

July 2016

Belief in a Just World: An Investigation of Underdog Brand Effects

Jungyoung (Tiffany) Shin
University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_2



Part of the [Hospitality Administration and Management Commons](#), and the [Marketing Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Shin, Jungyoung (Tiffany), "Belief in a Just World: An Investigation of Underdog Brand Effects" (2016).
Doctoral Dissertations. 638.
<https://doi.org/10.7275/8407798.0> https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_2/638

This Campus-Only Access for Five (5) Years is brought to you for free and open access by the Dissertations and Theses at ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

**BELIEF IN A JUST WORLD:
AN INVESTIGATION OF UNDERDOG BRAND EFFECTS**

A Dissertation Presented

By

JUNGYOUNG (TIFFANY) SHIN

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2016

Isenberg School of Management
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management

© Copyright by JUNGYOUNG (TIFFANY) SHIN 2016

All Rights Reserved

**BELIEF IN A JUST WORLD:
AN INVESTIGATION OF UNDERDOG BRAND EFFECTS**

A Dissertation Presented

By

Jungyoung (Tiffany) Shin

Approved as to style and content by:

Rodney B. Warnick, Chair

Albert G. Assaf, Member

Melissa Baker, Member

Ronnie Janoff-Bulman, Member

George R. Milne, Program Director

Isenberg School of Management Ph.D. Program

DEDICATION

To My Beloved Family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am here to thank everyone who has supported my academic journey at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Especially, I want to express my heartfelt gratitude to my advisor, Prof. Rod Warnick, for all his invaluable guidance and support. His extensive knowledge of the field of hospitality and tourism has helped me identify sweeping changes in consumer behavior. I will treasure his lessons and pass them on to the next generations. Secondly, I would like to thank Prof. Haemoon Oh for his unconditional support and for his philosophical challenges as well. I truly grew through these challenges, by deeply contemplating the difficult conceptual questions that he asked.

Thirdly, I appreciate all the guidance I received from Dr. Melissa Baker. Her enthusiastic approach to dissecting and unraveling complicated social phenomena inspired me to extend my own intellect beyond the borders of traditional empirical thought. Next, I cannot thank Dr. Assaf and Dr. Janoff-Bulman enough for their tremendous support in the design of the illuminating research questions addressed in this dissertation. I am also very grateful for Dr. Miyoung Jeong's supervision in refining my thinking process. Finally, I want to send a special thank-you to Dr. Thomas Brashear-Alejandro for his guidance in helping me understand marketing theories. It has enabled me to develop a more sophisticated theoretical perspective. I value immensely the amazing relationship that we have all developed over time.

I would also like to thank my parents, who have been extremely supportive from the beginning. I could not have done this without your love and care. Lastly, thank you to my brother, who initially inspired me to consider underdog brand effects. If not for that

one trip to Boston, MA with you, my dissertation topic would have been something completely different. I will continue my journey through academia in Houston, TX. There, I will work tirelessly to nurture the young minds of our industry, while remaining steadfastly committed to growing the body of knowledge in the hospitality and tourism field.

ABSTRACT

BELIEF IN A JUST WORLD:

AN INVESTIGATION OF UNDERDOG BRAND EFFECTS

MAY 2016

JUNGYOUNG (TIFFANY) SHIN,

B.B.A., MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY, AUSTRALIA

M.S., SEJONG UNIVERSITY, REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Ph.D., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST, USA

Directed by: Professor Rodney B. Warnick

In today's society, when companies neglect ethical or social issues involved in business practices, these types of behavior could result in consumer boycotts or anti-consumption. The majority of previous research in anti-consumption assumed that consumers' brand avoidance is a result of a brand or a company's moral failure, however, more recent research indicates that this may not be the case. In fact, consumer avoidance of a brand may happen as a result of brand positioning status in the marketplace – coined as “*underdog effects*”. Although it is still questionable how individuals make judgments about underdogs in the hospitality industry, and more specifically within the food and beverage market segment, underdog brand positioning status has been frequently exploited in marketing practice.

However, despite its strong relevance in practice and anecdotal evidence found in previous literature, only a scant amount of research has been conducted on the domain of “underdogs” in hospitality and tourism marketing. Moreover, “to what extent do

underdog brand effects alter consumer judgment and decision-making” is still largely unknown (Paharia, Keinan, Avery, & Schor, 2011). Thus, this study positioned its inquiries within the domain of moral value judgment and attempted to investigate one’s underlying psychological motivations behind his or her support for “underdogs” and ultimate avoidance of topdogs.

To explain such consumer reactions toward underdog and topdog brands, this study grounded its argument within the belief in a just world theory and examined how brand positioning status (topdog vs. underdog) could alter one’s perception of market status unjustness and also could impact on motivation to restore justice. To build on what exists in the literature, this study incorporated several normative variables (brand origin: local vs. non-local; brand ideology: power vs. universalism) that might interplay with brand positioning status in making underdog appeals more salient. This research, then, tested the role of belief in a just world view as a moderator that influenced the relationship between brand positioning status, normative variables (brand origin and brand ideology), and motivation to restore justice. The belief in a just world theory assists this study in anticipating consumers’ behavioral outcomes when they encounter power imbalance between a winner and a loser in a business competition.

To test these hypotheses, this dissertation conducted two 2x2x2 between-subjects factorial design studies. The aim of Study 1 (brand positioning status x brand origin x belief in a just world view) was to create underdog effects by manipulating brand positioning status (underdog vs. topdog) and brand origin (local vs. non-local) and to examine its interaction effects with a variable examining individual differences (belief in a just world construct). This study can help consumers identify a winner or a loser of a

business competition, motivate consumers to restore justice, and eventually can stimulate consumers to be engaged in underdog brand support behavior. The relationships were also tested with a moderator (belief in a just world view). The purpose of Study 2 (brand positioning status x brand ideology x belief in a just world view) was to expand the understanding of underdog brand effects by examining its interaction effects with brand ideology and one's belief in a just world view. Hence, a 2 (brand positioning status: underdog vs. topdog) x 2 (brand ideology: power vs. universalism) x 2 (belief in a just world view: high vs. low) between subjects factorial design was developed to test hypotheses.

Findings of this research can fill the literature gap in underdog brand status and consumers' reactions toward large corporations. By incorporating normative variables (brand origin and brand ideology) to make the brand positioning status more salient, this study can shed light into the understanding of consumer support in underdogs and anti-corporation movement. More specifically, this study can contribute to the following areas: 1) deriving academic interest from luxury branding to small business branding; 2) considering brand effects in a network of brands; 3) broadening the understanding of consumer rejection for corporations and support for underdogs and extending the understanding of pro-social behavior; 4) justice restoration motive and third party justice motive; and, 5) reviewing and studying the application and extension of the belief in a just world theory.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
ABSTRACT.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background	1
1.2. Statement of Purpose and Research Questions	6
1.3. Significance of the Study	9
1.4. Organization of the Study	18
1.5. Definition of Terms.....	19
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	22
2.1. Overview	22
2.2. Anti-Corporation Movement and the Underdog Effects	23
2.3. Comparative Appeals and Underdog Effects.....	30
2.4. Justice Perception and Motivation to Restore Justice.....	36
2.5. Brand Origin and Underdog Support.....	40
2.6. Brand Ideologies and System Justification Process.....	42
2.7. The Belief in a Just World Theory.....	51

3. THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT & HYPOTHESES.....	60
3.1. Application of Belief in a Just World Theory to Consumer Value Judgment of Underdog Brands.....	60
3.2. Brand Positioning Status Cues.....	61
3.3. Brand Origin Cues	64
3.4. Brand Ideology Cues.....	66
3.5. Individual Differences of the Just World View	68
3.6. Behavioral Outcomes of Motivation to Restore Justice	70
3.7. A Conceptual Framework	72
4. METHOD	74
4.1. Overview of Methods and Designs.....	74
4.2. Study Design.....	74
4.3. Study 1 Design – Effects of Brand Positioning Status and Brand Origin	75
4.4. Study 2 Design – Effects of Brand Positioning Status and Brand Ideology.....	76
4.5. Brand Positioning Status Cue	77
4.6. Brand Origin Cue.....	78
4.7. Brand Ideology Cue	79
4.8. Moderating Role of the Belief in a Just World View	80
4.9. Mediating Variable	81
4.10. Dependent Variables.....	82
4.11. Structure of Survey Questionnaire.....	84
4.12. Study Procedures	84
4.12.1. Pretests Procedures	84

