matches the research design (Fricker, 2008).

Considering the merits of the various sampling techniques (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010; Bryman and Bell, 2011) in light of the aim and experimental design of the research, a simple random (probability) sampling technique is deemed appropriate for the research. As such, the list broker is explicitly asked to apply this sampling technique in allocating participants to the study.

- **Step 4** concerns determining appropriate sample size. The decision about sample size reflects a compromise among a number of considerations, including practical factors such as time and budget constraints, as well as methodological factors including type of data collection, potential for non-response, margin of error, degree of precision (see discussion in Malhotra and Bricks; 2007; Bryman and Bell, 2011). In addition to the above, sample size is often determined by minimum threshold requirements of analytical techniques (Field, 2009). As discussed later in the Data Analysis Chapter (Chapter D1) data, experiment are analysed mainly with the use of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA).

  Sample size is determined by power analysis using G*Power (Cohen, 1988; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang and Buchner, 2007). In G*Power, statistical power set is specified as .80 (β = .20), significance α = .05, population effect size r = .25, along with the specification of two covariates. The procedure estimates a minimum sample size of n= 420 for each of the two phase of the study (n = 420 x 2 phases = 840). However, taking a conservative approach and caution for potential incomplete and unusable survey responses, an additional 30% is added to the suggested sample size. The final study is thus conducted with 1200 respondents - 600 respondents within the feature-positioning phase, and n = 600 for the benefit-positioning phase.

- **Steps 5 and 6** centres around procedures involved in executing and validating the sampling design. As with Steps 2 and 3, these procedures are undertaken by the list broker. Additional validation checks are conducted by the researcher in an effort to ensure quality of data (Section C4.3).

C3.2 Data collection

In marketing research, data are primarily collected using observational and survey methods (Tull and Hawkins, 1993; Malhotra and Birks, 2012; Crano, Brewer and Lac, 2014). Observational methods, such as participant observation and ethnography, are used to directly capture individuals' behavioural response to an object, event or phenomenon over a prolonged period of time (Creswell, 2014). A core advantage of these observational techniques is that they enable the researcher to gain in-depth insights into issues that participants may not be willing to disclose through surveys. However, limitations in using observational techniques, include (i) the difficulty of gaining access to particular research settings (e.g., a company's HR or Finance Department), and (ii) the prolonged time required to collect data (Creswell, 2014).

Survey methods, on the other hand, involve eliciting attitudinal and cognitive responses from participants using a set of pre-determined questions (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010; Fowler, 2013). This involves collecting data via a set of standardized questions and responses, administered either by the researcher (participants' responses are recorded by the researcher), or self-completion (responses are recorded by participants themselves (Redline and Dillman, 2002; Sekaran and Bougie, 2012).

Given its prevalence, extensive consideration is given to the merits and limitations of various survey methods (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Fowler, 2013), as well as those associated with observational methods. In light of the aim and experimental nature of the research at hand, survey methods, in the form of a self-completion questionnaire is deemed most appropriate. Self-completion questionnaires represent the main method used to collect quantitative data in the research domains of brand positioning and decoy effects. Additional justification from (i) the time and cost efficiencies it offers for collecting data, given the inherent constraints of doctoral research; (ii) the feasibility and efficiency of collecting data from a wide geographical cross-section of the target population (Wright and Schwager, 2008); (iii) the greater scope, for anonymity, thereby minimizing the potential influence of social desirability and observational biases (Zikmund and Babin, 2007), and (iv) the fact that standardised questionnaires lend themselves to highly structured and straight-forward methods of analysis.

The limitations associated with self-completion questionnaires are acknowledged (Oppenheim, 2000; Couper, 2000, 2008; Fowler, 2013); in the context of the present research, particularly those related to non-response bias and measurement error (Oppenheim, 2000; Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010). Such limitations are minimised by utilizing a rigorous and systematic approach to questionnaire design informed by accepted good practice and consultations with experts in the field of survey design. Moreover, the potential for non-response bias is negated by employing a marketing list broker (see Section C3.1). The discussion now turns to issues related to the mode of survey administration (e.g., Ratneshwar et al., 1987; Mishra et al., 1993; Malaviya and Sivakumar, 2002; Hedgcock et al., 2009).

C3.2.1 *Mode of survey administration*

Consideration is given to alternative modes of survey administration: face-to-face, telephone, postal, electronic (email and Internet-based), as well as computer-assisted modes such as CATI and CASI (Groves et al., 2006; Sekaran and Bougie, 2012; Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010). These modes are evaluated on a number of related criteria, particularly the limited time, cost, and resources available for collecting data, and the ease with which data can be collected (Bachmann, Elfrink and Vazzana, 1996). Having considered the advantages of the alternatives modes of administration, an electronic mode is employed for the study. In addition to being the most time and cost effective of the varying modes (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2010; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Dillman, 2011), the use of an electronic mode of survey administration is justified by its wide used in the studies examining the decoy effect in the related literature.

Two most commonly cited drawbacks of using an electronic mode of survey administration relate to (i) the limited access to adequate sampling frames containing readily-available and up-to-date [electronic] contact information for potential respondents (Wright and Schwager, 2008), and (ii) the issue of self-selection bias, particularly as potential respondents often ignore the calls for survey participation in today's over-surveyed Internet space (McDonald and Adam, 2003; Fricker, 2008). Whilst both the above issues are noted and well-accepted (Dillman, Smyth, and Christian, 2014), the use of a list broker in current study serves to curb the potential biases and errors that these issues present on the procedures and results of the study.

Chapter C4 **Measures and Measurements**

C4.1 Introduction

The research constructs are operationalised using measures and measurements established in the literature. These measures and measurements are contextualised to fit the decoy-positioning focus of the study following good practice recommended by, among others, Engelland, Alford and Taylor (2001). This chapter provides a discussion of the operational definitions of the constructs and the corresponding measures (Section C4.2). Attention then turns to the procedures taken in developing and designing the research instrument (Section C4.3).

C4.2 Operational definitions of research constructs

C4.2.1 Dependent variable

Perceived brand positioning, the main dependent variable comprises four components (i.e., dimensions): differentiation, uniqueness, credibility and favourability. The construct is operationalised based on Fuchs (2008), and Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010). With the exception of favourability, each positioning dimension is captured by multi-item scales measured along an 11-point Likert scale anchored by 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree (11). The smaller scale adopted a smaller number of response categories (7-point scale); the decision to use a higher number of response categories (11-point scale) is taken in order to reduce an observed tendency (in pretests reported in Section C4.1) for participants to streamline responses around the obvious midpoint of the scale. This decision is in accordance to good practice suggested by Groves et al. (2006) and Fowler (2013).

- *Differentiation* captures the extent to which respondents perceive a focal offering as dissimilar and distinct from another offering(s) in the market (Sujan and Bettman, 1989). Three items capture this construct where participants are asked to 'please indicate the extent to which you would agree that a focal offering is (1) differentiated, (2) dissimilar, and (3) distinct'.
- *Credibility* captures the degree to which respondents view the differences between a focal and another offering(s) as believable and realistic (Kent and Allen, 1994). As with perceived differentiation, this dimension is measured using three items where participants are asked to 'please indicate the extent to which you would say that the differences between the focal offering and another offering(s) is (1) significant, (2) believable, and (3) realistic'.

- *Uniqueness* captures the extent to which respondents consider a focal offering to be entirely unique [on its own] compared to another offering(s) in the market (Myers, 1996). Four items are used to capture this dimension: 'compared to another offering(s), to what extent would you agree that the focal offering is (1) unique, (2) extraordinary, (3) atypical, and (4) special.
- *Favourability* captures the extent to which respondents have a positive perception towards a focal offering in comparison to another(s) in the market (Holbrook and Batra 1987; Alpert and Kamins, 1995). Different to proceeding, this dimension is captured by a single-item – 'comparing the brands in terms of what they offer, which in your view is more attractive?' ['Brand F is more attractive '/Brand B is more attractive']. The latter is in line with good practice according to Rossiter (2008) and Diamantopoulos et al. (2012).

C4.2.2 Measures for testing the decoy theories

Recall that an objective of the study is to test the explanatory powers of the three theories that explain the decoy effect - value-shift theory, emergent-value theory, and weight-change theory. The measures used to test the theories are discussed in turn:

- *Value-shift theory* is underpinned by the construct 'perceived attribute association' (Section C1.32.2), based on Pettibone and Wedell (2000), and Hedgcock et al. (2009). The construct is captured using a single-item - 'indicate how strongly you associate a focal brand as superior with respect to the two positioning attributes'. Responses are measured on an 11-point Likert scale anchored from 'very weak association' with the superiority of the positioning attribute (1), to 'very strong association' with the superiority of the positioning attribute (11).
- *Weight-change theory,* underpinned by 'perceived attribute importance', is captured using a single-item based on Simonson (1991) and Moran and Meyer (2006). The item is measured using a 100-points summative rating scale; the wording is as follows: 'please allocate 100 points between these two attributes in a way that indicates their relative importance when you are considering the purchase of laundry detergent as those presented in the adverts' (Total must add to 100).
- *Emergent-value theory*; recall that emergent-value constitutes two related mechanisms: 'dominance valuing' and 'ease of justification' (Wedell, 1991; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Moran and Meyer, 2006). Both mechanisms are captured using single-item measures.
    - *Dominance valuing* is captured using a single item adapted from Wedell (1991). The item is measured using an 11-point Likert scale ('rate the extent

you would say that the brand you have chosen[8] offers...'), and is anchored from 'just about the same overall benefits as the other brand' (1) to 'significantly more overall benefits than the other brand' (11).

- *Ease-of-justification* is captured using a single-item based on Chopin and Hummel (2005) and Wedell and Pettibone (1996), measured on an 11-point scale Likert scale. It reads, 'imagine now explaining to a friend the reasons for choosing this brand; rate how difficult it would be to justify your choice of this brand over the other?'- extremely difficult to justify' (1) to extremely easy to justify' (11).

C4.2.3 Covariates

The two identified covariates, category knowledge and category involvement are operationalised as follows:

- *Category knowledge* is captured by three items adapted from Park et al. (1994): 'in general, I have a good knowledge about', 'I have a strong interest in washing detergents', and 'I am more familiar with washing detergents than most of my peers'. These items are measured using an 11-point scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 11 (strongly agree).
- *Category involvement* is captured using three items adapted from Beatty and Talpade (1994): 'I am well aware of the important things to consider when purchasing detergent', 'laundry detergent in general is very important to me', and 'compared to other products, laundry detergent matters a lot to me'. Similar to category knowledge, the items are measured using an 11-point scale anchored from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (11).

Before closing this section, it should be noted that the study makes use of another variable, 'attribute focus'; rather than directly captured, this variable is developed based on a categorical transformation of the 'attribute-importance' measure (mentioned above in regards to weight-change theory). The variable is used as a means of classifying participants into three groups based on their ratings on the relative importance of the two positioning attributes. By way of the 100-point summative rating scale: (i) respondents allocating ≥ 60 points to positioning attribute #1 are classified as 'Attribute #1-focus'; (ii) respondents allocating ≥ 60 points to positioning attribute #2 are classified as 'Attribute #2-focus'; and

[8] In addition to the theory-related constructs, likelihood to purchase (choice) is captured in the context of the study. This construct is used to test the emergent-value theory as is convention in the literature on decoy effects. Likelihood to purchase captured by a single-item measure adapted from Huber and Puto (1983) - 'based on the information in the adverts, which brand are you more likely to purchase?'

(iii) those allocating < 60 points on each attribute, in other words relatively equal on positioning attributes #1 and #2, are classified as 'Indifferent'.

Table C4.1 Details of construct measures

Construct	Items	Source of measure
Perceived positioning: (i) Dissimilarity	• Compared to Brand B, to what extent would you agree that Brand F is differentiated, dissimilar, distinct'.	Fuchs (2008); Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010)
(ii) Favourability	• 'Comparing the brands in terms of what they offer, which in your view is more attractive? ['Brand F is more attractive '/'Brand B is more attractive'].	
(iii) Credibility	• 'Please indicate the extent you would say that the differences between Brand F and Brand B are: _____ significant, believable, and realistic'	
(iv) Uniqueness	• 'Compared to Brand B, to what extent would you agree that Brand F is: unique, extraordinary, atypical, and special'	
Likelihood to purchase	• Based on the information provided in the adverts, which brand are you more (most) likely to purchase?	Huber et al. (1982); Ratneswhar et al. (1987)
Measures used to test theory (i) Value-shift, underpinned by perceive attribute association)	• Comparing the adverts, please indicate how strongly you associate this brand with superior ____ (positioning attribute #1)'; this follows with an identical measure eliciting a response in respect to positioning attribute #2.	Pettibone and Wedell (2000); Hedgcock et al. (2009)
(ii) Weight-change, underpinned by perceive attribute importance	• 'please allocate 100 points between these two attributes in a way that indicates their relative importance when you are considering the purchase of laundry detergent as those presented in the adverts' (Total must add to 100).	Huber et al. (1982); Pan et al. (1995); Malaviya and Sivakumar (1998); Sen (1998)
(iii) Emergent value, dominance-value	• Imagine now explaining to a friend the reasons for choosing this brand; 'rate the extent you would say that the brand you have chosen offers - 1 (just about the same overall benefits as the other brand) to 11 (significantly more overall benefits than the other brand)'	Wedell (1991)
• Ease-of-justification	• Now imagine explaining to a friend the reasons for choosing this brand; rate how difficult it would be to justify your choice of this brand over the other?'- 1 (extremely difficult to justify) to (11) (extremely easy to justify).	Wedell and Pettibone (1996); Park and Kim (2005); Chopin and Hummel (2005)
Choice - likelihood to purchase	• 'Based on the information in the adverts, which brand are you more likely to purchase?'	Huber and Puto (1983); Ratneswhar et al. (1987)
Covariates • Category knowledge	• 'In general, I have a good knowledge about _____ (category).' • 'I have a strong interest in _____ (category).' • 'I am more familiar with _____ (category) than most of my peers'	Park et al. (1994)
• Category involvement	• 'I am well aware of the important things to consider when purchasing detergent', • 'Laundry detergent in general is very important to me', and 'compared to other products, • Laundry detergent matters a lot to me'.	Beatty and Talpade (1994)

C4.3 The research instrument

The construct measures are incorporated into the research instrument, a self-completion questionnaire, following good practice recommended by Oppenheim (2000), Iacobucci and Churchill (2010), and Fowler (2013), and Dillman, et al. (2014). The final version of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix C1; this is the result of a rigorous, iterative and unexpectedly long process of testing, refining, and re-testing in order to ensure reliability and validity of the instrument. Table C4.2 provides a mapping of the constructs to the location of the corresponding items on the questionnaire.

Table C4.2 Location of items in questionnaire

Location in questionnaire	Question number
INTRODUCTION AND INSTRUCTIONS	
Engagement activity 1	i-iii
MAIN BODY OF QUESTIONNAIRE	
Section A	
Attribute-association	A.1 – A2
Perceived positioning:	
Credibility	A.3
Differentiation	A.4
Uniqueness	A.5
Favourability	A.6
Section B	
Engagement activity 2	
Attribute importance	B.1
Choice	B.2
Dominance-valuing	B.3
Easy-of-justification	B.4
Category knowledge	B.5
Category involvement	B.6
Section C	
Engagement activity 3	
Demographics	
Gender, age, highest educational and household gross income	C.1 – C.7
END	

C4.3.1 Layout and structure of the questionnaire

The layout and structure of the questionnaire is designed following good practice as recommend by, among others, Oppenheim (2000) and Fowler (2013). In terms of standardisation, the questionnaire adopts a highly structured design, constituting mainly closed-ended questions along with two short open-ended questions. The latter are used as

manipulation checks and also to assess engagement with the research instrument. Whilst not considered a substantive long questionnaire (17 questions), procedures are taken to avoid the incidence of respondent fatigue: (i) situating no more than two questions a single page, and (ii) locating a progress bar on each page of the questionnaire to give respondents a visual monitor of their progress at any point whilst completing the questionnaire. Attention turns to outlining the different parts of the questions in turn.

Introduction and instruction

The questionnaire begins with two short paragraphs. The first conveys the purpose of the study and discloses relevant information regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of the collected data. The second paragraph provides an indication of the approximate time for completing the questionnaire ('no more than 10 minutes of your time'), and makes an explicit request that participants answer questions based only on their interpretation of the information presented in the adverts. The latter is incorporated to minimise participants' attempt to draw on existing brand associations while evaluating the brands presented by the study.

Main body of the questionnaire

The main body of the questionnaire is organised into three sections: Sections A through C). The measures are ordered so as to mimic the natural flow of a conversation (Groves et al., 2009).

- ***Section A*** comprises items measuring attitudes and perceptions of the position of the offerings ('perceived attribute-association', and 'perceived positioning'). Participants are first presented with full-size replicas of the stimuli. Herein participants are encouraged to 'please take a moment to read each advert carefully before proceeding to answer the questions that follow'. The presentation order of the stimuli is counter-balanced in order to check for presentation ordering effects (Mitchell and Jolley, 1996). Subsequent statistical results from the pilot study showed no evidence to suggest significant ordering effects. Unknown to respondents, a timing element was incorporated at this point of the questionnaire to assess whether respondents indeed spent substantive time examining the stimuli prior to answering the related questions. The above is informed by good practice suggested by Gittelman and Trimarchi (2012). For the questions that followed, smaller-sized versions of the stimuli are presented at the top of each page so that respondents, if need be, could review the relevant stimuli information prior to answering the related questions. Additionally, specific manipulations-check measures are incorporated in this section (see Section C2.9).

- ***Section B*** contains items used to test the explanatory powers of the decoy theories. This section also constitutes items used to measure the covariates ('category knowledge' and 'category involvement'). Incorporated in these measures is a quality check (i.e., trap question) used to evaluate the extent to which respondent devote cognitive attention in answering the preceding measures (Gittelman and Trimarchi, 2012) – 'please simply select the strongly disagree value of 2 for this statement'. This item is used also as a means of detecting the incidence of straight-lining (Müller et al., 2014) – the tendency for respondents to select the same scale point for all answers options along a group of questions. Respondents failing this quality check are removed from the analysis.
- **Section C**, in line with good practice (Groves et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2014), contains a final set of demographic items - gender, age, highest educational, and household gross income. The questionnaire concludes by again thanking respondents for their participation in the study.

C4.4 Refining the research instrument

The first draft of the questionnaire is subjected to a rigorous three-stage process towards developing the final draft of the questionnaire: Stage 1, face and content validity; Stage 2, pretest the research instrument; and Stage 3, pilot the experiment.

C4.4.1 Face and content validity of measures (Stage 1)

The objective of the first stage is two-fold: to (1) elicit expert feedback and critique regarding the adequacy of the measures, and (2) establish face and content validity of the measures. This stage enables the researcher to assess whether the measures 'make sense', and more importantly, to assess that they sufficiently reflect the respective constructs in the research domain (Hardesty and Bearden, 2004).

A series of consultations are conducted with a panel of eight expert informants – i.e., academics having expertise in the research domain and survey design. Of these sessions took the form a formal oral presentation and feedback meeting. Prior to this session, experts were asked to scrutinise a document overviewing the conceptual framework, operational definitions of the constructs, and the draft questionnaire. In addition to with extensive written feedback, the presentation and oral feedback provided useful insights to reduce ambiguities to improve the clarity and flow of the research instrument.

After modifications based on the experts' feedback, a face-validity test is conducted to assess the soundness and representativeness of revised measures (Hardesty and Bearden, 2004). Following Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma (2003), a convenience sample of 10 doctoral students at Kingston Business School is asked to independently rate each item in terms of its representativeness of the four perceived positioning dimensions. The procedure is conducted using a 3-point rating scale – represented by 1 'not representative', 2 'somewhat representative', and 3 'clearly representative' (Lichtenstein et al., 1990). Using a criteria adapted from Fuchs (2008), in order for an item to be retained in the scale, seven out of 10 judges needed to rate this item as at least 'somewhat representative' of the respective of the theoretical dimension. The results show that judges exhibited overall agreement (i.e., at least somewhat representative of the items to the corresponding dimension) for all the items with the exception of two[9] items capturing the credibility dimension in the perceived positioning scale. On closer inspection, the decision is taken to remove these items as they are somewhat distinct from the remaining three items capturing credibility.

Content validity is established through the researcher's adherence to established good practice throughout the procedures involved in conceptualising and operationalising the research constructs (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010; Bryman and Bell, 2011). These procedures include undertaking an extensive review of the brand positioning and decoy effect literatures (Chapter B) from which the operational definitions and corresponding measures are derived; and then developing a theoretical-grounded conceptual framework (Section C1.4). Together, the procedures undertaken in Stage 1 provide expert feedback that informs the refinement of the initial draft of the instrument, and also establishes face and content validity.

C4.4.2 Pretesting research instrument (Stage 2)

The objective of this pretest is to evaluate the overall flow, clarity and comprehension of the research instrument from a lay person's perspective. The related procedures, in line with good practice (Fowler, 2013; Feinberg et al., 2012; Dillman et al., 2014), serve to (i) identify potential areas of instrument [questionnaire] biases, (ii) ensure that the cognitive demands

[9] Specific wording of these items are: 'Please indicate the extent you would say that the differences between Brand F and Brand B are (1) plausible/implausible, and (2) trustworthy/ untrustworthy.

required to complete the questionnaire not burden participants, and (iii) avoid the occurrence of satisficing (Groves et al., 2006; MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012). The pretest serves also as a means of estimating the length of time expected of respondents to complete the questionnaire via the electronic mode of communication (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003). Questionnaire-completion time was evaluated against responses in order to check for related biases, particularly where participants spent a substantively short or long duration to complete the questionnaire.

To address the abovementioned objectives, the decision is taken to make use of one (of the six) versions of the questionnaire, namely that for the feature-oriented control condition. The use of this single version of the questionnaire is justified given that all other versions are different only with respect to the type(s) of stimuli. The pretest is conducted using a convenience sample of postgraduate students (n = 26) at Kingston University. Respondents are asked to complete the questionnaire on a voluntary basis at the end of a lecture conducted in a computer laboratory. Administered through an Internet-based survey platform (Qualtrics), the questionnaire is completed on the desktop computers in the room. Responses are aggregated and exported to SPSS for analysis.

Respondents completed the questionnaire in an average seven minutes. The overall pattern of results (as revealed by mean ratings, mode and standard deviation values), were consistent across respondents, suggesting adequate comprehension of the research instrument. Face-to-face cognitive interviews are conducted with seven of the respondents in order to closely evaluate responses (Beatty and Willis, 2007). Three of these interviews took the form of 'think aloud' protocol interviews (DeMaio and Landreth, 2004), where respondents are asked to walk the researcher through their cognitive journeys whilst reading and answering each question. The remaining (four) interviews took the form of probing protocol interviews; and with these, participants are asked more specific questions regarding their (i) understanding of the measures and response categories, (ii) opinions of what the researcher was trying to find out by asking particular questions, and finally (iii) rationale for allocating specific ratings to different measures (Beatty and Willis, 2007).

Feedback from the cognitive interviews resulted in slight refinements to the construct measures. Particularly, modifying the wording of few questions, and changing the response format of the Likert-scale items from the conventional tick box to a more interactive sliding bar. Additional justification for the use of sliding bars is provided by Downes-Le Guin, Baker,

Mechling and Ruyle (2012). It is at this point that the decision is taken to increase the number of response categories from a 7-point to an 11-point format. This is done in an effort to (i) increase the sensitivity of measures, and (ii) reduce an observed tendency for some respondents to straight-line responses along the [obvious] middle point of the 7-point ('4') scale (Oppenheim, 2000; Fowler, 2013). Additionally, the interviews brought attention to the tendency for respondents to overlook the instruction to carefully read the research stimuli prior to answering the related questions. In consequence, and based on additional feedback from the same expert panel, the following decisions were taken:

- In an effort to increase respondents' engagement with the research instrument elements of gamification are incorporated in the questionnaire. Gamification involves the use of game elements in a non-game context (Puleston, 2013). Research shows that gamification increases user participation in market research, and evokes an intrinsic and sustained motivation for participants to engage with a research instruments (Ryan, Rigby and Przybylski, 2006; Downes-Le Guin et al. 2012). Empirical evidence also demonstrates that gamification has significant positive effects on data quality. (Cechanowicz, Gutwin, Brownel and Goodfellow, 2013). Specific to the context of this study, two gamification elements take the form of an interactive 'click and select' activity ('on each advert, click the one phrase that represents the most unique aspect of each brand of detergent'). The other takes the form of a word trivia located halfway through the course of completing the questionnaire. '96% of people taking this survey were able to come up with two differences among these brands of detergents; how about you? In what two ways do you think the brands are different in terms of what they offer?'
- Incorporate images of the stimuli on the top of each page of the questionnaire that contained questions constituting questions about the offerings under consideration.
- Finally, in a manner similar to the stimuli above, incorporate a summary table of respondents' answers (ratings) to an initial measure concerning their perceptions of the offerings presented in the stimuli ('attribute association').

Furthermore, when probed, participants were unable to accurately identify the underlying decoy-positioning purpose of the research instrument. This provided evidence to suggest that participants are not inherently biased by a predisposition to expectations of the researcher and research instrument; it also served as a means to confirm concern for issues related to common-method bias (Mackenzie and Podsakoff, 2012; Diamantopoulos, Fritz and Hildebrandt, 2012).

On incorporating the above-mentioned modifications, follow-up interviews with two of the original participants confirmed that the measures were comprehensible, and the

questionnaire was engaging. Thus, as a final stage of the questionnaire-development, a pilot is conducted of the [feature-positioning] phase of the experiment. Procedures and results are discussed in the following sections.

C4.4.3 Pilot the experiment (Stage 3)

The objectives of the pilot study are twofold: first, to evaluate the adequacy of the modifications incorporated throughout the preceding stages of developing the questionnaire; and second, to assess basic psychometric properties of the main dependent variable, perceived positioning. Similar to the pretest, Section C4, the pilot study is conducted with only one (i.e., the feature-positioning) of the two phases of the study.

In respect to the first objective, feedback from the same expert panel confirms that items that presented greatest concern in the preceding stages are adequate and valid – i.e., concise, even more clearly worded, and sufficiently tap corresponding constructs. The second objective is addressed by administering the questionnaire to a sample (n = 90) of adult UK consumers provided by the same list broker used for the main study. Following the procedures outlined in Section C2.7, respondents are randomly allocated the questionnaire for either the feature control condition (n = 30), experimental F'Decoy condition (n = 30), or the experimental F"Decoy condition (n = 30). Responses are aggregated in Qualtrics, exported to SPSS (version 22), and therein submitted to the relevant psychometric testing.

On average, respondents completed the questionnaire in 10 minutes, slightly higher than the time taken prior to incorporating the most recent set of modifications. At this point, the decision is taken to incorporate a completion-time criteria, such that respondents completing the questionnaire in less than a third of the estimated time, i.e., <3 minutes, are not used in the study.

Part D: DATA ANALYSIS

Chapter D1 **Assessing psychometric properties**

D1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of conventional psychometric tests of the main dependent variable, i.e. perceived positioning, and an overview and justification of the main analytical procedure, i.e. analysis of covariance (ANCOVA).

D1.2 Assessing quality of data

A series of preliminary procedures are taken to ensure quality of data following good practice recommended by Field (2009) and Oppenheimer, Meyvis and Davidenko (2009). First, respondents failing to meet the completion-time and engagement quality checks are removed from the data set. Second, an instructional manipulation check is used to identify instances where respondents failed to follow survey instructions, or engaged in random clicking and typing during the course of completing the questionnaire. Respondents identified as providing bogus responses to the open-ended questions are removed. Third, incomplete questionnaires are also removed from the data. Whilst stringent, and evidently reducing the actual sample size used for analysis, such quality checks are applied to reduce noise in the data and in turn increase the statistical power of the analysis (Oppenheimer et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2014).

D1.3 Psychometric testing

D1.3.1 Reliability analysis

Before proceeding to test the research propositions the researcher test the psychometric properties of the dependent variables (i.e., the dimensions of perceived positioning) – favourability, differentiation, uniqueness, and credibility (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). The data are subjected to reliability analysis; the results are summarised in Table D1.1. Internal reliability (i.e., consistency) is assessed by Cronbach's alpha and two related reliability estimates - average inter-item correlations and average corrected inter-total correlations (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Field, 2009). Cronbach's alpha estimates the average of all possible split-half reliabilities of a scale, average inter-item correlations compares correlations between all pairs of items by calculating the mean of all paired

correlations, while average corrected inter-total correlations estimates the average of the correlations between each item and the total score from the scale (Field, 2009).

Cronbach's alpha values for the perceived positioning constructs range from 0.78 to 0.87, exceeding the recommended benchmark value of 0.70 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Corresponding values for average inter-item correlations and average corrected inter-total correlations are also well above the 0.30 benchmarks (Kline, 2005; Field, 2009). Turning to the covariates, Cronbach's alpha values for category knowledge (0.86) and category involvement (0.88) exceed the recommended benchmark (0.70); and in a similar manner, satisfactory values are reported in respect to average inter-item correlations (0.63 and 0.72, respectively) and average corrected inter-total correlations (0.73 and 0.78, respectively). Finally, as it relates to internal consistency, the results in respect to 'Scale If Item Deleted' present no evidence to suggest that improvements of the scale can be attained through the deletion of items (Field, 2009).

Table D1.1 Summary results of internal reliability

Constructs	# of items	Cronbach's alpha	Avg. inter-item correlations	Avg. corrected inter-total correlations
Perceived positioning:				
Differentiation	3	0.78	0.55	0.62
Uniqueness	4	0.87	0.62	0.74
Credibility	3	0.80	0.57	0.65
Favourability	1	N/A	N/A	N/A
Covariates:				
Category knowledge	3	0.86	0.63	0.73
Category involvement	3	0.88	0.72	0.78

D1.3.2 Convergent validity

Convergent validity of the dependent variable is assessed by assessing the unidimensionality of the construct (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Segars, 1997; Hair et al., 2010). A factor analysis is conducted on the 11 items constituting the perceived positioning scale with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .823 (Field, 2009), and all KMO values for individual items are >.75, which is well above the acceptable of .05 (Hair et al., 2010). Bartlett's test of sphericity χ^2 (55) = 2096.066 (p = .000) indicates that correlations between items are sufficiently large for PCA (Field, 2009). A four-factor solution explains 78.18% of the variance. Table D1.2 show the expected factor loadings after rotation. With the

exception of favourability, all factors comprise multi-item - differentiation (three items), uniqueness (four items), and credibility (three items).

Table D1.2 Summary results of factor analysis

Favourability	Differentiation	Uniqueness	Credibility
0.986			
	0.835		
	0.820		
	0.769		
		0.890	
		0.872	
		0.852	
		0.747	
			0.883
			0.871
			0.515
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO)			.823
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square			2096.066
	df		55.000
	Sig.		.000

D1.4 Main analytical procedure

The study involves examining both main and interaction effects of the introduction of different decoys while controlling for the influence of extraneous variables (as specified in Section C1.4.1.1). On considering alternative analytical procedures in the light of the aim of the research, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA[10]) is deemed the appropriate procedure (Field, 2009). ANCOVA is underpinned by assumptions: (1) independence of covariate and treatment effect, (2) homogeneity of variance, (3) correlations among covariates, and (4) homogeneity of regression slopes (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2013). Thus, prior to subjecting the data to ANCOVA, a series of procedures are applied to assess the adherence of the data to these assumptions (Field, 2009).

[10] ANCOVA is a GLM (general linear modelling) procedure that uses F-ratio to compare the effect of an independent variable across group means while statistically controlling for (i.e., taking into account) confounding variability of variables that are outside the direct interest of the research, i.e. covariates (Field, 2009).

Chapter D2 **Testing the research propositions**

D2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of empirically testing the research propositions using ANCOVA. Attention turns first to the feature-positioning phase of the study. Before subjecting the data to ANCOVA, the underlying assumptions ANCOVA are examined. Thereafter, attention turns to testing the explanatory powers of the three decoy theories (value-shift, emergent-value, and weight, change). The same order of analysis is used for the benefit-positioning phase of the research. The chapter ends with a comparison of the results across the two phases of the research.

D2.2 Feature positioning phase

Recall from Section C2.5 that the feature-positioning phase examines how perceived-position of a feature-positioned focal offering is affected by the introduction of (i) a feature-positioned frequency decoy (F'_{FREQ}Decoy) and (ii) a feature-positioned range decoy (F''_{RANGE}Decoy). For ease of discussion, Figure D2.1 provides a graphical illustration of these two decoys as well as the other two offerings involved in this phase of the research – i.e. feature-positioned focal offering (Brand F), and the benefit-positioned competitor offering (Brand B).

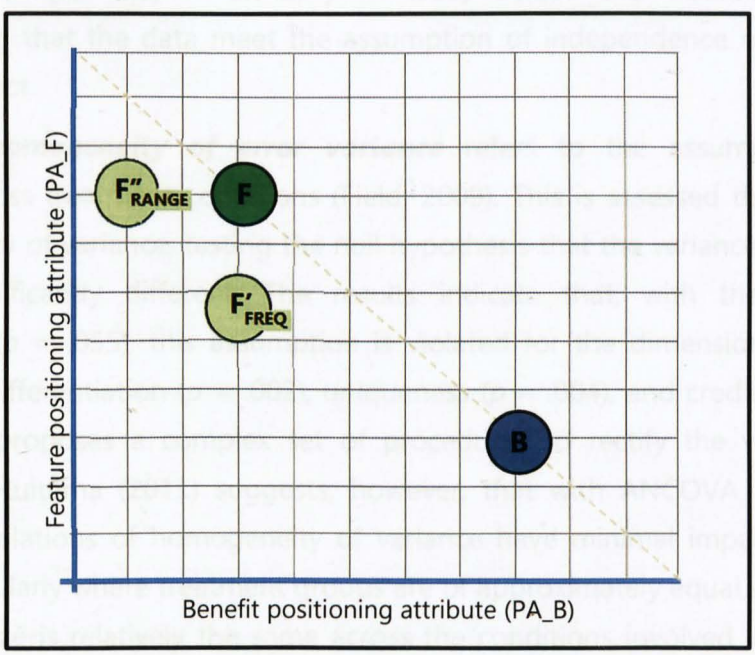


Figure D2.1 Graphical illustration of stimuli used in feature-positioning study phase

Within this phase of the research (feature-positioning phase), attention is first given to examining the impact of the feature-positioned frequency decoy (F'_{FREQ}) on the perceived position of the focal offering (Brand F). If the perceived position of Brand F is significantly higher in the presence (vs. absence) of the (F'_{FREQ}) decoy, this provides evidence of the decoy effect. The same logic follows for testing the feature-positioned range decoy (F'_{RANGE}). Prior to subjecting the data to ANCOVA, a set of procedures are employed for testing the four assumptions of ANCOVA following recommended good practice by Field (2009), and Pallant (2013).

D2.2.1 Testing assumptions of ANCOVA

- ***Independence of covariate and treatment effects*** is the assumption that the effect of the covariates are independent across the treatment groups (Miller and Chapman, 2001; Field, 2009). As it relates to the study, this means that the covariates ('category knowledge' and 'category involvement') should only explain variance in the specified dependent variable which is unexplained by the independent variables. The assumption is tested by performing analysis of variance (ANOVA): the experimental treatment variable (type of decoy - comprising, the control, F'_{FREQ}, and F''_{RANGE} conditions) is modelled as the independent factor, and covariates (i.e., 'category knowledge' and 'category involvement') as dependent variables. The results reveal no significant differences in both category knowledge (F [2, 489] = 2.207, p = .111) and category involvement (F [2, 489] = 1.042, p = .353) across the treatment conditions, demonstrating that the data meet the assumption of independence of covariate and treatment effect.
- ***Univariate homogeneity of error variance*** refers to the assumption of equal variances across treatment conditions (Field, 2009). This is assessed through Levene's test of equality of variance, testing the null hypothesis that the variances of the groups are not significantly different. The results indicate that, with the exception of favourability (p = .055), this assumption is violated for the dimensions of perceived positioning: differentiation (p = .002), uniqueness (p = .004), and credibility (p = .003). Field (2009) proposes a complex set of procedures to rectify the violation of this assumption. Huitema (2011) suggests, however, that with ANCOVA being a robust procedure, violations of homogeneity of variance have minimal impact on analytical results, particularly where treatment groups are of approximately equal sizes. Given that the sample size is relatively the same across the conditions involved in the study, no concern is presented with respect to observed violations to this ANCOVA assumption.
- ***Correlations among covariates*** assumption postulates that covariates should not exhibit extremely strong correlations (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2013). The results of Pearson

Correlation exhibit no evidence of extremely strong correlations (i.e., r >.90; Field, 2009) among the covariates, demonstrating that the data show adherence to this assumption.

- ***Homogeneity of regression slopes*** is the assumption that the relationship between the dependent variable and covariates is the same in each of the treatment groups (Pallant, 2013). Following Field (2009), this assumption is evaluated from the results of a customized ANCOVA model of the interaction effects between the covariates (i.e., category knowledge and category involvement) and the dependent variables. The results indicate no significant interaction effects (p > .05) for the two covariates across the different treatment conditions, demonstrating that the data show adherence to this ANCOVA assumption.

As the data show adherence to the assumptions of ANCOVA, the procedure is applied to test the related propositions. The results are first presented for the effects of the F'_{FREQ} Decoy (and for this purpose, referred to as Study 1), and then for the F''_{RANGE} Decoy (Study 2).

D2.2.2 Study 1: Testing the feature-positioned frequency decoy

In separate two-way ANCOVAs, the positioning dimensions (i.e., favourability, differentiation, uniqueness, and credibility) are modelled as dependent variables; the experimental treatment variable (i.e., the control and F'_{FREQ} decoy conditions) and attribute-importance (categorised as feature-focus, benefit-focus, and indifferent) modelled as fixed factors, and category knowledge and category involvement specified as covariates. Table D2.1 provides a summary of the results.

Main effects, introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy

The information in Table D2.1 shows that, after controlling for the effects of the covariates, there are significant main effects of the introduction of the feature-positioned frequency decoy (F'_{FREQ}Decoy) on three of the four positioning dimensions: differentiation (F [1, 322] = 4.33, p = .038, η^2 = .013), uniqueness (F [1, 308] = 3.07, p = .081, η^2 = .010) and credibility (F [1, 318] = 3.68, p = .018, η^2 = .018). In line with the related propositions (P 1.1b, P 1.1c and P 1.1d), corresponding mean values are significantly higher in the F'_{FREQ}Decoy conditions than in the respective control conditions: differentiation ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 7.76, $M_{Control}$ = 7.35), uniqueness ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 6.24, $M_{Control}$ = 5.87), credibility ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 7.40, $M_{Control}$ = 7.00). The effect size as reflected in the partial eta squared values, is highest for the credibility dimension (η^2 = .018) - albeit considered as a *small* effect according to Cohen (1988). This

indicates that among the positioning dimensions, the introduction of F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy exhibited its strongest impact on the perceived credibility of the feature-positioned focal offering.

Table D2.1 Impact of F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy on perceived positioning

Main and interaction	*p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)			
	Favourability	**Differentiation**	**Uniqueness**	**Credibility**
F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy treatment	.786^{ns} (.000)	.038** (.013)	.081* (.010)	.018** (.018)
Attribute-focus	.000*** (.257)	.205^{ns} (.010)	.070* (.017)	.009** (.029)
F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus[11]	.762^{ns} (.002)	.007** (.030)	.076* (.017)	.331^{ns} (.007)
Covariates				
Category knowledge	.476^{ns} (.002)	.050* (.012)	.026** (.016)	.330^{ns} (.003)
Category involvement	.814^{ns} (.000)	.304^{ns} (.003)	.819^{ns} (.000)	.927^{ns} (.000)
Study conditions	**Estimated mean values**			
Control condition	5.41	7.35	5.87	7.00
F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy condition	5.33	7.76	6.24	7.40
Attribute-focus groups				
Feature-focus	7.29	7.70	6.35	7.45
Indifferent	5.38	7.32	6.00	6.87
Benefit-focus	3.44	7.66	5.80	7.27

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects, attribute-focus

The results show significant main effects of attribute-focus on three positioning dimensions: favourability (F [2, 332] = 52.28, p = .000, η^2 =.257), uniqueness (F [2, 308] = 2.68, p = .070, η^2 = .017), and credibility (F [2, 318] = 4.76, p = .009, η^2 = .029). *Post hoc* analysis using Sidak Corrections (Field, 2009) is applied in order to isolate the mean differences among the three attribute-focus groups (feature-focus, indifferent, and benefit-focus). A summary of the reported mean values is presented at the bottom of Table D2.1 (with more details presented in the corresponding SPSS output in Appendix D2).

As displayed in the table, the results provide evidence in support for propositions related to favourability and uniqueness (P 1.1e and P 1.1g, respectively). With respect to favourability, the feature-focus group reported significantly higher mean values than both the indifferent and benefit-focus groups ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 7.29, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 5.38 $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 3.44). Similarly, for uniqueness, mean values are significantly higher for the feature-focus and indifferent groups than the benefit-focus group ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 6.35, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 6.00, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 5.80). In terms of credibility, the pattern of mean values however, fails to provide statistically significant evidence in support of P 1.2d. In particular, although the highest mean value is

[11] 'F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy x attribute focus' denotes interaction effects between the introduction of the F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy and attribute focus on the perceived position of the focal offering.

reported by the feature-focus group, this is not significantly different from that reported by the benefit-focus group ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 7.45, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 6.87, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 7.27).

Interaction effects, between the introduction of F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy and attribute-focus

ANCOVA reveals significant interaction effects between the introduction of F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy and attribute-focus (F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus) on perceived position of the focal brand in respect to differentiation (F = [2, 318] = 5.04, p = .007, η^2 =.030), and uniqueness (F = [2, 307] = 2.60, p = .076, η^2 =.017). These results are in line with the predictions in P 1.1j and P 1.1k – i.e., that attribute-focus interacts with the [introduction of] F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy in its impact on perceived positioning of the focal brand in respect to differentiation and uniqueness. The pattern of these interactions is graphically illustrated in Figure D2.2.

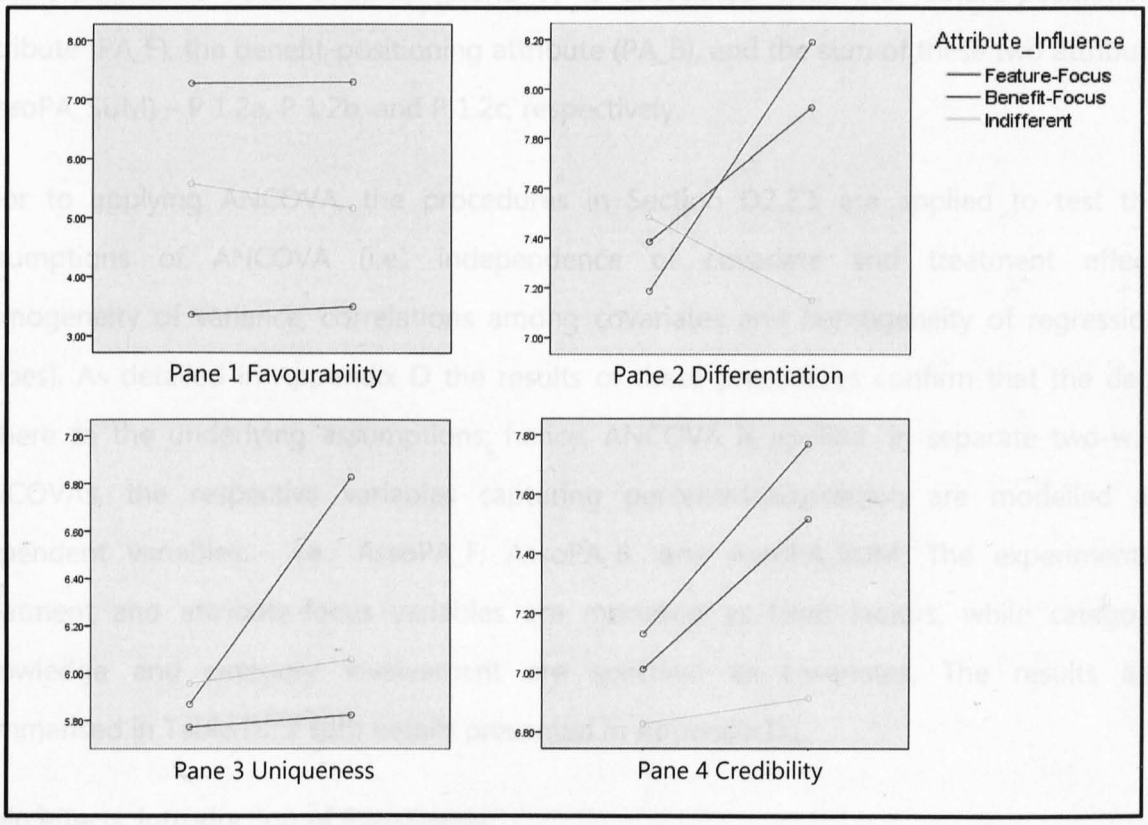


Figure D2.2 Interaction effects, introduction of F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

For differentiation, Pane 2 of the figure illustrates that the introduction of F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy results in a substantive increase in mean ratings among the feature-focus and benefit-focus groups, while a substantive decrease among participants in the indifferent group. Regarding uniqueness, Pane 2 illustrates that while the introduction of F'$_{FREQ}$Decoy results in a substantive increase in mean ratings for the feature-focus group, little or no increase is

evident among indifferent and benefit-focus groups. Moreover, whilst the graphs for favourability and credibility (Panes 3 and 4, respectively) seem to suggest meaningful interactions, ANCOVA reveals no statistical significance in this respect. These results suggest that the main effects of the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy and attribute-focus are independent in terms of their impact on the favourability and credibility dimensions of perceived positioning.

D2.2.2.1 Testing theories for impact of F'_{FREQ}Decoy

Testing value-shift theory in the context of the F'_{FREQ}Decoy

As with the foregoing analyses, ANCOVA is applied to test the propositions concerning the value-shift theory: that the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy increases the strength with which the feature-positioned focal offering (Brand F) is associated with the feature-positioning attribute (PA_F), the benefit-positioning attribute (PA_B), and the sum of these two attribute (AssoPA_SUM) – P 1.2a, P 1.2b, and P 1.2c, respectively.

Prior to applying ANCOVA, the procedures in Section D2.2.1 are applied to test the assumptions of ANCOVA (i.e., independence of covariate and treatment effect, homogeneity of variance, correlations among covariates and homogeneity of regression slopes). As detailed in Appendix D the results of these procedures confirm that the data adhere to the underlying assumptions; hence, ANCOVA is applied. In separate two-way ANCOVAs, the respective variables capturing perceived-association are modelled as dependent variables - i.e., AssoPA_F, AssoPA_B, and AssoPA_SUM. The experimental treatment and attribute-focus variables are modelled as fixed factors, while category knowledge and category involvement are specified as covariates. The results are summarised in Table D2.2 with details presented in Appendix D1.

Main effects, introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy

The information in Table D2.2 shows that, after controlling the influence of the covariates, there are significant main effects of the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy on two of the three value-shift measures: AssoPA_B (F [1, 334] = 10.45, p = .001, η^2 = .030), and AssoPA_SUM (F [1, 334] = 2.95, p = .087, η^2 = .009). Consistent with predictions in P 1.2b and P 1.2c, mean values are significantly higher in the respective F'_{FREQ}Decoy conditions than that of the control: AssoPA_B ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 5.00, $M_{Control}$ = 4.34), and AssoPA_SUM ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 14.20, $M_{control}$ = 13.76). Albeit *small* according to Cohen's (1988) benchmark of effect size

(according to partial eta squared), the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy exhibits its strongest impact on the AssoPA_B (η^2= .030) and less on the AssoPA_SUM variable (η^2= .009). These results provide statistical evidence in support of the value-shift theory in explaining the observed decoy-positioning effects with respect to an enhanced perceived-association of the focal brand with AssoPA_B and AssoPA_SUM attributes.

Table D2.2 Testing value-shift theory, F'_{FREQ}Decoy

	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**		
Main and interaction effects:	**AssoPA_F**	**AssoPA_B**	**AssoPA_SUM**
F'_{FREQ}Decoy treatment	.107^{ns} (.008)	.001** (.030)	.087* (.009)
Attribute-focus	.001** (.040)	.000*** (.077)	.007** (.030)
F'_{FREQ}Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.012** (.026)	.606^{ns} (.003)	.042** (.019)
Covariates			
Category knowledge	.398^{ns} (.002)	.798^{ns} (.000)	.764^{ns} (.000)
Category involvement	.011** (.019)	.000*** (.039)	.000** (.060)
Study conditions	Estimated mean values		
Control condition	9.44	4.34	13.76
F'_{FREQ}Decoy treatment	9.20	5.00	14.20
Attribute-focus groups			
Feature-focus	9.36	5.03	14.41
Indifferent	8.94	5.13	14.08
Benefit-focus	9.64	3.84	13.46

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects, attribute-focus

ANCOVA finds significant main effects of attribute-focus on the threre value-shift components: AssoPA_F (F [2, 334] = 6.97, p = .001, η^2 = .040), AssoPA_B (F [2, 334] = 14.02, p = .000, η^2 = .077), and AssoPA_SUM (F [2, 334] = 5.10, p = .007, η^2 = .030). A series of *post-hoc* mean comparisons using Sidak Corrections (Field, 2009) is applied to evaluate the mean differences among the attribute-focus groups. As summarised in Table D2.2, the feature-focus and indifferent groups report significantly higher mean values than the benefit-focus group with respect to AssoPA_B ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 5.03, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 5.13, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 3.84), and AssoPA_SUM ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 14.41, $M_{Indifferent}$= 14.08, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 13.46). Regarding AssoPA_F, mean values for the feature-focus and benefit-focus are significantly higher than reported by the indifferent group ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 9.36, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 9.94, and $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 9.64). Together, these results confirm the propositions regarding the value-shift theory in explaining the decoy- positioning effects (P 1.2d, P 1.2e, and P 1.2f).

Interaction effects, introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy and attribute-focus

The results in Table D2.2 show significant interaction effects between the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy and attribute-focus on AssoPA_F (F [2, 334] = 4.46, p = .012, η^2 = .026) and AssoPA_SUM (F [2, 334] = 3.49, p = .032, η^2= .020). These results confirm predictions that the effect of the introduction F'_{FREQ}Decoy interacts with attribute focus with respect to the value-shift theory (P 1.2g and P 1.2i). Figure D2.3 graphically illustrates the pattern of the observed interactions. Regarding AssoPA_F, Pane 1 demonstrates that introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy results in a substantive increase in mean values for only the feature-focus group, whilst a substantive decrease for both the indifferent and benefit-focus groups. As for AssoPA_SUM (Pane 2), the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy results in a substantive increase in mean ratings for the feature-focus group, a marginal increase for benefit-focus group, and a marginal decrease for the indifferent group. The results provide no statistically significant evidence with regards to AssoPA_B (F [2, 334] = .502, p = .606, η^2 = .003). This effect is evidenced by the similar sloping lines across the attribute-focus groups in Pane 2, suggesting that the impact of the [introduction of] F'_{FREQ}Decoy on AssoPA_B is not affected by perceptions regarding the relative importance of the two positioning attributes.

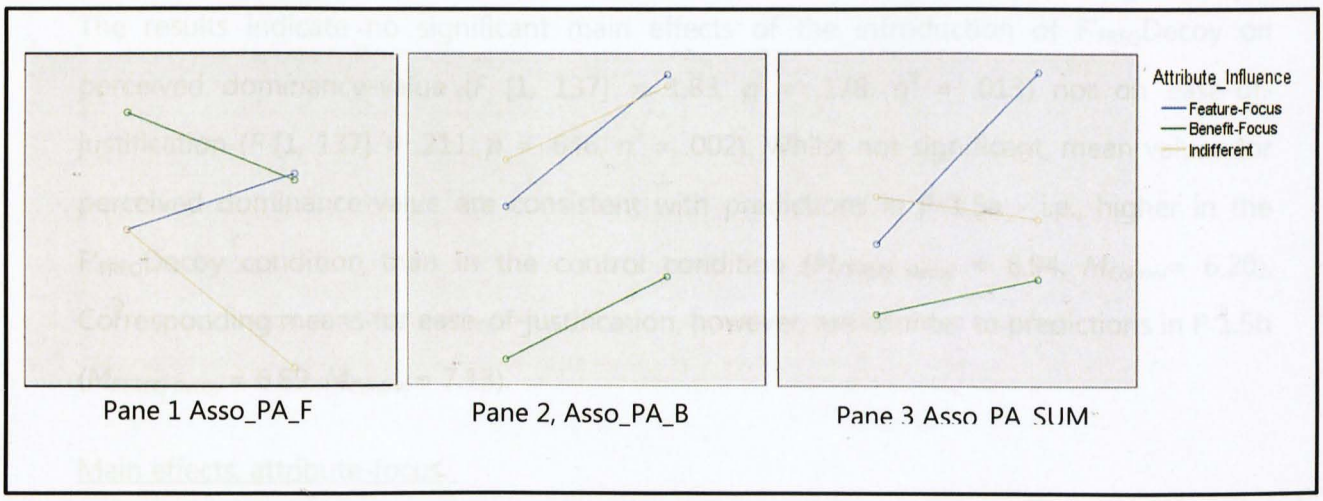


Figure D2.3 Interaction effects, testing value-shift theory for F'_{FREQ}Decoy

Emergent-value theory; perceived dominance and ease-of-justification F'_{FREQ}Decoy

Prior to performing ANCOVA, the data are subjected to the assumption-testing procedures (outlined in Section D2.2.1). As displayed in Appendix D1, the results of these procedures confirm that the data meet the underlying assumptions; hence, ANCOVA is performed to test the P 1.3a and P 1.3b. In separate ANCOVAs, the items measuring perceived dominance-value and ease-of-justification (when the focal brand is preferred) are modelled

as dependent variables; the variables capturing the experimental treatment and attribute-focus are modelled as fixed factors, and category knowledge and category involvement are incorporated as covariates. Table D2.3 provides a summary of the results with more details presented in Appendix D1.

Table D2.3 Testing emergent-value theory, F'_{FREQ}Decoy

	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**	
Main and interaction effects	**Dominance value**	**Ease-of-justification**
F'_{FREQ}Decoy treatment	.178^{ns} (.013)	.646^{ns} (.002)
Attribute-focus	.000*** (.119)	.001** (.095)
F'_{FREQ}Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.078* (.037)	.001** (.092)
Covariates:		
Category knowledge	.805^{ns} (.000)	.346^{ns} (.010)
Category involvement	.247^{ns} (.010)	.006** (.010)
Study conditions	Estimated mean values	
Control condition	6.20	7.13
F'_{FREQ}Decoy condition	6.94	6.89
Attribute-focus groups		
Feature-focus	7.83	8.04
Indifferent	7.00	6.93
Benefit-focus	4.90	6.04

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects, introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy

The results indicate no significant main effects of the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy on perceived dominance-value (F [1, 137] = 1.83, p = .178, η^2 = .013) nor on ease-of-justification (F [1, 137] = .211, p = .646, η^2 = .002). Whilst not significant, mean values for perceived dominance-value are consistent with predictions in P 1.5a - i.e., higher in the F'_{FREQ}Decoy condition than in the control condition ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 6.94, $M_{Control}$= 6.20). Corresponding means for ease-of-justification, however, are counter to predictions in P 1.5b ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 6.89, $M_{Control}$ = 7.13).

Main effects, attribute-focus

The information in Table D2.3 shows significant main effects of attribute-focus on both perceived dominance-value (F [2, 137] = 9.30, p = .000, η^2 = .119) and ease-of-justification (F [2, 137] = 7.17, p = .001, η^2 = .102). *Post hoc* analysis with Sidak Corrections is applied to further investigate mean differences in the dependent variables among the three attribute focus groups (Field, 2009). Consistent with P 1.3c and P 1.3d, the results demonstrate that the feature-focus group reports significantly higher mean values than the other feature-focus groups (indifferent and benefit-focus) in respect to both perceived dominance-value

($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 7.83, and $M_{Indifferent}$ = 7.00, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 4.90) and ease-of-justification ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 8.04, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 6.93, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 6.04).

Interaction effects, introduction of F'Decoy and attribute-focus

ANCOVA finds significant interaction effects between the [introduction of] F'_{FREQ}Decoy and attribute-focus (F'_{FREQ}Decoy *x* attribute-focus) on both perceived dominance-value (F [2, 137] = 2.60, p = .078, η^2 = .037) and ease-of-justification (F [2, 137] = 6.96, p = .001, η^2 = .092) - providing evidence in support of P 1.3e, and P 1.3f. Figure D2.4 graphically illustrates the patterns of these interactions. For perceived dominance-value, Pane 1 demonstrates that introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy produces an increase in mean values for the feature-focus and benefit-focus groups (particularly higher for the latter), whilst a decrease among participants in the indifferent group. A similar pattern of interaction is demonstrated for ease-of-justification (Pane 2): on the introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy, mean values increases for both the feature and benefit-focus groups (despite only a moderate increase for the latter), and a substantive decrease for the indifferent group.

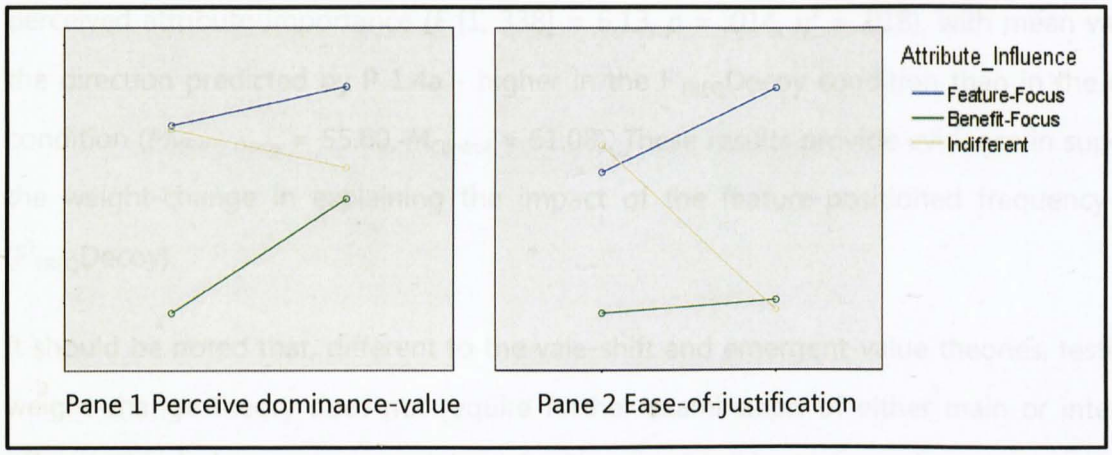


Figure D2.4 Interaction effects, testing emergent-value theory for F'_{FREQ}Decoy

Testing weight-change theory F'_{FREQ}Decoy

As with the foregoing decoy theories, ANCOVA is applied to test the predictions regarding the explanatory powers to the weight-change theory. As a prerequisite therefore, the data are subjected to the procedures outlined in Section D2.2.1 to test the underlying assumptions of ANCOVA. Results of these procedures, as detailed in Appendix D1, suggest that the data indeed confirm to the underlying assumptions; hence ANCOVA is applied. Specifically, the variable capturing perceived attribute-importance is modelled as the

dependent variable; the experimental treatment as a fixed factor[12], and the two covariates were with the preceding analyses. A summary of the results is presented in Table D2.4, with the detailed SPSS output provided in Appendix D1.

Table D2.4 Testing weight-change theory, F'_{FREQ}Decoy

Main effects	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**
	Attribute-importance
F'_{FREQ}Decoy treatment	.014** (.018)
Covariates:	
Category knowledge	.006** (.022)
Category involvement	$.861^{ns}$ (.000)
Estimated mean values	
Study conditions	
Control condition	55.60
F'Decoy treatment	61.08

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effect, introduction of F'_{FREQ}Decoy

The information in Table D2.4 demonstrates that F'_{FREQ}Decoy has significant main effects on perceived attribute-importance (F [1, 338] = 6.13, p = .014, η^2 = .018), with mean values in the direction predicted by P 1.4a - higher in the F'_{FREQ}Decoy condition than in the control condition ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 55.60, $M_{Control}$ = 61.08). These results provide evidence in support of the weight-change in explaining the impact of the feature-positioned frequency decoy (F'_{FREQ}Decoy).

It should be noted that, different to the vale-shift and emergent-value theories, testing the weight-change theory does not require further examination of either main or interaction effects. This is because, as explained in Chapter C4 (Measures and Measurements), the dependent variable used in testing the weight-change theory (i.e., perceived attribute-importance) forms the basis for creating the attribute-focus variable in which individuals are grouped according to their level of perceived importance of both positioning attributes.

[12] Different to the preceding analyses, the variable capturing 'attribute-focus' is excluded from the analysis given that it was computed based on the dependent variable modelled in ANCOVA for testing weight-change theory.

D2.2.3 Study 2: Testing the feature-positioned range decoy

Introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy on perceived positioning

Applying the related procedures in Section D2.2.1 verifies that the data meet each of the four assumptions of ANCOVA - independence of covariate and treatment effect, homogeneity of variance, correlations among covariates, and homogeneity of regression slopes (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2013). Consequently, the data are subjected to separate two-way ANCOVAs: each positioning dimension is modelled as a dependent variable; the variable capturing the experimental treatment and attribute-importance are modelled as fixed factors, and category knowledge and category involvement incorporated as covariates. Table D2.5 presents a summary of the results (with detailed results provided in Appendix D2).

Table D2.5 Impact of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy on perceived positioning

	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**			
Main and interaction effects:	**Favourability**	**Differentiation**	**Uniqueness**	**Credibility**
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment	.000*** (.047)	.028** (.016)	.012** (.021)	.032** (.015)
Attribute-focus	.000** (.177)	.943^{ns} (.000)	.397^{ns} (.007)	.221^{ns} (.010)
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.001** (.045)	.385^{ns} (.006)	.265^{ns} (.009)	.319^{ns} (.008)
Covariates:				
Category involvement	.057* (.012)	.676^{ns} (.001)	.305^{ns} (.004)	.853^{ns} (.000)
Category knowledge	.060* (.060)	.212^{ns} (.005)	.046** (.014)	.065* (.011)
Study conditions	Estimated mean values			
Control condition	5.44	7.39	5.92	7.00
F"Decoy condition	6.55	7.84	6.44	7.35
Attribute-importance groups:				
Feature-focus	7.21	7.60	6.35	7.36
Indifferent	6.52	7.66	6.08	7.15
Benefit-focus	4.25	7.58	6.11	7.03

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects, introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

After controlling the influence of the covariates, ANCOVA reveals that the feature-positioned range decoy (F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy) has significant main effects across the four perceived-positioning dimensions: favourability (F [1, 322] = 4.32, p = .038, η^2= .047); differentiation (F [1, 304] = 4.91, p = .028, η^2 =.016), uniqueness (F [1, 282] = 6.43, p = .012, η^2 =.022) and credibility (F [1, 296] = 4.61, p = .032, η^2 =.015). Mean values are consistent with the related predictions (P 2.1a, P 2.1b, P 2.1c and P 2.1d) - significantly higher in the F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy conditions than in the related corresponding conditions: favourability ($M_{F"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 6.55, $M_{Control}$ = 5.44), differentiation ($M_{F"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 7.84, $M_{Control}$ = 7.39), uniqueness ($M_{F"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 6.44, $M_{Control}$ = 5.92), credibility ($M_{F"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 7.35, $M_{Control}$ = 7.00). Moreover,

effect size as indicated by partial eta squared values (η^2), demonstrates that the impact of this decoy was strongest with respect to the favourability dimension (Cohen, 1988).

Main effects, attribute-focus

The results in Table D2.5 show that attribute-focus has significant main effects only with respect to favourability (F [2, 302] = 32.47, p = .000, η^2 =.177). A series of *post hoc* mean comparison using Sidak Corrections is applied to isolate the differences in favourability ratings among the three attribute-focus groups (Field, 2009). The results demonstrate that the feature-focus and indifferent groups reported significantly higher mean ratings than the benefit-focus group ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 7.21, $M_{indifferent}$ = 6.52, $M_{benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 4.25). This result confirms predictions in P 2.1e. While mean values for the remaining positioning dimensions are in line with the related propositions (P 2.1f, P 2.1g, and P 2.1h), ANCOVA reveals no statistical significance in this regard.

Interaction effects, introduction of F'Decoy and attribute-focus

ANCOVA reveals significant interaction effects between the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus only with respect to favourability (F = [2, 302] = 7.06, p = .001, η^2 = .045). Figure D2.5 provides a graphical illustration of this interaction, as well as that of the other positioning dimensions for which no statistical significance is found. As Pane 1 illustrates the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy results in an increase in mean favourability ratings for both the indifferent and benefit-focus groups, while a marginal decrease for the feature-focus group. A visual inspection of the graphs that correspond to the remaining positioning dimensions, particularly that for credibility in Pane 4, suggest meaningful interactions; however, no statistical significance in this revealed by ANCOVA.

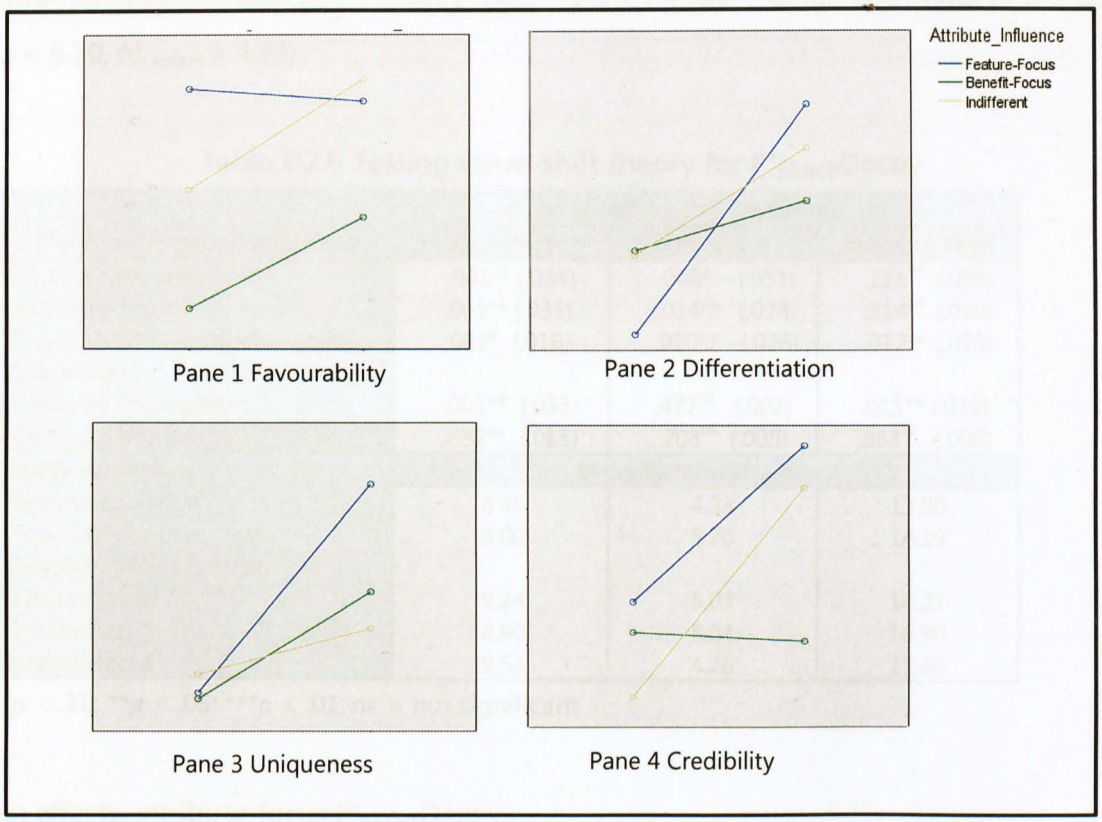


Figure D2.5 Interaction effects, introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Testing value-shift theory in context of the F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

ANCOVA is applied since by, following the procedures in Section D2.2.1, the data show adherence to the underlying assumptions (see detailed SPSS output in Appendix D2). More specifically, the data are subjected to separate two-way ANCOVAs to test the predictions concerning the explanatory power of the value-shift theory as specified in P 2.2a, P 2.2b, and P 2.2c. The respective variables capturing perceived-association are modelled as dependent variables - i.e., AssoPA_F, AssoPA_B, and AssoPA_SUM; the experimental treatment and attribute-focus variables are modelled as fixed factors, while category knowledge and category involvement are specified as covariates. Table D2.6 presents a summary of the results; more details are provided in Appendix D2.

Main effects, introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The results of ANCOVA reveal significant main effects of the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy on AssoPA_F (F [1, 304] = 10.83, p = .001, η^2= .034) and AssoPA_B (F [1, 304] = 16.27, p = .000, η^2= 051). Corresponding mean values are in line with the related propositions (P 2.2a and P 2.2b) - significantly higher in the respective F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy conditions than in the

control conditions: AssoPA_F ($M_{F''RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 9.00, $M_{Control}$ = 8.46), and AssoPA_B ($M_{F''RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 5.20, $M_{Control}$ = 4.33).

Table D2.6 Testing value-shift theory for F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

	p value (effect size partial eta η^2)		
Main and interaction effects:	**AssoPA_F**	**AssoPA_B**	**AssoPA_SUM**
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment	.001** (.034)	.000* (.051)	.111^{ns} (.008)
Attribute-focus	.004** (.035)	.014** (.028)	.214^{ns} (.010)
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.089* (.016)	.020** (.026)	.012** (.028)
Covariates			
Category involvement	.001** (.033)	.477^{ns} (.002)	.015** (.019)
Category knowledge	.032** (.015)	. 208^{ns} (.005)	.888^{ns} (.000)
Study conditions	**Estimated mean values**		
Control condition	8.46	4.33	13.80
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment	9.00	5.20	14.19
Attribute-focus groups			
Feature-focus	9.24	5.03	14.27
Indifferent	8.90	5.04	13.90
Benefit-focus	9.53	4.26	13.80

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects, attribute-focus F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

ANCOVA finds significant main effects of attribute-focus on AssoPA_F (F [2, 304] = 5.52, p = .004, η^2 = .035), and AssoPA_B (F [2, 304] = 4.33, p = .014, η^2 = .028). Subsequent *post-hoc* analysis using Sidak Corrections (Field, 2009) is applied to isolate the mean differences among the three attribute-focus groups. Corresponding mean values are presented in Table D2.6 (SPSS output provided in Appendix D2). With respect to AssoPA_F, the feature-focus and benefit-focus groups reported significantly higher mean values than participants in the indifferent group ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 9.24, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 8.90, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 9.53), thus failing to confirm predictions in P 2.2d. For AssoPA_B mean values are significantly higher for the feature-focus and indifferent groups than the benefit-focus group: AssoPA_B ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 5.03, $M_{indifferent}$ = 5.04, $M_{benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 4.26), providing evidence in support of P 2.2e.

Interaction effects, introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus

Table D2.6 indicates significant interaction effects between the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus (F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus) on AssoPA_F (F [2, 304] = 2.44, p = .089, η^2 = .016), AssoPA_B (F [2, 304 = 3.98, p = .02, η^2 = .026), and AssoPA_SUM (F [2, 304] = 4.45, p = .012, η^2 = .028). These results confirm predictions regarding the interaction attribute-focus with respect to the value-shift theory (P 2.2j, P 2.2h and P 2.2i). A graphical illustration of these significant interactions is presented in Figure D2.6. For AssoPA_F (Pane 1), while the graph shows an overall decrease in mean values across the attribute-focus

groups on the introduction of the F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy, this decrease is only marginal for the feature-focus group and considerably substantial for the both the indifferent and benefit-focus groups. As for AssoPA_B, the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy results in a substantial increase in mean values for both the feature-focus and benefit-focus groups, and minimal increase for the indifferent group. Finally for AssoPA_SUM, the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy results in a substantive increase in mean values for both the feature-focus and benefit-focus groups, while an almost contrasting decrease among the indifferent participant groups.

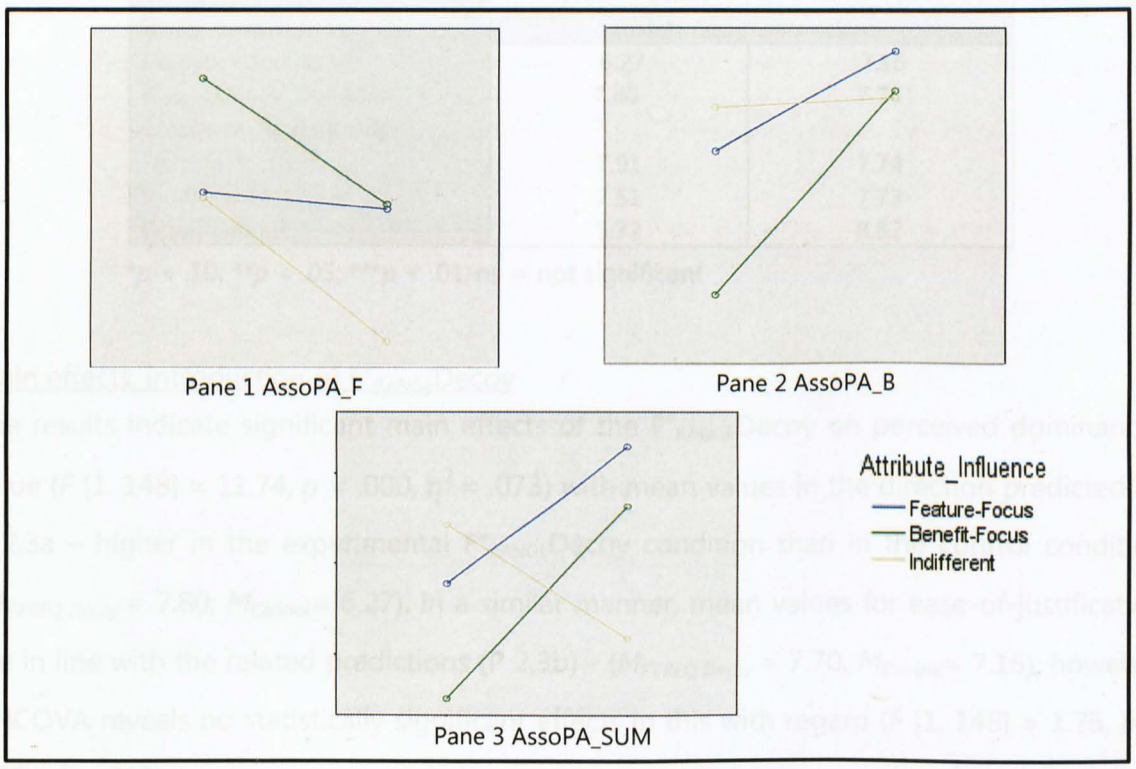


Figure D2.6 Interaction effects, value-shift theory for F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Testing the emergent-value theory; emergent-value theory F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The results of a preliminary set of analytical procedures (see Appendix D2) demonstrate that the related data show adherence to the underlying ANCOVA assumptions. Consequently, the data are subjected to ANCOVA to test the explanatory powers of the emergent-value theory in context of the introduction of the F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy (P 2.3a and P 2.3b). More specifically, corresponding variables capturing perceived dominance-value and ease-of-justification are modelled as dependent variables; variables capturing the experimental treatment and attribute-focus are modelled as fixed factors, while category knowledge and

category involvement incorporated as covariates. Table D2.7 summarises the results (with more details presented in Appendix D2).

Table D2.7 Testing emergent-value theory for F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Main and interaction effects	*p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)	
	Perceived-value	**Ease-of-justification**
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy effect	.001*** (.073)	.185^{ns} (.012)
Attribute-focus	.002*** (.080)	.261^{ns} (.018)
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.045** (.041)	.147^{ns} (.026)
Covariates:		
Category knowledge	.256^{ns} (.009)	.003*** (.057)
Category involvement	.916^{ns} (.000)	.957^{ns} (.000)
Study conditions	Estimated mean values	
Control condition	6.27	7.16
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy condition	7.80	7.70
Attribute-focus groups		
Feature-focus	7.91	7.74
Indifferent	7.51	7.73
Benefit-focus	5.72	8.82

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects, introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The results indicate significant main effects of the F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy on perceived dominance-value (F [1, 148] = 11.74, p = .000, η^2 = .073) with mean values in the direction predicted by P 2.3a – higher in the experimental F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy condition than in the control condition ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 7.80, $M_{Control}$= 6.27). In a similar manner, mean values for ease-of-justification are in line with the related predictions (P 2.3b) - ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 7.70, $M_{Control}$= 7.16); however, ANCOVA reveals no statistically significant effects in this with regard (F [1, 148] = 1.76, p = .185, η^2 = .012).

Main effects, attribute-focus F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The information in Table D2.7 shows significant main effects of attribute-focus with perceived dominance-value (F [2, 148] = 6.46, p = .002, η^2= .080), but not with respect to ease-of-justification (F [2, 148] = 1.36, p = .261, η^2= .018). Following Field (2009), *post hoc* analysis using Sidak Corrections is applied to evaluate the mean differences in perceived dominance-values among the attribute focus groups. As summarised in Table D2.7, the feature-focus reported significantly higher mean values that both the indifferent and benefit-focus groups ($M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 7.91, and $M_{Indifferent}$ = 7.51, $M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 5.72). This result corresponds with the expectations of P 2.3c.

Interaction effects, introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus

In terms of interactions, ANCOVA reveals significant interaction effects between the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus only on perceived dominance-value (F [2, 148] = 3.18, p = .045, η^2= .041) - providing evidence in support of the interacting role of attribute-focus with respect to the perceived dominance-value aspect of the emergent value theory (P 2.3e). Pane 1 in Figure D2.7 provides a graphical illustration of the pattern of interactions for perceived dominance-value. It illustrate that introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy produces an increase in reported mean values for the feature-focus and benefit-focus groups (the latter being more substantial), with only a minimal increase for the indifferent group. While a visual inspection of Pane 2 suggests evidence of interaction effects, ANCOVA reveals no statistical significance in this respect (F [2, 148] = 1.94, p < .147, η^2= .026). The evidence is thus provided to confirm P 2.3f.

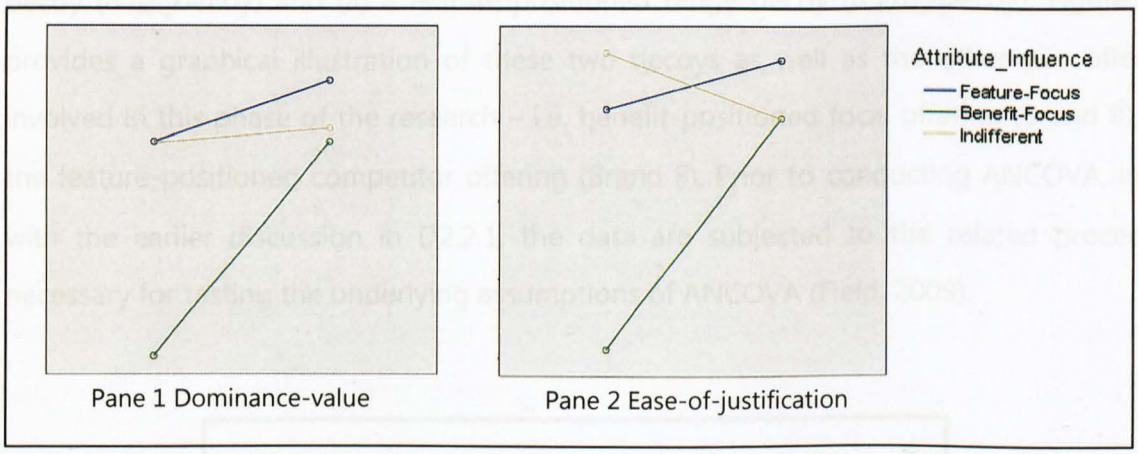


Figure D2.7 Interaction effects, emergent-value theory for F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Testing weight-change theory F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The data show adherence to the underlying assumptions of ANCOVA (applying procedures outlined in Section D2.2.1) and so ANCOVA is applied to test the explanatory powers of the weight-change theory in the context of the F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy (P 2.4a). The variable capturing perceived attribute-importance is modelled as the dependent variable (attribute-focus), the experimental treatment as a fixed factor, and the covariates as specified in the foregoing analyses. A summary of the results is presented in Table D2.8, with detailed SPSS output provided in Appendix D2. The results demonstrate the introduction of F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy has no significant main effects on perceived attribute-importance (F [1, 308] = .391, p = .710, η^2 = .000).

Table D2.8 Testing weight-change for F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Main effects	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment effect	.710^{ns} (.000)
Covariates:	
Category knowledge	.735 (.000)
Category involvement	.019 (.018)
Estimated mean values	
Study conditions	
Control condition	55.14
F"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment	55.43

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

D2.3 Benefit positioning phase

Recall that the benefit-positioning phase examines how perceived-positioning of a feature-positioned focal offering is affected by the introduction of (i) a benefit-positioned frequency decoy (B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy) and (ii) a feature-positioned range decoy (B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy). Figure D2.8 provides a graphical illustration of these two decoys as well as the other two offerings involved in this phase of the research – i.e. benefit-positioned focal offering (Brand B), and the feature-positioned competitor offering (Brand F). Prior to conducting ANCOVA, in line with the earlier discussion in D2.2.1, the data are subjected to the related procedures necessary for testing the underlying assumptions of ANCOVA (Field, 2009).

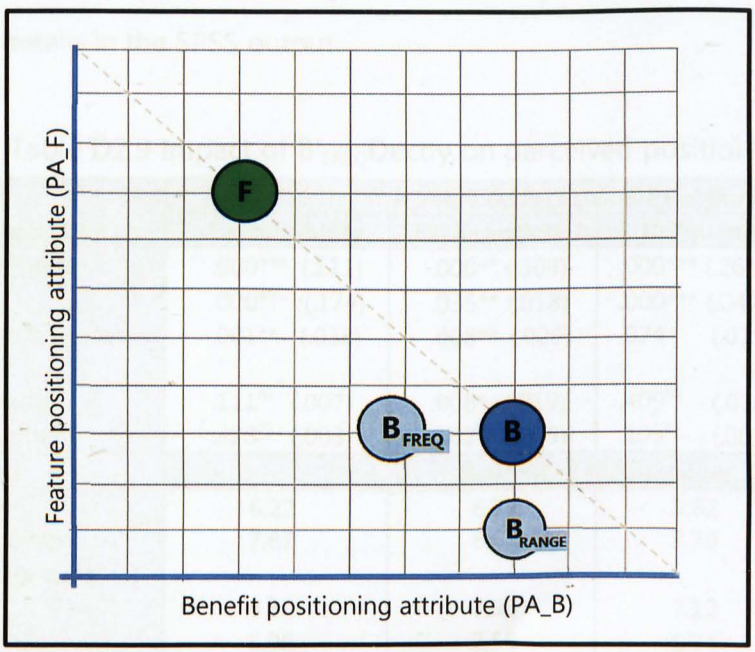


Figure D2.8 Graphical illustration of stimuli used in benefit-positioning phase

D2.3.1 Study 3: Testing the benefit-positioned frequency decoy

In terms of analysis, the same [two-way] ANCOVA procedures applied in the feature-positioning phase of the research are used to analyse the data collected from the benefit-positioning phase. Hence, the sections that follow give greater attention to presenting and interpreting the results of the benefit-positioning experiment, and less attention to explaining the details involved in the analytical procedures. Attention is first given to the analysis related to the impact of the introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy on the dimensions of perceived-positioning (i.e., favourability, differentiation, uniqueness and credibility), and second, to testing the explanatory powers of the decoy theories in accounting for observed positioning-induced decoy effects. The same follows for the introduction and theoretical explanation in respect to the B''_{RANGE}Decoy.

Introduction of B''_{RANGE}Decoy on perceived positioning

Applying the procedures outlined in Section D2.2.1 (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2013) confirms that the data adhere to the ANCOVA assumptions. ANCOVA is thus applied to test the predictions regarding the introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy on perceived position of the focal offering (P 3.1a, P 3.1b, P 3.1c, P 3.1d). The positioning dimensions are modelled as dependent variables; the experimental treatment variable along with that for attribute-influence modelled as fixed factors, and category knowledge and category involvement specified as covariates. Table D2.9 presents a summary of the results, and Appendix D3 provides more details in the SPSS output.

Table D2.9 Impact of B'_{FREQ}Decoy on perceived positioning

	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**			
Main and interaction	**Favourability**	**Differentiation**	**Uniqueness**	**Credibility**
B'_{FREQ}Decoy treatment	.000*** (.111)	.000** (.309)	.000*** (.261)	.000** (.213)
Attribute-focus	.000*** (.174)	.035** (.018)	.000*** (.047)	.000*** (.070)
B'_{FREQ}Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.001** (.038)	.008** (.026)	.074* (.015)	.026** (.020)
Covariates				
Category knowledge	$.111^{ns}$ (.007)	.008* (.019)	$.409^{ns}$ (.002)	.063 (.010)
Category involvement	$.328^{ns}$ (.003)	$.162^{ns}$ (.005)	$.105^{ns}$ (.007)	$.400^{ns}$ (.002)
Study conditions	**Estimated mean values**			
Control condition	6.22	6.77	5.62	6.88
B'_{FREQ}Decoy condition	7.82	8.61	7.70	8.29
Attribute-focus groups				
Benefit-focus	8.32	7.96	7.12	7.82
Indifferent	6.96	7.56	6.74	7.04
Feature-focus	5.78	7.54	6.20	8.00

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects of the introduction of B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

The information in Table D2.9 demonstrates that the benefit-positioned range decoy (B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy) has significant main effects on the four dimensions of perceived positioning: favourability (F [1, 358] = 44.81, p = .000, η^2= .111); differentiation F [1, 360] = 161.24, p = .000, η^2= .309), uniqueness (F [1, 356] = 125.46, p = .000, η^2= .261), and credibility (F [1, 360] = 97.36, p = .000, η^2= .213). As shown, corresponding mean values are significantly higher in the B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy conditions than in the control conditions - favourability ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 7.82, $M_{Control}$ = 6.22), differentiation ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 8.61, $M_{Control}$ = 6.77), uniqueness ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 7.70, $M_{Control}$ = 5.62), credibility ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 8.29, $M_{Control}$ = 6.88). The foregoing results provide support for P 3.1b, P 3.1b, P 3.1c and P 3.1d. Moreover, the partial eta squared values (η^2) indicate that the introduction of B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy has its strongest impact on the differentiation of the focal offering (η^2 = .309) - a medium effect according to Cohen (1988).

Main effects of attribute-focus, B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

ANCOVA finds significant main effects of attribute-focus across the four dimensions of perceived positioning: favourability (F [2, 358 = 37.71, p = .000, η^2= .174); differentiation (F [2, 360] = 3.38, p = .035, η^2= .018), uniqueness (F [2, 356] = 8.75, p = .000, η^2= .047) and credibility (F [2, 360] = 13.64, p = .000, η^2= .070). A series of *post hoc* mean comparisons is applied in order to isolate the mean differences among the three attribute-focus groups (Field, 2009). For both favourability and differentiation, the results demonstrate that the benefit-focus group reports significantly higher mean values than those report by the indifferent and feature-focus groups: favourability ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 8.32, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 6.96, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 5.78), differentiation ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 7.96, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 7.56, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 7.54). As for uniqueness, the benefit-focus and indifferent groups reports significantly higher mean values than the feature-focus group ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 7.12, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 6.74, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 6.20). Finally for credibility, benefit-focus and feature-focus groups reports significantly higher mean values than the indifferent groups ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 7.82, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 7.04, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 8.00). With the expectation of the latter (concerning credibility; P 3.2d), these results confirm predictions regarding the impact of attribute-focus on perceived positioning in the context of the B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy (P 3.1e, P 3.1f, and P 3.1g).

Interaction effects, the introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy and attribute-focus

In terms of interactions, the results provide evidence in support of the moderating role that attribute-focus has on the impact of [the introduction of] B'_{FREQ}Decoy on each of the positioning dimensions (P 3.1i, P 3.1j, P 3.1k, and P 3.1l): favourability (F [2, 358] = 7.03, p = .001, η^2= .038); differentiation (F [2, 360] = 4.90, p = .008, η^2= .026), uniqueness (F [2, 308] = 2.62, p = .074, η^2= .015) and credibility (F [2, 360] = 3.70, p = .026, η^2= .020). In respect to favourability and uniqueness (Panes 1 and 4 in Figure D2.9, respectively), introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy results in increased mean ratings across the three attribute-focus groups, the extent of this increase (i.e., impact) is substantially higher for the benefit-focus and feature-focus groups, whilst only marginal for the indifferent participant group. For differentiation in Pane 2, the introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy results in a similar pattern of (high) increases in mean values for the benefit-focus and indifferent groups; with a relatively lower degree of increase in mean values of the feature-focus group. Finally for credibility, Pane 3 illustrates that introducing B'_{FREQ}Decoy's results in a substantive increase in mean values reported by the benefit-focus group, with a low degree of increase among participants in the indifferent and feature-focus groups.