4.12.2. Main Study Procedures	86
4.13. Data Analyses	87
5. RESULTS	89
5.1. Study 1 (Brand Positioning Status x Brand Origin x Belief in a Just World View)	
Results	89
5.1.1. Sample Profile for Study 1	89
5.1.2. Scale Reliabilities.....	90
5.1.3. Manipulation Checks	92
5.1.3.1. Brand Positioning Status.....	92
5.1.3.2. Brand Origin	93
5.1.3.3. Realism check	94
5.1.4. 2x2x2 ANCOVA on the Motivation to Restore Justice.....	94
5.1.4.1. Covariates	94
5.1.4.2. Assumption Check.....	95
5.1.4.3. Direct Effects	96
5.1.4.4. Bivariate Correlations	99
5.1.5. Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice.....	100
5.1.6. Mediation Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice	102
5.1.7. Summary of Hypotheses.....	104
5.1.8. Discussion for Study 1 (Brand positioning status x Brand origin x Belief in a just world view.....	106
5.2. Study 2 (Brand Positioning Status x Brand Ideology x Belief in a Just World View) Results	107

5.2.1. Sample Profile for Study2.....	107
5.2.2. Scale Reliabilities.....	109
5.2.3. Manipulation Checks	111
5.2.3.1. Brand Positioning Status.....	111
5.2.3.2. Brand Ideology.....	111
5.2.3.3. Realism Check	112
5.2.4. 2x2x2 ANCOVA on the Motivation to Restore Justice.....	113
5.2.4.1. Covariates	113
5.2.4.2. Assumption Check.....	113
5.2.4.3. Direct Effects	115
5.2.4.4. Bivariate Correlations	117
5.2.5. Moderating Effects of Belief in a Just World View	118
5.2.6. Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice.....	119
5.2.7. Mediation Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice	120
5.2.8. Moderated Mediation Effects of Belief in a Just World View and Motivation to Restore Justice	122
5.2.9. Summary of Hypotheses	124
5.2.10. Discussion for Study 2 (Brand positioning status x Brand ideology x Belief in a just world view)	125
6. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS.....	127
6.1. Discussions	127
6.2. Theoretical Contribution.....	134
6.2.1. Theorizing of the Underdog Brand Effects and Comparative Appeals	134

6.2.2. Application and Extension of the Belief in a Just World Theory	136
6.2.3. Extending the Understanding of Consumer Pro-social Behavior	138
6.3. Managerial Implications	138
6.3.1. Deriving Industry Interest to Small Business Branding	138
6.3.2. Considering Brand Effects in a Network of Brands	140
6.3.3. Understanding of Justice Restoration Motive and Third Party Justice in Consumer Behavior	141
6.4. Limitations and Future Research Directions.....	142
APPENDICES	
1. STUDY INVITATIONS AND SCENARIOS	145
2. MEASUREMENT ITEMS, SOURCES, AND SCALES USED	150
BIBLIOGRAPHY	155

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Consequences expected from the system justification theory.....	49
Table 2. Applications of belief in a just world theory in marketing field.....	57
Table 3. A summary of Study 1 (Effects of brand positioning status, brand origin, and moderation effects of the belief in a just world view) and Study 2 (Effects of brand positioning status, brand ideology, and moderation effects of the belief in a just world view).....	88
Table 4. Statistical procedures and analyses.....	88
Table 5. Sample characteristics (n=226)	90
Table 6. Scale reliabilities.....	91
Table 7. Manipulation checks.....	93
Table 8. Tests of between-subjects effects.....	98
Table 9. Treatment means, standard deviations, and cell sizes.....	98
Table 10. The results of correlation analysis.....	100
Table 11. Regression results of behavioral outcomes on motivation to restore justice.....	101
Table 12. Regression results for simple mediation (Hayes, 2013).....	104
Table 13. Summary of hypotheses testing.....	105
Table 14. Sample characteristics (n=221).....	108
Table 15. Scale reliabilities.....	109
Table 16. Manipulation checks.....	112
Table 17. Tests of between-subject effects.....	116
Table 18. Treatment means, standard deviations, and cell sizes.....	116
Table 19. The results of correlation analysis.....	117

Table 20. Regression results of behavioral outcomes on motivation to restore justice	119
Table 21. Regression results for simple mediation (Hayes, 2013).....	121
Table 22. Moderated mediation effects of belief in a just world view and motivation to restore justice.....	123
Table 23. Summary of hypotheses testing.....	125

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. Underdog disposition matrix.....	27
Figure 2. Underdog conditions by Kim et al. (2008).....	28
Figure 3. Conceptual framework.....	73
Figure 4. Study 1 design.....	75
Figure 5. Study 2 design.....	77
Figure 6. Brand positioning status x Belief in a just world (BJW) view on motivation to restore justice.....	118

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“Giants are not what we think they are. The same qualities that appear to give them strength are often the sources of great weakness.” (Gladwell, 2013)

– An excerpt from <<David and Goliath: Underdogs, Misfits, and The Art of Battling Giants>>

1.1. Background

As Bagozzi (1975) explains, marketing is a reciprocal exchange activity that involves the players in the marketplace. Within this complex exchange system, human actors are responsive to external stimuli, and consequently demonstrate their willingness through motivational and intentional behavior (Bagozzi, 1975). Therefore, the central aspiration of early marketing research was to motivate individuals to increase the volume of exchange, and thus increase overall consumption in this functionalist paradigm (Achrol & Kotler, 2012). However, two things are neglected which are seemingly important questions in the quest to stimulate consumers’ motivations and intentions (e.g., how reciprocal the exchange is to consumers and how consequential the consumption is to consumers and to the world). Specifically, the questions of whether consumers are truly given an opportunity to fully exercise their power in purchasing activities, and whether companies genuinely care for all stakeholders’ interests during the exchange process, are not fully answered.

Therefore, in order to shift power to consumers and away from the forceful grasp of marketers, the concept of permission marketing appears as a method to establish consent from consumers (McTigue, 2011). As a result, the concept of inbound marketing

was born. As consumers' lives are bombarded with the conventional outbound marketing materials (e.g., commercials, fliers, discounts) that are aggressively distributed, marketing materials that interfere with consumers' lives tend not to be perceived favorable anymore. In Steenburgh, Avery, & Dahod's (2009) analysis of the HubSpot business case (HubSpot is the company which first introduced the concept of inbound marketing), it is explained that in modern society, consumers want to search for companies that can make them inherently interested in the companies' own business practices. By offering consumers the information content necessary for their lives and by doing business as stakeholders see fit, consumers can easily relate with the company's products and services. In this way, consumers can perceive that they exercise their own power in purchasing decisions, rather than being forced by the companies' marketing efforts may finally lead to making consumers more curious about a company's offerings (Steenburgh et al., 2009).

This movement has been accelerated with the development of technology. With a flood of information access at a consumer level, today's consumers have become more knowledgeable about corporate business practices. For example, consumers who are concerned with ethics in business operations will easily find out about the company's business practices online and will attempt to practice their power at all levels in the exchange process (e.g., production and consumption). Achrol and Kotler (2012) argue that such consumer trends (e.g., concerning of a company's ethical business practices) and individuals' attempts to be consistent with their beliefs when making purchase decisions will become more prevalent among consumers in the near future. They also anticipate that the current reactive and adaptive approaches in dealing with business

ethics and ethical consumption will be shifted to more proactive forms to satisfy consumers' needs and wants. Although the poor sales of ethical brands have made business entities skeptical of ethical consumption in the past, Irwin (2015) argues that consumers still make frequent decisions based on morality of business conduct, and that such pessimistic views among ethical consumers point to a rather significant need for the improvement in marketing efforts and messaging about such practices.

When companies neglect ethical or social issues involved in business practices, these types of behavior can result in consumer boycotts or anti-consumption. According to Friedman (1985), consumer boycotting happens largely due to consumers' desire to achieve certain types of moral objectives (e.g., restore justice in an unjust situation), and these objectives are generally followed and pursued by avoiding particular products. However, more recent research endeavors explain that anti-consumption acts do not always mean consumer boycotting (*see "Journal of Business Research Volume 62, Issue 2 – Anti-consumption"*). These current movements indicate that consumers' motivations in avoiding certain brands or products are more complicated than what is reported in the previous literature. The special issue of the *Journal of Business Research on Anti-consumption* contains a wide spectrum of potential research in this field. Although anti-consumption is mostly viewed as a reaction to corporate efforts in the malpractice of ethics, sustainability, and public policy, the underlying human psychology of this type of consumer behavior is still lacking systematic explanations.

“When the owner of Los Angeles's Coffee Bean & Tea Leaf could not stop Starbucks from moving in next door, he at first admitted defeat; however, soon after, he was surprised to see his sales shoot up, so much so that he began to proactively locate new stores next to Starbucks.”
(American Marketing Association (AMA), 2014).