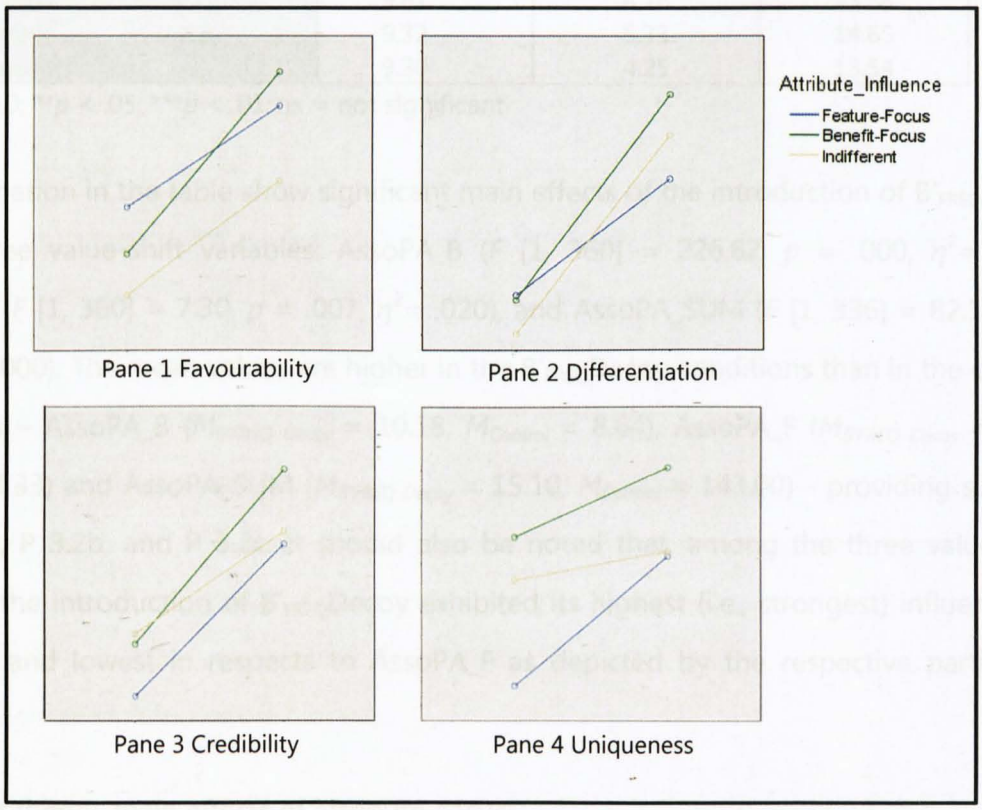


Figure D2.9 Interactions effects, introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy

Testing value-shift theory in context of the B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

Main effects of the introduction of B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

The related data show adherence to the ANCOVA assumptions. Two-way ANCOVA is thus applied in order to test the predictions of the value-shift theory in explaining the observed effects of the B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy on perceived position of the benefit-positioned focal offering (P 3.2a, P 3.2b, and P 3.2c). The results are summarised in Table D2.10 (with SPSS output provided in Appendix D3).

Table D2.10 Testing value-shift theory B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**		
Main and interaction effects:	**AssoPA_B**	**AssoPA_F**	**AssoPA_SUM**
B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy treatment	.000*** (.386)	.007** (.020)	.000*** (.186)
Attribute-focus	.029** (.019)	.000*** (.056)	.817^{ns} (.001)
B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.704^{ns} (.002)	.606^{ns} (.003)	.042** (.019)
Covariates			
Category knowledge	.107^{ns} (.007)	.048** (.010)	.290^{ns} (.003)
Category involvement	.002** (.026)	.895 (.000)	.137** (.006)
Study conditions	**Estimated mean values**		
Control condition	8.64	4.33	13.00
B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy treatment	10.18	4.90	15.10
Attribute-focus groups			
Benefit-focus	9.61	4.26	13.88
Indifferent	9.32	5.33	14.65
Feature-focus	9.30	4.25	13.54

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

The information in the table show significant main effects of the introduction of B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy on all three value-shift variables: AssoPA_B (F [1, 360] = 226.62, p = .000, η^2= .386), AssoPA_F (F [1, 360] = 7.30, p = .007, η^2= .020), and AssoPA_SUM (F [1, 336] = 82.16, p = .000, η^2= .000). The mean values are higher in the B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy conditions than in the control conditions – AssoPA_B ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 10.18, $M_{Control}$ = 8.64), AssoPA_F ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 4.90, $M_{Control}$ = 4.33) and AssoPA_SUM ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 15.10, $M_{Control}$ = 143.00) - providing support for P 3.2a, P 3.2b, and P 3.2c. It should also be noted that, among the three value-shift variables, the introduction of B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy exhibited its highest (i.e., strongest) influence on AssoPA_B and lowest in respects to AssoPA_F as depicted by the respective partial eta values.

Value-shift theory, main effects of attribute-focus

The results indicate that attribute-focus has significant main effects on mean ratings of AssoPA_B (F [2, 360] = 3.57, p = .026, η^2= .019) and AssoPA_F (F [2, 360] = 10.70, p = .000, η^2= .056). Subsequent *post-hoc* analysis using Sidak Corrections are applied for further

investigation. The result provides support for the predictions in P 3.2d, and P 3.2e. More specifically, with respect to AssoPA_B, mean values are significantly higher for the benefit-focus group than the indifferent and feature-focus groups ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 9.61, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 9.32, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 9.30); whereas for AssoPA_F, mean values are significantly higher for the benefit-focus and indifferent groups than the feature-focus group ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 4.26, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 5.33, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 4.25).

Value-shift theory, interaction effects

ANCOVA reveals no significant interaction effects between the introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy and attribute-focus on the variables related to the value-shift theory. These results suggest that the impact B'_{FREQ}Decoy in respect to the value-shift is no different across the three attribute-focus groups. This is graphically demonstrated by the similar sloping lines in the graphs in Figure D2.10. This result provides support for P 3.2g, P 3.2h and P 3.2i.

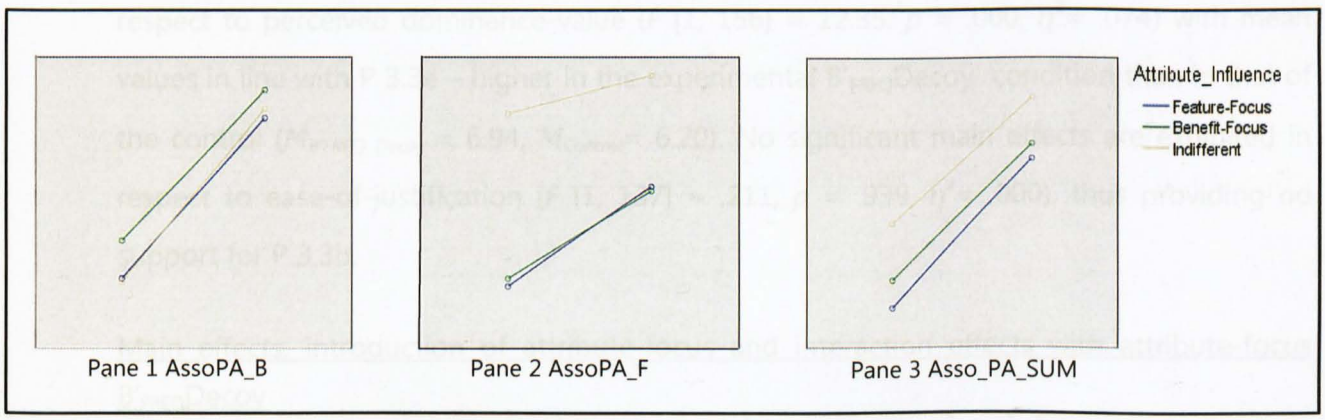


Figure D2.10 Interaction effects, value-shift theory for B'_{FREQ}Decoy

Testing the emergent-value theory, B'_{FREQ}Decoy

The results of the related procedures verify that the data meet the assumptions of ANCOVA. The data are therefore subjected to two-way ANCOVA in order to test the emergent-value theory in explaining the effects of the introduction of B'_{FREQ}Decoy on the position of the benefit-positioned focal brand. Table D2.11 provides a summary of the results with more details presented in Appendix D3.

Table D2.11 Testing emergent-value theory for impact of B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy

Main and interaction effects	*p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)	
	Dominance-value	**Ease-of-justification**
B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy treatment effect	.001*** (.074)	.939^{ns} (.000)
Attribute-focus	.305^{ns} (.015)	.000*** (.133)
B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.517^{ns} (.009)	.571^{ns} (.007)
Covariates:		
Category knowledge	.863^{ns} (.000)	.060* (.023)
Category involvement	.329^{ns} (.006)	.000*** (.163)
Study conditions	**Estimated mean values**	
Control condition	6.20	8.20
B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy condition	6.94	8.23
Attribute-focus groups		
Benefit-focus	6.83	7.70
Indifferent	7.40	8.00
Feature-focus	7.57	9.00

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effects of introduction of B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy

The information in Table D2.11 shows significant main effects of B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy only with respect to perceived dominance-value (F [1, 156] = 12.35, p = .000, η^2= .074) with mean values in line with P 3.3a – higher in the experimental B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy condition than in that of the control ($M_{B'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 6.94, $M_{Control}$= 6.20). No significant main effects are exhibited in respect to ease-of-justification (F [1, 137] = .211, p = .939, η^2= .000), thus providing no support for P 3.3b.

Main effects, introduction of attribute-focus and interaction effects with attribute-focus B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy

The results indicate significant main effects of attribute-focus only with respect to ease-of-justification (F [1, 136] = 7.74, p = .000, η^2= .102). Figure D2.11 illustrates the pattern of interaction effects between the introduction B′$_{FREQ}$Decoy and attribute focus with respect to both dominance-value and ease-of-justifications; ANCOVA reveals no significant interaction effects - (F [2, 136] = 7.58, p = .071, η^2= .038) and ease-of-justification (F [2, 136] = 7.58, p = .071, η^2= .038).

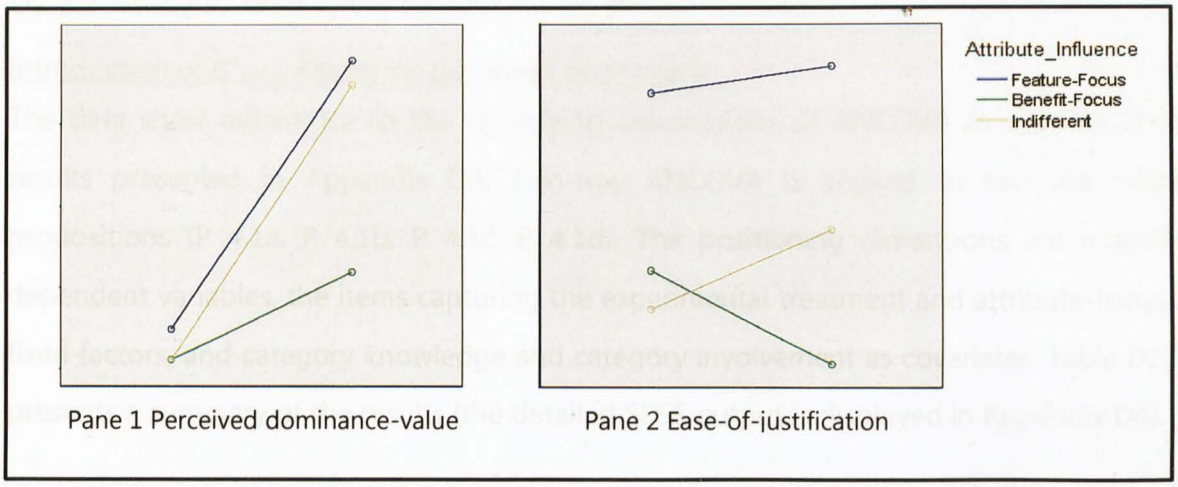


Figure D2.11 Interaction effects, testing emergent-value theory for B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

Testing weight-change theory B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

As with the foregoing analyses, ANCOVA is applied to test the proposition regarding the weight-change theory against the observed impact of the B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy (P 3.4a). The results of the related procedures confirm that the data adhere to the ANCOVA assumptions (see detailed SPSS output in Appendix D3); consequently the data are subjected to ANCOVA. A summary of the results is presented in Table D2.12 (with SPSS output provided in Appendix D3).

Table D2.12 Testing weight-change theory for B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy

Main effects	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**
B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy treatment effect	.584^{ns} (.001)
Covariates:	
Category knowledge	.727 (.000)
Category involvement	.039^{ns} (.012)
Estimated mean values	
Study conditions	
Control condition	50.00
B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy treatment	48.55

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

The information in Table D2.12 show that the introduction of B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy has no significant main effects on perceived attribute-importance (F [1, 364] = .300, p = .548, η^2= .001), with mean values slightly higher in the mean control condition than in the B'$_{FREQ}$Decoy condition ($M_{B''RANGE}$ = 58.55, $M_{Control}$= 59.58) – counter to expectation of P 3.4a.

D2.3.2 Study 4: Testing the benefit-range frequency decoy

Introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy on perceived positioning

The data show adherence to the underlying assumptions of ANCOVA as detailed in the results presented in Appendix D4. Two-way ANCOVA is applied to test the related propositions (P 4.1a, P 4.1b, P 4.1c, P 4.1d). The positioning dimensions are modelled dependent variables, the items capturing the experimental treatment and attribute-focus as fixed factors, and category knowledge and category involvement as covariates. Table D2.13 presents a summary of the results (the detailed SPSS output is displayed in Appendix D4).

Table D2.13 Impact of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy on perceived positioning

Main and interaction	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**			
	Favourability	**Differentiation**	**Uniqueness**	**Credibility**
B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment	.225^{ns} (.004)	.002*** (.030)	.032** (.014)	.484^{ns} (.001)
Attribute-focus	.000*** (.186)	.100^{ns} (.014)	.000*** (.078)	.001*** (.044)
B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.941^{ns} (.000)	.922^{ns} (.000)	.423^{ns} (.005)	.953^{ns} (.000)
Covariates				
Category knowledge	.554^{ns} (.001)	.286^{ns} (.003)	.031** (.014)	.962^{ns} (.000)
Category involvement	.643^{ns} (.001)	.931^{ns} (.000)	.278^{ns} (.004)	.209^{ns} (.005)
Study conditions	**Estimated mean values**			
Control condition	6.22	6.77	5.68	6.88
B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy condition	6.60	7.35	5.28	7.00
Attribute-focus groups				
Benefit-focus	7.64	7.22	5.76	6.87
Indifferent	6.88	6.80	5.94	6.55
Feature-focus	4.63	7.18	4.75	7.38

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Perceived positioning, main effects of the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The information in Table D2.13 show that the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy has significant main effects on two dimensions of the positon of the focal brand: differentiation (F [1, 328] = 10.21, p = .002, η^2 = .030), and uniqueness (F [1, 328] = 4.63, p = .032, η2 = .014). Of the two dimensions, the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy exhibited its strongest (highest) impact on differentiation of the focal brand as indicated by the respective values for partial eta squared (Cohen, 1988). Mean values for differentiation are in line with P 4.1b - higher in the experimental B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy condition than in the control ($M_{B"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 7.73, $M_{Control}$ = 6.77). For uniqueness however, mean values are in the direction counter to expectations in P 4.1c ($M_{B"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 5.28, $M_{Control}$ = 5.68). As for the remaining positioning dimensions (favourability and credibility), while corresponding mean values are higher in the B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy conditions than in the control condition as predicted (P 4.1a and P 4.1d), these are not found to be statistically significant.

Main effects of attribute-focus on perceived position of the focal offering

|the information in shows that attribute-focus has significant main effects on three of the positioning dimensions: favourability (F [2, 328] = 37.56, p = .000, η^2 = .186), uniqueness (F [2, 328] = 13.80 p = .000, η^2 = .014), and credibility (F [2, 328] = 7.63, p = .001, η^2 = .044). To further investigate the mean difference among the feature-focus groups, *post hoc* analysis using Sidak Corrections is applied (Field, 2009). The results are provided in Appendix D4; a summary of the mean values for the groups is displayed in Table D2.13. For both favourability and uniqueness, the benefit-focus and indifferent groups report significantly higher mean values than the feature-focus group, confirming P 4.1e and P 4.1f: favourability ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 7.64, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 6.88, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 4.63), uniqueness ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 5.76, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 5.94, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 4.75). As for credibility, the feature-focus group report significantly higher mean values than both the benefit-focus and indifferent groups ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 6.87, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 6.55, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 7.38) – a pattern counter to that predicted by P 4.1h.

Interaction effects of the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus

In terms of interactions effects (B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus), the related propositions (P 4.1i, P 4.1j, P 4.1k, and P 4.1l) propose that attribute-focus interacts with the impact that the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy has on the perceived position of the focal offering. ANCOVA provides no statistically significant evidence in support of these propositions. This result is graphically illustrated in Figure D2.12, where, for each positioning dimension (Panes 1 to 4), similar slopes are observed in the lines depicting the attribute-focus across the control and B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy conditions.

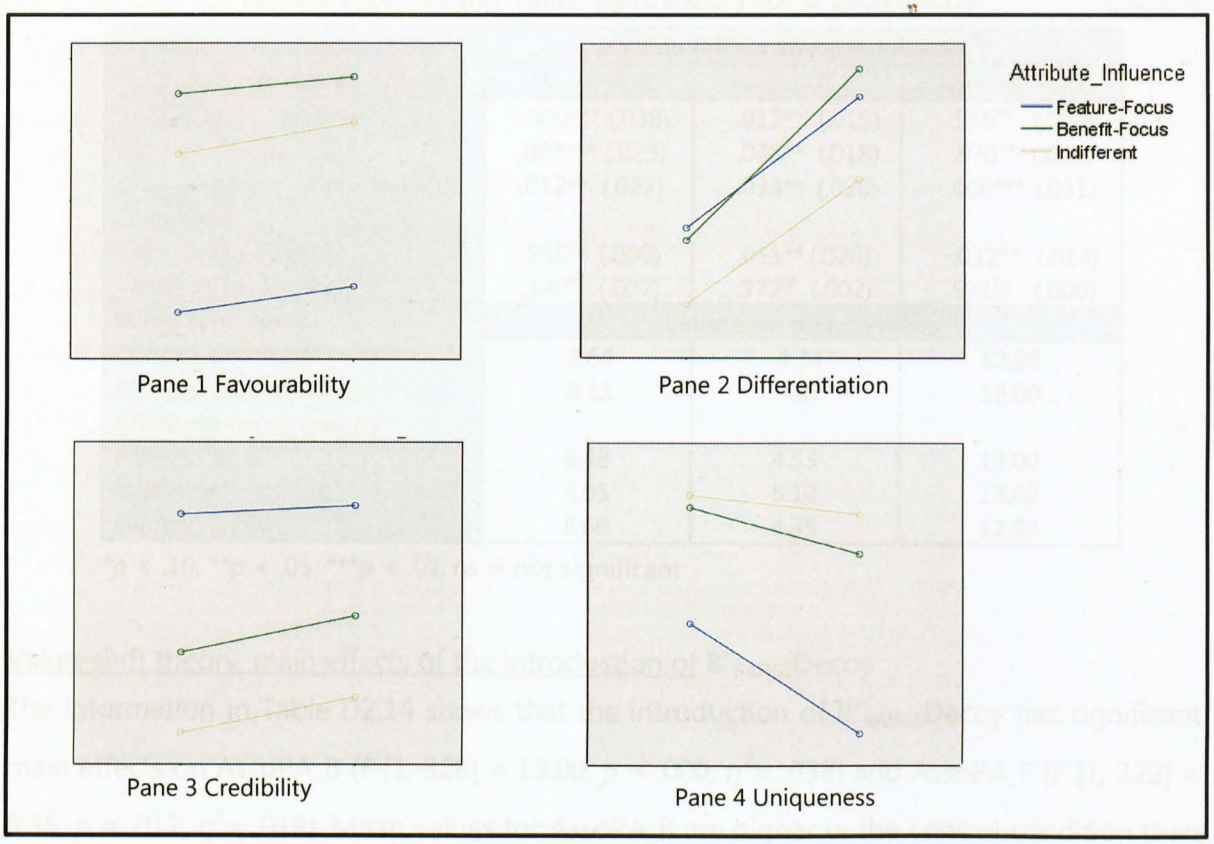


Figure D2.12 Interactions effects, introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

D2.3.2.1 Testing theoretical explanations of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Value-shift theory B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The results of preliminary procedures demonstrate that the data meet the underlying ANCOVA assumptions (see Appendix D4). Consequently, the data are subjected to two-way ANCOVA in order to test the value-shift theory in explaining the observed effects of the B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy. The corresponding value-shift items - i.e., AssoPA_B, AssoPA_F, and AssoPA_SUM are modelled as dependent variables; the experimental treatment and attribute-focus as fixed factors, as category knowledge and category involvement as covariates. Table D2.14 provides a summary of the results (the detailed SPSS output is provided in Appendix D4).

Table D2.14 Testing value-shift theory for B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

	p value (effect size partial eta η^2)		
Main and interaction effects:	**AssoPA_B**	**AssoPA_F**	**AssoPA_SUM**
B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment	.000*** (.038)	.012** (.019)	.956^{ns} (.000)
Attribute-focus	.008*** (.029)	.048** (.018)	.970^{ns} (.000)
B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.012** (.027)	.038** (.020)	.006*** (.031)
Covariates			
Category knowledge	.950^{ns} (.000)	.011** (.020)	.032** (.014)
Category involvement	.140^{ns} (.007)	.372^{ns} (.002)	.971^{ns} (.000)
Study conditions	**Estimated mean values**		
Control condition	8.64	4.34	12.98
B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy treatment	8.11	4.97	13.00
Attribute-focus groups			
Benefit-focus	8.48	4.53	13.00
Indifferent	8.05	5.10	13.02
Feature-focus	8.60	4.35	12.93

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Value-shift theory, main effects of the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The information in Table D2.14 shows that the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy has significant main effects on AssoPA_B (F [1, 328] = 13.00, p = .000, η^2= .038) and AssoPA_F (F [1, 322] = 6.36, p = .012, η^2= .019). Mean values for AssoPA_B are higher in the control condition than in that of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy condition ($M_{F'FREQ\ Decoy}$ = 8.11, $M_{Control}$ = 8.63) - the direction is counter to that predicted by P 4.2a. Regarding AssoPA_F, mean values are higher in the B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy condition than in the control condition ($M_{Control}$ = 4.34, $M_{B"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 4.97), hence confirming P 4.2b.

Main effects, attribute-focus B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

ANCOVA finds significant main effects of attribute-focus on AssoPA_B (F [2, 334] = 6.97, p = .001, η^2= .040), and AssoPA_F (F [2, 322] = 3.00, p = .048, η^2= .018). Albeit significant, the results of *post-hoc* mean comparisons (Field, 2009), provide no evidence in support for the related propositions (P 4.2d and P 4.2e). Counter to predictions, mean values for AssoPA_B and AssoPA_F are not significantly different between the Benefit-focus and Feature-focus groups: AssoPA_B ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 8.48, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 8.05, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 8.60), AssoPA_F ($M_{Benefit\text{-}focus}$ = 4.53, $M_{Indifferent}$ = 5.10, $M_{Feature\text{-}focus}$ = 4.35).

Interactions between the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus

The information in Table D2.14 indicates significant interaction effects between the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus on the three value-shift variables: AssoPA_B (F [2, 328] = 4.52, p = .012, η^2= .027), AssoPA_F (F [2, 322] = 3.28, p = .038, η^2= .020), and AssoPA_SUM (F [2, 322

] = 5.23, p = .006, η^2= .031). These results confirm the propositions regarding the interacting role of attribute-focus with respect to the value-shift theory (P 4.2g, P 4.2h, and P 4.2i). Figure D1.13 provides a graphical illustration of these interactions. For AssoPA_B, the pattern of interactions in Pane 1 indicates that the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy results in a marginal increase in the mean values of the feature-focus group, but with a substantial decrease values reported by the benefit-focus and indifferent groups. For AssoPA_F and AssoPA_SUM (Panes 2 and 3, respectively), the pattern of interactions suggest that the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy results in a substantial increase in mean values reported by the benefit-focus and feature-focus groups, while a decrease in that reported by the indifferent group.

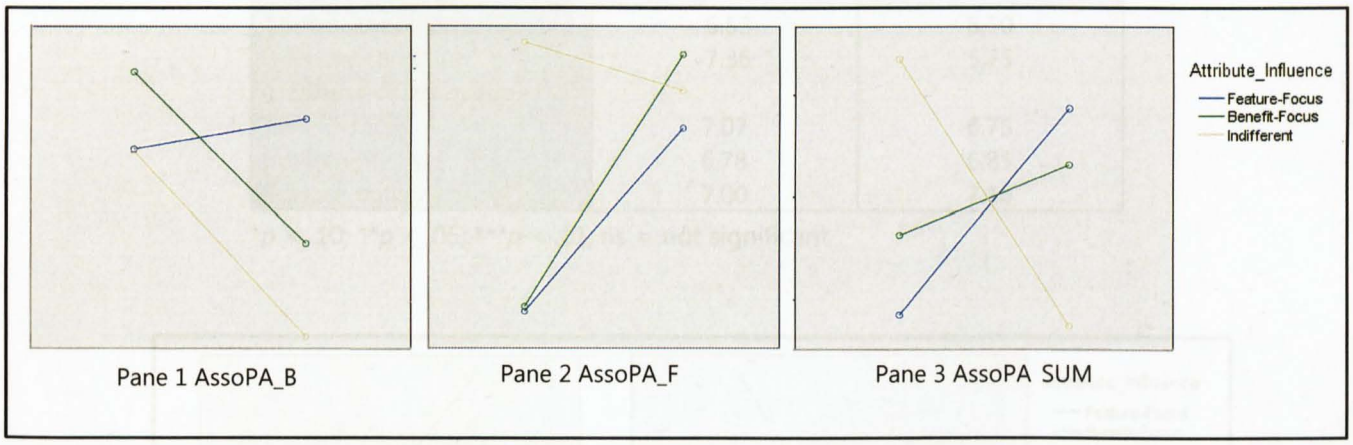


Figure D2.13 Interaction effects, value-shift theory for B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Emergent-value theory, main effects of the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Prior to applying ANCOVA, the data are subjected to a series of procedures, the results of which verifies that the data adhere to the underlying ANVOCA assumptions. Two way ANCOVA is applied to test the explanatory power of the value-shift theory in explaining the effects of the B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy. The corresponding emergent-value items - i.e., perceived dominance value and ease-of-justification are modelled as dependent variables; the experimental treatment and attribute-focus as fixed factors, along with category knowledge and category involvement specified as covariates. Table D2.15 presents a summary of the results (with detailed SPSS output provided in Appendix D4).

Emergent value, main effects of the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

The results indicate significant main effects of the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy on *perceived dominance-value* (F [1, 186] = 4.34, p = .039, η^2= .023), with mean values higher in the

B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy condition than in the control ($M_{B"RANGE\ Decoy}$ = 7.36, $M_{Control}$ = 6.53) – the direction predicted by P 4.3a. For ease-of-justification, ANVCOVA finds significant main effects (F [1, 186] = 36.86, p = .000, η^2= .165); however, the corresponding mean values are in the opposite direction predicted by P 4.3b ($M_{B"RANGE\ Decoy}$ =5.75, $M_{Control}$ = 8.10).

Table D2.15 Testing emergent-value theory for B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

Main and interaction effects	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**	
	Dominance-value	**Ease-of-justification**
B"Decoy treatment effect	.039** (.023)	.000*** (.165)
Attribute-focus	.829^{ns} (.002)	.650^{ns} (.005)
B"Decoy *x* attribute-focus	.920^{ns} (.001)	.022** (.040)
Covariates:		
Category knowledge	.442^{ns} (.003)	.044** (.022)
Category involvement	.231^{ns} (.008)	.538^{ns} (.002)
Study conditions	Estimated mean values	
Control condition	6.53	8.10
B"Decoy condition	7.36	5.75
Attribute-focus groups		
Benefit-focus	7.07	6.75
Indifferent	6.78	6.85
Feature-focus	7.00	7.16

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

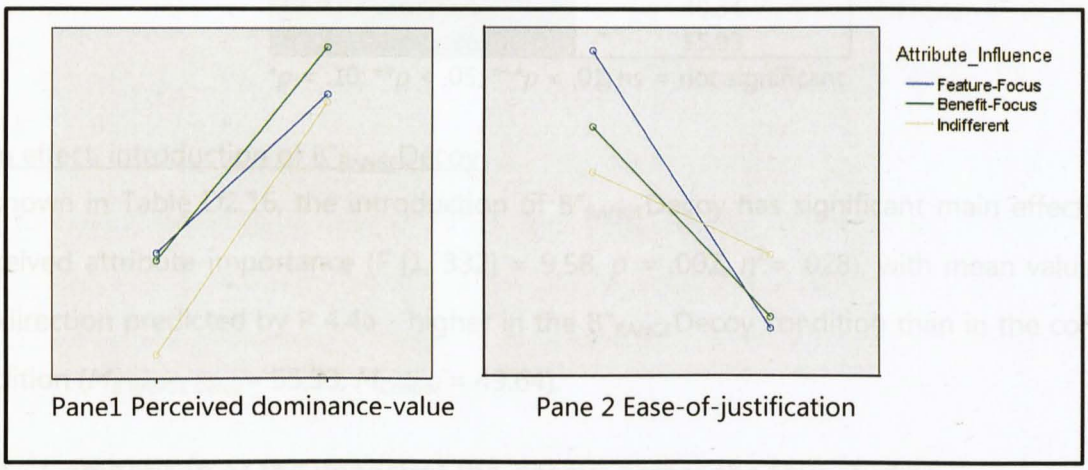


Figure D2.14 Interactions effects, emergent-value theory for B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy

ANCOVA reveals no significant effects for attribute-focus; however, as predicted in P 4.3c, ANCOVA finds significant interaction effects between introduction of the B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy and attribute-focus on ease-of-justification (F [2, 186] = 3.90, p = .022, η^2= .040). Figure D2.14 provides a graphical illustration of the observed interactions. The significant interaction on ease-of-justification (Pane 2) suggests that the introduction of B"$_{RANGE}$Decoy resulted in an

extensive increase in mean value for the benefit-focus and feature-focus groups, but with a much lower degree of increase for the indifferent group.

Testing weight-change theory B''_{RANGE}Decoy

The data show adherence to the assumptions of ANCOVA (see Appendix D4), and so, are subjected to ANCOVA to test the explanatory power of the weight-change theory against the observed influence of the B''_{RANGE}Decoy on perceived positioning of the benefit-positioned focal brand (Brand B). A summary of the results is presented in Table D2.16 (detailed SPSS output provided in Appendix D4).

Table D2.16 Testing weight-change theory for B''_{RANGE}Decoy

Main effects	***p* value (effect size partial eta η^2)**
B"Decoy treatment effect	.002*** (.028)
B''_{RANGE}Decoy	
Covariates	
Category knowledge	.748 (.000)
Category involvement	.050^{ns} (.011)
Estimated mean values	
Study conditions	
Control condition	49.34
B''_{RANGE}Decoy treatment	55.93

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

Main effect, introduction of B''_{RANGE}Decoy

As shown in Table D2.16, the introduction of B''_{RANGE}Decoy has significant main effects on perceived attribute-importance (F [1, 332] = 9.58, p = .002, η^2= .028), with mean values in the direction predicted by P 4.4a - higher in the B''_{RANGE}Decoy condition than in the control condition ($M_{B''RANGE\ Decoy}$= 55.93, $M_{Control}$ = 49.64).

D2.4 Comparison of the impact of the decoys across the four studies

The final part of this chapter pools the data across the four studies to compare the impact of the four decoys (F'_{FREQ}Decoy, F'_{FREQ}Decoy, F''_{RANGE}Decoy, and B'_{FREQ}Decoy) across the feature and benefit-positioning phases of the research. To this end, MANCOVA is conducted modelling the positioning dimensions as dependent variables, type of decoy as a fixed factor, and category involvement and knowledge as covariates.

As detailed in Appendix D5, Pillai's trace indicates significant effects of the type of decoy on the perceived positioning of the focal brand (V = 0.21, F [4, 619] = 11.50, p = .000, η^2 =

.070); in other words, the decoys differ in terms of the impact they exert on the position of the focal brand. Follow-up *post hoc* analysis with Sidak Corrections (Field, 2009) is used to examine mean differences between and within the feature-, and benefit-positioning phases. *Post hoc* results are detailed in Appendix D5, with a summary of the corresponding mean values presented in Table D2.17.

Table D2.17 Summary results from MANCOVA

	Estimated marginal means			
Different decoys	**Favourability**	**Differentiation**	**Uniqueness**	**Credibility**
F'_{FREQ}Decoy	6.37	8.00	6.64	7.67
F''_{RANGE}Decoy	6.73	7.87	6.52	7.40
B'_{FREQ}Decoy	7.70	8.58	7.66	8.26
B''_{RANGE}Decoy	7.00	7.38	5.47	6.93

For the feature-positioning phase, the results indicate that F'_{FREQ}Decoy and F''_{RANGE}Decoy are not significant different in terms of their impact exerted on the perceived position of the focal brand ($p > .05$); put differently, the decoys are similar in terms of the manner in which they affect the perceptions of the focal brand. Despite this result however, with the exception of favourability, mean values for the F'_{FREQ}Decoy are slightly higher than that of the F''_{RANGE}Decoy. The F''_{RANGE}Decoy is slightly higher only with respect to favourability.

Turning to the benefit-positioning phase, the results indicate that the impact of the B'_{FREQ}Decoy is significantly higher than the B''_{RANGE}Decoy in terms of differentiation, uniqueness, and credibility ($p < .05$). As shown in Table D2.17, while the mean value for B'_{FREQ}Decoy is also higher with respect to favourability, it is not significantly different to the mean favourability value for the B''_{RANGE}Decoy ($p > .05$).

Finally, the impact of the decoys is compared across the positioning phases. The same results demonstrate that benefit-positioned decoys, and in particular the B'_{FREQ}Decoy, exerted significantly higher [overall] impact on perceived positioning of the focal brand with respect to differentiation, uniqueness, and credibility. No significant differences are observed with respect to the impact of the decoys on favourability ratings of the focal brand.

In summary, and to bring a close to this chapter, the empirical results presented thus far provide clear evidence that the introduction of a new offering positioned as a decoy, in

varying degrees, enhances perceived position of a focal offering in the minds' of the targeted consumers. These findings are evidenced with respect to two types of decoys (frequency and range), across both feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning. Further discussion and debate of these results in relation to theory are provided in the chapter that follows.

Part E: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Chapter E1 **Discussion and conclusions**

E1.1 Introduction

This final chapter provides discussion and debate on the research findings. To begin, the reader is reminded of the need for the study along with the aim and objectives underlying the research (Section E1.2). The chapter proceeds with a discussion on the way in which each objective is addressed (Sections E1.3 – E1.5). Although attention is given to embed the findings in existing knowledge, in the absence of studies that investigate the strengthening of positioning perceptions, direct reference to extant literature on the subject matter is not feasible. The chapter then discusses the results of testing the conceptual framework which underscores the strengthening of positioning perceptions. It continues with a debate on the contributions the study makes to knowledge and practice (Section E1.6), ending with an outline of the limitations, together with directions for future research (Section E1.7).

E1.2 Overview of the need for the research

The discussions in Sections B2.2 and B2.3 establish the importance of brand positioning, and its central role in modern marketing management (Hooley and Greenly, 2005; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004). Despite the merits of the growing body of research on brand positioning, the review of the extant literature (Part B) reveals a number of issues as summarised in Section C1.1. In relation to the present study, this review finds a dearth of theoretical basis to underpin the concept of brand positioning (Rigger, 1995; Butt and Murphy, 2007, Urde and Koch, 2014). According to several authors this quandary impedes the growth of empirical research on brand positioning, and in several ways, its application among marketing practitioners (Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999, 2004; Butt and Murphy, 2007).

Additionally, the review indicates that although considerable amounts of research is devoted to the management of positioning, these efforts have so far focused primarily on positioning new offerings, and re-positioning existing offerings to new target markets (Ries and Trout, 2001; Jewell, 2007; Clow and Baack, 2010; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012). An equally important concern, as noted in the literature, is the managing and thus strengthening the position of an existing offering (Crawford, 1985; Arnott, 1993; Lehu, 2004; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007). The importance of this issue is evidenced by several scholars

who caution that brands that are not effectively managed and positioned 'will 'grow old and die' in today's competitive marketplace (Gilmore, 1999; Lehu, 2004). Moreover, Kotler and Keller (2012) point out that a firm proactively engaged in the long-term positioning of its offering stands to gain a competitive advantage over its competitors (Aaker, 1996; Ries and Trout, 2001). Despite the foregoing debate, the review of literature fails to identify research that investigates strategies for strengthening the position of existing offerings in the minds of consumers. The aim of this study is to empirically examine positioning strategies to strengthen consumer perceptions of the position of existing offerings. This aim is attained by addressing five objectives; each is discussed in turn in the discussions that follow (Section C1.3).

Objective 1 was to construct a theoretically-grounded conceptual framework that underpins the strengthening of positioning perceptions in the minds of the targeted consumers. Given that extant positioning literature has not investigated this subject matter, a broader search for appropriate theories was deemed necessary on which to propose a logical sequence of procedures to underpin the strengthening of an offering's position, as theories applied in past positioning research (e.g., signalling, and categorisation theory) are limited in this respect (Section C1.2).

Drawing on theories that explain decoy effects in the context of preference and choice-decision making (Huber and Puto, 1983; Ariely and Wallsten, 1995; Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Moran and Meyer, 2006), a theoretically-grounded conceptual framework is advanced in Chapter C1 (see graphical representation in Figure C1.3). It hypothesizes that the introduction of a new offering positioned as asymmetrically-dominated (i.e., similar but inferior) to an existing [focal] offering can enhance the perceptions of the position of an existing offering. Perceived position is operationalised as a multidimensional construct comprising four dimensions of an offering's position: favourability, differentiation, credibility and uniqueness (Fuchs, 2008; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). The impact that the decoy exerts on the positioning dimensions is proposed to interact with perceived importance of the attribute (captured by attribute focus variable, comprising three groups - feature-focus, indifferent, benefit-focus) on which an offering is positioned (Sujan and Bettman, 1989; Kalra and Goodstein, 1998). Moreover, guided by related literature (Park et al., 1994; Beatty and Talpade, 1994), category

knowledge and category involvement are identified as extraneous variables. These are statistically controlled in the analysis as discussed in Part D.

Objectives 2 to 5, outlined in Section C1.3, are addressed by empirically testing the conceptual framework guided by propositions specified in Section C1.4. To this end, after considering alternative research designs and methods, the framework is tested within an experimental research design (Section C2.3). Following procedures outlined in Sections C3.1 and C3.2, data are collected using an electronic self-completion questionnaire from a sample of adult UK consumers. The resultant data are statistically analysed and presented in Part D. For ease of the discussion in the section that follows, the reader is briefly reminded of the difference between the frequency and range decoys in terms of their asymmetrically-dominated (i.e., similar but inferior) positions relative to the focal offering.

- the frequency-positioned decoy ($Decoy_{FREQ}$) is positioned as identical to the focal offering in terms of the attribute on which the focal offering is inferior, while inferior on the attribute on which the focal offering is superior (see graphical illustration in Figure C1.2).
- the range-positioned decoy ($Decoy_{RANGE}$) is positioned as identical to the focal offering in terms of the attribute on which the focal offering is superior, while inferior in terms of the attribute on which the focal offering is inferior (Figure C1.2).

E1.3 Discussion of empirical research findings

E1.3.1 Introduction of a decoy on the position of a focal brand

Objective 2 sought to gauge the extent to which the introduction of a new offering, positioned as a decoy (decoy-positioned offering) affects perceptions of the position of an existing focal offering. The results of testing the related propositions are summarised in Table E1.1. These results, both with respect to feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning, indicate that the introduction of a frequency-positioned or range-positioned decoy can serve to strengthen the perceptions consumers have of an existing offering.

The process of strengthening the position of an offering is underpinned by the decoy effect (Huber et al., 1982; Huber and Puto, 1983). The information in Table E1.1 demonstrates that introducing a new offering which is positioned similar but inferior to one that already exists in a consideration set, positively impacts the perceived position of this [pre] existing offering relative to other offerings in the set. This finding implies that in the same way

preference and choice likelihood for a focal object are increased by introducing a decoy in the consideration set (e.g., Ariely and Wallsten 1995; Highhouse, 1996; Frederick et al., 2014), positioning perceptions of a focal offering is enhanced by introducing a decoy-positioned offering.

Table E1.1 Summary of results

		Feature-positioning				***Benefit-positioning***			
		Frequency F'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* F''_{RANGE}*Decoy*		*Frequency* B'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* B''_{RANGE}*Decoy*	
	Variable								
Perceived positioning of focal brand:									
Main effects, introduction of decoy	Favourability	P 1.1a	ns	P 2.1a	***	P 3.1a	***	P 4.1a	ns
	Differentiation	P 1.1b	**	P 2.1b	**	P 3.1b	**	P 4.1b	***
	Uniqueness	P 1.1c	*	P 2.1c	**	P 3.1b	***	P 4.1c	**
	Credibility	P 1.1d	**	P 2.1d	**	P 3.1d	**	P 4.1d	ns
Main effects, attribute-focus	Favourability	P 1.1e	***	P 2.1e	**	P 3.1e	***	P 4.1e	***
	Differentiation	P 1.1f	ns	P 2.1f	ns	P 3.1f	**	P 4.1f	ns
	Uniqueness	P 1.1g	*	P 2.1g	ns	P 3.1g	***	P 4.1g	***
	Credibility	P 1.1h	**	P 2.1h	ns	P 3.1h	***	P 4.1h	***
Interaction effects (decoy x attribute-focus)	Favourability	P 1.1i	ns	P 2.1i	**	P 3.1i	**	P 4.1i	ns
	Differentiation	P 1.1j	**	P 2.1j	ns	P 3.1j	**	P 4.1j	ns
	Uniqueness	P 1.1k	*	P 2.1k	ns	P 3.1k	*	P 4.1k	ns
	Credibility	P 1.1l	ns	P 2.1l	ns	P 3.1l	**	P 4.1l	ns

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

The above findings contribute to the brand positioning literature by providing knowledge on strengthening the perceptions consumers have of existing offerings – an issue, despite its accorded importance, has not received empirical attention in extant literature. As a brand's position is integral to its marketing success (Keller and Aaker, 1992; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004; Singh et al., 2014), the results offer important insights into how a brand can proactively enhance its position relative to competitors in the marketplace. These findings provide empirical support for the generic assertion in the literature, that a brand can take a deliberate and proactive approach towards strengthening its position in the minds of consumers (Arnott, 1992; Aaker, 1996; Gilmore, 1999; Dupre and Gruen, 2004; Lehu, 2004).

E1.3.2 Decoy across the dimensions of brand positioning

Looking at the effects of the dec-5oy across the four dimensions of brand positioning, the results indicate that perceived differentiation, uniqueness, and credibility of the focal offering are enhanced irrespective of the type of decoy introduced into the consideration set. A less consistent pattern of results is observed with respect to favourability (see Table E1.1). This finding counters that reported by Fuchs (2008) and Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2012). In their work, these scholars postulate that the four positioning dimensions operate in a consistent and uniformed manner when positioning and evaluating the position of new offerings. In contrast, however, the present study shows that for the purpose of strengthening the position of existing offerings, only uniqueness, differentiation, and credibility are consistently enhanced by the introduction of a decoy.

Favourability, according to Dacin and Smith (1994), captures a consumer's positive predisposition towards brand-level information, such as brand name, packaging and design. For existing offerings, such brand-level information is often well-established and embedded in the minds of the targeted consumers (Meenaghan, 1995; Keller, 2002). In part, this provides an explanation of why there is little or no increase in the favourability of a focal offering when a decoy is introduced into a consideration set. This finding represents considerable contributions to the literature by establishing that knowledge on the positioning of new offerings cannot be directly applied to strengthening the positions of existing offerings, and the need to examine

E1.3.3 The role of perceived attribute importance in brand positioning

The study examines the effects of the perceived importance of the attribute (i.e., base) on which an offering is positioned (the related variable is depicted in Table E1.1 as attribute-focus[13]). The results demonstrate that perceived-importance has significant main effects on the positioning perceptions of the focal offering. More specifically, study finds that individuals who consider the base on which the focal offering is positioned as relatively [more] important than that of the competitor, report significantly higher (vs. lower) ratings for the position of a focal offering. This finding establishes that the impact of the decoy on

[13] Attribute focus represents a categorisation of perceived attribute importance. Participants are categorised based on the extent to which a positioning attribute is perceived as relatively [more] important than another positioning attribute.

positioning perceptions is contingent upon the extent to which the focal offering's [positioning] base is considered important relative to that of competing offerings.

The foregoing results align with that reported of the decoy effect as it relates to preference and choice decisions, suggesting a moderating effect of attribute-importance on preference and choice of focal offering (Mellers and Biagini, 1994; Ariely and Wallsten, 1995; Bhargava, Kim and Srivastava, 2000). This notion is best captured by Ariely and Wallsten (1995, pg. 332), writing that "the attribute that is important for choosing between two similar options... assumes greater importance" in the choice-decision making. For the most part, prior literature is silent on the role of attribute-importance on positioning perceptions. The study thus advances the literature by providing knowledge on the interacting role of attribute importance on positioning perceptions.

E1.3.4 The stability of the decoy effect across positioning bases

Objective 3 sought to determine the stability of the decoy effect across the feature and benefit-oriented bases of positioning. The study finds a similar pattern of results across the two positioning bases, suggesting that feature and benefit positioning operate in a similar manner when it comes to strengthening positioning perceptions. This finding counters normative results and claims of previous positioning research purporting that benefit positioning outperforms feature positioning (e.g. Crawford, 1985; Vriens and Ter Hofstede, 2000; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010; Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2011). These claims stems from the premise that 'consumers buy benefits, not features' (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007), supported by the literature on information-processing with respect to evaluative judgements (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Hagius and Mason, 1993). A review of the related literature finds that these claims are based mainly on conceptual insights lacking empirical support (e.g., Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2011). Differently, based on empirical results, this study demonstrates that feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning bases operate in a similar manner when it comes to strengthening the position of existing offerings.

E1.3.5 The decoy effect across types of decoys

Objective 4 sought to examine the extent to which the impact of the decoy varies across the frequency and range decoys. Despite the similar pattern of results for the two decoys in Table E1.1, the study provides evidence to suggest that the introduction of a frequency

decoy produces a more substantive effect on the perceived position of the focal offering. This conclusion is based on observing a more consistent pattern of increases in the perceived position of focal offering when frequency decoys (i.e., F'_{FREQ}Decoy and B'_{FREQ}Decoy) are introduced into a consideration set. This finding corresponds to the literature on preference and choice-decision making, reporting that the frequency decoy is more consistent in the manner in which it increases preference and choice share of a focal offering as opposed to the range decoy in a consideration set (Heath and Chatterjee, 1995; Ariely and Wallsten, 1995; Wedell and Pettibone, 1996).

Recall that the frequency decoy is inferior on the attribute on which the focal offering is superior whilst the range decoy is inferior on the attribute on which the focal offering is inferior (see Table C1.2.) As such, the inferiority of the frequency decoy is more pronounced than the range decoy when compared against the focal offering in the consideration set. In line with Novemsky and Kahneman (2005), this level of inferiority translates into a substantive loss along an attribute deemed important in the minds of consumers, explaining why it exerts a stronger influence on the perception of a focal offering in a consideration set. This explanation is in line with the literature on utility theory (Schoemaker, 1982; Starmer, 2000), which posits that consumers generally prefer offerings which offer with a higher (i.e., certain) as opposed to a lower (i.e., uncertain) level of utility.

E1.4 The explanatory powers of the decoy theories

Having established the decoy effect within the domain of brand positioning, by way of Objective 5, the study sought to test the explanatory powers of the three decoy theories – i.e. value-shift, emergent-value, and weight-change. These theories provide differential explanatory powers in the context of preference and choice decisions, thus providing the rationale to test each theory in the context of brand positioning.

E1.4.1 Value-shift theory

The related results provide considerable support for the value-shift theory in explaining the impact of decoys in the context of brand positioning. Recall from Section C1.2.2, that on the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering, value-shifts are evidenced by significant increases in the strength with which the focal brand is perceived to be associated with its (i) primary (i.e., pivotal/superior) positioning attribute, (ii) secondary (i.e., non-pivital/inferior)

positioning attribute, or (iii) the summed-score of the two positioning attributes (Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000). The results of testing the related propositions are summarised in Table E1.2. The value-shift theory is evidenced by way of the following results:

- significant main effects for the primary positioning attributes[14] with respect to F''_{RANGE}Decoy, B'_{FREQ}Decoy, and B''_{RANGE}Decoy;
- significant main effects for the secondary positioning attributes across all the decoy-positioned offerings; and
- significant main effects for the summed-score of the positioning attributes only with respect to F'_{FREQ}Decoy and B'_{FREQ}Decoy.

Table E1.2 Summary results of testing value-shift theory

		Feature-positioning				***Benefit-positioning***			
	Variable	*Frequency* F'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* F''_{RANGE}*Decoy*		*Frequency* B'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* B''_{RANGE}*Decoy*	
Value-shift theory									
Main effects, introduction of decoy	AssoPA_F	P 1.2a	ns	P 2.2a	**	P 3.2a	**	P 4.2a	**
	AssoPA_B	P 1.2b	**	P 2.2b	*	P 3.2b	***	P 4.2b	***
	AssoPA_SUM	P 1.2c	*	P 2.2c	ns	P 3.2c	***	P 4.2c	ns
Main effects, attribute-focus	AssoPA_F	P 1.2d	**	P 2.2d	**	P 3.2d	***	P 4.2d	**
	AssoPA_B	P 1.2e	***	P 2.2e	**	P 3.2e	**	P 4.2e	***
	AssoPA_SUM	P 1.2f	**	P 2.2f	ns	P 3.2f	ns	P 4.2f	ns
Interaction effects (decoy x attribute-focus)	AssoPA_F	P 1.2g	**	P 2.2g	*	P 3.2g	ns	P 4.2g	**
	AssoPA_B	P 1.2h	ns	P 2.2h	**	P 3.2h	ns	P 4.2h	**
	AssoPA_SUM	P 1.2i	**	P 2.2i	**	P 3.2i	**	P 4.2i	***

*p < .10; **p < .05; ***p < .01; ns = not significant

AssoPA_F = perceived association with the feature-positioning attribute; AssoPA_B = perceived association with the benefit-positioning attribute; AssoPA_SUM= perceived association with the sum of the two positioning attributes

The above results suggest that the observed change in positioning perceptions are driven by the strength with which the focal brand is associated with its primary (superior) and secondary (inferior) positioning attributes, as well as the combined (summed) evaluation of these positioning attributes. Essentially, the presence of the decoy in the consideration set provides a reference point (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1993; Mussweiler and Strack, 2000)

[14] To clarify the respective primary positioning attributes - 'PA_F' for the feature-positioned focal brand, and 'PA_B' for the benefit-positioned focal brand. The reverse is the case of the respective secondary positioning attribute, i.e., 'PA_B' for the feature-positioned focal brand, and 'PA_F' for the benefit-positioned focal brand.

against which consumers compare and ladder the offerings along the two positioning attributes. This corresponds with a core element of the concept of brand positioning, i.e. the relative nature of the construct (T4), as discussed in Section B1.3.1, and throughout the review of the positioning literature. As suggested by Clow and Baack (2010), among others, a brand's position is evaluated against an explicit frame of reference – the offerings with which it competes (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Masterson and Pickton, 2004; Kapferer, 2012).

The similar yet inferior position of the decoy relative to that of the focal offering evokes the perception that the focal is even more superior on its primary positioning attribute. In their minds, consumers transfer this heighten perception of the focal brand to their perceptions of the focal brand with respect to the secondary (i.e., inferior) positioning attribute (Wedell, 1991; Hedgcock et al., 2009). On the introduction of the decoy, in line with Pettibone and Wedell (2000), the focal offering is perceived as 'not that bad after all' in terms of the attribute on which it is inferior relative to its competitor. Regarding the summed-score of the positioning attributes (Table E1.2), it is argued that the strengthened position of the focal offering results from the combined effort of the two positioning attributes, rather than solely the effort of the primary or secondary positioning attribute. This finding aligns with research that investigates brand positioning in the context of signalling theory (Singh et al., 2014), reporting that positive associations of a parent brand *spills-over* into the perceptions consumers have of the position of new co-branded offerings.

E1.4.2 Emergent-value theory

The study also confirms the explanatory power of the emergent-value theory in accounting for the observed decoy-positioning effects. Recall that the emergent-value theory is underpinned by two related mechanisms (see Section C1.2.2): perceived dominance-value, and ease-of-justification. In both respects, evidence of the emergent-value theory is exhibited by higher mean values in the presence (vs. absence) of a decoy-positioned offering. Table E1.3 provides a summary of the results from testing the related propositions.

The emergent value theory is evidenced by the following results:

- regarding dominance value, significant main effects with respect to F''_{RANGE}Decoy, B'_{FREQ}Decoy, and B''_{RANGE}Decoy; and significant interaction effects (between the introduction of a decoy and attribute-focus) only with respect to the frequency decoys.

- regarding ease-of-justification, significant main effects only with respect to B''_{RANGE}Decoy, and significant interaction effects with respect to F'_{FREQ}Decoy and B''_{RANGE}Decoy.

Table E1.3 Summary results of testing emergent-value theory

		Feature-positioning				***Benefit-positioning***			
	Variable	*Frequency* F'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* F''_{RANGE}*Decoy*		*Frequency* B'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* B''_{RANGE}*Decoy*	
Value-shift theory									
Main effects, introduction of decoy	Dominance-value	P 1.3a	ns	P 2.3a	**	P 3.3a	***	P 4.3a	**
	Ease-of-justification	P 1.3b	ns	P 2.3b	ns	P 3.3b	ns	P 4.3b	***
Main effects, attribute-focus	Dominance	P 1.3c	***	P 2.3c	***	P 3.3c	ns	P 4.3c	ns
	Ease-of-justification	P 1.3d	**	P 2.3d	ns	P 3.3d	***	P 4.3d	ns
Interaction effects (decoy x attribute-focus)	Dominance-value	P 1.3e	*	P 2.3e	**	P 3.3e	ns	P 4.3e	ns
	Ease-of-justification	P 1.3f	**	P 2.3f	ns	P 3.3f	ns	P 4.3f	**

*$p < .10$; **$p < .05$; ***$p < .01$; ns = not significant

These results indicate that dominance-value provides substantive explanation of the observed decoy-positioning effects. Whilst no main effects are exhibited with respect to the F'_{FREQ}Decoy, the explanatory power of dominance-value still holds by significant interactions with attribute-focus. In accordance with the premise of dominance value, the similar yet inferior position of the decoy, evokes the perception that the focal brand not only dominates the decoy offering in terms of its position, but also all other offerings in the set (Simonson, 1989; Pechtl, 2009). Moreover, the presence of the decoy-positioned offering serves to reinforce the distinct position of the focal brand in the minds of the targeted consumers.

Comparing the results of the two emergent-value mechanisms, dominance-value provides higher explanatory power for the observed decoy-positioning effects. It posits that the introduction of the decoy evokes an accessible cognitive heuristic that gives decision makers a clear rationale that justifies their perception of the focal offering dominating over others presented in the set (Simonson, 1989; Wedell, 1991). The lower explanatory power of the ease-of-justification can be explained by the inherent role it plays in settings where the consumer stands to experience more immediate gains or losses as in domain of preference and choice decisions (Wedell, 1991; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Moran and Meyer, 2006). Within such a complex choice setting, as opposed to the present setting that involves brand

positioning, consumers are in more active search for reasons to justify choice decisions to ease cognitive dissonance (Chopin and Hummel, 2005; Park and Kim, 2005).

E1.4.3 Weight-change theory

The explanatory power of the weight-change theory is confirmed by the results in Table E1.4. In accordance to the weight-change theory, decoy-positioning effects results from a significant increase in the perceived importance of the primary (i.e., pivotal) attribute on which the focal offering is positioned when the decoy is introduced into a consideration set (Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Moran and Meyer, 2006). In the context of the study, the weight-change theory is evidence by the following result:

- Significant main effects for perceived attribute association only with respect to the F'_{FREQ}Decoy and B''_{RANGE}Decoy.

Table E1.4 Summary results of testing weight-change theory

		Feature-positioning				***Benefit-positioning***			
	Variable	*Frequency* F'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* F''_{RANGE}*Decoy*		*Frequency* B'_{FREQ}*Decoy*		*Range* B''_{RANGE}*Decoy*	
Weight-change theory									
Main effects, introduction of decoy	Perceived attribute-importance	P 1.4a	**	P 2.4a	ns	P 3.4a	ns	P 4.4a	***

*$p < .10$; **$p < .05$; ***$p < .01$; ns = not significant

This result implies that the introduction of the F'_{FREQ} and B''_{RANGE} decoys increases the salience of the attribute on which the focal offering is positioned, evidencing explanatory power of the weight-change theory in the context of brand positioning. Moreover, this finding is in line with that concerning the decoy effect in the context of choice decision-making (e.g., Simonson, 1991; Ariely and Wallsten, 1995; Park and Kim, 2005; Hedgcock et al., 2009). Hedgcock et al. (2009) suggest that introducing a decoy creates a perceptual cluster around the main attribute on which the focal offering is positioned; this evokes the cognitive bias that this attribute should be paramount in consumers evaluations' and deliberations of alternative offerings in a consideration set.

E1.5 Overall explanatory power of decoy theories

Focus now turns to comparing the explanatory powers of the three theories. In varying degrees, the results of testing the theories provide considerable insight into the cognitive processes underlying decoy-positioning effects, and thus, understanding into how the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering enhances consumers' perceptions of the position of existing offerings.

Of the theories, the value-shift theory provides the strongest explanatory power for the observed decoy-positioning effects. This conclusion is based on the consistency of the results with respect to the two types of decoys (frequency and range), across the two types of positioning bases (feature-oriented, and benefit-oriented positioning). Moreover, the related results demonstrate that the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering increases the strength with which the focal brand is perceived as associated with (i) the attribute on which it is superior, (ii) the attribute on which it is inferior, and (iii) the combined (i.e., summed-score) influence of the two positioning attributes. The results of testing both the emergent-value and the weight-change theory also exhibit explanatory power for the observed effects, however, to a lesser degree in comparison to the value-shift theory as already discussed. Despite the differential results, the research extends knowledge by providing a theoretical understanding of brand positioning based on theories that explain decoy effects.

E1.6 Research contributions and implications

This study pioneers research into strategies to enhance the perception of the position of existing offerings. It offers novel and empirically-based insights into the proactive positioning of offerings, on which, until now, the literature has been silent beyond general remarks (Crawford, 1985; Arnott, 1992; Aaker, 1996; Dupre and Gruen, 2004). The study is underpinned by a theoretically-grounded framework, addressing repeated calls in the literature regarding the lack of a theoretical basis on which to study the concept of positioning (e.g., Yip, 1997; Blankson and Kalafatis, 1999, 2004; Butt, 2010). It thus presents future researchers with an empirically-verified theoretical foundation on which to investigate related brand positioning issues. The research findings lead to a number of contributions to marketing knowledge and practice on the subject matter as discussed below.

E1.6.1 Contributions to knowledge

In order to examine how a brand strengthens consumer perceptions of the position of an existing offering, the study develops a theoretically-grounded framework based on the three theories that explain decoy effects in the domain of preference and choice decisions – i.e., value-shift, emergent-value, and weight-change (Wedell, 1991; Wedell and Pettibone, 1996; Moran and Meyer, 2006). This framework is empirically tested, producing robust results across two types of decoys (frequency and range) and two positioning bases (feature and benefit-oriented). The findings demonstrate strong explanatory powers of the theories in explaining decoy effects within the present brand positioning domain. The study thus makes considerable contributions to knowledge on the subject of brand positioning as discussed below.

- As a first contribution, this study sheds light on strengthening positioning perceptions of existing offerings; an issue, whilst regarded as important, has not received empirical attention by extant brand positioning literature. Previous brand positioning studies provide extensive insights for positioning new offerings and re-positioning existing offerings (e.g., Jewell, 2007; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012); with few studies offering passing commentaries on the need for a deliberate and proactive approach to strengthening the position of offerings already-existing in the market (e.g., Arnott, 1993; Blankson and Kalafatis, 2004). This study thus extends knowledge of the subject matter by empirically investigating strategies of enhancing perceptions of the position of existing offerings in the minds of targeted consumers.
- The research confirms the acknowledge but hitherto empirically unsupported assertion in the literature that brands can take proactive action towards strengthening positioning perceptions in consumers' minds. In particular, the results demonstrate that the perceived position of an existing [focal] offering can be enhanced through the introduction of a new offering that is positioned asymmetrically-dominated to the focal offering, i.e. a decoy. This finding establishes a strong conceptual and empirical link between two well-established phenomena in the literature, namely brand positioning and the decoy effect. This research therefore provides important insights for future research on the phenomena.
- To the best knowledge of the researcher, this study is the first attempt to develop and empirically validate a theoretically-grounded framework to underpin the concept of brand positioning. It does so by drawing on established theories located in the social and consumer psychology literature that explain decoy effects context and decoy effects (i.e., value-shift, emergent-value, and the weight-change). Thus

the findings of the study move beyond the often descriptive nature of results provided by previous studies examining brand positioning.

- In line with the foregoing contribution, the research provides considerable understanding of the cognitive processes involved in strengthening positioning perceptions. Of the tested decoy theories, value-shift exhibits the strongest explanatory power, showing that the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering increases the extent to which a [focal] brand is associated with its main positioning base. This finding is consistent with that found on the value-shift theory in the context of preference and choice-decision making (Wedell, 1991; Pettibone and Wedell, 2000; Hedgcock et al., 2009). Emergent-value and weight-change theories, despite to a lesser extent, also provide meaningful insights of how the introduction of a decoy enhances positioning perceptions. Moreover, the research advances knowledge in the literature by demonstrating the stability of decoy theories in the context of brand positioning.
- Furthermore, for the first time in the literature, the research demonstrates that the decoy effect in the positioning domain operates in a manner consistent to that within the domain of preference and choice decisions; in that, the introduction of a decoy leads to a favourable outcome for a focal offering in a consideration set. Accordingly, the results of the study show that the presence (vs. absence) of a decoy serves as a cognitive anchor and reference point against which consumers re-evaluate the perception they have of a focal offering in a consideration set (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1993; Mussweiler and Strack, 2000).
- The study adopts a multidimensional scale that permits close examination of the four dimensions of brand positioning - i.e., favourability, differentiation, credibility, and uniqueness. With the exception of a few studies (Fuchs, 2008; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010, 2012), research examining brand positioning adopt a unidimensional approach to measuring the construct (e.g., Hartman et al., 2005; Gammoh and Okoroafo, 2011; Urde and Koch, 2014). Whilst acknowledging the merits of unidimensional measures (Rossiter, 2008; Diamantopoulos et al., 2012), positioning is essentially a multidimensional construct (Kalafatis et al., 2000; Hartmann et al., 2005; Blankson et al., 2008), thus limiting the implications of past positioning research adopting unidimensional measures of the construct. On the contrary, this research demonstrates that the introduction of a decoy produces differential impacts along the four dimensions of positioning. More specifically, it shows that introducing a decoy leads to a consistent increase in differentiation and uniqueness of a focal brand; however, only in particular instances, introducing a decoy increases credibility and favourability of the focal brand. This finding therefore demonstrates the need for positioning research to delineate and give close

consideration to specific dimensions of positioning, and in so doing, avoid confounding effects between strategies and evaluation criteria related to brand positioning. Moreover, because of the lack of such delineation in extant studies, questions are raised about the stability of reported findings that are based on a unidimensional measurement of the positioning construct. This in turn means that there is opportunity to re-evaluate findings reported in the extant positioning literature.

- In the attempt to strengthen the position of an existing offering, the study demonstrates that only three of the four facets (components) of an offering's position can be substantively strengthened – i.e., differentiation, uniqueness, and credibility. This finding differs from the uniformed pattern of results reported in research that investigates the positioning of new offerings (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2012). The study thus establishes that knowledge on the positioning of new offerings cannot be directly applied to the strengthening positioning perceptions.
- The study provides empirical evidence demonstrating that the effect the [introduction of a] decoy has on positioning perceptions is contingent upon perceived-importance of the attribute on which an offering is positioned. Prior to this study, extant positioning literature has given little or no attention to perceived importance of the attributes on which offerings are positioned. The resultant pattern of significant interactions between the introduction of a decoy and attribute-focus suggests that the decoy has a greater effect on individuals who perceive the focal offering's positioning attribute as important relative to [other] attributes on which competing offerings are positioned. As such, this finding highlights the need for future research to give close attention to the perceived-importance of the attributes on which offerings are positioned. Furthermore, the finding calls into question the efficacy of studies examining the concept of positioning without considering the interacting effect of perceived attribute importance.
- Finally, although there is convergence in the results with respect to the impact that the decoy exerts on perceived positioning, the results show some evidence of differential impacts between the two positioning bases - feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning bases. Offerings that are positioned along a benefit-oriented base are more responsive to attempts to enhance positioning perceptions, compared to offerings positioned along a feature base. This finding thus demonstrates that positioning research must clearly demarcate the bases within which studies are conducted, and in so doing, avoid confounding effects related to differential impacts of varying positioning bases.

E1.6.2 Implications for practitioners

The findings (reported in Sections E1.3 and E1.4), together with the contributions to knowledge discussed above provide the foundation for a number of important implications for practitioners. First and foremost, the research presents a means through which the marketer can take deliberate and proactive action to strengthen the position of the firm's [focal] offering amidst the competitive pressures of today's marketplace. This is achieved through the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering, i.e. an offering that is positioned similar yet inferior to the firm's focal offering. The deliberate action of the firm to introduce such an offering, on first consideration, may seem counterintuitive (Huber et al., 1982; Huber and Puto, 1983), especially towards the marketer's attempt to enhance the position of an existing offering. This study, however, both with respect to feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning, demonstrates that the introduction of a decoy-positioned offering can serve to enhance consumers' perception of the position of a focal offering relative to that of its competitor.

Between the frequency and range decoys, the results demonstrate that the introduction of a range decoy is more effective to strengthen the perceived position of a focal offering positioned along a feature-oriented base; whereas, a frequency decoy is more effective to strengthen the position of a focal offering positioned along a benefit-oriented base. These results lead to the following recommendations in the marketer's effort to strengthen the position of the firm's offering;

- If the position of the firm's focal offering (e.g., a laptop computer offering) is located within the broad domain of feature-oriented bases (e.g., battery life, or screen size), a range decoy offering should be introduced to enhance the position of the focal offering. Its introduction should be supported by marketing communication materials conveying the new decoy offering as relatively inferior only with respect of the pivotal (i.e., superior) attribute on which the focal offering is positioned.
- If the position of the firm's focal offering is located within the broad domain of benefit-oriented bases (e.g., portability, or user-friendliness), a frequency decoy should be introduced to strengthen the position of the focal offering. Its introduction should be supported by marketing communication conveying the new decoy offering as relatively inferior only with respect to the non-pivotal (i.e., inferior) attribute on which the focal offering is positioned.

Moreover, irrespective of type of decoys the results demonstrate that the extent to which the introduction of a decoy affects the position of a focal offering is a function of the perceived importance of the [distinct] attribute on which the focal offering is positioned. According to the study, the impact of a decoy is stronger when the attribute on which the focal offering is positioned is perceived as relatively important to other positioning attributes.

- Based on these results, managers are recommended to introduce a decoy-positioned offering on the basis that consumers perceive the focal offering's positioning attribute as considerably important as compared to other positioning attributes. However, in the circumstance that the marketer finds, through market research, that the target audience holds little regard for the offering's positioning attribute, the introduction of a decoy, in accordance with the value-shift and weight-change theories, serves also to enhance the salience and perceived-importance of the attribute on which the focal offering is positioned.

Furthermore, in the firm's effort to strengthen the position of its focal offering, the study shows that the introduction of a decoy produces differential effects across the four dimensions of perceived positioning (i.e., favourability, differentiation, credibility, and uniqueness). Put differently, the introduction of specific types of decoys (e.g., a feature-positioned frequency decoy and a feature-positioned range decoy) have different effects on particular dimensions of the position of the focal offering. Based on this finding, and on the premise that the firm proactively seeks to strengthen particular dimensions of its offering's position, the following recommendations are offered:

- To strengthen the differentiation and uniqueness of the focal offering. Irrespective of its positioning base, the firm can introduce any of the two types of decoys, i.e., frequency and range.
- With the exception of the benefit-positioned range decoy, perceived credibility is strengthened by the introduction of any of the varying types of decoys.
- Finally, favourability is strengthened only through the introduction of a feature-positioned range decoy and a benefit-positioned frequency decoy.

In line with the above recommendations, it is important that the firm first clarify the particular dimension(s) it wishes to enhance in position of its focal offering, and then introduce a corresponding type of decoy towards this end.

E1.7 Limitations and directions for future research

While the study provides a theoretically-grounded and methodologically-robust examination of decoy-positioning, a number of parameters and limitations, mostly methodological, still restrict the applicability and generalisability of the findings as discussed below.

First, following the convention of examining decoys in the preference and choice-decision making literature, empirical examination of decoy-positioning effects involved using consideration sets comprising two and three brand offerings. Methodologically, this caveat is well justified by the notion that consumers give purposeful attention to only a handful (or rather mind-full) of brands in the market (Ries and Trout, 1896; Lehmann and Pan, 1993). At the same time, in line with argument put forward by Simonson and Tversky (1992), this notion might suggest an overestimation of the impact of decoys particularly in product categories where multiple brands are positioned around one or two dominant positioning attributes - e.g., tablet and laptop computers which are predominantly positioned based on 'screen quality', 'processor speed', and 'portability'.

Second, the study is limited in terms of establishing decoy effects only with respect to two (feature and benefit) of the three generic bases of positioning (the third being surrogate positioning). Due consideration was given to extending the study in the context of surrogate-oriented positioning. However, surrogate-oriented positioning is often more complex than feature-oriented and benefit-oriented positioning (Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2011). It involves asserting inferred external intangible associations of the brand, requiring the consumer to come to his personalised individual conclusion of the offering (Bridges et al., 2000) - e.g., 'the tooth brush brand most dentist use', Oral-B; and 'the best a man can get,' Gillette. For this reason and the added challenge of ensuring that participants were able to effectively perceive the position of the offerings as intended by the researcher, the decision was taken to constrain this first initial investigation of decoy-positioning effects within concrete feature and benefit positioning bases. Future studies should thus examine the efficacy of the results within the context of surrogate-oriented positioning.

Third, participants based their perceptions of the study's offerings with respect to only two specific positioning attributes: 'stain-removal' and 'value-for-money'. Whilst acknowledging

that this element of the experiment limits the ecological validity of the study, the decision to select the specified attributes in the context of laundry detergent is rationalised by the robust procedures undertaken in a number of pretests as detailed in Section C2.8. The two attributes were among those most salient in consumers' comparison of detergent brand offerings. Further research, however, should test the efficacy of the study in relation to other positioning attributes.

Fourth, the study is conducted only within the product domain of laundry detergent, limiting the generalizability of the findings to disparate categories. Clearly, consumer perceptions of this utilitarian low-involvement category may be distinct from that of hedonic high-involvement categories (see review in Chandon, Wansink and Laurent, 2000). Evidence of such distinctions was discovered from the results of a separate study conducted on compact cars. For brevity, the related results were very much different to that of detergent offerings; particularly as consumer positioning perceptions were heavily driven by perceived importance of the attributes of specific dominant positioning attributes such as fuel-efficiency, seating-capacity, and initial purchase cost. Given the marked differences in the findings, and moreover the time limitations for conducting the research, the decision was taken to focus on this low-involvement category of detergents, and to turn attention to other product categories in future research.

Fifth, participants were asked to evaluate and form perceptions of the position of offerings within the relatively short time period allocated by the experiment. Arguably, this counters the view that the eventual perception a consumer comes to have of a brand represents a long-term deliberation over the focal brand relative to its competitors (Nylen, 1990). Three factors justify the related constraints in the study. Firstly, past empirical works have offered empirical findings based on a similar temporal conceptualisation of brand positioning (e.g. Blankson and Kalafatis, 2007; Fuchs and Diamantopoulos, 2010). Secondly, despite the use of hypothetical names, the actual positioning information used in the experimental stimuli is that of real brands existing on the market. For instance, the position of the relatively inferior 'stain-removal' detergent offering typifies that of Sainsbury's Value Basics - 'no added extras, gets clothes clean'. Thirdly, the robust findings of context effects; and, the demonstration that the outcome of evaluative and choice decisions are dependent on the

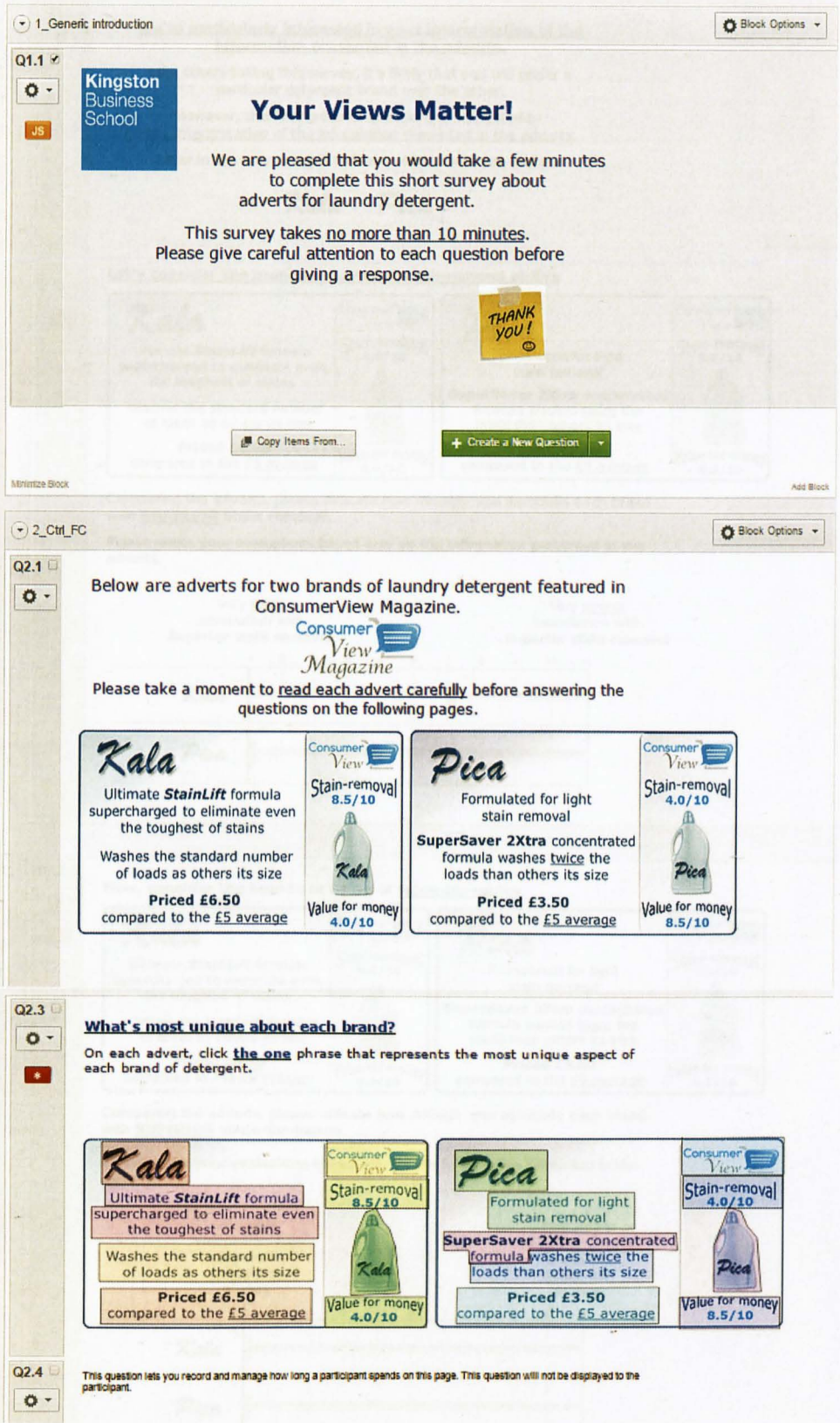
context with which such decisions are made, justify the conceptualisation of decoy-positioning effects in the context of the study.

Sixth, and finally, with its cross-sectional design the study provides a snap-shot, and hence an understanding only of the temporal nature of the impact the decoy has on positioning perceptions. An equally important issue is research into the impact the decoy has on perceived position of brands in the long-term, particularly as the sensitivity of decoys on a focal object may evolve over time as suggested by Pettibone and Wedell (2000). Addressing this issue requires the use of a longitudinal research design. Whilst important, this issue regarding the long-term impact of decoy-positioning effects is suggested for future research.

Part F: APPENDICIES

APPENDIX C1

Research instrument



Page Break

Q2.5

We're particularly interested in your interpretation of the information presented in the adverts.

Like others taking this survey, it's likely that you will prefer a particular detergent brand over the other.

However, this first group of questions is interested in your interpretation of the information presented in the adverts.

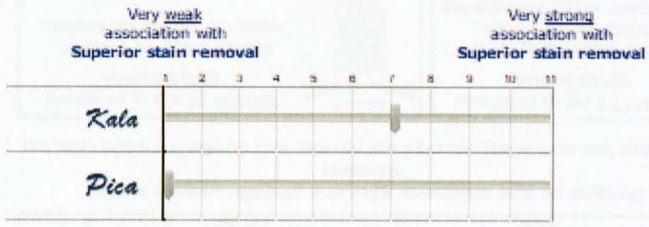
Later in the survey you'll indicate which brand you prefer.

Kala *Pica*

Let's consider the brands in terms of stain-removal ability

Comparing the adverts, please indicate how strongly you associate each brand with **SUPERIOR stain removal**.

Please make your evaluations based only on the information presented in the adverts.

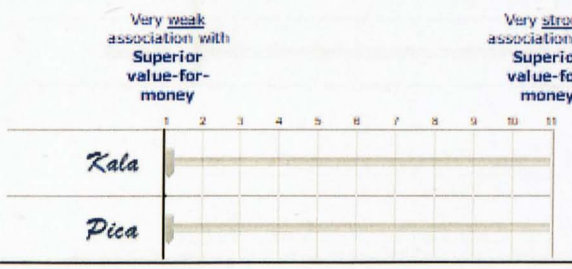


Q2.7

Now, consider the brands in terms of value-for-money

Comparing the adverts, please indicate how strongly you associate each brand with **SUPERIOR value-for-money**.

Please make your evaluations based only on the information presented in the adverts.



Q2.8

In what ways are the brands different from each other?

Kala

Ultimate ***StainLift*** formula supercharged to eliminate even the toughest of stains

Washes the standard number of loads as others its size

Priced £6.50 compared to the £5 average

Consumer View: Stain-removal 8.5/10; Value for money 4.0/10

Pica

Formulated for light stain removal

SuperSaver 2Xtra concentrated formula washes twice the loads than others its size

Priced £3.50 compared to the £5 average

Consumer View: Stain-removal 4.0/10; Value for money 8.5/10

96% of people taking this survey were able to come up with two differences between these detergent brands; how about you?

In what **two** ways do you think the brands are different in terms of what they offer?

Page Break

Q2.9

Kala

Ultimate ***StainLift*** formula supercharged to eliminate even the toughest of stains

Washes the standard number of loads as others its size

Priced £6.50 compared to the £5 average

Consumer View: Stain-removal 8.5/10; Value for money 4.0/10

Pica

Formulated for light stain removal

SuperSaver 2Xtra concentrated formula washes twice the loads than others its size

Priced £3.50 compared to the £5 average

Consumer View: Stain-removal 4.0/10; Value for money 8.5/10

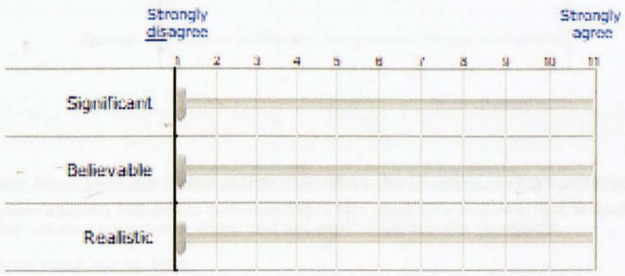
The table below summarizes how strongly you associate the brands with each of the attributes.

(Higher numbers represent a stronger association with an attribute)

	Kala	*Pica*
Stain-removal	${q://QID904/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/1}	${q://QID904/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/2}
Value-for-money	${q://QID905/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/1}	${q://QID905/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/2}

Q2.10

Please indicate the extent you would say that the differences between **Kala** and **Pica** are:



Q2.11

Kala

Ultimate ***StainLift*** formula supercharged to eliminate even the toughest of stains

Washes the standard number of loads as others its size

Priced £6.50 compared to the £5 average

Consumer View
Stain-removal 8.5/10
Value for money 4.0/10

Pica

Formulated for light stain removal

SuperSaver 2Xtra concentrated formula washes twice the loads than others its size

Priced £3.50 compared to the £5 average

Consumer View
Stain-removal 4.0/10
Value for money 8.5/10

The table below summarizes how strongly you associate the brands with each of the attributes.
(Higher numbers represent a stronger association with an attribute)

	Kala	Pica
Stain-removal	${q://QID904/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/1}	${q://QID904/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/2}
Value-for-money	${q://QID905/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/1}	${q://QID905/ChoiceNumericEntryValue/2}

Q2.12

Compared to Pica, to what extent would you agree that **Kala** is:

Strongly disagree — Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11

- Differentiated from Pica
- Dissimilar to Pica
- Distinct from Pica

Q2.14

Compared to Pica, to what extent would you agree that **Kala** is:

Strongly disagree — Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11

- Unique
- Extraordinary
- Atypical
- Special

Q2.15

How important are these attributes when purchasing laundry detergent?

Please allocate 100 points between these two attributes in a way that indicates their relative importance when you are purchasing laundry detergent.

(Total must add to 100):

Stain-removal	0 Points
Value-for-money	0 Points
Total	0 Points

Q2.16

Let's consider the adverts again;

Comparing the brands in terms of what they offer, which seems more attractive?

Kala is much more attractive					Equally attractive					Pica is much more attractive
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q2.17

In no more than 10 words, what makes this brand of detergent more attractive than the other brand?

Q2.18

Which are you more likely to purchase?

Based on the information in the adverts, which brand are you more likely to purchase?

Kala ○ Pica ○

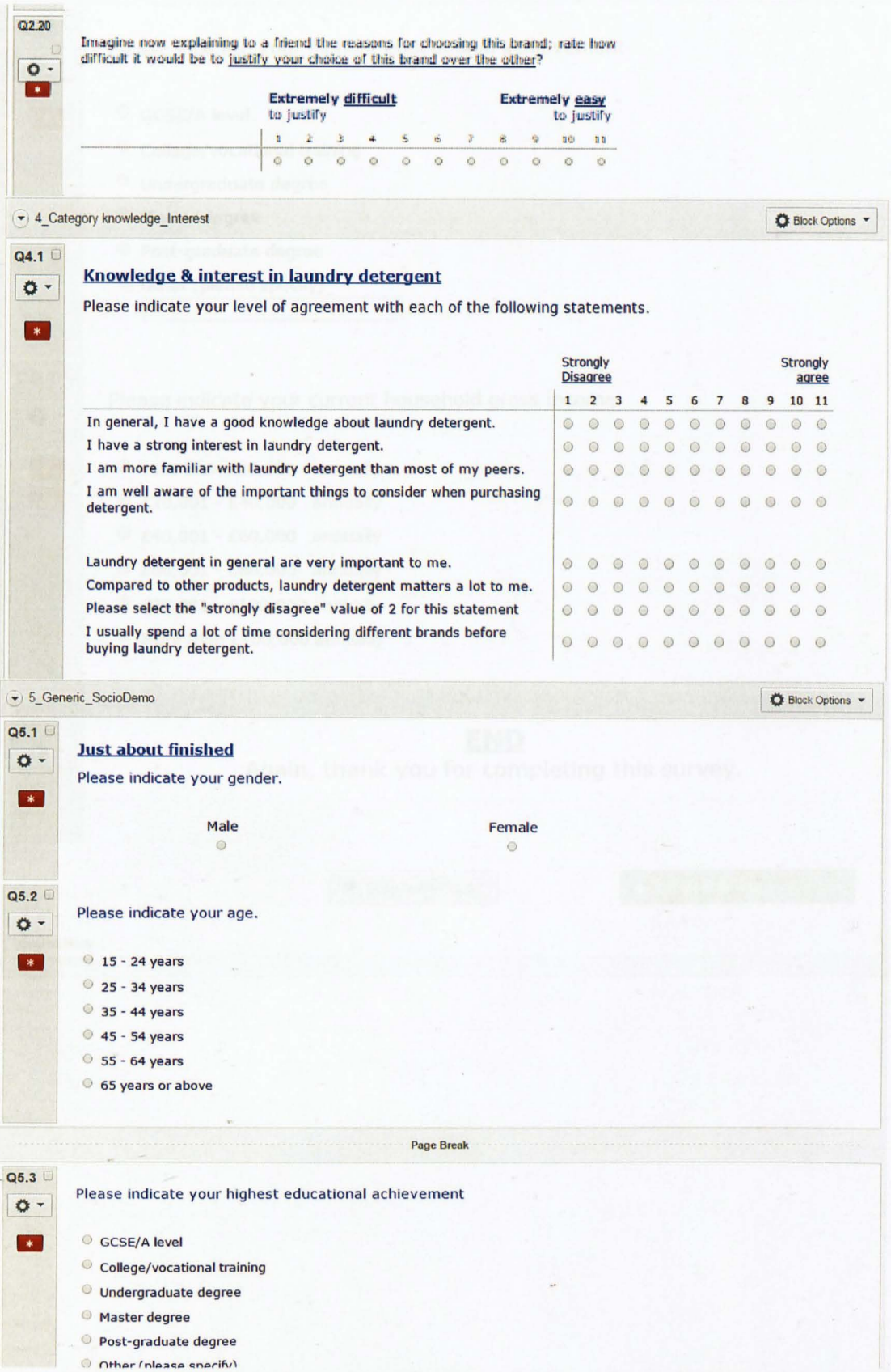
Q2.19

Referring back to the particular brand you chose:

Rate the extent you would say that the detergent brand you've chosen offers:

Just about the same overall benefits as the other brand										Significantly more overall benefits than the other brand
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Research instrument



Q2.20

Imagine now explaining to a friend the reasons for choosing this brand; rate how difficult it would be to justify your choice of this brand over the other?

	Extremely difficult to justify									Extremely easy to justify
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

4_Category knowledge_Interest — Block Options

Q4.1

Knowledge & interest in laundry detergent

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Strongly agree 11
In general, I have a good knowledge about laundry detergent.											
I have a strong interest in laundry detergent.											
I am more familiar with laundry detergent than most of my peers.											
I am well aware of the important things to consider when purchasing detergent.											
Laundry detergent in general are very important to me.											
Compared to other products, laundry detergent matters a lot to me.											
Please select the "strongly disagree" value of 2 for this statement											
I usually spend a lot of time considering different brands before buying laundry detergent.											

5_Generic_SocioDemo — Block Options

Q5.1

Just about finished

Please indicate your gender.

Male ○ Female ○

Q5.2

Please indicate your age.