For instance, the above excerpt explains another account of anti-consumption. Although Starbucks has diverse corporate social responsibility programs such as ethical sourcing, community support, and environmental sustainability (Starbucks Corporation, 2015), when the conglomerate brand is positioned right next to the underdog brand, consumers tend to avoid big corporations and express stronger support for the disadvantaged operations or smaller/less well-known brands (Paharia, Avery, & Keinan, 2014). Earlier scholars coined such phenomena as the “underdog effects” (Paharia et al., 2011). Previous studies of the “underdog effects” question their presence in the contexts of sports, business, and artistic competitions (e.g., Kim, Allison, Eylon, Goethals, Markus, Hindle, & McGuire, 2008); these studies focus on understanding why individuals root so frequently for a losing entity – *an underdog*. An observation of such social phenomena provides valid reasons for further discussion. This is because the judgment of right or wrong and good or bad does not necessarily happen due to the actions of individual business entities. In other words, depending on what positioning status businesses have in the marketplace, brand image could be perceived differently by consumers, and they can make completely different right or wrong and good or bad judgments when making purchasing decisions.

Although it is still unknown how individuals make judgments about underdogs in general and specifically in the hospitality industry, there is evidence within the food and beverage market segment; underdog brand positioning status has been frequently exploited in the practice. For example, Sam Adams brewery positions itself as an underdog against the industry giant Budweiser, however it is much larger than other microbreweries (Daye, 2010). This is because Sam Adams can be perceived as an

underdog in comparison to Budweiser, yet, Sam Adams is still a “topdog” or a highly successful corporate brewery when it is positioned against many other microbreweries. This marketing messaging is well-known to consumers, because Sam Adams brewery expresses that it is a small regional brewery that makes beer locally. Researchers who investigate these effects provide a number of explanations for the consumer support of underdogs (Gartner, 1976; Kim et al., 2008).

Some people argue that underdog effects have their roots in the domain of human emotion. For instance, individuals are sympathetic when they see losing entities (Kim et al., 2008); or, perhaps it could be the *Schadenfreude bias* – malicious joy in the human mind when individuals learn about the suffering and misfortune of others (Heider, 1958). Others think that individuals root for underdogs when they perceive injustice from the situational stimuli. This particular explanation encompasses the theories of justice, deservingness, and framing effects (Allison & Burnette, 2010), and this may provide more support for Messick & Sentis’s (1979) argument on the positive connections between individuals’ perception of fairness and preference.

However, despite its strong relevance in practice, only a scant amount of research is conducted on the domain of “underdogs” in hospitality and tourism marketing despite anecdotal evidence that many exist (Vandello, Goldschmied, & Richards, 2007). Moreover, “to what extent do underdog brand effects alter consumer judgment and decision-making” is largely unknown (Paharia et al., 2011). Thus, the current study positions its inquiries within the domain of moral value judgment and attempts to investigate one’s underlying psychological motivation behind his or her support for “underdogs” and ultimate avoidance of topdogs. More specifically, this study views the

underdog brand positioning status as a product of the business competitions that determine winner or loser positions in the marketplace. This study also assumes that consumers may draw inferences on judging which party is a winner or a loser in a competitive market. Such inference may influence consumers' perceptions in the competitive marketplace and make them perceive the competitive environment as an unjust situation with significant power imbalances. These perceptions may encourage them to be more motivated to restore justice. This inference-based judgment may also determine the decision to support or not to support the underdog brand.

Based on the previous literature, this study manipulates the variables that can best create a situation where the study participants can see a significant power imbalance resulting from a competitive business climate. Guided by the belief in a just world theory, this study assumes that consumers' motivations to restore justice may come to the forefront when individuals encounter unjust situations, and it will eventually cause individuals to support underdogs. To test these assumptions, this study adopts brand positioning status, brand origin, and brand ideology as situational and normative cues that can create competitive and power imbalance settings, and then incorporates one's individual differences in just world views that may affect the degree of perceived injustice and motivation to restore justice. Finally, this study examines how these relationships consequently change one's decisions to support underdog brands.

1.2. Statement of Purpose and Research Questions

Instead of considering underdog effects as emotional responses, this study views underdog effects from the social psychological perspective that situational together with

normative cues can stimulate individuals to draw inferences about brand positioning status (e.g., winner or loser) and alter consumers' responses to underdog brands.

Grounded in the belief in a just world theory, the main research questions this study poses are: 1) what are the situational and normative cues that can create salient underdog effects?; 2) what is the underlying psychological mechanism behind underdog support?; and, 3) how influential is this effect on consumers' brand choices and behavioral intentions? Within this context, this study endeavors to answer the specific research questions:

- 1) In what situations do individuals make inferences on winners or losers in a competitive business climate?
- 2) What are the effects of brand positioning status (topdog vs. underdog)?
- 3) What situational and normative cues spur one's feelings of injustice and imbalance of power the most? Especially, what are the roles of normative variables (brand origin and brand ideology) in identifying underdog brand status and how do normative variables contribute to one's motivation to restore justice?
- 4) How do situational factors interact with individual characteristics (e.g., personal differences of belief in a just world view) in a motivation to restore justice?
- 5) What are the key outcomes of motivation to restore justice? When consumers perceive a brand as an underdog, how will that affect consumer behavior?

To be more specific, this study argues that individuals' perceptions of justice (or, judgments of the situational power imbalance) and their evaluations of deservingness are largely based on what positioning status a brand or a company claims in the marketplace

and what the general social norms toward the competitive business climate are. The judgment of right or wrong/good or bad can also be influenced by how individuals' social norms (created by the influence of social origin and dominant social ideologies) are formed in accordance with which society they live in (Miller, 2001). This is because human beings are adaptive to their society's dominant value systems (Bandura, 1977). Such an understanding of social norms can influence the different ways that individuals interpret marketing efforts and marketing messages. Therefore, it is plausible to presume that when brands are embedded with different social origins or ideologies, different social origins and ideologies may alter one's view toward the competitive business climate and can also influence one's decision of which brand to favor.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between brand positioning status and the underdog support, and to make propositions that this relationship depends on the interaction of normative and situational cues such as brand origin (local vs. non-local) and brand ideology (power vs. universalism). Specifically, this study argues that individuals would perceive the imbalance of power and injustice in a competitive business marketplace when underdog brands are local and conveying universalism values. This means that consumers may not see a significant imbalance of power when the underdog brand is not local and is communicating power values.

Accepting the argument around the belief in a just world theory, this study not only considers the situational and normative factors involved in the underdog effects but also incorporates individual differences of the belief in a just world view in explaining the relationship between brand positioning status, brand origin, brand ideology, and motivation to restore justice. Finally, relying on the belief in a just world theory, this

study anticipates various supporting behaviors resulting from their increased motivation to restore justice.

1.3. Significance of the Study

Although food and beverage companies use underdog positioning frequently (e.g., Snapple™, Nantucket Nectars™ and Starbucks™ trying to emphasize their humble beginnings and Sam Adams Brewery's underdog positioning against Budweiser), there is relatively little empirical evidence available in the marketing literature. Moreover, to the author's knowledge, in the hospitality and tourism literature, underdog brand effects are not extensively studied. Therefore, this study finds literature gaps in the following areas and contributes in filling these gaps:

Gaps in Literature and the Contribution of This Study:

1) Theorizing of the underdog brand effect:

Despite the fact that the underdog appeal is frequently used in the food and beverage segment in hospitality industry, merely anecdotal evidence exist about this concept (Kim et al., 2008) in the field. Furthermore, an investigation of the underdog effects in relation to consumer behavior lacks academic attention (Paharia et al., 2011). This gap also indicates the absence of any theorizing effort in explaining the impact of underdog effects and its power to predict consumer behavior (Vandello et al., 2007).

To fill this gap, this study endeavors to build on the works of Paharia et al.'s (2011; 2014) that looked at the brand positioning and underdog effects. To

maximize the underdog effects and to make people see the power imbalance involved in the underdog and topdog relationships, the current study not only tests the underdog descriptions but also attempts to incorporate variables representing societal norms (e.g. the brand's origin and brand ideology) that can make the underdog positioning status more salient. In addition, prosocial behavior research argues that societal norms play key roles in influencing consumers' perception of unjust situations and intention to support underdogs (White, MacDonnell, & Ellard, 2012). Therefore, by encompassing the influence of normative variables to the study design, this study can provide more comprehensive explanations of the phenomena.