- ○ 15 - 24 years
- ○ 25 - 34 years
- ○ 35 - 44 years
- ○ 45 - 54 years
- ○ 55 - 64 years
- ○ 65 years or above

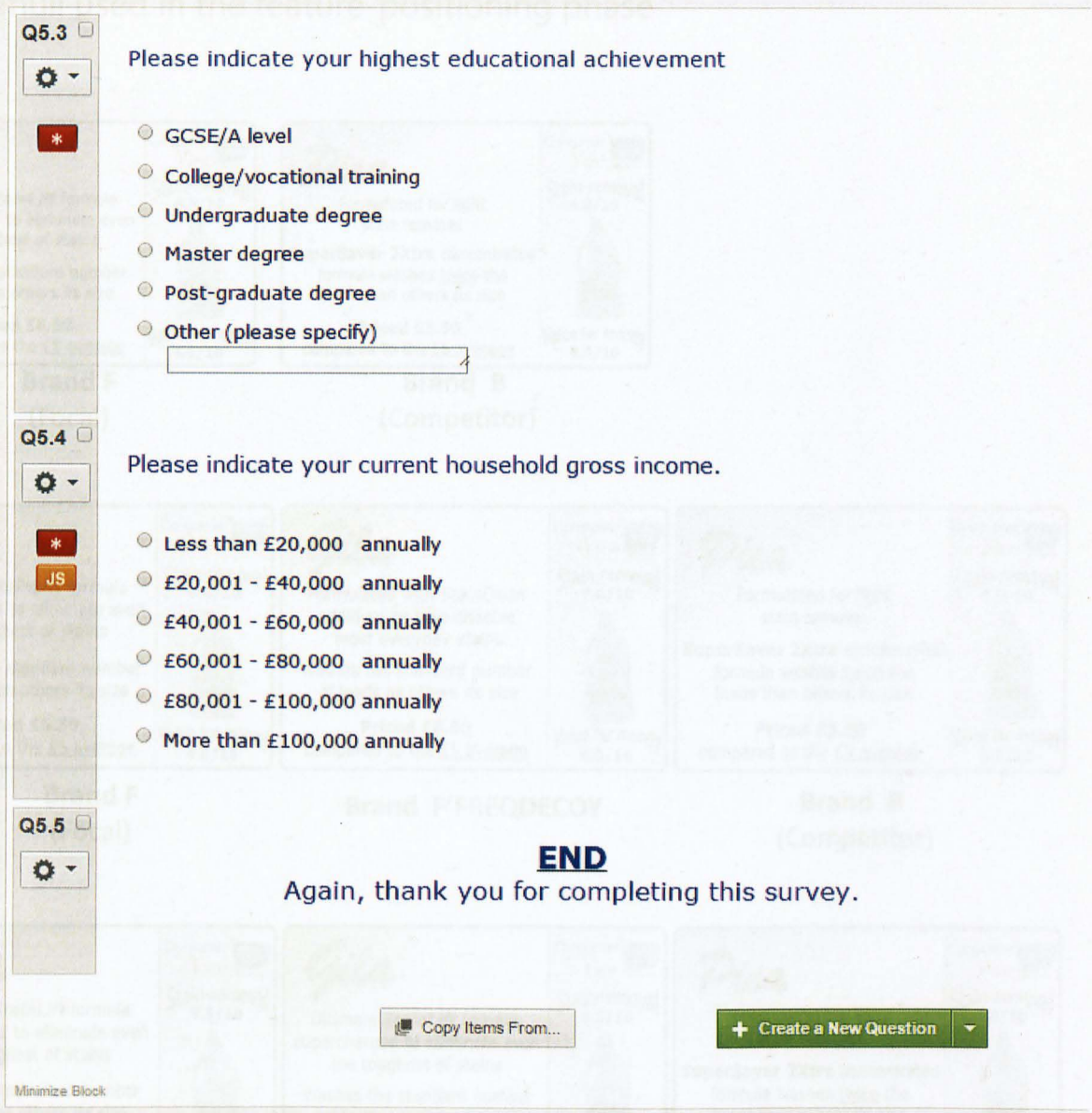
Page Break

Q5.3

Please indicate your highest educational achievement

- ○ GCSE/A level
- ○ College/vocational training
- ○ Undergraduate degree
- ○ Master degree
- ○ Post-graduate degree
- ○ Other (please specify)

Research instrument



APPENDIX C2

Stimuli used in the feature-positioning phase

Brand F
(Focal)

Brand B
(Competitor)

Brand F
(Focal)

Brand F'FREQ**DECOY**

Brand B
(Competitor)

Brand F
(Focal)

Brand F"RANGE**DECOY**

Brand B
(Competitor)

Stimuli used in the Benefit-positioning phase

Brand C
(Focal)

Brand F
(Competitor)

Brand C
(Focal)

Brand B'FREQDECOY

Brand F
(Competitor)

Brand C
(Focal)

Brand B"RANGEDECOY

Brand F
(Competitor)

APPENDIX D1
Feature positioning: Favourability 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	162
	2	Exp_f1 Decoy	178
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	182
	2	Benefit-Focus	67
	3	Indifferent	91

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.2840	2.34646	81
	Benefit-Focus	3.3077	2.16830	26
	Indifferent	5.6000	2.01476	55
	Total	6.0741	2.62230	162
Exp_f1 Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.3168	2.97298	101
	Benefit-Focus	3.5122	2.14618	41
	Indifferent	5.1389	2.78929	36
	Total	6.0000	3.18542	178
Total	Feature-Focus	7.3022	2.70500	182
	Benefit-Focus	3.4328	2.14069	67
	Indifferent	5.4176	2.34789	91
	Total	6.0353	2.92662	340

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	790.601[a]	7	112.943	17.746	.000	.272	124.223	1.000
Intercept	665.819	1	665.819	104.616	.000	.240	104.616	1.000
Category_Involvement	3.240	1	3.240	.509	.476	.002	.509	.110
Category_Knowledge	.354	1	.354	.056	.814	.000	.056	.056
Condition	.468	1	.468	.074	.786	.000	.074	.058
Attribute_Influence	729.105	2	364.553	57.280	.000	.257	114.560	1.000
Condition * Attribute_Influence	3.459	2	1.729	.272	.762	.002	.543	.093
Error	2112.975	332	6.364					
Total	15288.000	340						
Corrected Total	2903.576	339						

a. R Squared = .272 (Adjusted R Squared = .257)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	5.411[a]	.222	4.975	5.847
Exp_f1 Decoy	5.328[a]	.211	4.912	5.743

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6922, Category_Knowledge = 6.3750.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1 Decoy	.083	.307	.786	-.521	.688
Exp_f1 Decoy	Ctrl_FC	-.083	.307	.786	-.688	.521

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	.468	1	.468	.074	.786	.000	.074	.058
Error	2112.975	332	6.364					

Feature positioning: Favourability 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.292[a]	.189	6.920	7.665
Benefit-Focus	3.440[a]	.318	2.814	4.067
Indifferent	5.375[a]	.272	4.840	5.910

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6922, Category_Knowledge = 6.3750.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	3.852*	.372	.000	2.959	4.745
	Indifferent	1.917*	.333	.000	1.117	2.717
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-3.852*	.372	.000	-4.745	-2.959
	Indifferent	-1.935*	.417	.000	-2.937	-.933
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-1.917*	.333	.000	-2.717	-1.117
	Benefit-Focus	1.935*	.417	.000	.933	2.937

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

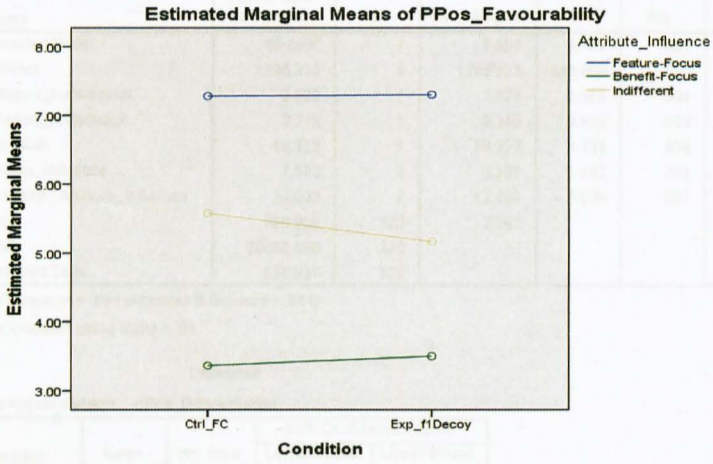
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

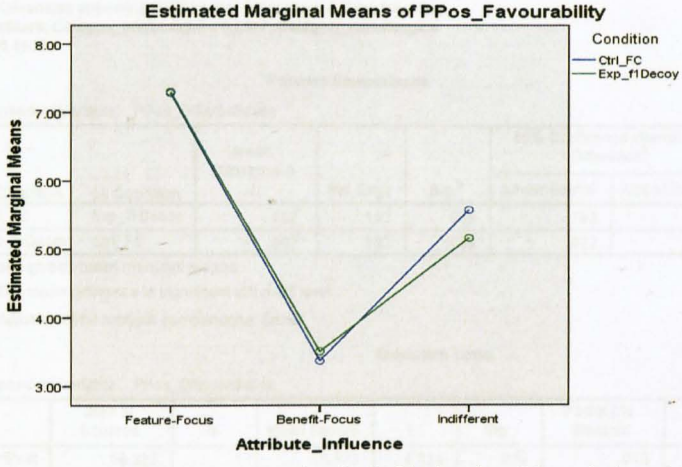
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	729.105	2	364.553	57.280	.000	.257	114.560	1.000
Error	2112.975	332	6.364					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6922, Category_Knowledge = 6.3750



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6922, Category_Knowledge = 6.3750

Feature positioning: Differentiation 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	166
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	179
	2	Benefit-Focus	66
	3	Indifferent	85

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.2249	1.58080	83
	Benefit-Focus	7.4103	1.57285	26
	Indifferent	7.4727	1.49442	55
	Total	7.3374	1.54593	164
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.2049	1.46089	96
	Benefit-Focus	7.8667	1.80660	40
	Indifferent	7.0778	1.44021	30
	Total	7.9197	1.59426	166
Total	Feature-Focus	7.7505	1.59072	179
	Benefit-Focus	7.6869	1.72054	66
	Indifferent	7.3333	1.47913	85
	Total	7.6303	1.59492	330

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	69.898[a]	7	9.985	4.192	.000	.084	29.344	.989
Intercept	1295.323	1	1295.323	543.800	.000	.628	543.800	1.000
Category_Involvement	2.523	1	2.523	1.059	.304	.003	1.059	.177
Category_Knowledge	9.249	1	9.249	3.883	.050	.012	3.883	.502
Condition	10.323	1	10.323	4.334	.038	.013	4.334	.546
Attribute_Influence	7.582	2	3.791	1.592	.205	.010	3.183	.336
Condition * Attribute_Influence	24.003	2	12.001	5.038	.007	.030	10.077	.815
Error	766.999	322	2.382					
Total	20050.000	330						
Corrected Total	836.897	329						

a. R Squared = .084 (Adjusted R Squared = .064)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	7.353[a]	.136	7.086	7.620
Exp_f1Decoy	7.755[a]	.136	7.487	8.023

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7617, Category_Knowledge = 6.4106.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	-.402*	.193	.038	-.782	-.022
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.402*	.193	.038	.022	.782

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	10.323	1	10.323	4.334	.038	.013	4.334	.546
Error	766.999	322	2.382					

Feature positioning_Differentiation 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.688[a]	.116	7.459	7.917
Benefit-Focus	7.656[a]	.196	7.270	8.042
Indifferent	7.318[a]	.176	6.971	7.665

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7617, Category_Knowledge = 6.4106.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.032	.229	.999	-.517	.581
	Indifferent	.370	.212	.227	-.140	.880
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.032	.229	.999	-.581	.517
	Indifferent	.338	.263	.488	-.294	.971
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.370	.212	.227	-.880	.140
	Benefit-Focus	-.338	.263	.488	-.971	.294

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

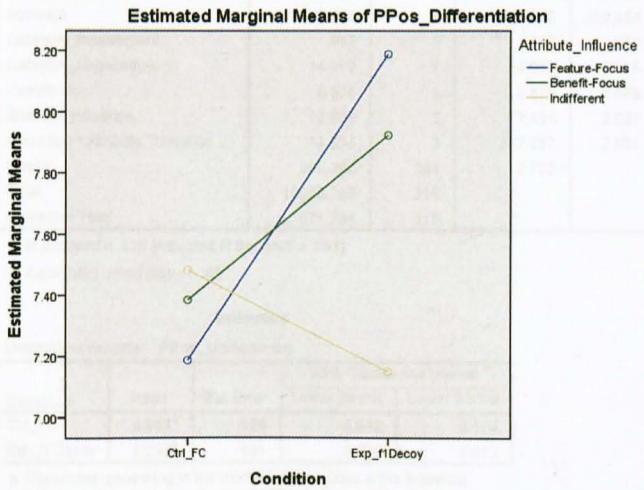
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

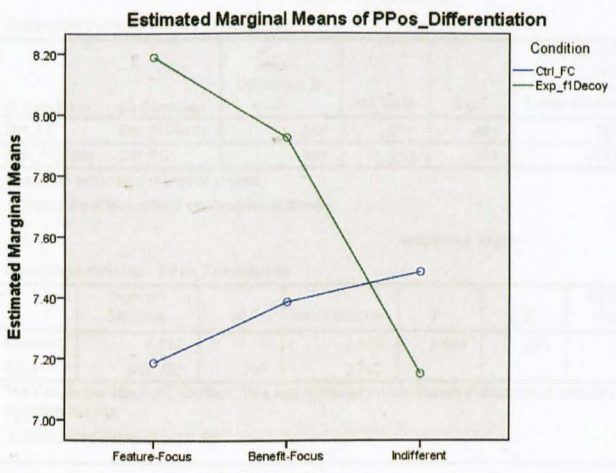
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	7.582	2	3.791	1.592	.205	.010	3.183	.336
Error	766.999	322	2.382					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7617, Category_Knowledge = 6.4106



Feature positioning: Uniqueness 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	142
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	174
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	169
	2	Benefit-Focus	65
	3	Indifferent	82

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	5.8979	1.13120	71
	Benefit-Focus	5.6875	1.40699	24
	Indifferent	5.9415	1.43729	47
	Total	5.8768	1.28056	142
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	6.9082	2.08714	98
	Benefit-Focus	5.7561	1.70980	41
	Indifferent	5.9286	1.92847	35
	Total	6.4397	2.03402	174
Total	Feature-Focus	6.4837	1.81617	169
	Benefit-Focus	5.7308	1.59363	65
	Indifferent	5.9360	1.65356	82
	Total	6.1867	1.75638	316

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	111.347[a]	7	15.907	5.694	.000	.115	39.860	.999
Intercept	586.509	1	586.509	209.958	.000	.405	209.958	1.000
Category_Involvement	.147	1	.147	.053	.819	.000	.053	.056
Category_Knowledge	14.012	1	14.012	5.016	.026	.016	5.016	.607
Condition	8.570	1	8.570	3.068	.081	.010	3.068	.415
Attribute_Influence	14.989	2	7.494	2.683	.070	.017	5.366	.530
Condition * Attribute_Influence	14.534	2	7.267	2.601	.076	.017	5.203	.516
Error	860.387	308	2.793					
Total	13066.750	316						
Corrected Total	971.734	315						

a. R Squared = .115 (Adjusted R Squared = .094)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	5.867[a]	.156	5.560	6.174
Exp_f1Decoy	6.236[a]	.141	5.959	6.512

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.5886, Category_Knowledge = 6.2505.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	-.368	.210	.081	-.782	.045
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.368	.210	.081	-.045	.782

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	8.570	1	8.570	3.068	.081	.010	3.068	.415
Error	860.387	308	2.793					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Feature positioning: Uniqueness 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	6.347[a]	.131	6.089	6.606
Benefit-Focus	5.799[a]	.217	5.373	6.225
Indifferent	6.007[a]	.188	5.638	6.377

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.5886, Category_Knowledge = 6.2505.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.548	.254	.093	-.063	1.159
	Indifferent	.340	.230	.366	-.213	.893
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.548	.254	.093	-1.159	.063
	Indifferent	-.208	.285	.848	-.894	.477
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.340	.230	.366	-.893	.213
	Benefit-Focus	.208	.285	.848	-.477	.894

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

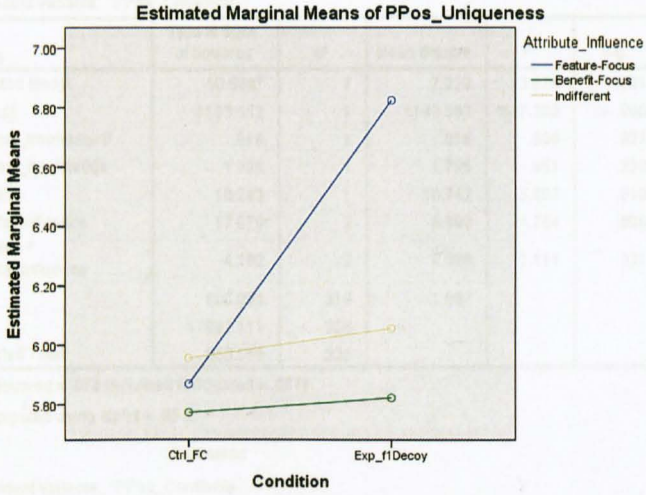
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

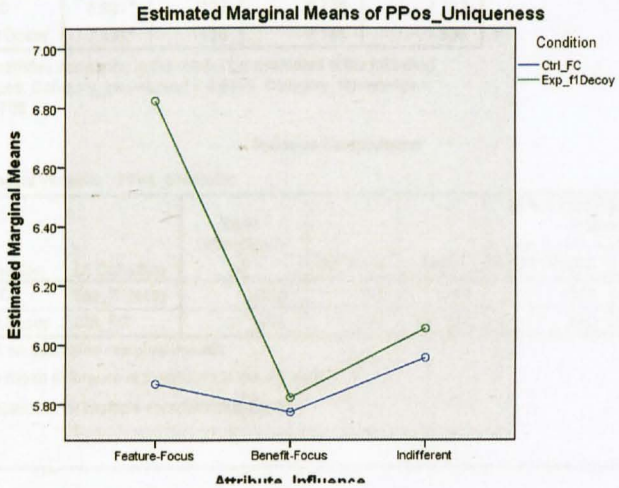
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	14.989	2	7.494	2.683	.070	.017	5.366	.530
Error	860.387	308	2.793					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.5886, Category_Knowledge = 6.2505



Feature positioning: Credibility 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	156
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	170
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	179
	2	Benefit-Focus	63
	3	Indifferent	84

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.1477	1.13698	79
	Benefit-Focus	7.0000	1.06667	26
	Indifferent	6.8235	1.30188	51
	Total	7.0171	1.18400	156
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.7867	1.42569	100
	Benefit-Focus	7.4955	1.86855	37
	Indifferent	6.8687	1.39925	33
	Total	7.5451	1.55871	170
Total	Feature-Focus	7.5047	1.34097	179
	Benefit-Focus	7.2910	1.59580	63
	Indifferent	6.8413	1.33281	84
	Total	7.2924	1.41483	326

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	50.564[a]	7	7.223	3.828	.001	.078	26.799	.980
Intercept	1183.552	1	1183.552	627.280	.000	.664	627.280	1.000
Category_Involvement	.016	1	.016	.008	.927	.000	.008	.051
Category_Knowledge	1.795	1	1.795	.951	.330	.003	.951	.163
Condition	10.742	1	10.742	5.693	.018	.018	5.693	.662
Attribute_Influence	17.979	2	8.989	4.764	.009	.029	9.529	.791
Condition * Attribute_Influence	4.192	2	2.096	1.111	.331	.007	2.222	.245
Error	600.002	318	1.887					
Total	17987.111	326						
Corrected Total	650.566	325						

a. R Squared = .078 (Adjusted R Squared = .057)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	6.991[a]	.122	6.750	7.232
Exp_f1Decoy	7.401[a]	.120	7.165	7.636

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6953, Category_Knowledge = 6.3706.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	-.410*	.172	.018	-.748	-.072
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.410*	.172	.018	.072	.748

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Feature positioning: Credibility 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.451[a]	.104	7.246	7.655
Benefit-Focus	7.266[a]	.177	6.918	7.613
Indifferent	6.872[a]	.155	6.568	7.176

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6953, Category_Knowledge = 6.3706.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.185	.206	.749	-.309	.679
	Indifferent	.579*	.188	.007	.129	1.029
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.185	.206	.749	-.679	.309
	Indifferent	.394	.234	.254	-.167	.955
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.579*	.188	.007	-1.029	-.129
	Benefit-Focus	-.394	.234	.254	-.955	.167

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

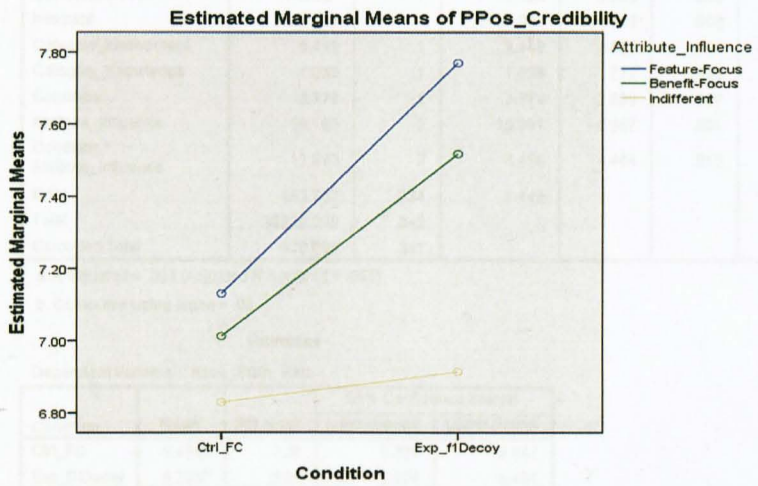
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

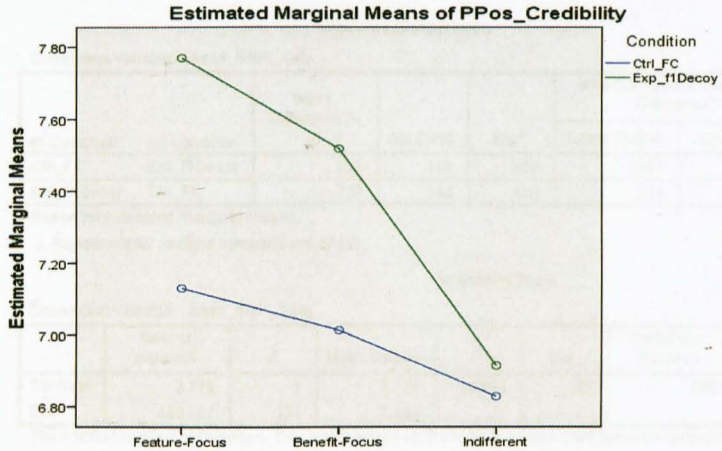
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	17.979	2	8.989	4.764	.009	.029	9.529	.791
Error	600.002	318	1.887					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6953, Category_Knowledge = 6.3706



Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_F_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	178
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	184
	2	Benefit-Focus	67
	3	Indifferent	91

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	9.2651	1.13787	83
	Benefit-Focus	9.6923	1.01071	26
	Indifferent	9.2909	1.22735	55
	Total	9.3415	1.15349	164
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	9.5347	1.27722	101
	Benefit-Focus	9.4878	1.07522	41
	Indifferent	8.5556	1.46277	36
	Total	9.3258	1.32576	178
Total	Feature-Focus	9.4130	1.22052	184
	Benefit-Focus	9.5672	1.04771	67
	Indifferent	9.0000	1.36626	91
	Total	9.3333	1.24434	342

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	44.238[a]	7	6.320	4.363	.000	.084	30.543	.991
Intercept	2020.087	1	2020.087	1394.712	.000	.807	1394.712	1.000
Category_Involvement	9.449	1	9.449	6.523	.011	.019	6.523	.721
Category_Knowledge	1.039	1	1.039	.717	.398	.002	.717	.135
Condition	3.779	1	3.779	2.609	.107	.008	2.609	.364
Attribute_Influence	20.182	2	10.091	6.967	.001	.040	13.934	.925
Condition * Attribute_Influence	12.932	2	6.466	4.464	.012	.026	8.929	.763
Error	483.762	334	1.448					
Total	30320.000	342						
Corrected Total	528.000	341						

a. R Squared = .084 (Adjusted R Squared = .065)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	9.439[a]	.106	9.231	9.647
Exp_f1Decoy	9.203[a]	.101	9.004	9.401

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	.236	.146	.107	-.052	.524
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	-.236	.146	.107	-.524	.052

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	3.779	1	3.779	2.609	.107	.008	2.609	.364
Error	483.762	334	1.448					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated

Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_F_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	9.385[a]	.090	9.208	9.561
Benefit-Focus	9.643[a]	.152	9.344	9.942
Indifferent	8.935[a]	.130	8.679	9.190

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.259	.177	.377	-.684	.167
	Indifferent	.450*	.159	.015	.069	.831
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.259	.177	.377	-.167	.684
	Indifferent	.709*	.199	.001	.231	1.186
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.450*	.159	.015	-.831	-.069
	Benefit-Focus	-.709*	.199	.001	-1.186	-.231

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

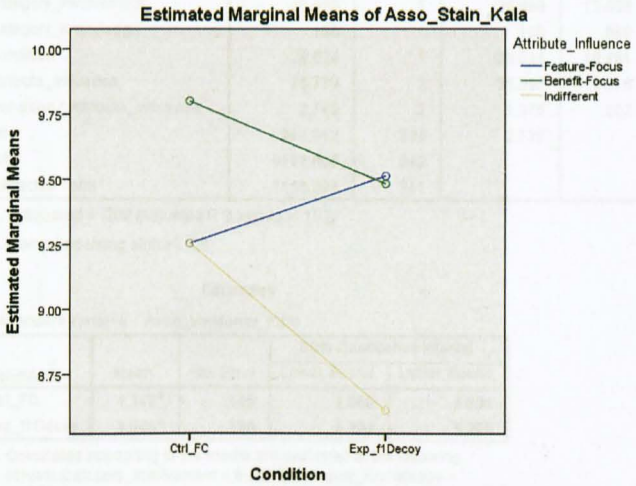
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

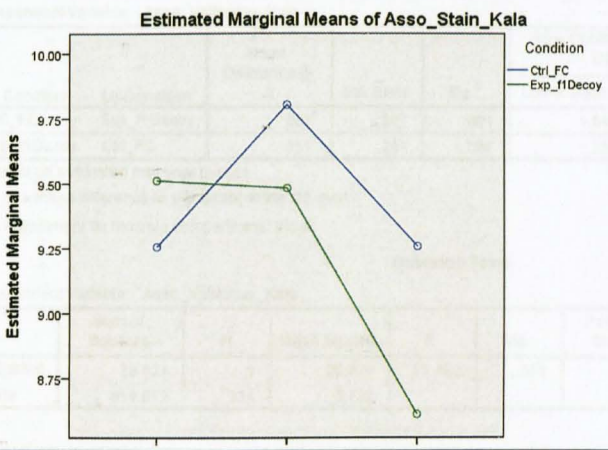
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	20.182	2	10.091	6.967	.001	.040	13.934	.925
Error	483.762	334	1.448					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864



Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_B_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	178
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	184
	2	Benefit-Focus	67
	3	Indifferent	91

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	4.6386	1.47812	83
	Benefit-Focus	3.3077	.83758	26
	Indifferent	4.9636	1.89506	55
	Total	4.5366	1.64444	164
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	5.5446	1.84133	101
	Benefit-Focus	4.0732	1.82195	41
	Indifferent	5.1944	2.06770	36
	Total	5.1348	1.96691	178
Total	Feature-Focus	5.1359	1.74244	184
	Benefit-Focus	3.7761	1.55525	67
	Indifferent	5.0549	1.95711	91
	Total	4.8480	1.84128	342

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	241.281[a]	7	34.469	12.585	.000	.209	88.092	1.000
Intercept	217.855	1	217.855	79.539	.000	.192	79.539	1.000
Category_Involvement	36.999	1	36.999	13.508	.000	.039	13.508	.956
Category_Knowledge	.180	1	.180	.066	.798	.000	.066	.058
Condition	28.624	1	28.624	10.451	.001	.030	10.451	.897
Attribute_Influence	76.779	2	38.390	14.016	.000	.077	28.032	.998
Condition * Attribute_Influence	2.749	2	1.375	.502	.606	.003	1.004	.132
Error	914.812	334	2.739					
Total	9194.000	342						
Corrected Total	1156.094	341						

a. R Squared = .209 (Adjusted R Squared = .192)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	4.346[a]	.145	4.060	4.631
Exp_f1Decoy	4.996[a]	.139	4.724	5.269

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	-.651*	.201	.001	-1.047	-.255
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.651*	.201	.001	.255	1.047

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	28.624	1	28.624	10.451	.001	.030	10.451	.897
Error	914.812	334	2.739					

Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_B_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	5.028[a]	.124	4.785	5.271
Benefit-Focus	3.842[a]	.209	3.431	4.253
Indifferent	5.143[a]	.178	4.792	5.494

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	1.186*	.244	.000	.600	1.771
	Indifferent	-.116	.218	.934	-.640	.408
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-1.186*	.244	.000	-1.771	-.600
	Indifferent	-1.301*	.274	.000	-1.958	-.644
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	.116	.218	.934	-.408	.640
	Benefit-Focus	1.301*	.274	.000	.644	1.958

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

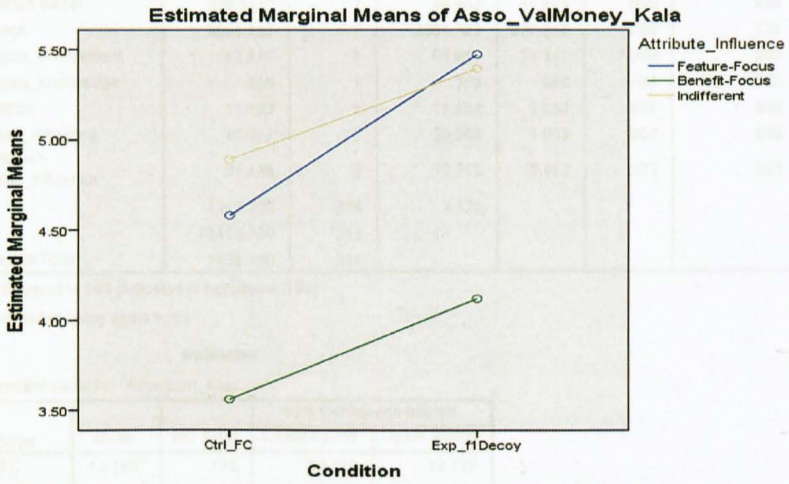
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

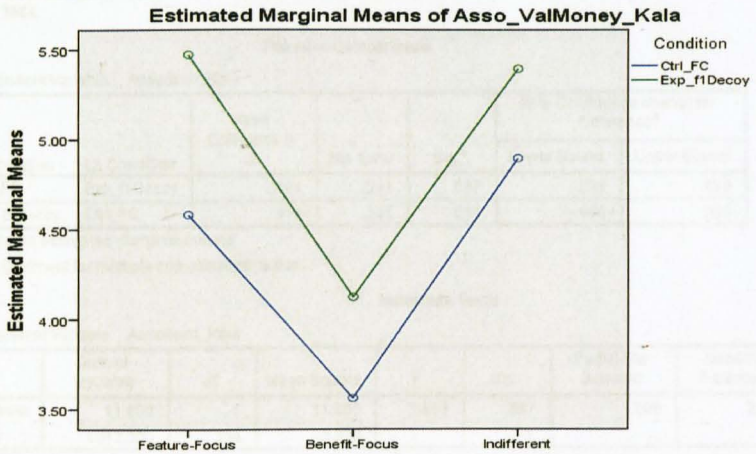
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	76.779	2	38.390	14.016	.000	.077	28.032	.998
Error	914.812	334	2.739					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864



Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_SUM_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	178
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	184
	2	Benefit-Focus	67
	3	Indifferent	91

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	13.9036	1.85192	83
	Benefit-Focus	13.0000	1.32665	26
	Indifferent	14.2545	2.07470	55
	Total	13.8780	1.89536	164
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	15.0792	2.23912	101
	Benefit-Focus	13.5610	2.21415	41
	Indifferent	13.7500	2.60082	36
	Total	14.4607	2.40553	178
Total	Feature-Focus	14.5489	2.14955	184
	Benefit-Focus	13.3433	1.92710	67
	Indifferent	14.0549	2.29668	91
	Total	14.1813	2.19220	342

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	326.561[a]	7	46.652	11.874	.000	.199	83.121	1.000
Intercept	3564.722	1	3564.722	907.345	.000	.731	907.345	1.000
Category_Involvement	83.841	1	83.841	21.341	.000	.060	21.341	.996
Category_Knowledge	.355	1	.355	.090	.764	.000	.090	.060
Condition	11.602	1	11.602	2.953	.087	.009	2.953	.403
Attribute_Influence	40.017	2	20.009	5.093	.007	.030	10.186	.819
Condition * Attribute_Influence	27.436	2	13.718	3.492	.032	.020	6.983	.650
Error	1312.200	334	3.929					
Total	70418.000	342						
Corrected Total	1638.760	341						

a. R Squared = .199 (Adjusted R Squared = .182)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	13.785[a]	.174	13.443	14.127
Exp_f1Decoy	14.199[a]	.166	13.872	14.526

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	-.414	.241	.087	-.888	.060
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.414	.241	.087	-.060	.888

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	11.602	1	11.602	2.953	.087	.009	2.953	.403
Error	1312.200	334	3.929					

Feature positioning: Value shift PA SUM 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	14.412[a]	.148	14.121	14.703
Benefit-Focus	13.485[a]	.250	12.993	13.978
Indifferent	14.078[a]	.214	13.658	14.498

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.927*	.292	.005	.226	1.628
	Indifferent	.334	.261	.491	-.293	.962
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.927*	.292	.005	-1.628	-.226
	Indifferent	-.593	.328	.200	-1.380	.194
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.334	.261	.491	-.962	.293
	Benefit-Focus	.593	.328	.200	-.194	1.380

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

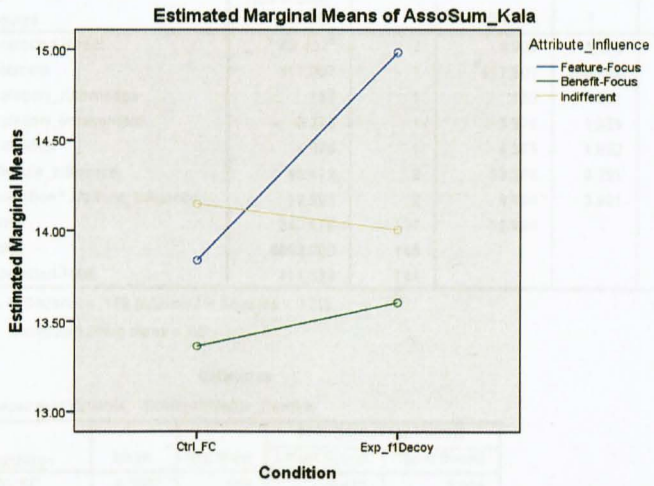
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

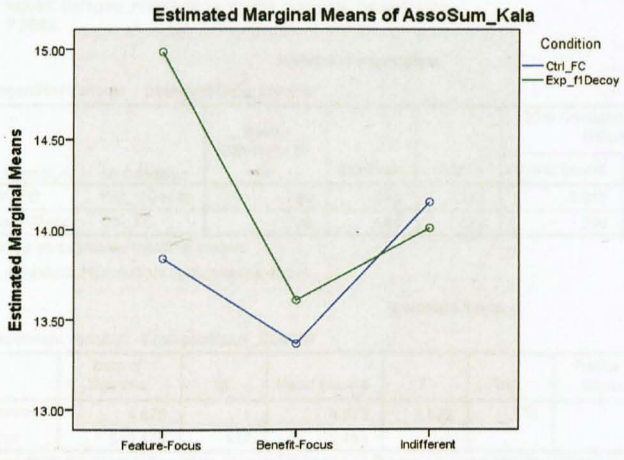
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	40.017	2	20.009	5.093	.007	.030	10.186	.819
Error	1312.200	334	3.929					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864



Feature positioning: emergent-value_dominant valuing_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	74
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	71
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	114
	2	Benefit-Focus	5
	3	Indifferent	26

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.43	1.693	53
	Benefit-Focus	4.00	.000	2
	Indifferent	7.37	1.640	19
	Total	7.32	1.737	74
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.18	1.597	61
	Benefit-Focus	6.33	.577	3
	Indifferent	6.71	.488	7
	Total	7.96	1.590	71
Total	Feature-Focus	7.83	1.677	114
	Benefit-Focus	5.40	1.342	5
	Indifferent	7.19	1.443	26
	Total	7.63	1.691	145

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	69.452[a]	7	9.922	3.972	.001	.169	27.807	.981
Intercept	517.007	1	517.007	206.999	.000	.602	206.999	1.000
Category_Knowledge	.153	1	.153	.061	.805	.000	.061	.057
Category_Involvement	3.375	1	3.375	1.351	.247	.010	1.351	.211
Condition	4.575	1	4.575	1.832	.178	.013	1.832	.269
Attribute_Influence	46.412	2	23.206	9.291	.000	.119	18.582	.976
Condition * Attribute_Influence	12.992	2	6.496	2.601	.078	.037	5.202	.511
Error	342.176	137	2.498					
Total	8863.000	145						
Corrected Total	411.628	144						

a. R Squared = .169 (Adjusted R Squared = .126)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	6.203[a]	.400	5.411	6.994
Exp_f1Decoy	6.941[a]	.376	6.198	7.684

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.7298, Category_Involvement = 7.0092.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	-.738	.545	.178	-1.817	.340
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.738	.545	.178	-.340	1.817

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	4.575	1	4.575	1.832	.178	.013	1.832	.269
Error	342.176	137	2.498					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means

Feature positioning: emergent-value_dominant valuing_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.826[a]	.149	7.532	8.120
Benefit-Focus	4.901[a]	.734	3.451	6.352
Indifferent	6.988[a]	.350	6.296	7.681

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.7298, Category_Involvement = 7.0092.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	2.925*	.750	.000	1.112	4.737
	Indifferent	.837	.381	.087	-.084	1.759
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-2.925*	.750	.000	-4.737	-1.112
	Indifferent	-2.087*	.809	.032	-4.042	-.133
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.837	.381	.087	-1.759	.084
	Benefit-Focus	2.087*	.809	.032	.133	4.042

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

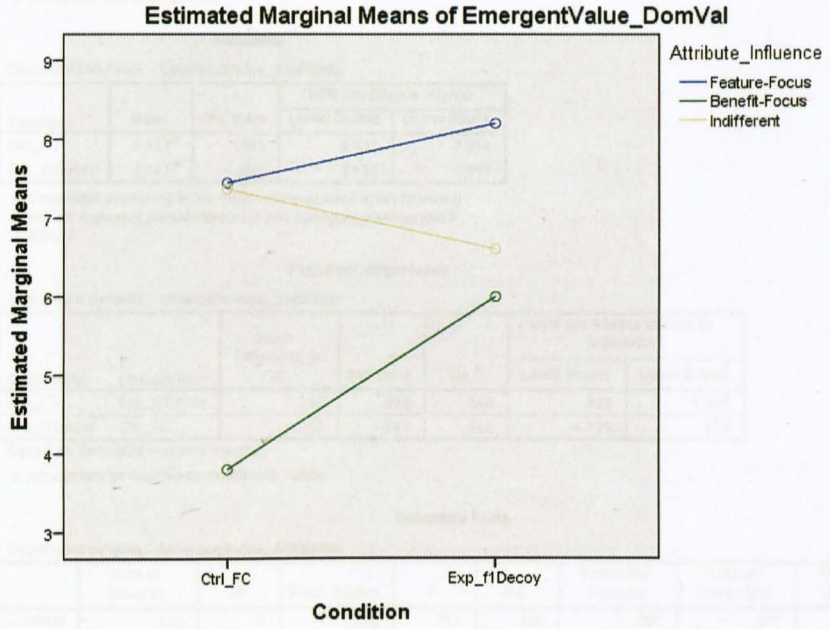
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	46.412	2	23.206	9.291	.000	.119	18.582	.976
Error	342.176	137	2.498					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.7298, Category_Involvement = 7.0092

Feature positioning: emergent-value_ease of justification _1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	74
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	71
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	114
	2	Benefit-Focus	5
	3	Indifferent	26

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.57	1.408	53
	Benefit-Focus	6.00	.000	2
	Indifferent	7.84	1.500	19
	Total	7.59	1.433	74
Exp_f1Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.52	1.804	61
	Benefit-Focus	6.00	.000	3
	Indifferent	6.00	.816	7
	Total	8.17	1.905	71
Total	Feature-Focus	8.08	1.694	114
	Benefit-Focus	6.00	.000	5
	Indifferent	7.35	1.573	26
	Total	7.88	1.699	145

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	75.532[a]	7	10.790	4.345	.000	.182	30.414	.989
Intercept	404.448	1	404.448	162.857	.000	.543	162.857	1.000
Category_Knowledge	2.221	1	2.221	.895	.346	.006	.895	.156
Category_Involvement	.555	1	.555	.224	.637	.002	.224	.076
Condition	.525	1	.525	.211	.646	.002	.211	.074
Attribute_Influence	35.628	2	17.814	7.173	.001	.095	14.346	.929
Condition * Attribute_Influence	34.591	2	17.296	6.964	.001	.092	13.929	.921
Error	340.233	137	2.483					
Total	9410.000	145						
Corrected Total	415.766	144						

a. R Squared = .182 (Adjusted R Squared = .140)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	7.127[a]	.399	6.337	7.916
Exp_f1Decoy	6.877[a]	.375	6.136	7.617

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.7298, Category_Involvement = 7.0092.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	.250	.544	.646	-.826	1.326
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	-.250	.544	.646	-1.326	.826

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	.525	1	.525	.211	.646	.002	.211	.074
Error	340.233	137	2.483					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Feature positioning: emergent-value_ease of justification _2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	8.039[a]	.148	7.746	8.332
Benefit-Focus	6.036[a]	.731	4.590	7.482
Indifferent	6.930[a]	.349	6.239	7.621

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.7298, Category_Involvement = 7.0092.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	2.003*	.748	.025	.196	3.811
	Indifferent	1.109*	.380	.012	.190	2.028
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-2.003*	.748	.025	-3.811	-.196
	Indifferent	-.894	.806	.610	-2.843	1.055
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-1.109*	.380	.012	-2.028	-.190
	Benefit-Focus	.894	.806	.610	-1.055	2.843

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

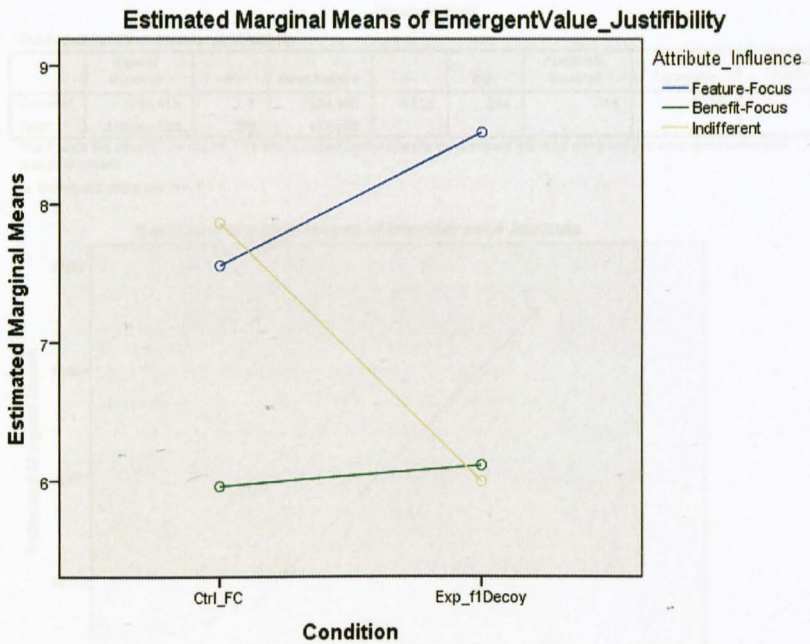
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	35.628	2	17.814	7.173	.001	.095	14.346	.929
Error	340.233	137	2.483					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.7298, Category_Involvement = 7.0092

Feature positioning: weight-change

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	2	Exp_f1Decoy	178

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

Condition	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	55.9756	16.02718	164
Exp_f1Decoy	60.7360	24.50488	178
Total	58.4532	20.97972	342

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	10236.745[a]	3	3412.248	8.247	.000	.068	24.740	.992
Intercept	47445.752	1	47445.752	114.667	.000	.253	114.667	1.000
Category_Involvement	12.761	1	12.761	.031	.861	.000	.031	.054
Category_Knowledge	3151.943	1	3151.943	7.618	.006	.022	7.618	.786
Condition	2534.468	1	2534.468	6.125	.014	.018	6.125	.694
Error	139854.006	338	413.769					
Total	1318629.000	342						
Corrected Total	150090.751	341						

a. R Squared = .068 (Adjusted R Squared = .060)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	55.604[a]	1.592	52.472	58.736
Exp_f1Decoy	61.079[a]	1.528	58.073	64.084

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7076, Category_Knowledge = 6.3864.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f1Decoy	-5.475*	2.212	.014	-9.826	-1.124
Exp_f1Decoy	Ctrl_FC	5.475*	2.212	.014	1.124	9.826

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

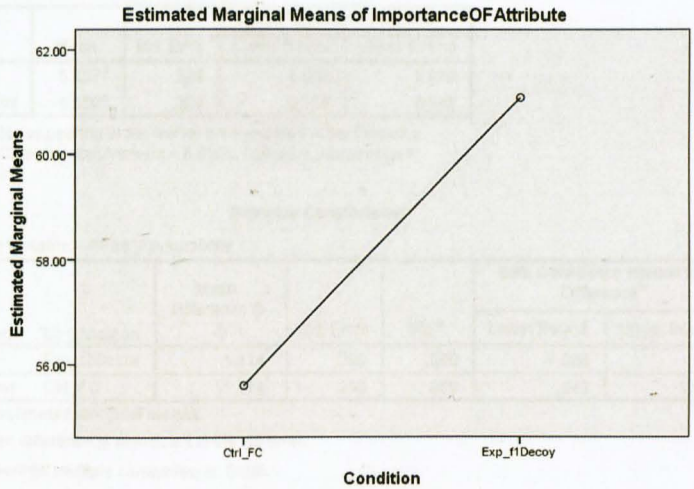
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	2534.468	1	2534.468	6.125	.014	.018	6.125	.694
Error	139854.006	338	413.769					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