Findings of this study can expand current underdog brand effect studies' theorizing and add explanations on how underdog positioning and social norms interact with each other in predicting motivation to restore justice and outcome behaviors. Managerially, this study can urge the industry practitioners and marketers to pay attention to their market positioning status and marketing messages involving brand origin and brand ideology; and encourage practitioners make sure to monitor their brand images and prevent unwanted images from being conveyed to consumers.

2) Deriving academic interest from luxury branding to small business branding:

In the hospitality management literature, the majority of the brand research is focused on luxury branding of hotel corporations or in chain restaurants contexts. Although the hospitality industry consists of high

proportions of small businesses (e.g., under 75 rooms operations 55% dominance in the US lodging segment (American Hotel and Lodging Association, 2015) and independent non-chain restaurants that comprise 55.5% of the total US restaurant market (Maze, 2015)), the research on smaller businesses in the hospitality management literature lacks significant academic attention (Morrison & Thomas, 1999).

To fill this gap, this study utilizes chain and independent restaurant concepts in the underdog/topdog descriptions and incorporates the concept of locality into the study design to test whether or not such description can make consumers see more injustice involved in the competitive business climate. Findings of this research can then be generalized to independent and local restaurants and provide meaningful implications for the small hospitality business owners that their businesses' market positions can create stronger competitive benefits and advantages when they emphasize their underdog positioning status against industry topdogs. Additionally, this study can potentially shed light into the use of "local" symbolism in making underdog positioning statuses of small independent businesses more salient.

3) Considering brand effects in a net of brands:

The majority of hospitality research focuses on luxury branding and becomes problematic when it merely provides narrow insights into the luxury and large-scale businesses that comprise less than half of the whole hospitality industry. Oh (2000) suggests that while the number of hospitality brands is

increasing significantly, more customers are willing to switch brands even though they are satisfied with their current brand use. This may be because consumers are tired of corporate hospitality firms' repetitive products and the "sameness" of these services and may yearn for more unique and authentic experiences from unfamiliar brands.

However, the hospitality or marketing research in branding is still limited and does not consider the changes in brand images when it is presented within a network of brands in the marketplace (Paharia et al., 2011) and the possibilities of consumers drawn to different brands because of the influx of competitors into the marketplace. Additionally, Paharia et al. (2014) emphasizes that consumers make frequent judgments and decisions within a socially intertwined network of brands and brand images; however, there still remains a significant theoretical and empirical gap in the understanding of consumers' interactions and perceptions about socially networked brands.

This calls for research to examine how within the competitive business climate brands change their respective images and influence the consumers' perception and decision-making process. Therefore, this study uses the definitions of "underdogs" to be the brands that have the determination and the passion for success but lack competitive resources and have the disadvantaged positions in the marketplace (Paharia et al., 2011). The findings of this study may also be able to provide an understanding of market competition, brand positioning status, and the consumers' reactions toward competition.

4) Broadening the understanding of consumer rejection of corporations and support for underdogs – Extending the understanding of pro-social behavior

Previous studies on consumers' support for ethical companies assume that consumers' justice perceptions are driven by the business practices of companies themselves. However, it is still unknown whether consumers make different justice judgments within the network of brands, regardless of an individual company's attempts to be ethical. Recent studies open up a door for different explanations (Paharia et al., 2014). That is, consumers may see power imbalances in the competitive business situations and decide to support losing business entities when losing businesses are competing against the giant corporations. The power imbalance consumers observe perhaps makes them want to restore justice and to punish dominating corporations (Kim et al., 2008; Paharia et al., 2014). In this case, being a giant corporation (a topdog) in the marketplace may act against its brand images. According to Palazzo & Basu (2007), despite the allegedly known benefits of corporate branding, corporate brands can become a signal for consumers' anti-corporation behavior. This is because consumers oftentimes associate giant multinational corporations with aggressive business expansion strategies at the expense of local and independently owned small businesses.

These types of study results urge researchers to provide clear explanations on consumers' desire to retaliate against giant corporations and to support losing or less known business entities (underdogs). This also requires researchers to adopt more holistic views toward understanding anti-corporation movements as

global corporations challenge the consumers' sense of identity, consumption, and dominant values of a society (Palazzo & Basu, 2007).

Hence, extending the existing investigations on the underdog effects and consumers' pro-social behavior (Allison & Burnette, 2010), this study accepts the empirical evidence found in the research links between social norms and motivation to restore justice (White et al., 2012) and the utilization of social norms as means to accentuate underdog effects. Therefore, this research merges brand ideology cues and brand origin cues as important tools to make underdog appeals more salient. By doing so, this study supplements Pahlia et al.'s (2011; 2014) original research on the underdog effects and can examine the argument that underdog images can be more salient when different situational cues are presented in competitive settings. Finally, by incorporating the dominant societal values (ideologies) and the locality (normative cues) concepts together with underdog positioning status, this study can accept earlier studies' suggestions (Thompson & Arsel, 2004) to provide a more holistic perspective of the anti-corporation movement and consumers' pro-social behavior.

5) Motivation to restore justice and third party justice

When studying motivation to restore justice, the previous literature (Allison & Burnette, 2010) explains the situations where individuals are involved as actors, rather than observers. However, more recent hospitality management research identifies the differences in actor and observer positions in determining individuals' punishing or forgiving behaviors when they encounter unjust

situations (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, Aguiar-Quintana, & Suárez-Acosta, 2013). This is particularly applicable for underdog brand effects because the motivation to restore justice can only occur when consumers observe unjust situations where one brand is specifically disadvantaged against the other. In the hospitality management literature, only a scant amount of empirical evidence is provided in explaining actor-observer bias, or third party justice (“perceptions of how fairly others are treated” (Mattila, Hanks, & Wang, 2014, p. 553)), despite its notable business implications in understanding consumer behavior and fairness perception in unjust situations (Mattila et al., 2014).

Previous work (Mattila et al., 2014) also examines third party justice in a situation where individuals observe other individuals’ unfair treatment. However, this study tests the effects in the “non-human” experiences of unjust situational contexts and the unfairness created in the competitive business situations (e.g., topdog vs. underdog/power imbalance). Therefore, this study applies the third party justice concept into the competitive business situations where the consumers can clearly see who is a winner or a loser in the marketplace. Through this research effort, this study can contribute to testing the boundaries of the third party justice concept and examine whether or not consumers see injustice in a competitive business marketplace (e.g., non-human suffering context).

6) Application and extension of the belief in a just world theory

Previous research addresses the positive connection between social norm and pro-social behavior (Han, Hwang, Kim, & Jung, 2015; Miller, 2001). Among

the various theories explaining the impacts of social norms on consumer behavior, the application of the “belief in a just world” theory is not yet significantly made in the marketing (White et al., 2012) and hospitality literature. That is, these fields’ studies are mainly conducted assuming that everyone has universal agreement about the systems in which they live (e.g., meaning they have a single perspective toward the societal system). However, theories such as system justification and belief in a just world explain that individuals behave differently when they have different degrees of system agreement (Cutright, Wu, Banfield, Kay, & Fitzsimons, 2011; Shepherd, Chartrand, & Fitzsimons, 2015). Therefore, this study attempts to examine whether different degrees of societal system agreement could influence consumers’ perception of injustice involved in the competitive business situations.

Additionally, one of the core convoluted concepts in the belief in a just world theory appears to be how to consider the “the belief in a just world view” (e.g., is it dispositional or situational?). Endorsing Hafer & Bègue's (2005) argument, this study views the belief in a just world as an individual learned-difference variable that considers the dynamic of a relationship between the perception of unjust situations and motivation to restore justice. Therefore, this study accepts the assumption that individuals have different degrees of agreement toward the societal systems they live in and this explains such differences in looking at the societal systems and how this may change the extent to which social norms influence pro-social (including boycotting) behavior. Findings of this study may contribute to clarifying a common misuse of the belief in a just

world concept. This study may also explain to what extent the situational and normative cues can influence consumers' justice perceptions, motivation to restore justice, and behavioral outcomes (e.g., helping behavior when individuals perceive a situation unjust).

In summary, to fill the above-mentioned gaps, this study would first introduce the concept of underdog effects to the field of hospitality and tourism, while simultaneously encouraging future researchers to pay more attention to that concept's adoptability to this field and related study areas. By investigating situational and normative stimuli that can best address underdog brand effects, this study can observe how one's motivation to restore justice can be altered. Moreover, as one of the main purposes of this research is to see whether the degree of one's perception of the system they live in can influence motivation to restore justice, this study endeavors to investigate the impacts of individuals' just-world views and societal values that companies convey (brand origin and brand ideology) through their brands and brand messaging. Specifically, the study setting encourages respondents to be engaged in third party justice judgment after reading the descriptions of underdogs and business competitions. Therefore, this study will provide meaningful implications concerning third party justice perceptions in the competitive business situations.

Additionally, by incorporating the effects of the brand positioning status of underdogs, this study may shed light and perspective on brand literature. Until now, brand studies presume that individual brands work distinctively on their own; however, comparative advertising literature finds that individuals live in a world where a wide

range of brands form complicated networks and comparisons. This study provides empirical evidence that a brand in the network does not act on its own, but rather it interacts with other competing brands, and consumers may judge the brand meanings and messages differently based on how it is located or compared with other brands.

Managerially, this is the first study that examines the application of brand underdog effects in the hospitality and tourism fields. Therefore, this study introduces the idea of underdog brand effect as an effective marketing strategy for smaller hospitality firms and tourism destinations that are victims of direct and indirect competitions from large and well-known corporate entities that are positioned as topdogs. Moreover, by incorporating the notion of brand origin and brand ideology in the study of underdog effects, this study demonstrates the importance of reflecting different social norms through the complex study of competing brands.

1.4. Organization of the Study

This paper consists of the following chapters;

Chapter I – Introduction

Chapter II – Literature Review

Chapter III – Theoretical Development & Hypotheses

Chapter IV – Method

Chapter V – Results

Chapter VI – Discussions and Conclusions

In the first chapter, this study provides background of the study and addresses the values, needs and the gaps in the literature of this research. In chapter 2, this study begins by exploring the current literature in the examination of the underdog effects and provides additional reasoning for the justification of this study. The comparative

advertising related literature is also reviewed, as the underdog effects do not occur unless described and framed in a competitive context. The literature reviews on brand origin and ideology are pursued to provide foundations for the relationships of social norms and underdog effects. The literature review of this study is guided mainly by the belief in a just world theory; therefore, it reviews the general tenets of this theory and examines its applicability in explaining underdog brand effects. In chapter three, this study provides a conceptual framework and the detailed working research hypotheses. In chapter four, this study introduces the methods and measurements to appropriately test the proposed hypotheses. Chapter five contains how research hypotheses are tested, the descriptive information related to data collection, the statistical analyses, and the testing results methods. In the very last chapter, this study offers the discussions and conclusions for the arguments supporting the theory of “underdog effects”, while highlighting the contributions of the research and the need for further research in the marketing and hospitality and tourism fields.

1.5. Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as the bases of this study to examine the concepts central to this research.

Brand Positioning Status (Underdog Status vs. Topdog Status)

Brand positioning status is the degree to which brands have descriptions that explain their market positions. Adopting the findings of Paharia et al.'s (2011) study, underdog brand status refers to the brand descriptions that involve “(1) external

disadvantage and (2) passion and determination” (p. 776) in the marketplace. Topdog status on the other hand is defined as a status that business entities possess an advantaged position in the marketplace and lacks the passion and determination to succeed (Paharia et al., 2011).

Brand Origin (Local vs. Non-local)

In this study, the scope of brand origin is within the degree of locality, thus, adopting from Zhang & Khare's (2009) study, this study defines local business as the degree to which individuals identify the brand as a brand from one's local community. Non-local is defined as a brand that does not have a local community identity or base but may be lacked by a corporate entity or investors/owners from another location.

Brand ideology (Power vs. Universalism)

Ideology is defined as “various societal values” (Shepherd, Chartrand, & Fitzsimons, 2015, p. 76) that reflect the beliefs supported by the members of society. To be more precise, ideology is perceived as “a system of beliefs and values that emanate from and promulgate the worldview of the dominant group in a society” (Hirschman, 1993, p.537). Therefore, the dominant ideology refers to the dominant societal values approved by the dominant social groups and dominant brand ideology indicates the dominant societal beliefs and values that are accepted by the majority members of society (Hirschman, 1993) and therefore, the dominant brand ideology refers to the dominant societal values being conveyed through brands. Universalism ideology is defined by the values such as a sense of understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the

welfare of all people and for nature. Power ideology refers to the values including a sense of social status, prestige, control, dominance, wealth, respect, and authority over people and resources (Schwartz, 1994).

Belief in a just world view

Belief in a just world view is defined as individual perceptual differences in justice concerns. Adopting the definition used in White, MacDonnell, & Ellard (2012), this study refers to the belief in a just world view as the degree of individuals' differences in concern for injustice. People with strong beliefs in a just world view tend to rate as more sensitive to injustice, and thus, they tend to have a higher level of motivation to restore justice (White et al., 2012).

Motivation to restore justice

Motivation to restore justice is defined as an individual's subjective state of mind that reflects his or her desire to redress unjust situations (modified from White et al.'s (2012) definition of justice restoration efficacy).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of the literature includes: an overview, anti-corporation movement and the underdog effects, comparative appeals, brand origin and underdog support, brand ideologies and system justification process, justice perception and motivation to restore justice, and, lastly, the belief in a just world theory.

2.1. Overview

The aggressive internationalization strategies of some corporations are hampered by various side effects, including the cannibalization of stores, the homogenization of culture, and the globalization of corporate capitalism (Thompson & Arsel, 2004). With these attributions and critiques, the brands of large corporations become little more than triggers for an anti-corporation consumption movement, and activist consumers demonstrate their brand avoidance (antitheses of brand loyalty) tendencies (Lee, Motion, & Conroy, 2009). Consumers' reactions toward large corporations drive their attention to underdog brands and/or local products that result in seemingly more attractive options than large corporations' products or services.

According to Paharia et al. (2011), underdogs are recalled as the ones with: 1) a variety of external disadvantages; and 2) an underlying passion to be supported by certain consumers and a determination by the operators and their consumer base to survive. Due to the images that underdog brands convey, several studies (Kim et al., 2008; McGinnis & Gentry, 2009) find that when they are positioned alongside big corporations, they tend to spark a flame in the minds of consumers; one which thoroughly favors the

underdog brands (Paharia et al., 2014). However, since there is not yet an abundant array of empirical evidence compiled to sufficiently explain underdog brand effects, especially in the hospitality and tourism sectors, this study attempts to explain possible explanations of the motivation for anti-corporation and underdog support.

Among many possible explanations of this effect, one of the most convincing strings of arguments considers moral reasoning and the perception of justice. Therefore, this chapter finds the fundamental bases for the support of underdogs within the morality based value judgment literature, while explaining the guiding theory (a belief in a just world theory). Then, this chapter seeks to review the literature that draws a link between the importance of situational, normative cues (brand positioning status, brand origin, and brand ideology) and moral judgment. Finally, this chapter reviews comparative advertising literature, as underdog effects tend to be presented in a juxtapositional context, in stark contrast to topdogs.

2.2. Anti-Corporation Movement and the Underdog Effects

Earlier literature available in the field of brand management emphasize the critical importance of building strong brand names that have distinctive identities (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993). A well-established brand identity forms “brand knowledge” that triggers information associated with “brand cues” (Keller, 2003). Here, *brand cues*, particularly external brand cues, refer to the market-controlled environmental and sensory factors that can trigger certain information as a means to differ consumers’ reactional behaviors; and *brand knowledge* is defined as “the personal meaning about a brand stored in consumers’ memories” (Keller, 2003, p. 596). Within this discourse, the main interest of the earlier

scholars in brand management research was how to build “brand equity” that corporations could leverage for maximum outcomes where *brand equity* represents “a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/ or to that firm’s customers” (Aaker, 1991, p.15).

However, having a “brand name” that is widely recognized could entail some detrimental consequences (Kay, 2006). In other words, when a good, well-known brand commits a transgression of some form, depending on the “brand personality” it has and the types of relationships it establishes with its consumers, it could severely harm perceived partner quality, satisfaction, and eventually even the overall commitment level (Aaker, Fournier, & Brasel, 2004). For instance, Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC™) is subject to consumer boycotts due to its alleged animal rights abuse. Its mistreatment of chickens is reported in the public media, and the KFC brand thus becomes a cue that triggers consumer boycotts (Ethical consumer research association, 2015). Another example is the Hyatt Hotel Group. The industry giant has experienced media allegations concerning its workers’ rights (Ethical consumer research association, 2015). As people more easily recognize the Hyatt™ brand, and consumers have stronger memories and different perceptions about the brand, and these alleged violations of ethical business behavior result in damages to the day-to-day business of this corporation.