APPENDIX D2

Feature positioning: Favourability 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	162
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	147
	2	Benefit-Focus	64
	3	Indifferent	99

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.2840	2.34646	81
	Benefit-Focus	3.3077	2.16830	26
	Indifferent	5.6000	2.01476	55
	Total	6.0741	2.62230	162
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.1515	3.10950	66
	Benefit-Focus	5.0000	1.94520	38
	Indifferent	7.5455	2.01684	44
	Total	6.7162	2.73312	148
Total	Feature-Focus	7.2245	2.70665	147
	Benefit-Focus	4.3125	2.18853	64
	Indifferent	6.4646	2.22836	99
	Total	6.3806	2.69068	310

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	539.025[a]	7	77.004	13.695	.000	.241	95.866	1.000
Intercept	787.849	1	787.849	140.119	.000	.317	140.119	1.000
Category_Involvement	20.462	1	20.462	3.639	.057	.012	3.639	.477
Category_Knowledge	19.996	1	19.996	3.556	.060	.012	3.556	.468
Condition	82.859	1	82.859	14.736	.000	.047	14.736	.969
Attribute_Influence	364.866	2	182.433	32.446	.000	.177	64.891	1.000
Condition * Attribute_Influence	79.385	2	39.692	7.059	.001	.045	14.119	.928
Error	1698.059	302	5.623					
Total	14858.000	310						
Corrected Total	2237.084	309						

a. R Squared = .241 (Adjusted R Squared = .223)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	5.437[a]	.209	5.025	5.848
Exp_f2Decoy	6.550[a]	.200	6.156	6.945

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8161, Category_Knowledge = 6.5263.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	-1.114*	.290	.000	-1.685	-.543
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	1.114*	.290	.000	.543	1.685

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Feature positioning: Favourability 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.212[a]	.197	6.824	7.600
Benefit-Focus	4.253[a]	.308	3.646	4.860
Indifferent	6.515[a]	.242	6.040	6.991

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8161, Category_Knowledge = 6.5263.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	2.959*	.368	.000	2.076	3.842
	Indifferent	.697	.311	.076	-.051	1.444
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-2.959*	.368	.000	-3.842	-2.076
	Indifferent	-2.262*	.396	.000	-3.212	-1.313
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.697	.311	.076	-1.444	.051
	Benefit-Focus	2.262*	.396	.000	1.313	3.212

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

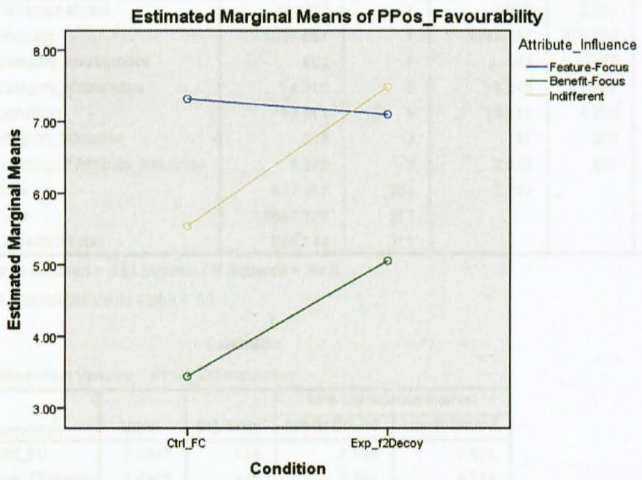
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

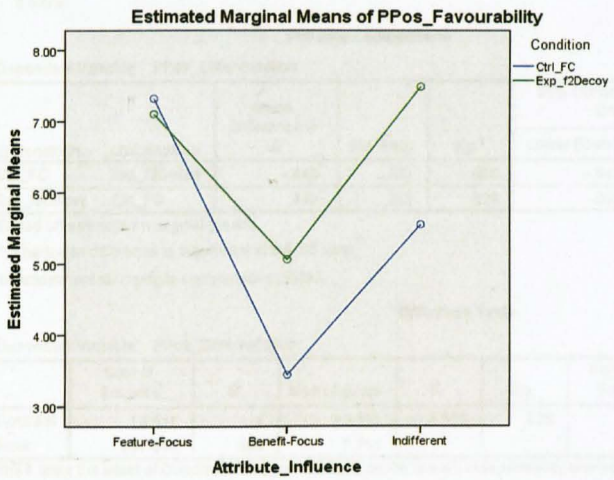
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	364.866	2	182.433	32.446	.000	.177	64.891	1.000
Error	1698.059	302	5.623					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8161, Category_Knowledge = 6.5263



Feature positioning: Differentiation 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	149
	2	Benefit-Focus	64
	3	Indifferent	99

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.2249	1.58080	83
	Benefit-Focus	7.4103	1.57285	26
	Indifferent	7.4727	1.49442	55
	Total	7.3374	1.54593	164
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.0303	1.79146	66
	Benefit-Focus	7.6316	2.00269	38
	Indifferent	7.8485	1.61622	44
	Total	7.8739	1.79417	148
Total	Feature-Focus	7.5817	1.71907	149
	Benefit-Focus	7.5417	1.83008	64
	Indifferent	7.6397	1.55305	99
	Total	7.5919	1.68705	312

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	47.827[a]	7	6.832	2.481	.017	.054	17.364	.873
Intercept	1037.557	1	1037.557	376.700	.000	.553	376.700	1.000
Category_Involvement	.483	1	.483	.175	.676	.001	.175	.070
Category_Knowledge	4.316	1	4.316	1.567	.212	.005	1.567	.239
Condition	13.511	1	13.511	4.905	.028	.016	4.905	.598
Attribute_Influence	.323	2	.161	.059	.943	.000	.117	.059
Condition * Attribute_Influence	5.273	2	2.636	.957	.385	.006	1.914	.216
Error	837.317	304	2.754					
Total	18867.778	312						
Corrected Total	885.144	311						

a. R Squared = .054 (Adjusted R Squared = .032)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	7.391[a]	.146	7.104	7.678
Exp_f2Decoy	7.840[a]	.140	7.564	8.116

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	-.449*	.203	.028	-.848	-.050
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.449*	.203	.028	.050	.848

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	13.511	1	13.511	4.905	.028	.016	4.905	.598
Error	837.317	304	2.754					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated

Feature positioning_Differentiation 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.601[a]	.137	7.331	7.871
Benefit-Focus	7.581[a]	.216	7.157	8.006
Indifferent	7.664[a]	.169	7.332	7.997

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.020	.257	1.000	-.598	.637
	Indifferent	-.063	.217	.988	-.585	.459
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.020	.257	1.000	-.637	.598
	Indifferent	-.083	.277	.987	-.747	.582
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	.063	.217	.988	-.459	.585
	Benefit-Focus	.083	.277	.987	-.582	.747

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

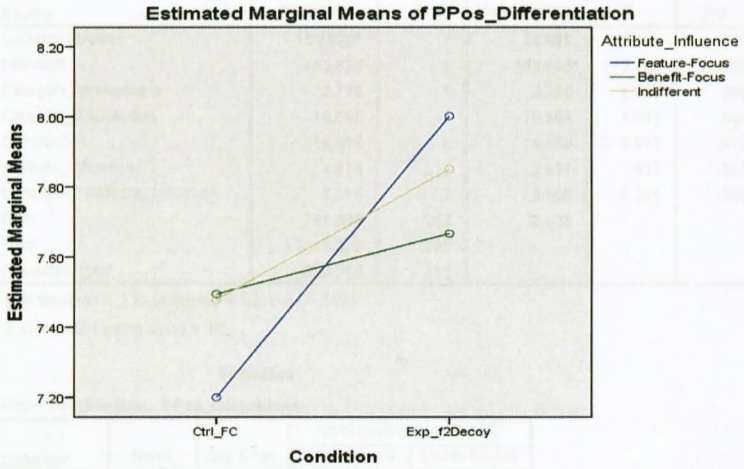
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

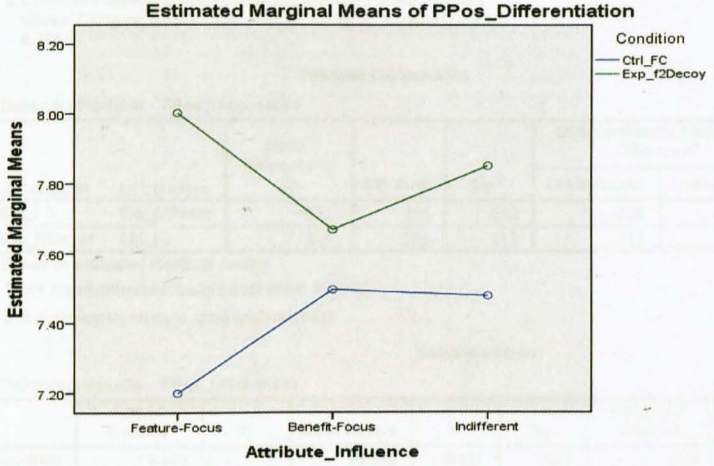
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	.323	2	.161	.059	.943	.000	.117	.059
Error	837.317	304	2.754					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379

Feature positioning: Uniqueness 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	142
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	137
	2	Benefit-Focus	62
	3	Indifferent	91

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	5.8979	1.13120	71
	Benefit-Focus	5.6875	1.40699	24
	Indifferent	5.9415	1.43729	47
	Total	5.8768	1.28056	142
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	6.8939	1.79211	66
	Benefit-Focus	6.3026	2.17569	38
	Indifferent	6.2159	2.05632	44
	Total	6.5405	1.98764	148
Total	Feature-Focus	6.3777	1.56305	137
	Benefit-Focus	6.0645	1.92585	62
	Indifferent	6.0742	1.75930	91
	Total	6.2155	1.70883	290

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	102.820[a]	7	14.689	5.589	.000	.122	39.125	.999
Intercept	452.633	1	452.633	172.237	.000	.379	172.237	1.000
Category_Involvement	2.775	1	2.775	1.056	.305	.004	1.056	.176
Category_Knowledge	10.595	1	10.595	4.032	.046	.014	4.032	.516
Condition	16.889	1	16.889	6.427	.012	.022	6.427	.714
Attribute_Influence	4.875	2	2.437	.927	.397	.007	1.855	.210
Condition * Attribute_Influence	7.016	2	3.508	1.335	.265	.009	2.670	.287
Error	741.085	282	2.628					
Total	12047.375	290						
Corrected Total	843.905	289						

a. R Squared = .122 (Adjusted R Squared = .100)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	5.918[a]	.152	5.619	6.217
Exp_f2Decoy	6.439[a]	.137	6.169	6.709

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6816, Category_Knowledge = 6.3856.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	-.521*	.206	.012	-.926	-.117
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.521*	.206	.012	.117	.926

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	16.889	1	16.889	6.427	.012	.022	6.427	.714
Error	741.085	282	2.628					

Feature positioning: Uniqueness 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	6.351[a]	.139	6.077	6.625
Benefit-Focus	6.106[a]	.216	5.680	6.532
Indifferent	6.079[a]	.171	5.742	6.415

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6816, Category_Knowledge = 6.3856.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.245	.259	.718	-.376	.866
	Indifferent	.272	.220	.520	-.256	.801
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.245	.259	.718	-.866	.376
	Indifferent	.027	.278	1.000	-.642	.696
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.272	.220	.520	-.801	.256
	Benefit-Focus	-.027	.278	1.000	-.696	.642

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

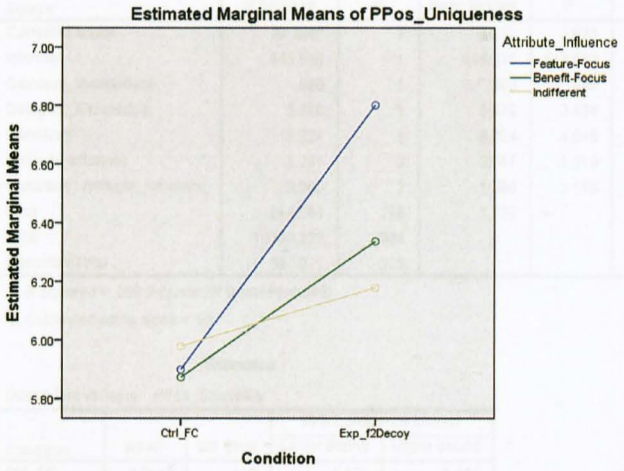
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

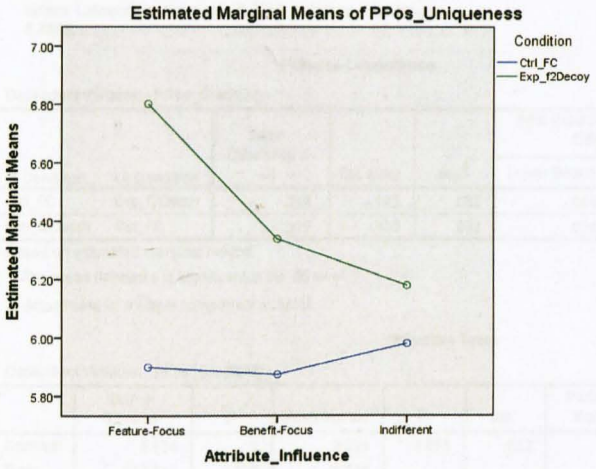
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	4.875	2	2.437	.927	.397	.007	1.855	.210
Error	741.085	282	2.628					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6816, Category_Knowledge = 6.3856



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.6816, Category_Knowledge = 6.3856

Feature positioning: Credibility 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	156
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	145
	2	Benefit-Focus	64
	3	Indifferent	95

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.1477	1.13698	79
	Benefit-Focus	7.0000	1.06667	26
	Indifferent	6.8235	1.30188	51
	Total	7.0171	1.18400	156
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.6061	1.39463	66
	Benefit-Focus	7.0000	1.77402	38
	Indifferent	7.4545	1.28817	44
	Total	7.4054	1.48285	148
Total	Feature-Focus	7.3563	1.27697	145
	Benefit-Focus	7.0000	1.51652	64
	Indifferent	7.1158	1.32691	95
	Total	7.2061	1.34970	304

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	37.386[a]	7	5.341	3.072	.004	.068	21.505	.941
Intercept	945.640	1	945.640	543.952	.000	.648	543.952	1.000
Category_Involvement	.060	1	.060	.034	.853	.000	.034	.054
Category_Knowledge	5.970	1	5.970	3.434	.065	.011	3.434	.455
Condition	8.024	1	8.024	4.616	.032	.015	4.616	.572
Attribute_Influence	5.281	2	2.641	1.519	.221	.010	3.038	.322
Condition * Attribute_Influence	3.990	2	1.995	1.148	.319	.008	2.295	.252
Error	514.584	296	1.738					
Total	16338.222	304						
Corrected Total	551.971	303						

a. R Squared = .068 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	7.004[a]	.118	6.772	7.236
Exp_f2Decoy	7.353[a]	.111	7.134	7.573

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7730, Category_Knowledge = 6.4863.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	-.349*	.163	.032	-.669	-.029
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.349*	.163	.032	.029	.669

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	8.024	1	8.024	4.616	.032	.015	4.616	.572
Error	514.584	296	1.738					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means

Feature positioning: Credibility 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.357[a]	.110	7.139	7.574
Benefit-Focus	7.025[a]	.171	6.688	7.362
Indifferent	7.154[a]	.136	6.885	7.422

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7730, Category_Knowledge = 6.4863.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.331	.205	.289	-.161	.823
	Indifferent	.203	.175	.576	-.218	.623
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.331	.205	.289	-.823	.161
	Indifferent	-.129	.221	.915	-.659	.402
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.203	.175	.576	-.623	.218
	Benefit-Focus	.129	.221	.915	-.402	.659

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

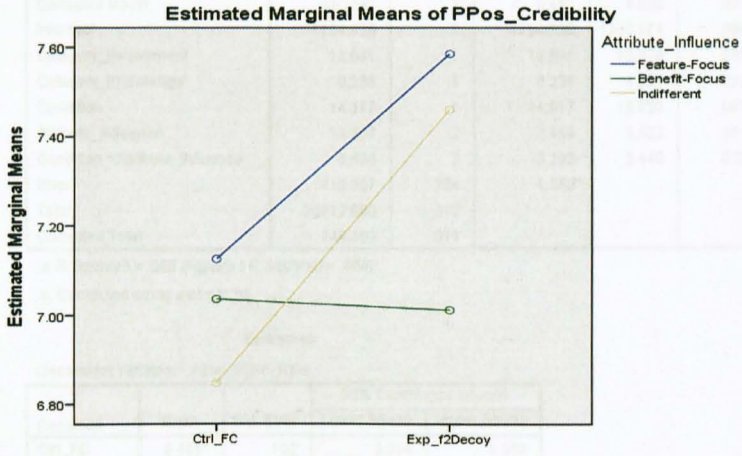
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

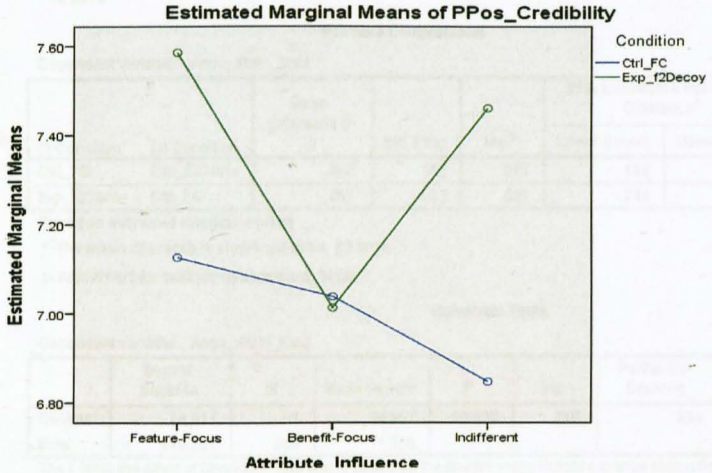
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	5.281	2	2.641	1.519	.221	.010	3.038	.322
Error	514.584	296	1.738					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.7730, Category_Knowledge = 6.4863



Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_F_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	149
	2	Benefit-Focus	64
	3	Indifferent	99

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	9.2651	1.13787	83
	Benefit-Focus	9.6923	1.01071	26
	Indifferent	9.2909	1.22735	55
	Total	9.3415	1.15349	164
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	9.2424	1.19048	66
	Benefit-Focus	9.1579	.88612	38
	Indifferent	8.5909	1.45183	44
	Total	9.0270	1.23413	148
Total	Feature-Focus	9.2550	1.15755	149
	Benefit-Focus	9.3750	.96773	64
	Indifferent	8.9798	1.37009	99
	Total	9.1923	1.20083	312

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	38.154[a]	7	5.451	4.038	.000	.085	28.269	.986
Intercept	1754.838	1	1754.838	1300.174	.000	.810	1300.174	1.000
Category_Involvement	13.941	1	13.941	10.329	.001	.033	10.329	.893
Category_Knowledge	6.236	1	6.236	4.621	.032	.015	4.621	.573
Condition	14.617	1	14.617	10.830	.001	.034	10.830	.907
Attribute_Influence	14.907	2	7.454	5.522	.004	.035	11.045	.850
Condition * Attribute_Influence	6.586	2	3.293	2.440	.089	.016	4.879	.489
Error	410.307	304	1.350					
Total	26812.000	312						
Corrected Total	448.462	311						

a. R Squared = .085 (Adjusted R Squared = .064)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	9.455[a]	.102	9.254	9.656
Exp_f2Decoy	8.988[a]	.098	8.794	9.181

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	.467*	.142	.001	.188	.746
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	-.467*	.142	.001	-.746	-.188

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	14.617	1	14.617	10.830	.001	.034	10.830	.907
Error	410.307	304	1.350					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated

Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_F_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	9.237[a]	.096	9.048	9.426
Benefit-Focus	9.527[a]	.151	9.229	9.824
Indifferent	8.900[a]	.118	8.667	9.133

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.290	.180	.292	-.722	.143
	Indifferent	.337	.152	.080	-.028	.703
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.290	.180	.292	-.143	.722
	Indifferent	.627*	.194	.004	.162	1.092
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.337	.152	.080	-.703	.028
	Benefit-Focus	-.627*	.194	.004	-1.092	-.162

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

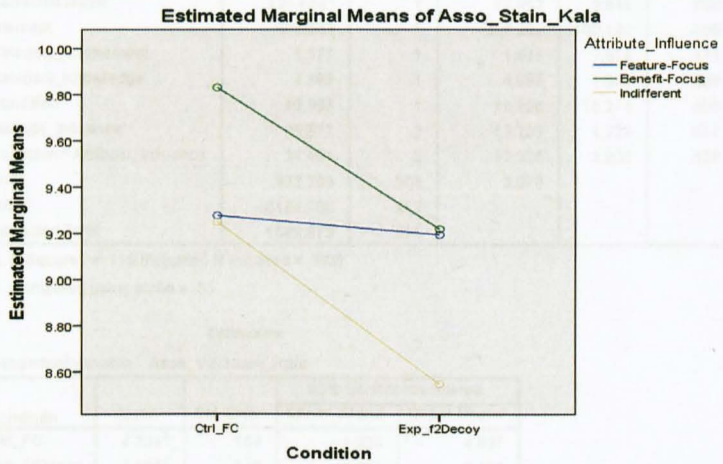
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Kala

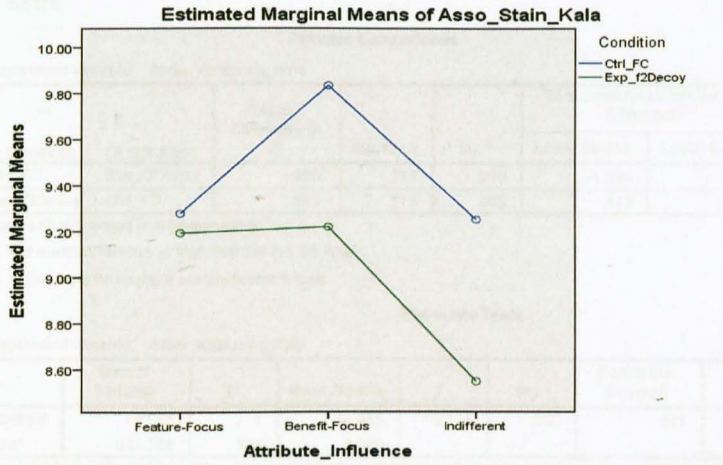
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	14.907	2	7.454	5.522	.004	.035	11.045	.850
Error	410.307	304	1.350					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379

Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_B_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	149
	2	Benefit-Focus	64
	3	Indifferent	99

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	4.6386	1.47812	83
	Benefit-Focus	3.3077	.83758	26
	Indifferent	4.9636	1.89506	55
	Total	4.5366	1.64444	164
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	5.4848	2.28872	66
	Benefit-Focus	5.0526	1.55871	38
	Indifferent	5.0455	1.81665	44
	Total	5.2432	1.98505	148
Total	Feature-Focus	5.0134	1.92068	149
	Benefit-Focus	4.3437	1.56569	64
	Indifferent	5.0000	1.85164	99
	Total	4.8718	1.84519	312

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	125.664[a]	7	17.952	5.848	.000	.119	40.936	.999
Intercept	307.283	1	307.283	100.100	.000	.248	100.100	1.000
Category_Involvement	1.577	1	1.577	.514	.474	.002	.514	.110
Category_Knowledge	4.888	1	4.888	1.592	.208	.005	1.592	.242
Condition	49.956	1	49.956	16.274	.000	.051	16.274	.980
Attribute_Influence	26.577	2	13.289	4.329	.014	.028	8.658	.749
Condition * Attribute_Influence	24.451	2	12.226	3.983	.020	.026	7.965	.711
Error	933.208	304	3.070					
Total	8464.000	312						
Corrected Total	1058.872	311						

a. R Squared = .119 (Adjusted R Squared = .098)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	4.334[a]	.154	4.030	4.637
Exp_f2Decoy	5.197[a]	.148	4.906	5.488

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	-.863*	.214	.000	-1.285	-.442
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.863*	.214	.000	.442	1.285

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	49.956	1	49.956	16.274	.000	.051	16.274	.980
Error	933.208	304	3.070					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_B_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	5.028[a]	.145	4.743	5.313
Benefit-Focus	4.264[a]	.228	3.816	4.713
Indifferent	5.004[a]	.178	4.653	5.355

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.764*	.272	.016	.111	1.416
	Indifferent	.024	.230	.999	-.527	.575
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.764*	.272	.016	-1.416	-.111
	Indifferent	-.740*	.292	.035	-1.442	-.038
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.024	.230	.999	-.575	.527
	Benefit-Focus	.740*	.292	.035	.038	1.442

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

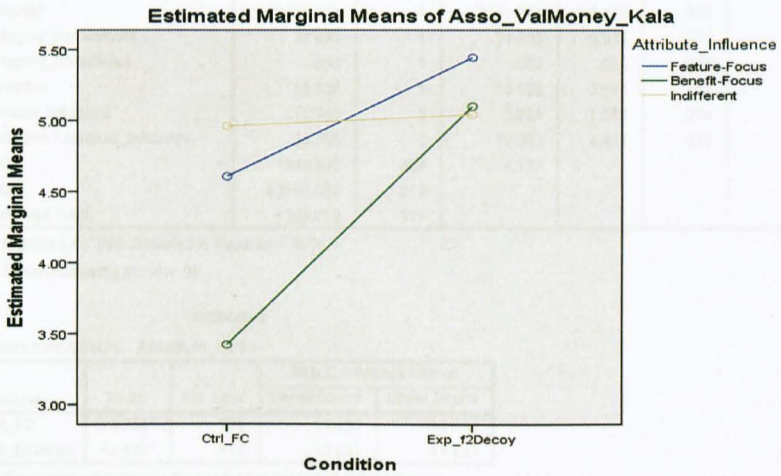
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Kala

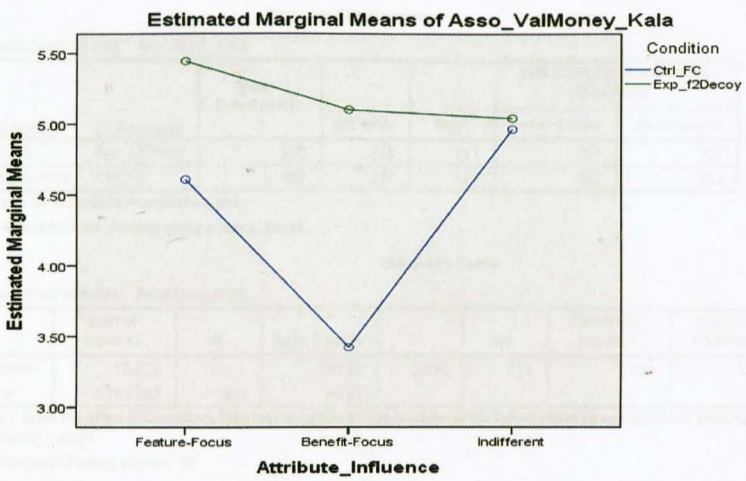
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	26.577	2	13.289	4.329	.014	.028	8.658	.749
Error	933.208	304	3.070					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379



Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_SUM_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	149
	2	Benefit-Focus	64
	3	Indifferent	99

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	13.9036	1.85192	83
	Benefit-Focus	13.0000	1.32665	26
	Indifferent	14.2545	2.07470	55
	Total	13.8780	1.89536	164
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	14.7273	2.48408	66
	Benefit-Focus	14.2105	1.90530	38
	Indifferent	13.6364	2.27311	44
	Total	14.2703	2.31703	148
Total	Feature-Focus	14.2685	2.18605	149
	Benefit-Focus	13.7188	1.78591	64
	Indifferent	13.9798	2.17584	99
	Total	14.0641	2.11161	312

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	133.415[a]	7	19.059	4.623	.000	.096	32.361	.994
Intercept	3530.771	1	3530.771	856.420	.000	.738	856.420	1.000
Category_Involvement	24.895	1	24.895	6.039	.015	.019	6.039	.688
Category_Knowledge	.082	1	.082	.020	.888	.000	.020	.052
Condition	10.528	1	10.528	2.554	.111	.008	2.554	.357
Attribute_Influence	12.768	2	6.384	1.548	.214	.010	3.097	.328
Condition * Attribute_Influence	36.726	2	18.363	4.454	.012	.028	8.908	.762
Error	1253.303	304	4.123					
Total	63100.000	312						
Corrected Total	1386.718	311						

a. R Squared = .096 (Adjusted R Squared = .075)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	13.788[a]	.179	13.437	14.140
Exp_f2Decoy	14.185[a]	.172	13.847	14.522

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	-.396	.248	.111	-.884	.092
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	.396	.248	.111	-.092	.884

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	10.528	1	10.528	2.554	.111	.008	2.554	.357
Error	1253.303	304	4.123					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Feature positioning: Value shift_PA_SUM_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	14.265[a]	.168	13.934	14.595
Benefit-Focus	13.791[a]	.264	13.271	14.311
Indifferent	13.904[a]	.207	13.497	14.311

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.474	.315	.349	-.282	1.230
	Indifferent	.361	.266	.440	-.278	1.000
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.474	.315	.349	-1.230	.282
	Indifferent	-.113	.339	.982	-.926	.700
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.361	.266	.440	-1.000	.278
	Benefit-Focus	.113	.339	.982	-.700	.926

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

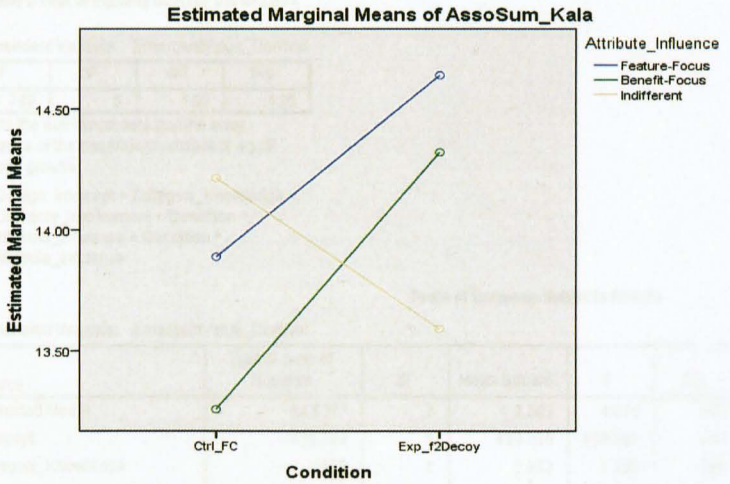
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Kala

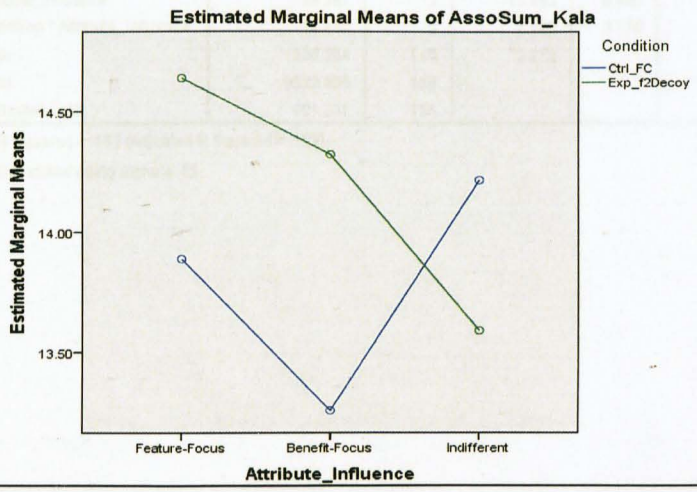
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	12.768	2	6.384	1.548	.214	.010	3.097	.328
Error	1253.303	304	4.123					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Involvement = 6.8323, Category_Knowledge = 6.5379



Feature positioning: emergent-value_dominant valuing_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	74
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	82
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	97
	2	Benefit-Focus	8
	3	Indifferent	51

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.43	1.693	53
	Benefit-Focus	4.00	.000	2
	Indifferent	7.37	1.640	19
	Total	7.32	1.737	74
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.41	1.575	44
	Benefit-Focus	7.33	.516	6
	Indifferent	7.63	1.129	32
	Total	8.02	1.414	82
Total	Feature-Focus	7.88	1.703	97
	Benefit-Focus	6.50	1.604	8
	Indifferent	7.53	1.332	51
	Total	7.69	1.609	156

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.782	5	150	.120

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	64.837[a]	7	9.262	4.075	.000	.162	28.526	.984
Intercept	439.269	1	439.269	193.261	.000	.566	193.261	1.000
Category_Knowledge	2.952	1	2.952	1.299	.256	.009	1.299	.205
Category_Involvement	.026	1	.026	.011	.916	.000	.011	.051
Condition	26.684	1	26.684	11.740	.001	.073	11.740	.926
Attribute_Influence	29.367	2	14.683	6.460	.002	.080	12.920	.900
Condition * Attribute_Influence	14.447	2	7.223	3.178	.045	.041	6.356	.601
Error	336.394	148	2.273					
Total	9632.000	156						
Corrected Total	401.231	155						

a. R Squared = .162 (Adjusted R Squared = .122)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Feature positioning: emergent-value_dominant valuing_2

1. Condition

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	6.271[a]	.384	5.513	7.030
Exp_f2Decoy	7.820[a]	.237	7.352	8.288

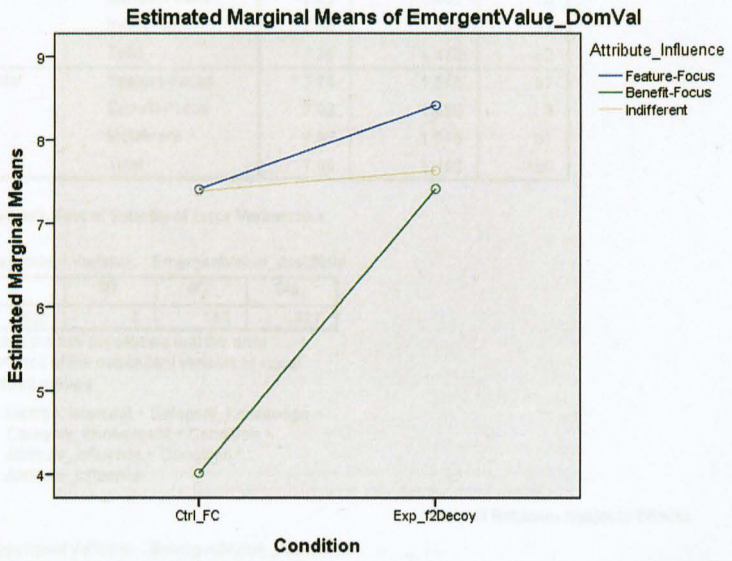
a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427.

2. Attribute_Influence

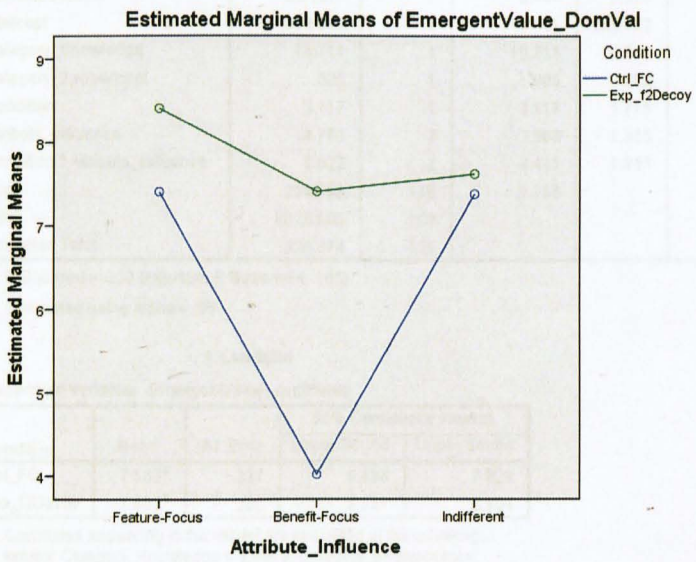
Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_DomVal

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.912[a]	.154	7.608	8.216
Benefit-Focus	5.717[a]	.621	4.491	6.943
Indifferent	7.508[a]	.219	7.076	7.940

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427.



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427

Feature positioning: emergent-value_ease of justification _1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	74
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	82
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	97
	2	Benefit-Focus	8
	3	Indifferent	51

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	Feature-Focus	7.57	1.408	53
	Benefit-Focus	6.00	.000	2
	Indifferent	7.84	1.500	19
	Total	7.59	1.433	74
Exp_f2Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.95	1.628	44
	Benefit-Focus	7.33	1.862	6
	Indifferent	7.56	1.134	32
	Total	7.76	1.470	82
Total	Feature-Focus	7.74	1.516	97
	Benefit-Focus	7.00	1.690	8
	Indifferent	7.67	1.275	51
	Total	7.68	1.450	156

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.605	5	150	.027

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	66.107[a]	7	9.444	5.378	.000	.203	37.649	.998
Intercept	343.661	1	343.661	195.722	.000	.569	195.722	1.000
Category_Knowledge	15.711	1	15.711	8.948	.003	.057	8.948	.844
Category_Involvement	.005	1	.005	.003	.957	.000	.003	.050
Condition	3.117	1	3.117	1.775	.185	.012	1.775	.263
Attribute_Influence	4.760	2	2.380	1.355	.261	.018	2.711	.289
Condition * Attribute_Influence	6.822	2	3.411	1.943	.147	.026	3.885	.398
Error	259.868	148	1.756					
Total	9526.000	156						
Corrected Total	325.974	155						

a. R Squared = .203 (Adjusted R Squared = .165)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

1. Condition

Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	7.163[a]	.337	6.496	7.829
Exp_f2Decoy	7.692[a]	.208	7.281	8.104

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427.

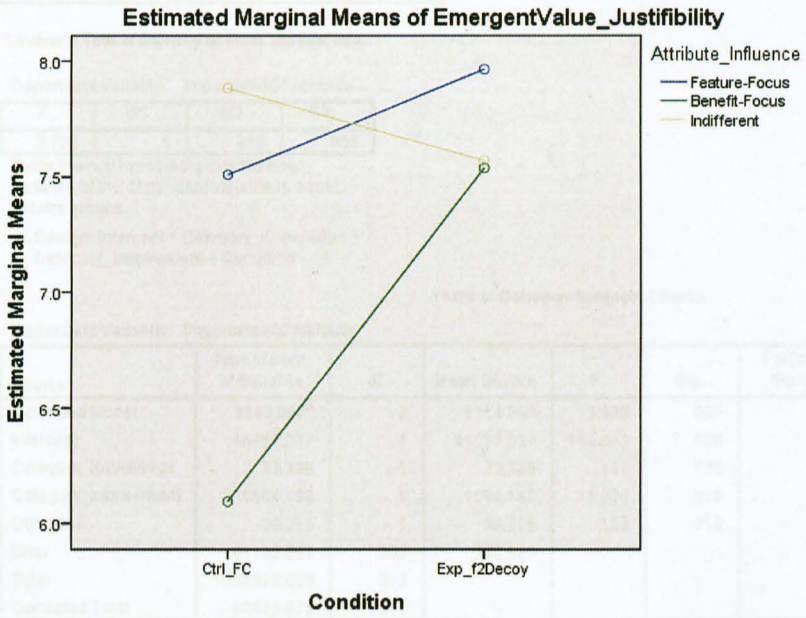
Feature positioning: emergent-value_ease of justification _2

2. Attribute_Influence

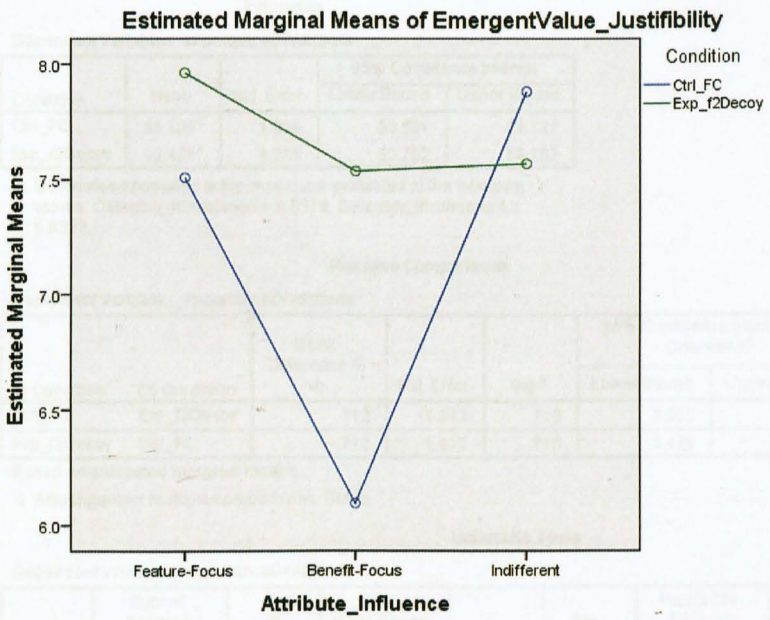
Dependent Variable: EmergentValue_Justifibility

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.738[a]	.135	7.470	8.005
Benefit-Focus	6.818[a]	.545	5.740	7.896
Indifferent	7.727[a]	.192	7.347	8.107

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427.