While Aaker et al. (2004) explains an occasion in which a good brand is revealed to be a culprit of something distinctly negative, Kay (2006) writes, in a different vein, of separate negative aspects of having a strong brand name. Kay (2006) argues that strong brands can powerfully influence consumer experience and thus become a target for

attacks. The notion of “anti-branding logic” refers to consumers’ attempts to fight against behemoth corporations in order to restore the imbalances of power (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006). Such consumer attempts can negatively affect strong brand names more severely than *ordinary or weak* brand names (Kay, 2006) because strong brand names that are associated with more dominant corporations in the marketplace that indicate the symbolization of power imbalance (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006).

Negative perceptions arise when consumers witness power inequity in the marketplace, and these perceptions are in turn engendered in the phenomena central to this study: “the underdog effects.” According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary (n.d.), an underdog is defined as “1) a person, team, etc. that is expected to lose a contest or battle, 2) less powerful person or thing that struggles against a more powerful person or thing (such as a corporation), and 3) a victim of injustice or persecution”. As is self-explanatory from this definition, the underdog effects, or *underdog appeal* refers to the human tendency to support or root for an entity that is perceived as attempting to accomplish a difficult task, and that is not expected to succeed against an explicit or implicit advantaged opponent” (Kim et al., 2008, p. 2551).

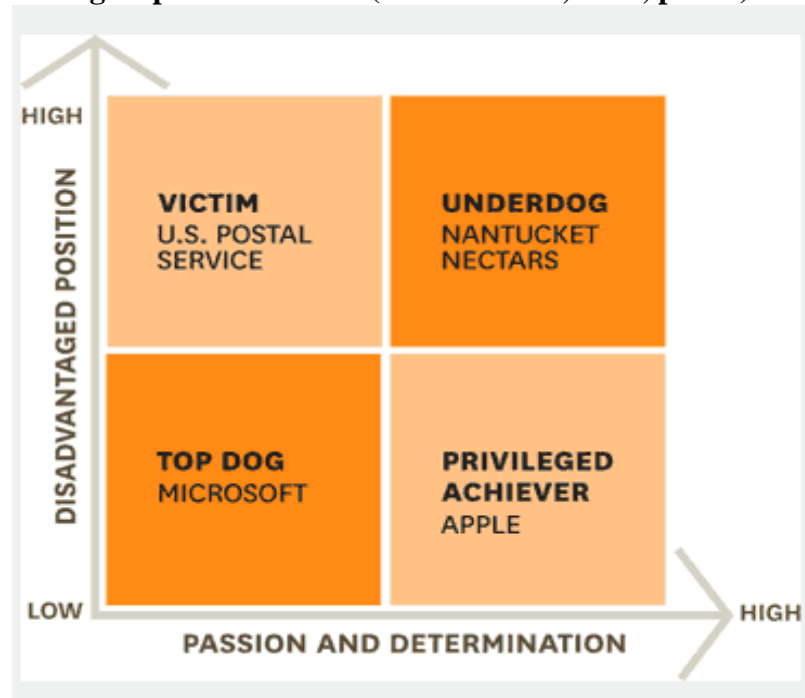
The appeal of underdogs is oftentimes paired up with “bandwagon effects” that are mainly investigate in political science and psychology fields. However, even in these fields, a relatively small amount of research is done (Vandello et al., 2007). Only recently, the notion is extended to the field of business and marketing (Paharia et al., 2011) and examines the applicability of the effects in the marketing management context. Consequently, the first step to accomplish such research goals is to understand the motivation for underdog supporters.

In the qualitative research conducted by McGinnis & Gentry (2009), the authors interviewed 27 informants to understand the motives behind underdog supports. Their study finds that some individuals do not wish to associate themselves with underdogs because the underdog identity conveys images consistent with a lack of success; however, those who passionately support underdogs have the perception that underdogs lose because of their lack of resources and abilities, not because of a lack of effort. This in turn stimulates even greater empathy for the underdogs. In this study, nostalgia, the American dream and individuality, freedom of choice, and inspiration are also found to be other drivers for the underdog support.

One thing to note in this study is that while some individuals support well-established global brands, others actively avoid the brands of corporate titans, demonstrating instead an affinity for local (e.g., mom and pop; locally owned and operated) operations or smaller brands (McGinnis & Gentry, 2009). Hence, the movement against or the anti-corporate (global) brand becomes persuasive appeals for the exploration of consumer underdog support. However, this is not the sole reason for studying consumers' support for underdogs.

To the question of what makes underdogs, Paharia et al. (2011) assert that underdog brands have unique characteristics in their brand biography. These include underdog brands that disseminate images such as being highly disadvantaged, full of passion, and possess certain determination factors that weigh heavily in the comparison to topdog brands. These distinctive characteristics provide “authentic features” of brands (See Figure 1.) that become underdog brand cues and eventually help consumers identify them easily (Kim et al., 2008).

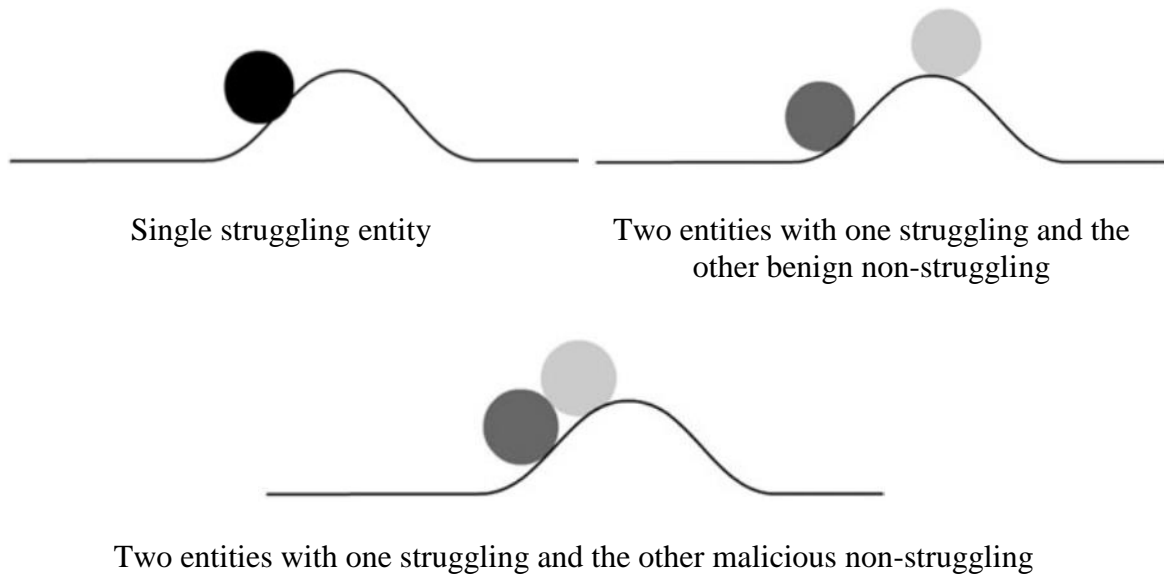
Figure 1. Underdog disposition matrix (Paharia et al., 2011, p. 778)



Therefore, when studies manipulate the ways that alter the salience of perceived disadvantaged positions and/or the degree of passion and determination of underdog images, such attempts can increase the level of underdog support. In other words, depending on how things are framed (Allison & Burnette, 2010) and what unique features of underdog brands are highlighted, the underdog effect can be more pronounced. (Paharia et al., 2014; Van den Bos & Miedema, 2000). This means, brand positioning status in the market can act as an external cue that can activate different consumer reactions. For instance, Kim et al. (2008) examines the perceptions of underdogs in different conditions. Their study explains the most significant condition that best stimulates one's intention to support underdogs. The following figure depicts the conditions perceived to be the most disadvantaged in the competitive landscape. In this study, individuals showed more support when topdogs are present with underdogs,

especially when topdogs are perceived malicious in the competitive situations (See Figure 2).

Figure 2. Underdog conditions by Kim et al. (2008)



Through these investigations of underdogs, a few central questions emerge. Important questions include the inquiry into the nature of motivation at the heart of underdog support; the factors involved in the formation of underdogs; and the factors that make this effect more or less salient. Such concerns lead the discourse to question the underlying psychological mechanisms of underdog effects and the boundary conditions related to one's value judgment process. According to earlier researchers' explanations, the underdog effect is closely related to consumer judgment. In particular, the consumer set of judgments include: 1) judgment of consequences, 2) deservingness, and 3) efficacy and judgment biases; 4) framing effects, 5) self-serving motives, and 6) *Schadenfreude* -

meaning “malicious joy in the human mind when we learn about the suffering and misfortune of others” (Allison & Burnette, 2010) based on underdog positioning.