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6613, Category_Involvement = 7.0427

Feature positioning: weight-change

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_FC	164
	3	Exp_f2Decoy	148

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

Condition	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_FC	55.9756	16.02718	164
Exp_f2Decoy	55.6081	18.18186	148
Total	55.8013	17.05634	312

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

F	df1	df2	Sig.
3.700	1	310	.055

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	3343.097[a]	3	1114.366	3.939	.009	.037	11.817	.829
Intercept	46297.037	1	46297.037	163.653	.000	.347	163.653	1.000
Category_Knowledge	32.388	1	32.388	.114	.735	.000	.114	.063
Category_Involvement	1564.169	1	1564.169	5.529	.019	.018	5.529	.650
Condition	39.215	1	39.215	.139	.710	.000	.139	.066
Error	87132.582	308	282.898					
Total	1061976.000	312						
Corrected Total	90475.679	311						

a. R Squared = .037 (Adjusted R Squared = .028)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	56.139[a]	1.315	53.551	58.727
Exp_f2Decoy	55.427[a]	1.385	52.702	58.152

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.5379, Category_Involvement = 6.8323.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_FC	Exp_f2Decoy	.712	1.913	.710	-3.052	4.476
Exp_f2Decoy	Ctrl_FC	-.712	1.913	.710	-4.476	3.052

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: ImportanceOFAttribute

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	39.215	1	39.215	.139	.710	.000	.139	.066
Error	87132.582	308	282.898					

APPENDIX D3

Benefit positioning: Favourability 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	178
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	146
	2	Benefit-Focus	114
	3	Indifferent	106

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	4.4103	2.49382	78
	Benefit-Focus	7.6129	1.85856	62
	Indifferent	6.6250	2.45491	48
	Total	6.0319	2.68668	188
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.1176	2.65155	68
	Benefit-Focus	9.1154	1.38130	52
	Indifferent	7.2414	2.31933	58
	Total	7.7416	2.39363	178
Total	Feature-Focus	5.6712	2.89616	146
	Benefit-Focus	8.2982	1.81405	114
	Indifferent	6.9623	2.39016	106
	Total	6.8634	2.68490	366

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	799.585[a]	7	114.226	22.327	.000	.304	156.286	1.000
Intercept	1705.681	1	1705.681	333.391	.000	.482	333.391	1.000
Category_Knowledge	13.053	1	13.053	2.551	.111	.007	2.551	.357
Category_Involvement	4.905	1	4.905	.959	.328	.003	.959	.164
Condition	229.256	1	229.256	44.810	.000	.111	44.810	1.000
Attribute_Influence	385.837	2	192.918	37.708	.000	.174	75.415	1.000
Condition * Attribute_Influence	71.909	2	35.955	7.028	.001	.038	14.055	.927
Error	1831.584	358	5.116					
Total	19872.000	366						
Corrected Total	2631.169	365						

a. R Squared = .304 (Adjusted R Squared = .290)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.217[a]	.168	5.887	6.548
Exp_b1Decoy	7.821[a]	.171	7.486	8.157

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2495, Category_Involvement = 6.9344.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-1.604*	.240	.000	-2.075	-1.133
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	1.604*	.240	.000	1.133	2.075

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Benefit positioning: Favourability 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	5.784[a]	.190	5.411	6.157
Benefit-Focus	8.317[a]	.217	7.890	8.743
Indifferent	6.957[a]	.221	6.523	7.392

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2495, Category_Involvement = 6.9344.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-2.532*	.292	.000	-3.232	-1.832
	Indifferent	-1.173*	.291	.000	-1.871	-.476
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	2.532*	.292	.000	1.832	3.232
	Indifferent	1.359*	.311	.000	.614	2.105
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	1.173*	.291	.000	.476	1.871
	Benefit-Focus	-1.359*	.311	.000	-2.105	-.614

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

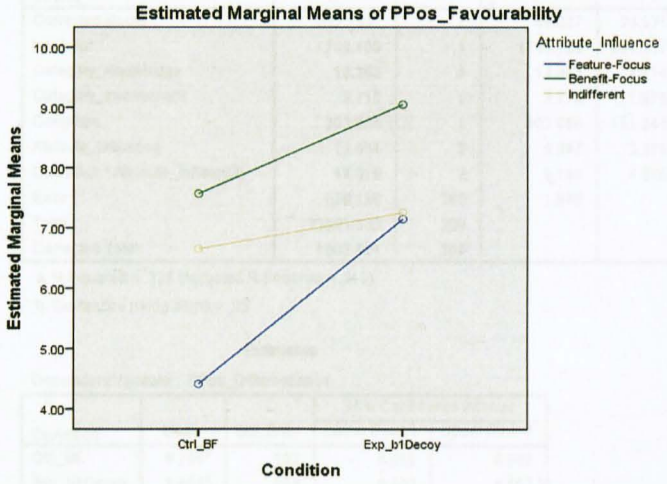
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

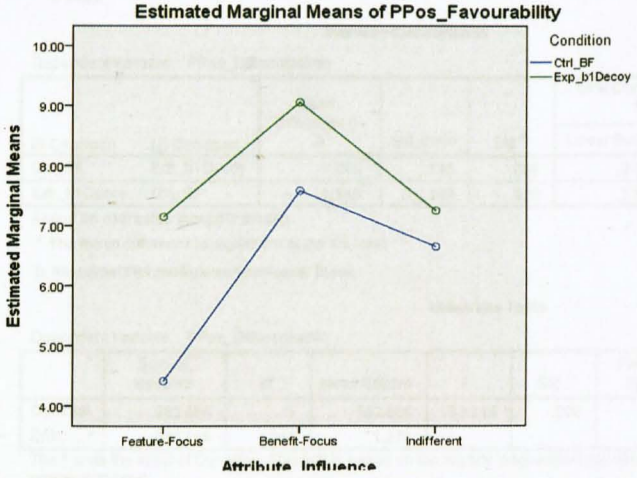
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	385.837	2	192.918	37.708	.000	.174	75.415	1.000
Error	1831.584	358	5.116					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2495, Category_Involvement = 6.9344



Benefit positioning: Differentiation 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	180
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	148
	2	Benefit-Focus	114
	3	Indifferent	106

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	6.9316	1.14511	78
	Benefit-Focus	6.8280	1.29977	62
	Indifferent	6.5417	1.21773	48
	Total	6.7979	1.21997	188
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.1905	1.52760	70
	Benefit-Focus	8.9744	1.57851	52
	Indifferent	8.6322	1.53032	58
	Total	8.5593	1.56849	180
Total	Feature-Focus	7.5270	1.47645	148
	Benefit-Focus	7.8070	1.78594	114
	Indifferent	7.6855	1.74018	106
	Total	7.6594	1.65398	368

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	327.791[a]	7	46.827	24.931	.000	.326	174.515	1.000
Intercept	1749.109	1	1749.109	931.217	.000	.721	931.217	1.000
Category_Knowledge	13.363	1	13.363	7.114	.008	.019	7.114	.758
Category_Involvement	3.710	1	3.710	1.975	.161	.005	1.975	.289
Condition	302.866	1	302.866	161.244	.000	.309	161.244	1.000
Attribute_Influence	12.694	2	6.347	3.379	.035	.018	6.758	.635
Condition * Attribute_Influence	18.319	2	9.159	4.876	.008	.026	9.753	.802
Error	676.189	360	1.878					
Total	22593.333	368						
Corrected Total	1003.981	367						

a. R Squared = .326 (Adjusted R Squared = .313)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.765[a]	.102	6.565	6.965
Exp_b1Decoy	8.605[a]	.103	8.402	8.807

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-1.840*	.145	.000	-2.125	-1.555
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	1.840*	.145	.000	1.555	2.125

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	302.866	1	302.866	161.244	.000	.309	161.244	1.000
Error	676.189	360	1.878					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Benefit positioning_Differentiation 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.535[a]	.114	7.310	7.759
Benefit-Focus	7.960[a]	.131	7.701	8.218
Indifferent	7.560[a]	.134	7.297	7.824

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.425*	.176	.049	-.848	-.001
	Indifferent	-.025	.176	.998	-.447	.396
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.425*	.176	.049	.001	.848
	Indifferent	.399	.188	.100	-.052	.851
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	.025	.176	.998	-.396	.447
	Benefit-Focus	-.399	.188	.100	-.851	.052

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

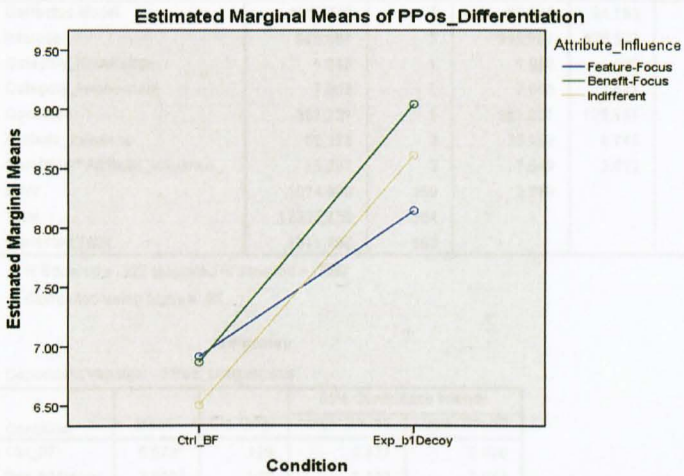
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

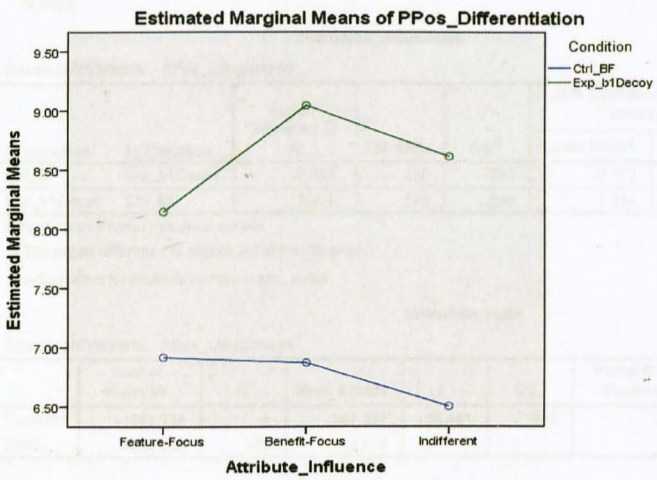
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	12.694	2	6.347	3.379	.035	.018	6.758	.635
Error	676.189	360	1.878					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493



Benefit positioning: Uniqueness 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	176
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	144
	2	Benefit-Focus	114
	3	Indifferent	106

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	5.1987	1.49260	78
	Benefit-Focus	5.7500	1.67552	62
	Indifferent	6.0729	1.53068	48
	Total	5.6037	1.59813	188
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.3939	1.56651	66
	Benefit-Focus	8.1731	2.27494	52
	Indifferent	7.4569	1.92521	58
	Total	7.6449	1.93528	176
Total	Feature-Focus	6.2049	1.87611	144
	Benefit-Focus	6.8553	2.30666	114
	Indifferent	6.8302	1.88147	106
	Total	6.5907	2.04074	364

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	486.779[a]	7	69.540	24.153	.000	.322	169.070	1.000
Intercept	945.867	1	945.867	328.522	.000	.480	328.522	1.000
Category_Knowledge	1.965	1	1.965	.682	.409	.002	.682	.131
Category_Involvement	7.603	1	7.603	2.641	.105	.007	2.641	.367
Condition	361.221	1	361.221	125.461	.000	.261	125.461	1.000
Attribute_Influence	50.378	2	25.189	8.749	.000	.047	17.497	.970
Condition * Attribute_Influence	15.097	2	7.549	2.622	.074	.015	5.244	.520
Error	1024.980	356	2.879					
Total	17322.750	364						
Corrected Total	1511.758	363						

a. R Squared = .322 (Adjusted R Squared = .309)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	5.672[a]	.126	5.424	5.920
Exp_b1Decoy	7.690[a]	.129	7.437	7.943

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2418, Category_Involvement = 6.9322.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-2.018*	.180	.000	-2.372	-1.664
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	2.018*	.180	.000	1.664	2.372

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	361.221	1	361.221	125.461	.000	.261	125.461	1.000
Error	1024.980	356	2.879					

Benefit positioning: Uniqueness 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	6.201[a]	.143	5.919	6.483
Benefit-Focus	7.106[a]	.163	6.786	7.426
Indifferent	6.736[a]	.166	6.410	7.062

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2418, Category_Involvement = 6.9322.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.905*	.220	.000	-1.432	-.378
	Indifferent	-.535*	.219	.044	-1.060	-.010
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.905*	.220	.000	.378	1.432
	Indifferent	.370	.233	.303	-.189	.929
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	.535*	.219	.044	.010	1.060
	Benefit-Focus	-.370	.233	.303	-.929	.189

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

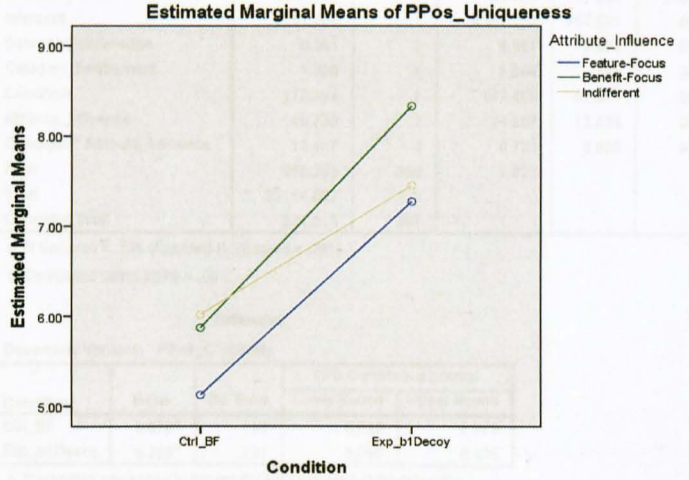
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

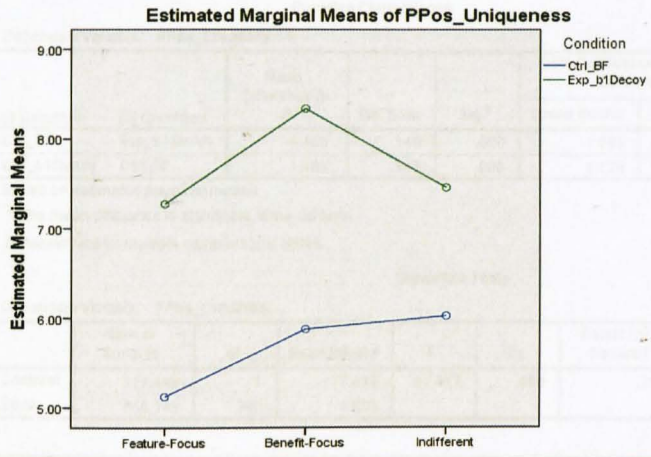
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	50.378	2	25.189	8.749	.000	.047	17.497	.970
Error	1024.980	356	2.879					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2418, Category_Involvement = 6.9322



Benefit positioning: Credibility 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	180
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	148
	2	Benefit-Focus	114
	3	Indifferent	106

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	7.4017	1.24879	78
	Benefit-Focus	6.7312	1.20841	62
	Indifferent	6.5000	1.27904	48
	Total	6.9504	1.29715	188
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.5333	1.32655	70
	Benefit-Focus	8.6410	1.60316	52
	Indifferent	7.6437	1.71209	58
	Total	8.2778	1.59317	180
Total	Feature-Focus	7.9369	1.40152	148
	Benefit-Focus	7.6023	1.69148	114
	Indifferent	7.1258	1.62810	106
	Total	7.5996	1.59274	368

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	274.670[a]	7	39.239	21.522	.000	.295	150.655	1.000
Intercept	1381.203	1	1381.203	757.581	.000	.678	757.581	1.000
Category_Knowledge	6.361	1	6.361	3.489	.063	.010	3.489	.461
Category_Involvement	1.356	1	1.356	.744	.389	.002	.744	.138
Condition	177.499	1	177.499	97.357	.000	.213	97.357	1.000
Attribute_Influence	49.733	2	24.867	13.639	.000	.070	27.278	.998
Condition * Attribute_Influence	13.447	2	6.723	3.688	.026	.020	7.376	.676
Error	656.343	360	1.823					
Total	22184.667	368						
Corrected Total	931.013	367						

a. R Squared = .295 (Adjusted R Squared = .281)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.878[a]	.100	6.680	7.075
Exp_b1Decoy	8.286[a]	.101	8.086	8.485

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-1.408*	.143	.000	-1.689	-1.128
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	1.408*	.143	.000	1.128	1.689

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	177.499	1	177.499	97.357	.000	.213	97.357	1.000
Error	656.343	360	1.823					

Benefit positioning: Credibility 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.888[a]	.112	7.667	8.109
Benefit-Focus	7.815[a]	.129	7.561	8.070
Indifferent	7.042[a]	.132	6.783	7.302

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.072	.174	.966	-.345	.489
	Indifferent	.846*	.173	.000	.430	1.261
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.072	.174	.966	-.489	.345
	Indifferent	.773*	.186	.000	.328	1.218
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.846*	.173	.000	-1.261	-.430
	Benefit-Focus	-.773*	.186	.000	-1.218	-.328

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

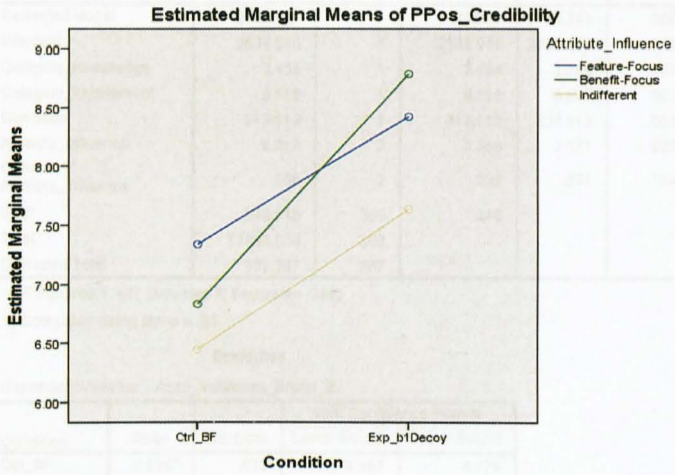
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

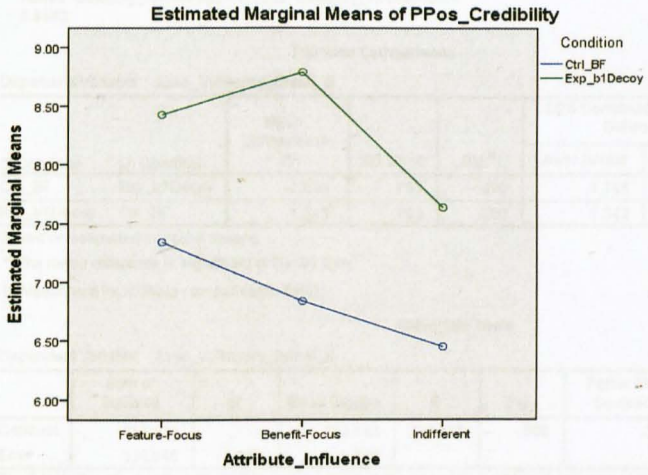
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	49.733	2	24.867	13.639	.000	.070	27.278	.998
Error	656.343	360	1.823					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493



Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_B_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	180
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	148
	2	Benefit-Focus	114
	3	Indifferent	106

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	8.5641	1.08819	78
	Benefit-Focus	8.8387	.96145	62
	Indifferent	8.5000	1.01058	48
	Total	8.6383	1.03263	188
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	10.1143	1.01500	70
	Benefit-Focus	10.2692	.90997	52
	Indifferent	10.1379	.86751	58
	Total	10.1667	.93653	180
Total	Feature-Focus	9.2973	1.30650	148
	Benefit-Focus	9.4912	1.17681	114
	Indifferent	9.3962	1.23966	106
	Total	9.3859	1.24757	368

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	232.662[a]	7	33.237	35.344	.000	.407	247.406	1.000
Intercept	2534.046	1	2534.046	2694.639	.000	.882	2694.639	1.000
Category_Knowledge	2.454	1	2.454	2.609	.107	.007	2.609	.364
Category_Involvement	9.119	1	9.119	9.697	.002	.026	9.697	.874
Condition	213.113	1	213.113	226.619	.000	.386	226.619	1.000
Attribute_Influence	6.717	2	3.358	3.571	.029	.019	7.142	.661
Condition * Attribute_Influence	.660	2	.330	.351	.704	.002	.702	.106
Error	338.545	360	.940					
Total	32990.000	368						
Corrected Total	571.207	367						

a. R Squared = .407 (Adjusted R Squared = .396)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	8.636[a]	.072	8.495	8.778
Exp_b1Decoy	10.180[a]	.073	10.036	10.323

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-1.543*	.103	.000	-1.745	-1.342
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	1.543*	.103	.000	1.342	1.745

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	213.113	1	213.113	226.619	.000	.386	226.619	1.000
Error	338.545	360	.940					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_B_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	9.296[a]	.081	9.137	9.455
Benefit-Focus	9.607[a]	.093	9.425	9.790
Indifferent	9.321[a]	.095	9.134	9.507

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.311*	.125	.039	-.611	-.012
	Indifferent	-.024	.124	.996	-.323	.274
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.311*	.125	.039	.012	.611
	Indifferent	.287	.133	.093	-.033	.606
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	.024	.124	.996	-.274	.323
	Benefit-Focus	-.287	.133	.093	-.606	.033

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

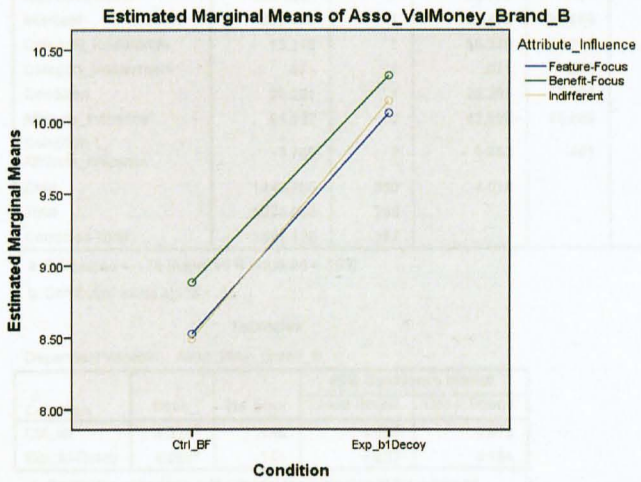
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

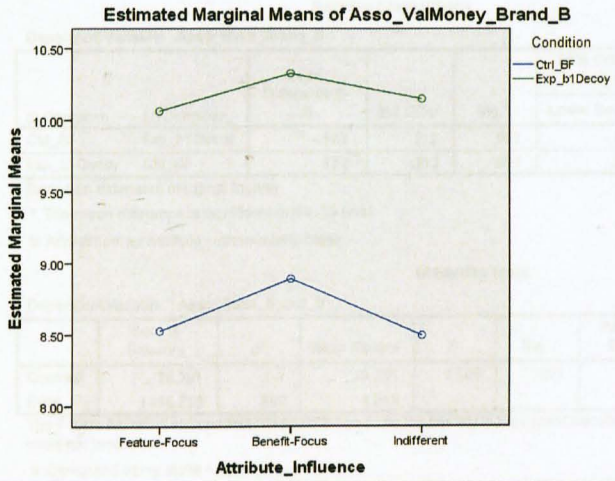
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	6.717	2	3.358	3.571	.029	.019	7.142	.661
Error	338.545	360	.940					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493



Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_F_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	180
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	148
	2	Benefit-Focus	114
	3	Indifferent	106

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	3.9231	2.51111	78
	Benefit-Focus	3.8065	1.62802	62
	Indifferent	5.2500	2.64575	48
	Total	4.2234	2.36351	188
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	4.7429	1.75850	70
	Benefit-Focus	4.4231	1.09089	52
	Indifferent	5.4828	2.14592	58
	Total	4.8889	1.78413	180
Total	Feature-Focus	4.3108	2.21882	148
	Benefit-Focus	4.0877	1.43633	114
	Indifferent	5.3774	2.37628	106
	Total	4.5489	2.12364	368

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	208.363[a]	7	29.766	7.407	.000	.126	51.848	1.000
Intercept	392.470	1	392.470	97.659	.000	.213	97.659	1.000
Category_Knowledge	15.248	1	15.248	3.794	.052	.010	3.794	.493
Category_Involvement	.071	1	.071	.018	.895	.000	.018	.052
Condition	29.291	1	29.291	7.289	.007	.020	7.289	.768
Attribute_Influence	85.992	2	42.996	10.699	.000	.056	21.398	.989
Condition * Attribute_Influence	3.706	2	1.853	.461	.631	.003	.922	.125
Error	1446.756	360	4.019					
Total	9270.000	368						
Corrected Total	1655.120	367						

a. R Squared = .126 (Adjusted R Squared = .109)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	4.326[a]	.149	4.032	4.619
Exp_b1Decoy	4.898[a]	.151	4.602	5.194

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-.572*	.212	.007	-.989	-.155
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.572*	.212	.007	.155	.989

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	29.291	1	29.291	7.289	.007	.020	7.289	.768
Error	1446.756	360	4.019					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_F_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	4.247[a]	.167	3.919	4.576
Benefit-Focus	4.260[a]	.192	3.882	4.638
Indifferent	5.327[a]	.196	4.942	5.713

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.013	.258	1.000	-.632	.606
	Indifferent	-1.080*	.257	.000	-1.697	-.463
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.013	.258	1.000	-.606	.632
	Indifferent	-1.067*	.275	.000	-1.728	-.407
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	1.080*	.257	.000	.463	1.697
	Benefit-Focus	1.067*	.275	.000	.407	1.728

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

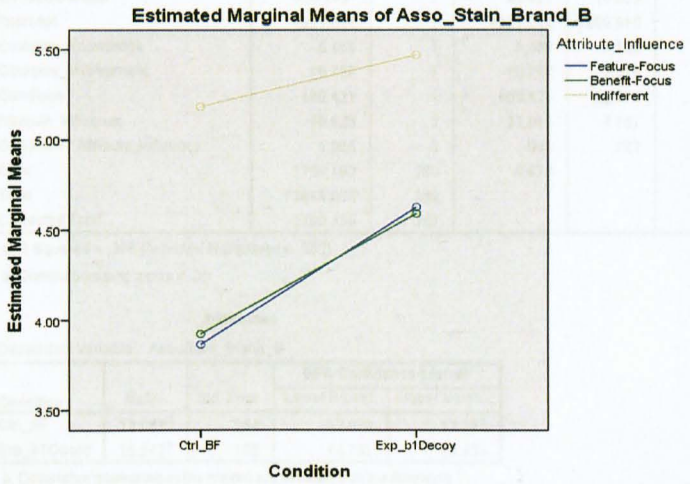
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

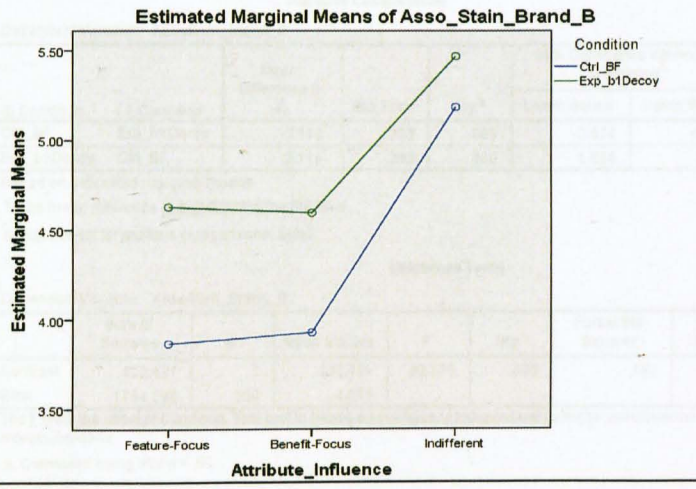
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	85.992	2	42.996	10.699	.000	.056	21.398	.989
Error	1446.756	360	4.019					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493



Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_SUM_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	180
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	148
	2	Benefit-Focus	114
	3	Indifferent	106

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	12.4872	2.59742	78
	Benefit-Focus	12.6452	1.92564	62
	Indifferent	13.7500	3.13185	48
	Total	12.8617	2.59412	188
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	14.8571	2.05917	70
	Benefit-Focus	14.8923	1.39380	52
	Indifferent	15.6207	2.17504	58
	Total	15.0556	1.96256	180
Total	Feature-Focus	13.6081	2.63321	148
	Benefit-Focus	13.5789	1.98175	114
	Indifferent	14.7736	2.79892	106
	Total	13.9348	2.55215	368

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	636.243[a]	7	90.892	18.653	.000	.266	130.571	1.000
Intercept	4921.044	1	4921.044	1009.910	.000	.737	1009.910	1.000
Category_Knowledge	5.468	1	5.468	1.122	.290	.003	1.122	.184
Category_Involvement	10.797	1	10.797	2.216	.137	.006	2.216	.318
Condition	400.421	1	400.421	82.175	.000	.186	82.175	1.000
Attribute_Influence	75.828	2	37.914	7.781	.000	.041	15.562	.950
Condition * Attribute_Influence	1.965	2	.983	.202	.817	.001	.403	.081
Error	1754.192	360	4.873					
Total	73848.000	368						
Corrected Total	2390.435	367						

a. R Squared = .266 (Adjusted R Squared = .252)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	12.962[a]	.164	12.639	13.285
Exp_b1Decoy	15.077[a]	.166	14.751	15.403

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-2.115*	.233	.000	-2.574	-1.656
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	2.115*	.233	.000	1.656	2.574

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	400.421	1	400.421	82.175	.000	.186	82.175	1.000
Error	1754.192	360	4.873					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_SUM_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	13.544[a]	.184	13.182	13.905
Benefit-Focus	13.867[a]	.212	13.451	14.283
Indifferent	14.648[a]	.216	14.224	15.072

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.324	.284	.587	-1.005	.358
	Indifferent	-1.104*	.283	.000	-1.783	-.425
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.324	.284	.587	-.358	1.005
	Indifferent	-.781*	.303	.031	-1.508	-.053
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	1.104*	.283	.000	.425	1.783
	Benefit-Focus	.781*	.303	.031	.053	1.508

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

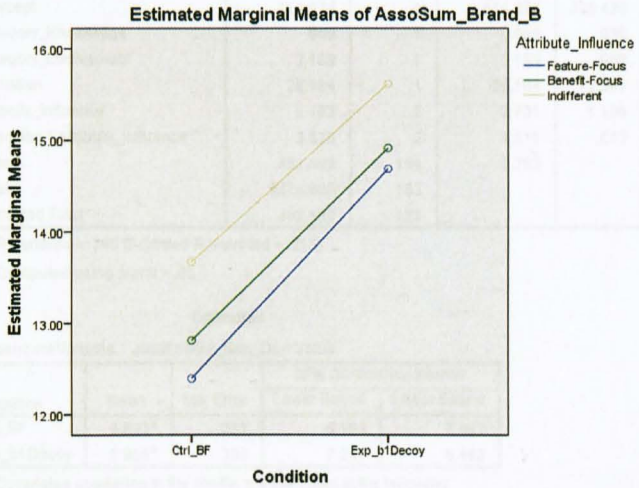
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

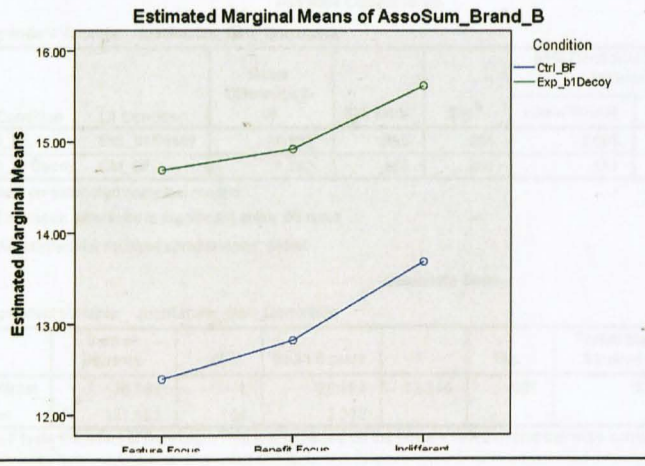
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	75.828	2	37.914	7.781	.000	.041	15.562	.950
Error	1754.192	360	4.873					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493



Benefit positioning: emergent-value_dominant valuing_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	84
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	78
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	112
	2	Benefit-Focus	12
	3	Indifferent	38

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	6.74	1.578	62
	Benefit-Focus	6.50	1.604	8
	Indifferent	6.57	1.342	14
	Total	6.69	1.529	84
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.44	1.643	50
	Benefit-Focus	7.00	1.155	4
	Indifferent	8.17	1.090	24
	Total	8.28	1.494	78
Total	Feature-Focus	7.50	1.811	112
	Benefit-Focus	6.67	1.435	12
	Indifferent	7.58	1.407	38
	Total	7.46	1.705	162

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	116.604[a]	7	16.658	7.296	.000	.249	51.073	1.000
Intercept	514.674	1	514.674	225.430	.000	.594	225.430	1.000
Category_Knowledge	.068	1	.068	.030	.863	.000	.030	.053
Category_Involvement	2.189	1	2.189	.959	.329	.006	.959	.164
Condition	28.184	1	28.184	12.345	.001	.074	12.345	.937
Attribute_Influence	5.463	2	2.731	1.196	.305	.015	2.393	.259
Condition * Attribute_Influence	3.023	2	1.511	.662	.517	.009	1.324	.160
Error	351.593	154	2.283					
Total	9476.000	162						
Corrected Total	468.198	161						

a. R Squared = .249 (Adjusted R Squared = .215)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.623[a]	.233	6.163	7.082
Exp_b1Decoy	7.905[a]	.283	7.347	8.463

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6461, Category_Involvement = 7.2881.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-1.282*	.365	.001	-2.003	-.561
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	1.282*	.365	.001	.561	2.003

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	28.184	1	28.184	12.345	.001	.074	12.345	.937
Error	351.593	154	2.283					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated

Benefit positioning: emergent-value_dominant valuing_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.567[a]	.145	7.281	7.852
Benefit-Focus	6.828[a]	.465	5.909	7.748
Indifferent	7.397[a]	.257	6.889	7.905

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6461, Category_Involvement = 7.2881.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.739	.489	.348	-.442	1.919
	Indifferent	.170	.297	.919	-.546	.886
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.739	.489	.348	-1.919	.442
	Indifferent	-.568	.530	.634	-1.847	.710
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.170	.297	.919	-.886	.546
	Benefit-Focus	.568	.530	.634	-.710	1.847

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

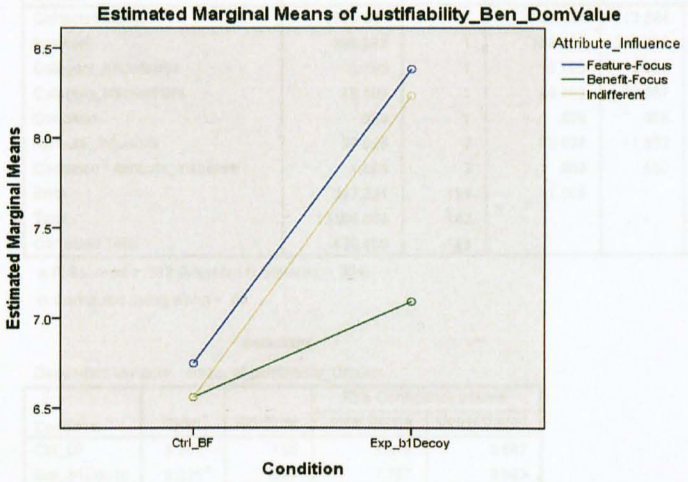
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

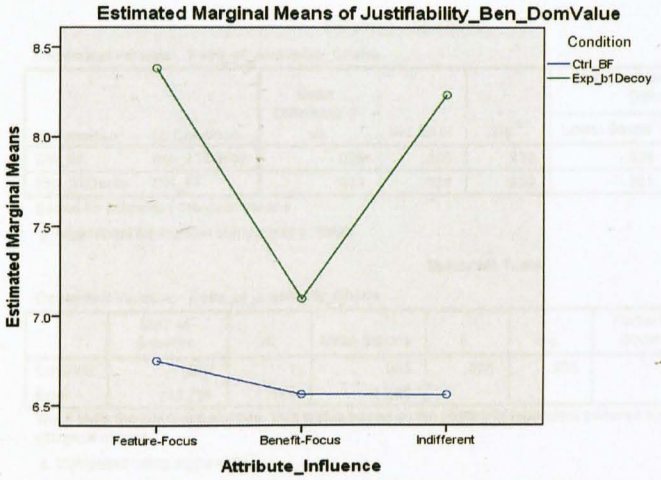
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	5.463	2	2.731	1.196	.305	.015	2.393	.259
Error	351.593	154	2.283					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6461, Category_Involvement = 7.2881



Benefit positioning: emergent-value_ease of justification _1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	84
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	78
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	112
	2	Benefit-Focus	12
	3	Indifferent	38

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	8.90	1.565	62
	Benefit-Focus	7.75	.463	8
	Indifferent	7.71	1.541	14
	Total	8.60	1.569	84
Exp_b1Decoy	Feature-Focus	9.28	1.230	50
	Benefit-Focus	7.00	1.155	4
	Indifferent	7.92	1.792	24
	Total	8.74	1.591	78
Total	Feature-Focus	9.07	1.431	112
	Benefit-Focus	7.50	.798	12
	Indifferent	7.84	1.685	38
	Total	8.67	1.576	162

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	152.769[a]	7	21.824	13.594	.000	.382	95.160	1.000
Intercept	388.353	1	388.353	241.905	.000	.611	241.905	1.000
Category_Knowledge	5.785	1	5.785	3.604	.060	.023	3.604	.471
Category_Involvement	48.109	1	48.109	29.967	.000	.163	29.967	1.000
Condition	.009	1	.009	.006	.939	.000	.006	.051
Attribute_Influence	38.055	2	19.027	11.852	.000	.133	23.704	.994
Condition * Attribute_Influence	1.805	2	.903	.562	.571	.007	1.125	.142
Error	247.231	154	1.605					
Total	12568.000	162						
Corrected Total	400.000	161						

a. R Squared = .382 (Adjusted R Squared = .354)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	8.201[a]	.195	7.816	8.587
Exp_b1Decoy	8.225[a]	.237	7.757	8.693

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6461, Category_Involvement = 7.2881.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	-.023	.306	.939	-.628	.581
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.023	.306	.939	-.581	.628

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	.009	1	.009	.006	.939	.000	.006	.051
Error	247.231	154	1.605					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Benefit positioning: emergent-value_ease of justification _2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	8.991[a]	.121	8.752	9.230
Benefit-Focus	7.692[a]	.390	6.920	8.463
Indifferent	7.957[a]	.216	7.531	8.383

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6461, Category_Involvement = 7.2881.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	1.299*	.410	.006	.309	2.290
	Indifferent	1.034*	.249	.000	.434	1.634
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-1.299*	.410	.006	-2.290	-.309
	Indifferent	-.265	.444	.909	-1.338	.807
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-1.034*	.249	.000	-1.634	-.434
	Benefit-Focus	.265	.444	.909	-.807	1.338

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

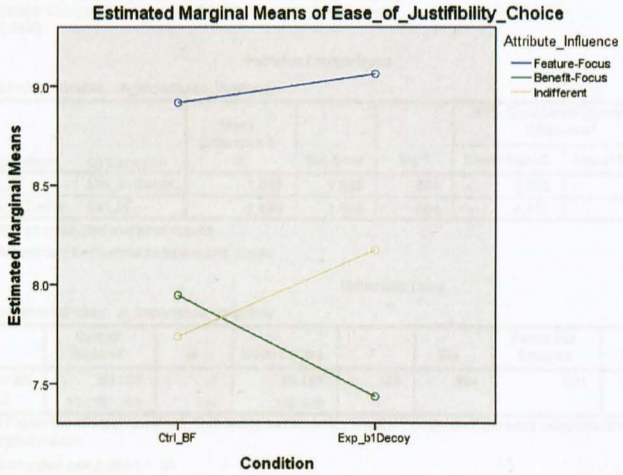
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

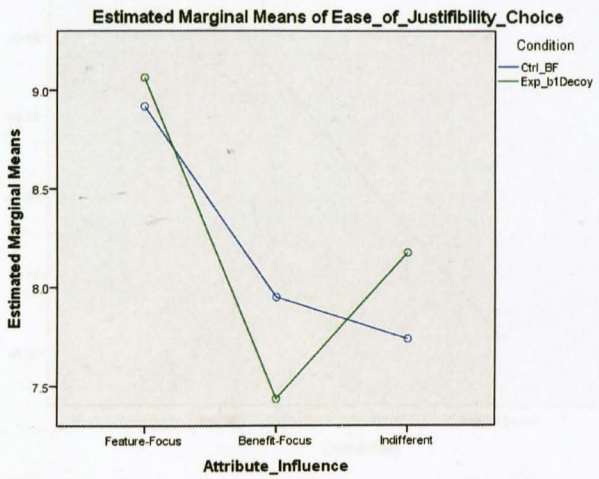
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	38.055	2	19.027	11.852	.000	.133	23.704	.994
Error	247.231	154	1.605					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.6461, Category_Involvement = 7.2881



Benefit positioning: weight-change

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	2	Exp_b1Decoy	180

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

Condition	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	49.5745	19.13559	188
Exp_b1Decoy	48.5556	18.22400	180
Total	49.0761	18.67679	368

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	7665.602[a]	3	2555.201	7.728	.000	.060	23.184	.988
Intercept	135059.250	1	135059.250	408.481	.000	.529	408.481	1.000
Category_Knowledge	40.439	1	40.439	.122	.727	.000	.122	.064
Category_Involvement	1414.367	1	1414.367	4.278	.039	.012	4.278	.541
Condition	99.188	1	99.188	.300	.584	.001	.300	.085
Error	120352.268	364	330.638					
Total	1014332.000	368						
Corrected Total	128017.870	367						

a. R Squared = .060 (Adjusted R Squared = .052)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	49.584[a]	1.326	46.976	52.192
Exp_b1Decoy	48.546[a]	1.355	45.880	51.211

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.2536, Category_Involvement = 6.9493.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b1Decoy	1.039	1.896	.584	-2.690	4.767
Exp_b1Decoy	Ctrl_BF	-1.039	1.896	.584	-4.767	2.690

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

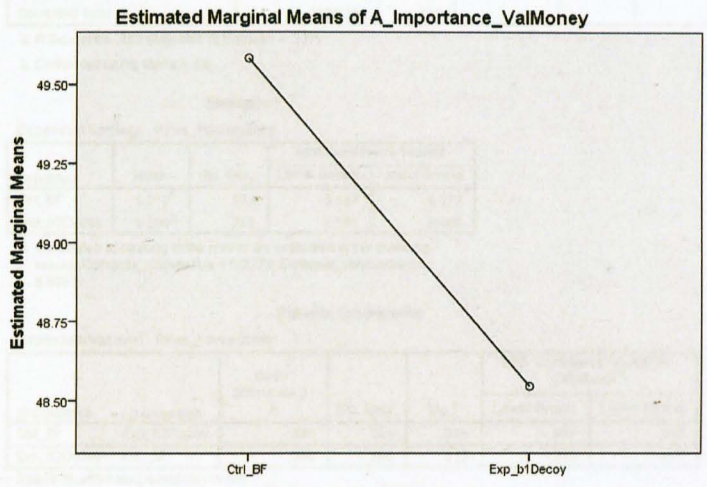
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	99.188	1	99.188	.300	.584	.001	.300	.085
Error	120352.268	364	330.638					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



APPENDIX D4

Benefit positioning: Favourability 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	106
	2	Benefit-Focus	134
	3	Indifferent	96

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	4.4103	2.49382	78
	Benefit-Focus	7.6129	1.85856	62
	Indifferent	6.6250	2.45491	48
	Total	6.0319	2.68668	188
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	4.7143	3.34284	28
	Benefit-Focus	7.8056	2.34754	72
	Indifferent	7.0833	2.64038	48
	Total	6.9865	2.87373	148
Total	Feature-Focus	4.4906	2.72889	106
	Benefit-Focus	7.7164	2.12968	134
	Indifferent	6.8542	2.54633	96
	Total	6.4524	2.80683	336

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

F	df1	df2	Sig.
4.387	5	330	.001

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	666.453[a]	7	95.208	15.829	.000	.253	110.806	1.000
Intercept	1345.011	1	1345.011	223.625	.000	.405	223.625	1.000
Category_Knowledge	2.116	1	2.116	.352	.554	.001	.352	.091
Category_Involvement	1.291	1	1.291	.215	.643	.001	.215	.075
Condition	8.869	1	8.869	1.475	.225	.004	1.475	.228
Attribute_Influence	451.867	2	225.933	37.564	.000	.186	75.128	1.000
Condition * Attribute_Influence	.733	2	.366	.061	.941	.000	.122	.059
Error	1972.785	328	6.015					
Total	16628.000	336						
Corrected Total	2639.238	335						

a. R Squared = .253 (Adjusted R Squared = .237)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.213[a]	.183	5.854	6.573
Exp_b2Decoy	6.559[a]	.218	6.131	6.988

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	-.346	.285	.225	-.907	.215
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.346	.285	.225	-.215	.907

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Benefit positioning: Favourability 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	4.633[a]	.273	4.095	5.170
Benefit-Focus	7.642[a]	.216	7.218	8.066
Indifferent	6.884[a]	.251	6.390	7.379

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-3.010*	.352	.000	-3.854	-2.165
	Indifferent	-2.252*	.370	.000	-3.140	-1.364
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	3.010*	.352	.000	2.165	3.854
	Indifferent	.758	.333	.068	-.040	1.556
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	2.252*	.370	.000	1.364	3.140
	Benefit-Focus	-.758	.333	.068	-1.556	.040

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

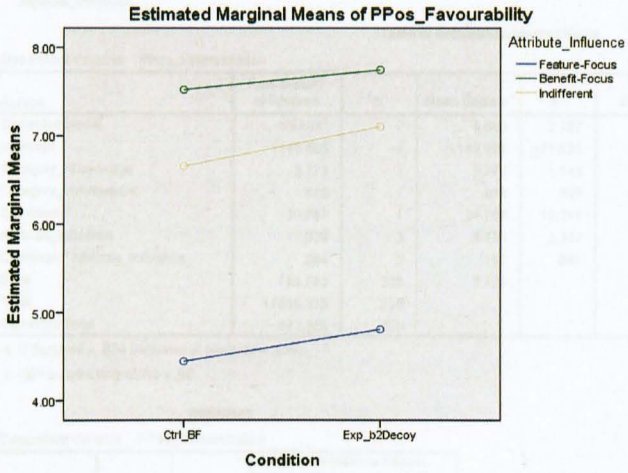
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Favourability

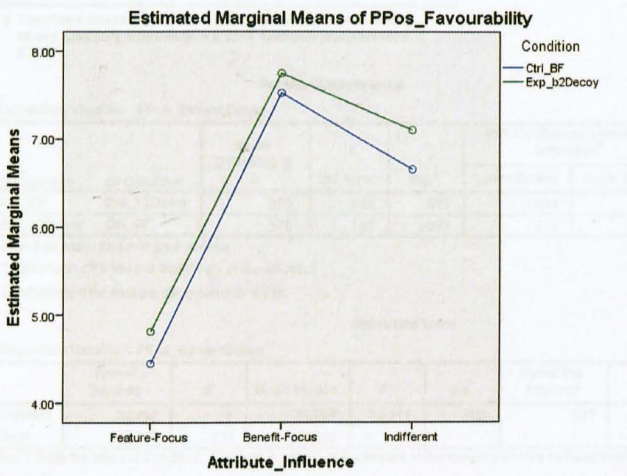
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	451.867	2	225.933	37.564	.000	.186	75.128	1.000
Error	1972.785	328	6.015					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067



Benefit positioning: Differentiation 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	106
	2	Benefit-Focus	134
	3	Indifferent	96

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	6.9316	1.14511	78
	Benefit-Focus	6.8280	1.29977	62
	Indifferent	6.5417	1.21773	48
	Total	6.7979	1.21997	188
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.5000	2.05581	28
	Benefit-Focus	7.5278	1.70863	72
	Indifferent	7.0833	2.10650	48
	Total	7.3784	1.90977	148
Total	Feature-Focus	7.0818	1.45319	106
	Benefit-Focus	7.2040	1.56716	134
	Indifferent	6.8125	1.73294	96
	Total	7.0536	1.58573	336