First, research suggests that when individuals encounter underdogs and decide against or in favor of underdogs, they tend to make judgments based on the consequences that would arise as a result of their decisions. That is, according to Kim et al.’s (2008) study, individuals do not root for underdogs if the given situation involves overly consequential results or risks. Such experimental results help to project that consumers do not favor underdog brands if by doing so they take on added risks. Second, individuals make judgments based on the deservingness of underdogs and engage in decision-making accordingly. Burnette, Allison, Goethals, Eylon, and Beggan (2008) provide an example of consumers’ underdog affinity being contingent upon the level of effort underdogs demonstrate. In other words, individuals act in favor of underdogs only when underdogs show their utmost endeavor to win the competition or overcome the disadvantages; otherwise, people actually show more respect toward the topdogs’ achievements. These findings are consistent with the underdog conceptualization provided by Paharia et al. (2011).

Third, consumers’ judgments of efficacy (similar to the judgment biases driven from framing effects) can compel people to root for underdogs. This means that consumers make different judgments depending on the probability (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981) of the underdogs winning the competition that influences the decision to support underdogs. Fourth, individuals may associate themselves with underdogs in situations where they may want to self-handicap. In this situation, by positioning themselves as underdogs, they can elicit greater compassion when they fail, and can ask

for more credit when they succeed (Allison & Burnette, 2010). Additionally, people may support underdogs when they just want to feel the malicious joy of witnessing the unfavored parties suffer. Finally, Allison & Burnette (2010) provide an insight for another boundary condition for underdog effects. According to their assertion, perceived product or service quality is not affected by the top or underdog positioning (Allison & Burnette, 2010).

Despite the presence of the previous literature that investigate the underdog effects, it could be said in the author's confidence that only a limited amount of conceptual and empirical studies are available. Even in the hospitality and tourism industry where people observe underdog appeals frequently, the effect is not yet thoroughly investigated (e.g. Avis' *We are number 2 but we try harder* – 1962 campaign, the Sam Adams brewery's positioning as a local craft against the corporate Budweiser brand, or Five Guys Burgers, a local or regional restaurant's positioning against the corporate McDonald's). Among the causal factors of underdog effects, the most established argument is based on the literature related to power inequity, perception of unfairness, and the salience of disadvantaged positions of underdogs. Therefore, this dissertation seeks to find answers for the aforementioned research questions, and positions its argument within the moral value judgment domain (e.g., justice judgments, judgments on deservingness, and consideration of social norms).

2.3. Comparative Appeals and Underdog Effects

One of the essential conditions for the formation of underdogs is the comparative nature of the corporate climate. In other words, brands that hold a disadvantaged position

can only exist within a context that allows for their inverse - brands that exist in demonstrable advantaged positions. Therefore, to attain an in-depth understanding of underdog effects, this study must review the effectiveness of comparative appeals. Because this study is positioned within the domain of moral value judgment, exploration of all aspects of comparative appeals capable of influencing one's perception of justice (fairness) is of benefit. Additionally, the outcomes of comparative appeals also need to be examined in order to understand the mechanisms through which underdog positioning impacts the consumer decision-making process.

“Comparative appeal,” also known as “comparative advertising,” is defined as “advertising that compares alternative brands on objectively measurable attributes or price, and identifies the alternative brand by name, illustration or other distinctive information” (Federal Trade Commission, 2014). The most recent example that practices comparative advertising is Samsung™ Galaxy's smartphone where the advertising campaign tagline suggests “*The next big thing is already here.*” Ellett (2012) asserts that this campaign is a very smart marketing tactic because it subtly compares Samsung's smartphone product with its biggest competitor, Apple™'s iPhone, without even mentioning Apple™'s brand name. Additionally, the advertisement was aired in regions where consumers genuinely took interest, and by contrasting itself with Apple™, Samsung™ effectively highlighted the legitimate differences of its product and brand.

In practice, according to Beard (2013), comparative advertising gained its popularity throughout the 1970s and following decades. The estimate of comparative advertising use increased from 8.1% in 1970 to 23.8% in 1985. This increased use of comparative advertising strategy over time naturally gives rise to questions of why it was

increasingly embraced by marketing practitioners, and why people react differently to the comparative appeal setting in contrast to the single product appeal setting. These answers can be found in the meta-analysis conducted by Grewal, Kavanoor, Fern, Costley, & Barnes (1997). Their study concludes that comparative advertising has positive impacts on consumers' cognitive and affective information processing. In the cognitive domain, comparative advertising is found to be significantly more effective in attracting advertisement attention, interest, and awareness (including message recall and brand recall), and also in generating cognitive processing, providing information, and establishing similarity between a sponsored brand and a comparison brand.

Within the affective domain, earlier researchers hypothesize that comparative advertising can generate positive consumer emotions and these comparisons could be passed along in feelings toward the advertised brands. However, Beard (2013) suggests that this research needs more attention from scholars, since the results of comparative advertising effectiveness is not yet conclusive. This is because earlier studies report contradictory results of the comparative advertising effects on individuals' emotions. For example, Grewal et al. (1997) finds contradictory results, that is, when individuals feel negatively about an advertisement itself, yet feel positively about the advertised brand when comparative advertising strategy is employed.

In contrast, Muehling (1987) reports that comparative advertising, exclusively, generates emotion transferability from the advertisement to the sponsoring brand. Conversely, in Prasad's (1976) study, in a laboratory situation, there is no finding of the effectiveness of comparative advertising as reported in the previous literature. Later, it is argued that the effectiveness of comparative advertising largely depends on the

consumers' mode of information processing. For example, when consumers use an analytic processing method, comparative appeals tend to be more persuasive, whereas when individuals use imagery processing, non-comparative advertising is more effective (Thompson & Hamilton, 2006).

Regardless of the ambiguity associated with cognitive or emotional effects of comparative advertising, the previous literature appears to confirm that comparative advertising definitely has significant impacts on individuals' processing of information when it is compared to non-comparative advertising. Such influence of comparative advertising can be explained through a psychological theory such as the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM, Petty & Briñol, 2012). ELM posits that individuals have two distinctive routes to process information; the central and peripheral routes.

According to Muehling, Stoltman, & Grossbart (1990), comparative advertising involves a more effort laden elaboration process because the advertisement involves more than two brands' or sets of product cues. In other words, due to the increase in the number of cues presented, the increased level of mental elaboration could be observed as a result. When deeper information processing is initiated, individuals use a wider spread of activation of associated memory networks. In the case of comparative advertising, because the sponsored advertisement is compared to the competitors' product and/or brand attributes or similarities (Dröge & Darmon, 1987), the comparative advertisement could suggest to individuals to adopt relational processing and retrieve stronger memory issues associated with the brands or the brand category (e.g., categorical information and inference making) (Muehling et al., 1990).

Consequently, one can anticipate a positive relationship between comparative advertising effects and conative, attitudinal and/or behavioral outcomes (Demirdjian, 1983; Grewal et al., 1997). One of these examples could be drawn from the earlier research literature. According to Demirdjian (1983), consumers react to advertisements that contain comparative appeals more significantly than conventional commercials (e.g., advertisements that portray only a single brand product's features and attributes). More specifically, when the purchase intent is examined in Demirdjian's (1983) study, the participants tend to show more favorable attitudes toward the product when these attitudes or intentions are more positively described in comparison to the description of attitudes towards competing brands.

These effects, however, are moderated by several variables that provide this dissertation study with important insights. In Beard's (2013) study, a summary of situational moderators are provided. The positive moderators (enhancing comparative advertising effects in comparison to the non-comparative ones) are: 1) newness of the brand; 2) quality of the brand; 3) market share of advertised brand, 4) well-substantiated claims of the brand; 5) the believable claims of the brand, and the salient benefits addressing brand's claims; and, 6) the creativity of advertisement. They also found the degree of negativity involved in comparative advertisement to be negatively correlated with the effectiveness of the comparative advertisement.

Among these variables, the market share variable, especially, has critical implications for the underdog effects. It is reported that when the market share of the advertising product or brand in the comparative advertising setting is more prominent (larger) than the one its being compared with, the effect diminishes; however, when the

advertised brand or product market share is significantly smaller than the comparing product or brand, it augments the comparative advertising effects significantly (Pechmann & Stewart, 1990). This result explains the reason for topdogs, or monopolies, trying not to provide specific match values in comparison with their disadvantaged opponents. This is because, as Anderson & Renault (2009) explain, one-sided information distribution (via an advertisement) provided by the dominant companies can make consumers compute the average valuation to the unspecified match value.