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

F	df1	df2	Sig.
8.271	5	330	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	46.804[a]	7	6.686	2.757	.009	.056	19.297	.911
Intercept	1143.685	1	1143.685	471.525	.000	.590	471.525	1.000
Category_Knowledge	2.773	1	2.773	1.143	.286	.003	1.143	.187
Category_Involvement	.018	1	.018	.007	.931	.000	.007	.051
Condition	24.767	1	24.767	10.211	.002	.030	10.211	.890
Attribute_Influence	11.239	2	5.620	2.317	.100	.014	4.634	.468
Condition * Attribute_Influence	.394	2	.197	.081	.922	.000	.163	.062
Error	795.565	328	2.426					
Total	17559.333	336						
Corrected Total	842.369	335						

a. R Squared = .056 (Adjusted R Squared = .035)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.772[a]	.116	6.544	7.001
Exp_b2Decoy	7.351[a]	.138	7.078	7.623

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	-.578*	.181	.002	-.934	-.222
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.578*	.181	.002	.222	.934

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	24.767	1	24.767	10.211	.002	.030	10.211	.890
Error	795.565	328	2.426					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated

Benefit positioning_Differentiation 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.178[a]	.173	6.837	7.519
Benefit-Focus	7.217[a]	.137	6.947	7.486
Indifferent	6.790[a]	.160	6.476	7.103

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.038	.224	.997	-.575	.498
	Indifferent	.389	.235	.268	-.175	.953
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.038	.224	.997	-.498	.575
	Indifferent	.427	.211	.126	-.080	.934
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.389	.235	.268	-.953	.175
	Benefit-Focus	-.427	.211	.126	-.934	.080

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

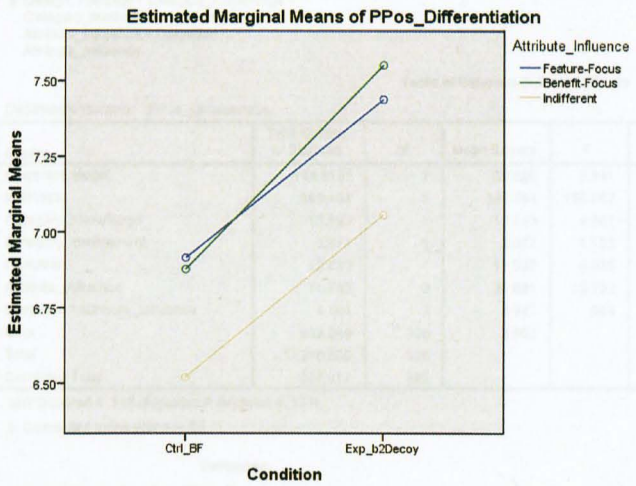
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Differentiation

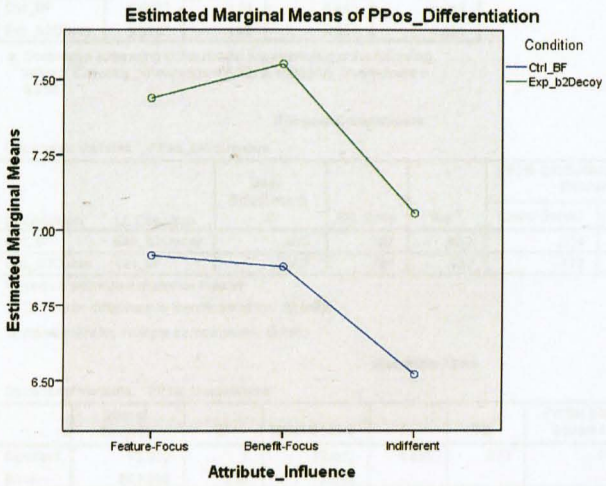
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	11.239	2	5.620	2.317	.100	.014	4.634	.468
Error	795.565	328	2.426					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067



Benefit positioning: Uniqueness 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	106
	2	Benefit-Focus	134
	3	Indifferent	96

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	5.1987	1.49260	78
	Benefit-Focus	5.7500	1.67552	62
	Indifferent	6.0729	1.53068	48
	Total	5.6037	1.59813	188
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	4.5714	1.49204	28
	Benefit-Focus	5.5000	1.92097	72
	Indifferent	5.9271	1.86724	48
	Total	5.4628	1.87840	148
Total	Feature-Focus	5.0330	1.51110	106
	Benefit-Focus	5.6157	1.80919	134
	Indifferent	6.0000	1.69985	96
	Total	5.5417	1.72594	336

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.705	5	330	.133

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	144.618[a]	7	20.660	7.941	.000	.145	55.590	1.000
Intercept	392.484	1	392.484	150.867	.000	.315	150.867	1.000
Category_Knowledge	12.193	1	12.193	4.687	.031	.014	4.687	.579
Category_Involvement	3.077	1	3.077	1.183	.278	.004	1.183	.192
Condition	12.032	1	12.032	4.625	.032	.014	4.625	.573
Attribute_Influence	71.763	2	35.881	13.792	.000	.078	27.585	.998
Condition * Attribute_Influence	4.494	2	2.247	.864	.423	.005	1.727	.198
Error	853.299	328	2.602					
Total	11316.500	336						
Corrected Total	997.917	335						

a. R Squared = .145 (Adjusted R Squared = .127)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	5.682[a]	.120	5.445	5.918
Exp_b2Decoy	5.279[a]	.143	4.997	5.561

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	.403*	.187	.032	.034	.772
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	-.403*	.187	.032	-.772	-.034

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	12.032	1	12.032	4.625	.032	.014	4.625	.573
Error	853.299	328	2.602					

Benefit positioning: Uniqueness 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	4.745[a]	.180	4.392	5.099
Benefit-Focus	5.760[a]	.142	5.481	6.039
Indifferent	5.936[a]	.165	5.610	6.261

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-1.015*	.231	.000	-1.570	-.459
	Indifferent	-1.190*	.243	.000	-1.774	-.606
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	1.015*	.231	.000	.459	1.570
	Indifferent	-.175	.219	.808	-.701	.350
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	1.190*	.243	.000	.606	1.774
	Benefit-Focus	.175	.219	.808	-.350	.701

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

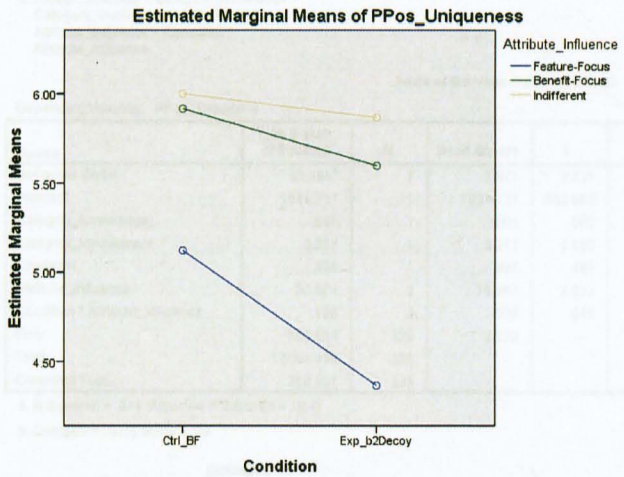
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Uniqueness

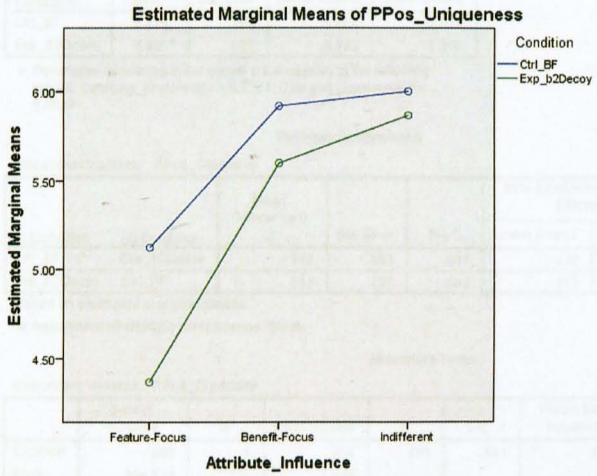
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	71.763	2	35.881	13.792	.000	.078	27.585	.998
Error	853.299	328	2.602					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067



Benefit positioning: Credibility 1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	106
	2	Benefit-Focus	134
	3	Indifferent	96

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	7.4017	1.24879	78
	Benefit-Focus	6.7312	1.20841	62
	Indifferent	6.5000	1.27904	48
	Total	6.9504	1.29715	188
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.4762	1.86240	28
	Benefit-Focus	6.9074	1.27725	72
	Indifferent	6.6250	1.96497	48
	Total	6.9234	1.65739	148
Total	Feature-Focus	7.4214	1.42710	106
	Benefit-Focus	6.8259	1.24435	134
	Indifferent	6.5625	1.65031	96
	Total	6.9385	1.46451	336

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

F	df1	df2	Sig.
3.622	5	330	.003

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	52.994[a]	7	7.571	3.731	.001	.074	26.118	.977
Intercept	1034.727	1	1034.727	509.969	.000	.609	509.969	1.000
Category_Knowledge	.005	1	.005	.002	.962	.000	.002	.050
Category_Involvement	3.217	1	3.217	1.585	.209	.005	1.585	.241
Condition	.996	1	.996	.491	.484	.001	.491	.108
Attribute_Influence	30.974	2	15.487	7.633	.001	.044	15.266	.946
Condition * Attribute_Influence	.196	2	.098	.048	.953	.000	.096	.057
Error	665.513	328	2.029					
Total	16894.444	336						
Corrected Total	718.507	335						

a. R Squared = .074 (Adjusted R Squared = .054)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.875[a]	.106	6.666	7.084
Exp_b2Decoy	6.991[a]	.127	6.742	7.240

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	-.116	.165	.484	-.442	.210
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.116	.165	.484	-.210	.442

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	.996	1	.996	.491	.484	.001	.491	.108
Error	665.513	328	2.029					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated

Benefit positioning: Credibility 2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.384[a]	.159	7.072	7.696
Benefit-Focus	6.869[a]	.125	6.622	7.115
Indifferent	6.547[a]	.146	6.260	6.834

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.515*	.204	.036	.024	1.006
	Indifferent	.836*	.215	.000	.321	1.352
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.515*	.204	.036	-1.006	-.024
	Indifferent	.321	.193	.264	-.142	.785
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.836*	.215	.000	-1.352	-.321
	Benefit-Focus	-.321	.193	.264	-.785	.142

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

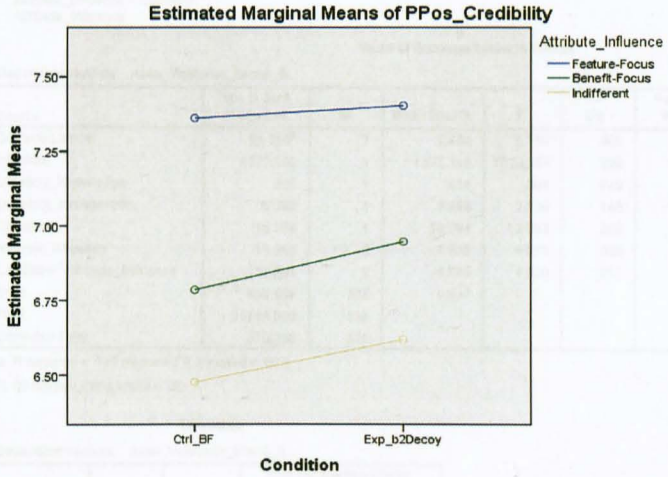
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PPos_Credibility

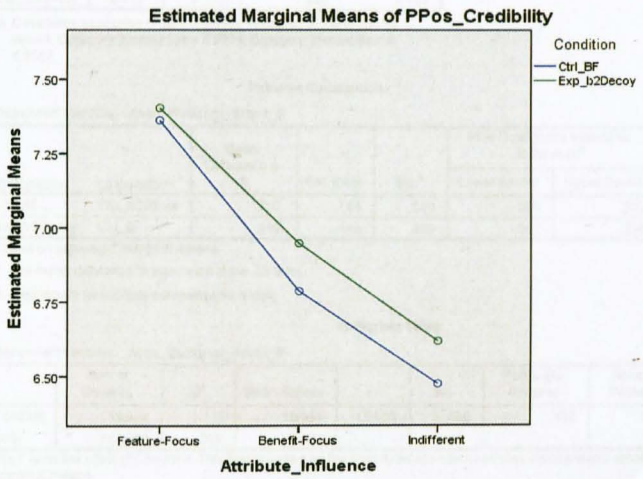
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	30.974	2	15.487	7.633	.001	.044	15.266	.946
Error	665.513	328	2.029					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067



Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_B_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	148
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	106
	2	Benefit-Focus	134
	3	Indifferent	96

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	8.5641	1.08819	78
	Benefit-Focus	8.8387	.96145	62
	Indifferent	8.5000	1.01058	48
	Total	8.6383	1.03263	188
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	8.7143	.97590	28
	Benefit-Focus	8.0278	1.35285	72
	Indifferent	7.6250	1.86371	48
	Total	8.0270	1.52059	148
Total	Feature-Focus	8.6038	1.05721	106
	Benefit-Focus	8.4030	1.25128	134
	Indifferent	8.0625	1.55470	96
	Total	8.3690	1.30469	336

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

F	df1	df2	Sig.
8.273	5	330	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	66.250[a]	7	9.464	6.159	.000	.116	43.116	1.000
Intercept	1572.149	1	1572.149	1023.168	.000	.757	1023.168	1.000
Category_Knowledge	.006	1	.006	.004	.949	.000	.004	.050
Category_Involvement	3.365	1	3.365	2.190	.140	.007	2.190	.314
Condition	19.964	1	19.964	12.993	.000	.038	12.993	.949
Attribute_Influence	15.260	2	7.630	4.966	.008	.029	9.931	.809
Condition * Attribute_Influence	13.891	2	6.945	4.520	.012	.027	9.040	.769
Error	503.989	328	1.537					
Total	24104.000	336						
Corrected Total	570.238	335						

a. R Squared = .116 (Adjusted R Squared = .097)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	8.631[a]	.092	8.450	8.813
Exp_b2Decoy	8.112[a]	.110	7.896	8.329

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	.519*	.144	.000	.236	.802
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	-.519*	.144	.000	-.802	-.236

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	19.964	1	19.964	12.993	.000	.038	12.993	.949
Error	503.989	328	1.537					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_B_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	8.586[a]	.138	8.315	8.858
Benefit-Focus	8.480[a]	.109	8.265	8.694
Indifferent	8.049[a]	.127	7.799	8.299

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.106	.178	.909	-.320	.533
	Indifferent	.537*	.187	.013	.089	.986
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.106	.178	.909	-.533	.320
	Indifferent	.431*	.168	.032	.027	.834
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.537*	.187	.013	-.986	-.089
	Benefit-Focus	-.431*	.168	.032	-.834	-.027

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

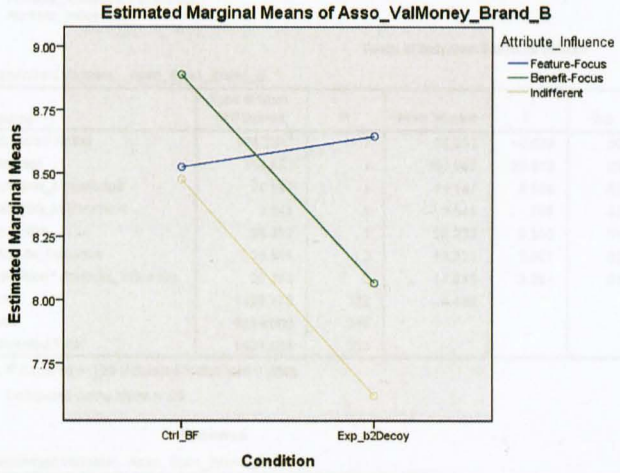
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_ValMoney_Brand_B

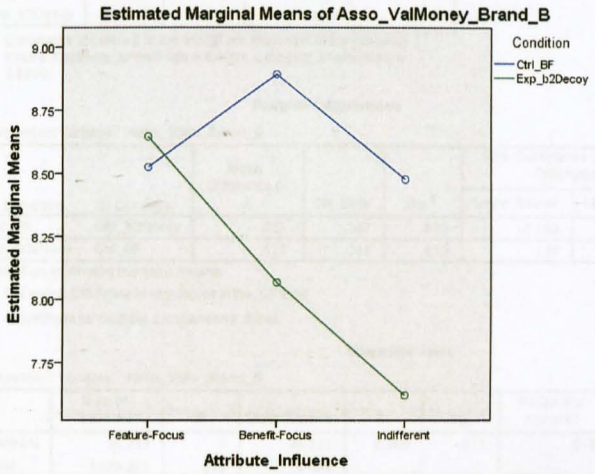
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	15.260	2	7.630	4.966	.008	.029	9.931	.809
Error	503.989	328	1.537					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067



Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_F_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	142
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	106
	2	Benefit-Focus	132
	3	Indifferent	92

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	3.9231	2.51111	78
	Benefit-Focus	3.8065	1.62802	62
	Indifferent	5.2500	2.64575	48
	Total	4.2234	2.36351	188
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	4.9286	2.05352	28
	Benefit-Focus	5.0857	1.83952	70
	Indifferent	5.0455	1.91633	44
	Total	5.0423	1.89390	142
Total	Feature-Focus	4.1887	2.43042	106
	Benefit-Focus	4.4848	1.85128	132
	Indifferent	5.1522	2.31543	92
	Total	4.5758	2.20844	330

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

F	df1	df2	Sig.
4.028	5	324	.001

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	175.231[a]	7	25.033	5.639	.000	.109	39.475	.999
Intercept	358.983	1	358.983	80.869	.000	.201	80.869	1.000
Category_Knowledge	29.147	1	29.147	6.566	.011	.020	6.566	.724
Category_Involvement	3.541	1	3.541	.798	.372	.002	.798	.145
Condition	28.232	1	28.232	6.360	.012	.019	6.360	.710
Attribute_Influence	26.646	2	13.323	3.001	.051	.018	6.003	.580
Condition * Attribute_Influence	29.269	2	14.635	3.297	.038	.020	6.594	.623
Error	1429.375	322	4.439					
Total	8514.000	330						
Corrected Total	1604.606	329						

a. R Squared = .109 (Adjusted R Squared = .090)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	4.343[a]	.157	4.034	4.652
Exp_b2Decoy	4.966[a]	.190	4.592	5.340

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3091, Category_Involvement = 6.8909.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	-.623*	.247	.012	-1.109	-.137
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.623*	.247	.012	.137	1.109

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	28.232	1	28.232	6.360	.012	.019	6.360	.710
Error	1429.375	322	4.439					

Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_F_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	4.345[a]	.235	3.883	4.807
Benefit-Focus	4.534[a]	.187	4.167	4.901
Indifferent	5.084[a]	.221	4.650	5.518

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3091, Category_Involvement = 6.8909.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.190	.304	.898	-.919	.540
	Indifferent	-.740	.321	.064	-1.510	.031
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.190	.304	.898	-.540	.919
	Indifferent	-.550	.290	.167	-1.247	.147
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	.740	.321	.064	-.031	1.510
	Benefit-Focus	.550	.290	.167	-.147	1.247

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

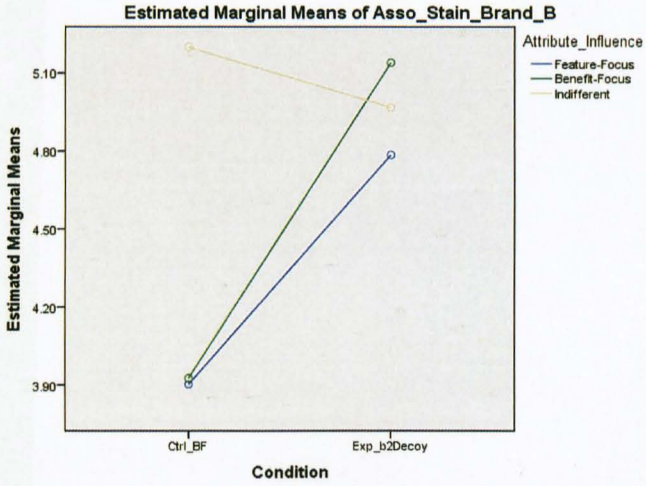
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Asso_Stain_Brand_B

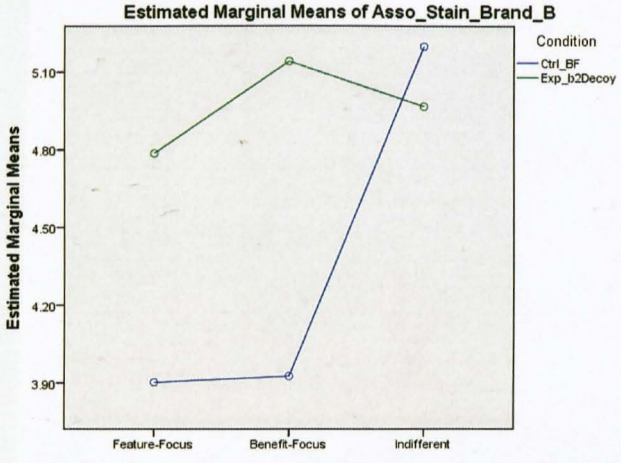
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	26.646	2	13.323	3.001	.051	.018	6.003	.580
Error	1429.375	322	4.439					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3091, Category_Involvement = 6.8909



Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_SUM_1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	142
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	106
	2	Benefit-Focus	132
	3	Indifferent	92

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	12.4872	2.59742	78
	Benefit-Focus	12.6452	1.92564	62
	Indifferent	13.7500	3.13185	48
	Total	12.9617	2.59412	188
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	13.6429	2.32879	28
	Benefit-Focus	13.0571	2.25791	70
	Indifferent	12.4545	2.80742	44
	Total	12.9859	2.47250	142
Total	Feature-Focus	12.7925	2.56985	106
	Benefit-Focus	12.8636	2.11058	132
	Indifferent	13.1304	3.03539	92
	Total	12.9152	2.53943	330

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

F	df1	df2	Sig.
3.337	5	324	.006

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	168.449[a]	7	24.064	3.967	.000	.079	27.770	.984
Intercept	3375.236	1	3375.236	556.441	.000	.633	556.441	1.000
Category_Knowledge	28.096	1	28.096	4.632	.032	.014	4.632	.574
Category_Involvement	.008	1	.008	.001	.971	.000	.001	.050
Condition	.018	1	.018	.003	.956	.000	.003	.050
Attribute_Influence	.374	2	.187	.031	.970	.000	.062	.055
Condition * Attribute_Influence	63.502	2	31.751	5.234	.006	.031	10.469	.830
Error	1953.175	322	6.066					
Total	57166.000	330						
Corrected Total	2121.624	329						

a. R Squared = .079 (Adjusted R Squared = .059)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	12.973[a]	.183	12.612	13.334
Exp_b2Decoy	12.989[a]	.222	12.551	13.426

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3091, Category_Involvement = 6.8909.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	-.016	.289	.956	-.584	.552
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.016	.289	.956	-.552	.584

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	.018	1	.018	.003	.956	.000	.003	.050
Error	1953.175	322	6.066					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated

Benefit positioning: Value shift_PA_SUM_2

Estimates

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	12.931[a]	.274	12.391	13.471
Benefit-Focus	12.987[a]	.218	12.558	13.416
Indifferent	13.024[a]	.258	12.516	13.531

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3091, Category_Involvement = 6.8909.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.056	.355	.998	-.909	.796
	Indifferent	-.093	.375	.993	-.994	.808
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.056	.355	.998	-.796	.909
	Indifferent	-.037	.340	.999	-.852	.778
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	.093	.375	.993	-.808	.994
	Benefit-Focus	.037	.340	.999	-.778	.852

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

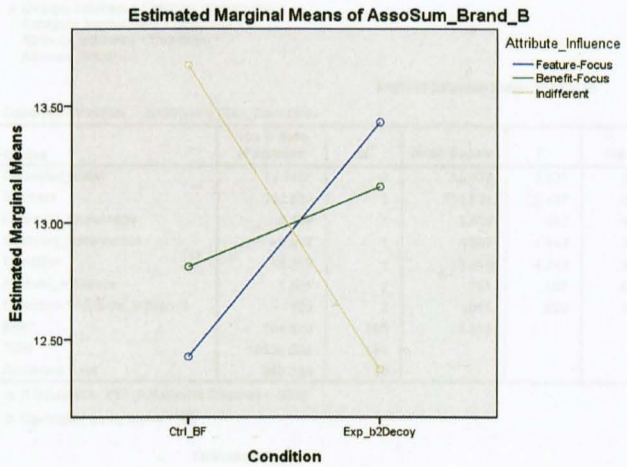
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: AssoSum_Brand_B

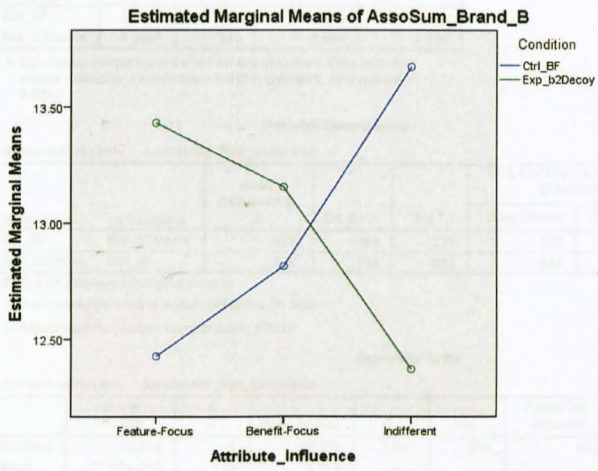
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	.374	2	.187	.031	.970	.000	.062	.055
Error	1953.175	322	6.066					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3091, Category_Involvement = 6.8909



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3091, Category_Involvement = 6.8909

Benefit positioning: emergent-value_dominant valuing

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	84
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	110
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	76
	2	Benefit-Focus	72
	3	Indifferent	46

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	6.74	1.578	62
	Benefit-Focus	6.50	1.604	8
	Indifferent	6.57	1.342	14
	Total	6.69	1.529	84
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	7.43	2.277	14
	Benefit-Focus	7.31	2.696	64
	Indifferent	7.38	1.963	32
	Total	7.35	2.432	110
Total	Feature-Focus	6.87	1.731	76
	Benefit-Focus	7.22	2.601	72
	Indifferent	7.13	1.821	46
	Total	7.06	2.110	194

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomVal

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.957	5	188	.087

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	74.740[a]	7	10.677	2.531	.016	.087	17.720	.875
Intercept	330.834	1	330.834	78.437	.000	.297	78.437	1.000
Category_Knowledge	2.499	1	2.499	.592	.442	.003	.592	.119
Category_Involvement	6.087	1	6.087	1.443	.231	.008	1.443	.223
Condition	18.318	1	18.318	4.343	.039	.023	4.343	.545
Attribute_Influence	1.581	2	.791	.187	.829	.002	.375	.079
Condition * Attribute_Influence	.700	2	.350	.083	.920	.001	.166	.062
Error	784.518	186	4.218					
Total	10534.000	194						
Corrected Total	859.258	193						

a. R Squared = .087 (Adjusted R Squared = .053)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	6.534[a]	.316	5.910	7.158
Exp_b2Decoy	7.360[a]	.238	6.891	7.830

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3574, Category_Involvement = 6.8213.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	-.826*	.396	.039	-1.608	-.044
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	.826*	.396	.039	.044	1.608

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	18.318	1	18.318	4.343	.039	.023	4.343	.545
Error	784.518	186	4.218					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Benefit positioning: emergent-value, dominant-value

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	6.994[a]	.305	6.391	7.596
Benefit-Focus	7.073[a]	.390	6.304	7.842
Indifferent	6.775[a]	.340	6.106	7.445

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3574, Category_Involvement = 6.8213.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	-.079	.499	.998	-1.280	1.122
	Indifferent	.218	.452	.949	-.870	1.306
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	.079	.499	.998	-1.122	1.280
	Indifferent	.297	.526	.922	-.971	1.566
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.218	.452	.949	-1.306	.870
	Benefit-Focus	-.297	.526	.922	-1.566	.971

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

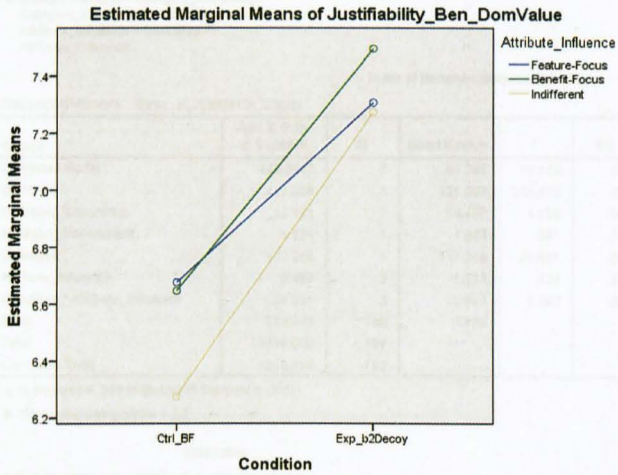
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Justifiability_Ben_DomValue

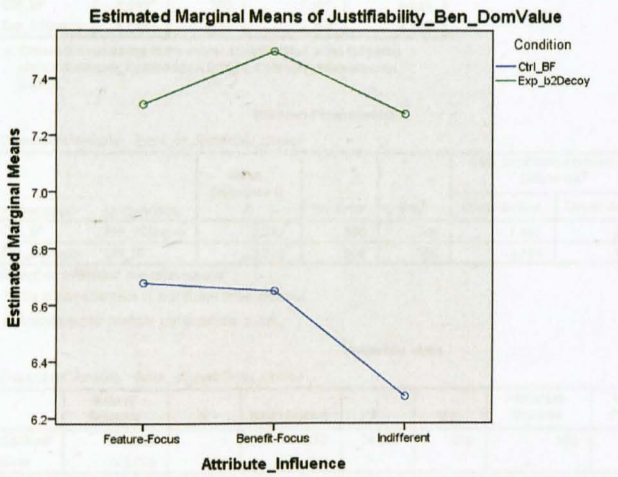
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	1.581	2	.791	.187	.829	.002	.375	.079
Error	784.518	186	4.218					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3574, Category_Involvement = 6.8213



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3574, Category_Involvement = 6.8213

Benefit positioning: emergent-value, ease of justification

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	84
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	110
Attribute_Influence	1	Feature-Focus	76
	2	Benefit-Focus	72
	3	Indifferent	46

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Condition	Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	Feature-Focus	8.90	1.565	62
	Benefit-Focus	7.75	.463	8
	Indifferent	7.71	1.541	14
	Total	8.60	1.569	84
Exp_b2Decoy	Feature-Focus	5.57	2.593	14
	Benefit-Focus	5.41	2.389	64
	Indifferent	6.44	2.184	32
	Total	5.73	2.381	110
Total	Feature-Focus	8.29	2.202	76
	Benefit-Focus	5.67	2.374	72
	Indifferent	6.83	2.080	46
	Total	6.97	2.508	194

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choi

F	df1	df2	Sig.
5.130	5	188	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition + Attribute_Influence + Condition * Attribute_Influence

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	470.851[a]	7	67.264	16.840	.000	.388	117.877	1.000
Intercept	421.304	1	421.304	105.473	.000	.362	105.473	1.000
Category_Knowledge	16.491	1	16.491	4.128	.044	.022	4.128	.525
Category_Involvement	1.524	1	1.524	.381	.538	.002	.381	.094
Condition	147.240	1	147.240	36.861	.000	.165	36.861	1.000
Attribute_Influence	3.467	2	1.733	.434	.649	.005	.868	.120
Condition * Attribute_Influence	31.091	2	15.545	3.892	.022	.040	7.784	.697
Error	742.963	186	3.994					
Total	10636.000	194						
Corrected Total	1213.814	193						

a. R Squared = .388 (Adjusted R Squared = .365)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	8.088[a]	.308	7.481	8.695
Exp_b2Decoy	5.746[a]	.232	5.289	6.203

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3574, Category_Involvement = 6.8213.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	2.342*	.386	.000	1.581	3.104
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	-2.342*	.386	.000	-3.104	-1.581

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	147.240	1	147.240	36.861	.000	.165	36.861	1.000
Error	742.963	186	3.994					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Benefit positioning: emergent-value, ease of justification

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

Attribute_Influence	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	7.155[a]	.297	6.569	7.741
Benefit-Focus	6.747[a]	.379	5.998	7.495
Indifferent	6.849[a]	.330	6.197	7.501

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3574, Category_Involvement = 6.8213.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

(I) Attribute_Influence	(J) Attribute_Influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feature-Focus	Benefit-Focus	.408	.485	.785	-.761	1.577
	Indifferent	.306	.439	.865	-.753	1.365
Benefit-Focus	Feature-Focus	-.408	.485	.785	-1.577	.761
	Indifferent	-.102	.512	.996	-1.337	1.132
Indifferent	Feature-Focus	-.306	.439	.865	-1.365	.753
	Benefit-Focus	.102	.512	.996	-1.132	1.337

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

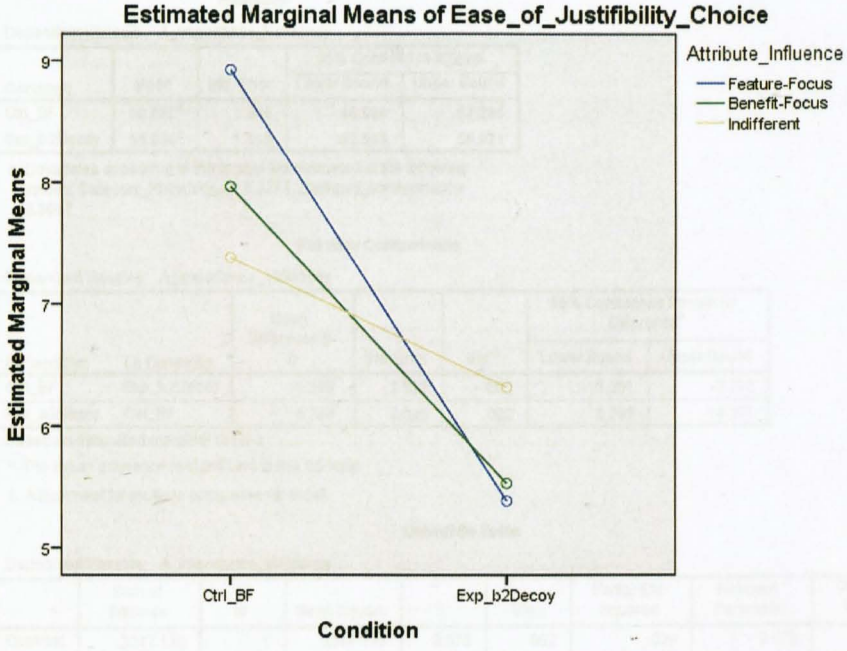
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Ease_of_Justifibility_Choice

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	3.467	2	1.733	.434	.649	.005	.868	.120
Error	742.963	186	3.994					

The F tests the effect of Attribute_Influence. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05



Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3574, Category_Involvement = 6.8213

Benefit positioning: weight-change

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Condition	1	Ctrl_BF	188
	3	Exp_b2Decoy	148

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

Condition	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Ctrl_BF	49.5745	19.13559	188
Exp_b2Decoy	56.0135	18.38699	148
Total	52.4107	19.05258	336

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.495	1	334	.482

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + Condition

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	9052.821[a]	3	3017.607	8.901	.000	.074	26.703	.995
Intercept	123642.539	1	123642.539	364.713	.000	.523	364.713	1.000
Category_Knowledge	35.118	1	35.118	.104	.748	.000	.104	.062
Category_Involvement	1226.442	1	1226.442	3.618	.058	.011	3.618	.475
Condition	3247.135	1	3247.135	9.578	.002	.028	9.578	.870
Error	112552.500	332	339.014					
Total	1044558.000	336						
Corrected Total	121605.321	335						

a. R Squared = .074 (Adjusted R Squared = .066)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Estimates

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

Condition	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	49.637[a]	1.346	46.988	52.285
Exp_b2Decoy	55.934[a]	1.518	52.948	58.921

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3274, Category_Involvement = 6.9067.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

(I) Condition	(J) Condition	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ctrl_BF	Exp_b2Decoy	-6.298*	2.035	.002	-10.301	-2.295
Exp_b2Decoy	Ctrl_BF	6.298*	2.035	.002	2.295	10.301

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Sidak.

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: A_Importance_ValMoney

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[a]
Contrast	3247.135	1	3247.135	9.578	.002	.028	9.578	.870
Error	112552.500	332	339.014					

The F tests the effect of Condition. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Computed using alpha = .05

APPENDIX D5 Results of MANOVA (i)

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
TypeDecoy	1	FREQ	332
	2	RANGE	296
TypePositioningAttribute	1	Feature_Positioned	306
	2	Benefit_Positioned	322

Descriptive Statistics

	TypeDecoy	TypePositioningAttribute	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PPos_Favourability	FREQ	Feature_Positioned	6.1772	3.11053	158
		Benefit_Positioned	7.7126	2.40860	174
		Total	6.9819	2.86551	332
	RANGE	Feature_Positioned	6.7162	2.73312	148
		Benefit_Positioned	6.9865	2.87373	148
		Total	6.8514	2.80282	296
	Total	Feature_Positioned	6.4379	2.94168	306
		Benefit_Positioned	7.3789	2.65326	322
		Total	6.9204	2.83463	628
PPos_Differentiation	FREQ	Feature_Positioned	7.9873	1.57963	158
		Benefit_Positioned	8.5709	1.57363	174
		Total	8.2932	1.60094	332
	RANGE	Feature_Positioned	7.8739	1.79417	148
		Benefit_Positioned	7.3784	1.90977	148
		Total	7.6261	1.86631	296
	Total	Feature_Positioned	7.9325	1.68497	306
		Benefit_Positioned	8.0228	1.83279	322
		Total	7.9788	1.76149	628
PPos_Uniqueness	FREQ	Feature_Positioned	6.6392	1.96658	158
		Benefit_Positioned	7.6408	1.94606	174
		Total	7.1642	2.01612	332
	RANGE	Feature_Positioned	6.5405	1.98764	148
		Benefit_Positioned	5.4628	1.87840	148
		Total	6.0017	2.00455	296
	Total	Feature_Positioned	6.5915	1.97417	306
		Benefit_Positioned	6.6398	2.19970	322
		Total	6.6162	2.09132	628
PPos_Credibility	FREQ	Feature_Positioned	7.6709	1.53883	158
		Benefit_Positioned	8.2567	1.61615	174
		Total	7.9779	1.60443	332
	RANGE	Feature_Positioned	7.4054	1.48285	148
		Benefit_Positioned	6.9234	1.65739	148
		Total	7.1644	1.58833	296
	Total	Feature_Positioned	7.5425	1.51538	306
		Benefit_Positioned	7.6439	1.76310	322
		Total	7.5945	1.64653	628

Results of MANOVA (i)

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.723	404.906[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.723
	Wilks' Lambda	.277	404.906[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.723
	Hotelling's Trace	2.617	404.906[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.723
	Roy's Largest Root	2.617	404.906[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.723
Category_Knowledge	Pillai's Trace	.006	.973[b]	4.000	619.000	.421	.006
	Wilks' Lambda	.994	.973[b]	4.000	619.000	.421	.006
	Hotelling's Trace	.006	.973[b]	4.000	619.000	.421	.006
	Roy's Largest Root	.006	.973[b]	4.000	619.000	.421	.006
Category_Involvement	Pillai's Trace	.021	3.287[b]	4.000	619.000	.011	.021
	Wilks' Lambda	.979	3.287[b]	4.000	619.000	.011	.021
	Hotelling's Trace	.021	3.287[b]	4.000	619.000	.011	.021
	Roy's Largest Root	.021	3.287[b]	4.000	619.000	.011	.021
TypeDecoy	Pillai's Trace	.116	20.310[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.116
	Wilks' Lambda	.884	20.310[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.116
	Hotelling's Trace	.131	20.310[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.116
	Roy's Largest Root	.131	20.310[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.116
TypePositioningAttribute	Pillai's Trace	.028	4.472[b]	4.000	619.000	.001	.028
	Wilks' Lambda	.972	4.472[b]	4.000	619.000	.001	.028
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	4.472[b]	4.000	619.000	.001	.028
	Roy's Largest Root	.029	4.472[b]	4.000	619.000	.001	.028
TypeDecoy * TypePositioningAttribute	Pillai's Trace	.082	13.756[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.082
	Wilks' Lambda	.918	13.756[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.082
	Hotelling's Trace	.089	13.756[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.082
	Roy's Largest Root	.089	13.756[b]	4.000	619.000	.000	.082

a. Design: Intercept + Category_Knowledge + Category_Involvement + TypeDecoy + TypePositioningAttribute + TypeDecoy * TypePositioningAttribute

b. Exact statistic

Estimates

Dependent Variable	TypeDecoy	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
PPos_Favourability	FREQ	6.937[a]	.153	6.636	7.238
	RANGE	6.861[a]	.162	6.542	7.179
PPos_Differentiation	FREQ	8.282[a]	.093	8.098	8.465
	RANGE	7.623[a]	.099	7.429	7.817
PPos_Uniqueness	FREQ	7.148[a]	.102	6.948	7.347
	RANGE	5.993[a]	.107	5.782	6.204
PPos_Credibility	FREQ	7.968[a]	.085	7.801	8.134
	RANGE	7.160[a]	.090	6.984	7.336

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Category_Knowledge = 6.3715, Category_Involvement = 6.8859.

Results of MANOVA (iii)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	PPos_Favourability	214.291[a]	5	42.858	5.526	.000	.043
	PPos_Differentiation	153.066[b]	5	30.613	10.623	.000	.079
	PPos_Uniqueness	623.716[c]	5	124.743	36.624	.000	.227
	PPos_Credibility	224.272[d]	5	44.854	18.908	.000	.132
Intercept	PPos_Favourability	2840.463	1	2840.463	366.266	.000	.371
	PPos_Differentiation	2839.947	1	2839.947	985.505	.000	.613
	PPos_Uniqueness	1153.647	1	1153.647	338.707	.000	.353
	PPos_Credibility	2298.864	1	2298.864	969.047	.000	.609
Category_Knowledge	PPos_Favourability	7.602	1	7.602	.980	.323	.002
	PPos_Differentiation	.576	1	.576	.200	.655	.000
	PPos_Uniqueness	6.272	1	6.272	1.841	.175	.003
	PPos_Credibility	1.480	1	1.480	.624	.430	.001
Category_Involvement	PPos_Favourability	1.750	1	1.750	.226	.635	.000
	PPos_Differentiation	6.911	1	6.911	2.398	.122	.004
	PPos_Uniqueness	38.678	1	38.678	11.356	.001	.018
	PPos_Credibility	13.087	1	13.087	5.517	.019	.009
TypeDecoy	PPos_Favourability	.904	1	.904	.117	.733	.000
	PPos_Differentiation	67.317	1	67.317	23.360	.000	.036
	PPos_Uniqueness	207.351	1	207.351	60.878	.000	.089
	PPos_Credibility	101.357	1	101.357	42.725	.000	.064
TypePositioningAttribute	PPos_Favourability	124.539	1	124.539	16.059	.000	.025
	PPos_Differentiation	.416	1	.416	.144	.704	.000
	PPos_Uniqueness	.046	1	.046	.013	.908	.000
	PPos_Credibility	.621	1	.621	.262	.609	.000
TypeDecoy * TypePositioningAttribute	PPos_Favourability	62.047	1	62.047	8.001	.005	.013
	PPos_Differentiation	44.990	1	44.990	15.612	.000	.024
	PPos_Uniqueness	166.710	1	166.710	48.946	.000	.073
	PPos_Credibility	43.878	1	43.878	18.496	.000	.029
Error	PPos_Favourability	4823.729	622	7.755			
	PPos_Differentiation	1792.428	622	2.882			
	PPos_Uniqueness	2118.549	622	3.406			
	PPos_Credibility	1475.567	622	2.372			
Total	PPos_Favourability	35114.000	628				
	PPos_Differentiation	41924.444	628				
	PPos_Uniqueness	30232.750	628				
	PPos_Credibility	37920.444	628				
Corrected Total	PPos_Favourability	5038.019	627				
	PPos_Differentiation	1945.495	627				
	PPos_Uniqueness	2742.264	627				
	PPos_Credibility	1699.839	627				

a. R Squared = .043 (Adjusted R Squared = .035)

b. R Squared = .079 (Adjusted R Squared = .071)

c. R Squared = .227 (Adjusted R Squared = .221)

d. R Squared = .132 (Adjusted R Squared = .125)

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