Conversely, underdog or new market entrants wish to fully disclose competitors' as well as their own product offerings because it provides consumers with a reference point (Anderson & Renault, 2009). Therefore, in the case of underdog brands, its comparative nature makes underdog brands best positioned on the small or disadvantaged side of consumer perceptions. Accordingly the consumers' perceptions toward underdog brands also are adjusted, augmented or sustained when such perceptions are considered to be real differences (e.g., earlier mentioned perception of Sam Adams brewery example as an underdog to corporate giant Budweiser). However, the Pechmann & Stewart's (1990) experiments use actual brand names and actual market dominance in the market place. Consequently, the study design does not hold the existing brand equity and/or the product category constant in the market share conditions (Pechmann & Stewart, 1990). This may create a confounding effect in their results.

Therefore, this dissertation study poses research questions related to the market share testing results in comparative advertising literature. This suggests to question the following: would consumers be using memories induced by situational cues to make inferences based on the perceived market dominance of the brands? If so, when brands

describe their market positioning status (e.g. leading, losing), can these brand descriptions change consumers' inference making about the brand (perceived image as opposed to the actual percentage of market dominance)? In other words, in real life, not many individuals are aware of the actual market share percentage value for the competing brands or products. Hence, individuals seem to or need to rely on the information stored in their memories (or on cues presented) to make judgments on the market dominance, ultimately to identify which brand is a topdog or an underdog. For this reason, this dissertation argues that the market dominance effect could be manipulated at a perceptual level with fictitious brands (reducing confounding effects from using the actual brand or product names). Additionally, as recorded in the underdog effects literature, the brand positioning status and underdog descriptions (biographies) can differentiate brand images and make it look more disadvantaged (Paharia et al., 2014), which may influence the perception of brand market dominance – and hence, influence the perception of winners and victims of business competitions. Therefore, this study calls for brand positioning status (underdog vs. topdog) as an essential factor to be examined.

2.4. Justice Perception and Motivation to Restore Justice

Past analyses of anti-corporation, underdog effects, and comparative appeals literature provide this study with insights on how powerful underdog positioning status is and how it can be created. Among the various explanations concerning motivations to support underdogs, this study endeavors to build its case on the consumers' reactions toward external power imbalance and motivation to the restore justice argument. This leads to the review of the reasons why people are motivated to restore justice when they

experience or encounter seemingly unjust events. The answer to this question can be found in the article of Messick & Sentis (1979). According to Messick & Sentis (1979), individuals generally prefer the presence of fairer options and, therefore, they tend to gear their decisions toward a fairer option when it is present. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) explains that individuals tend to prefer options that have an “equitable distribution of outcomes” (Messick & Sentis, 1979, p. 419). This means, after comparing inputs and outputs, when one perceives that there is an inequity between inputs and outputs, he or she feels that the outcome is not satisfactory and such a conclusion leads to anger or annoyance due to the perceived unfairness (Mccoll-Kennedy & Sparks, 2003).

Similar notions can be applied to the consumers’ perceptions toward brand positioning status. When consumers observe underdog and topdog positioning status, they become the third party who notice underdogs battling against topdogs. In this case, consumers are the third party observing one disadvantaged and the other one advantaged in the competitive business marketplace. According to the third party justice researchers, when individuals observe others being unfairly treated or dealing with unjust situations, emotional discomforts are triggered as a result (Spencer & Rupp, 2009; Mattila et al., 2014).

As individuals observe disadvantaged brands up against advantaged ones, this may also alter consumers’ judgment on what is “deserved” for underdogs. That is, underdog positioning status perhaps gives consumers ideas that underdogs deserve an opportunity to succeed in the market place as much as it is deserved for topdogs. Lerner (1980) explains that when one’s perception of the just world or what is defined as the orderly and predictable world is violated, leads to: 1) a derogation and punishment of the

victim's character, 2) an attribution of responsibility, or 3) character enhancement or compensation of the victim (Michniewicz & Vandello, 2013).

In the situations where consumers encounter underdog brands, this could make individuals view the market condition as unfair. This is because topdogs' tremendous amount of resources and knowledge can disable underdogs in their fight against topdogs. However, this may not be because of the underdogs' fault, but because of underdogs' lack of resources and knowledge to compete with topdogs' brands and marketing communication strategies (Michniewicz & Vandello, 2013). When the situation arises, individuals who believe that the "just world" should provide both brands (topdogs and underdogs) equal chances to win or an "equitable distribution of outcomes" (Messick & Sentis, 1979, p. 419), individuals will provide support for underdogs. Also, when they perceive the situation as extremely unfair, they will decide to engage in compensational activities to deal with the imbalance of power within competitive businesses and are motivated to restore justice (Vandello et al., 2007).

This explanation on individuals' motivation to restore justice when observing unjust situations covers some parts of human desire to make the world fair and to do the right thing in terms of social justice. However, what is lacking from the previous literature review is an explanation of whether or not the majority of individuals will react to power imbalances or unjust situations to restore justice. To answer this question, Van den Bos & Miedema (2000) use terror management theory to draw a link between one's moral perceptions and his or her concern for the fairness in the system or society in which they live. In this study, two important conditions are identified that are intrinsic to the nature of human life: 1) mortality, and 2) uncertainty of the future. Unless human beings

are somehow liberated from such conditions, individuals will continue to make decisions to best protect themselves from these future uncertainties (e.g., violations of legislations in doing business, hurting small businesses, etc.).

Therefore, individuals tend to make decisions that minimize regret, and when contemplating morality in human life, individuals tend to show strong reactions toward perceived fairness, especially procedural fairness, and make decisions against violations, being more positive about the components that can reinforce cultural norms and values (Van den Bos & Miedema, 2000). Moreover, in many cultures, fairness acts as an important social norm and a value, which individuals abide by steadfastly (Tyler & Smith, 1998).

Although mortality and uncertainties guide human lives to be more morally aware of the surrounding situations, it is still questionable that individuals' willingness to be involved in justice recovery actions can be altered by the situations and the societies they live in. This means that there is a degree to which individuals perceive their ideal or just world being violated by observing unjust situations, and these levels can consequently motivate them to restore justice. The degree to which individuals' motivation to restore justice can be changed depends on how unjustness is involved in the described situations (Haynes & Olson, 2006). However, the degree of individuals see their world just or unjust largely depends on the prevalent social norms and the moral principles embedded in social norms (Carnes, Lickel, & Janoff-Bulman, 2015).

Therefore, in order to attain more in-depth understanding of the underdog brand effects on consumers' motivation to restore justice, this study intends to incorporate social and normative variables that can possibly accentuate the salience of the level of

imbalance of power in unjust situations. However, how consumers identify social norms and how the situation is seen as just or unjust may vary across different ideological emphases (Vitell & Singhapakdi, 1993) in different societies; thus, this study attempts to use and limit the contextual environment to the United States.

2.5. Brand Origin and Underdog Support

In the previous literature, underdog biographies often involve the term “local” in order to make the effect more salient (Paharia et al., 2014). Individuals may perceive national brands as topdogs because of their significant presence and distinctive advantages in competitive market (Bronnenberg, Dhar, & Dubé, 2007). However, having an underdog positioning status in the market place does not necessarily mean the brand originates from the local community, or is owned/operated by locals. Hence, the distinction between brand origin and underdog effects is necessary because earlier marketing literature reports the separate impacts of brand origin and consumer ethnocentrism on consumers’ preferences toward certain brands (Cheng, Chen, Lin, & Wang, 2007; Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp, & Ramachander, 2000) and combining underdog brand status together with brand origin may create a confounding effect.

Brand origin literature diverges out into many different research streams. One of the areas where ample empirical evidence can be found is country-of-origin effects (Zhou, Yang, & Hui, 2010). The effect explains that the “information pertaining to where a product is made” (Amine, 2008, p. 405) can positively or negatively influence consumers’ attitude to brands or products. Later brand origin studies address the

importance of distinguishing the country-of-origin effects from the perceived brand foreignness as it broadly and more generally considers “perceived brand non-localness or foreignness” (Batra et al., 2000), rather than merely emphasizing the images drawn from “made-in” (e.g., made in China) phrase (Zhou et al., 2010).

In the present study, as the main research interest is in consumers’ moral judgment in deciding support for underdogs, examining exactly how and what country origin may do to influence the support for underdogs is not within this study’s scope. Rather, this study seeks normative variables that interchangeably affect a consumer’s perception of underdog positioning status. Therefore, this study defines brand origin similar to “perceived brand foreignness” construct and refers to a local business as the degree to which individuals identify a brand from their local community.

In food and beverage consumption context, similar to underdog brand positioning status, the brand “local origin” is actively utilized as a strategy to compete against global brands and the “localness” tends to provide competitive advantages to relevant products and brands (Özsomer, 2012). Such influence occurs because the local brands possess iconic meanings to the people in the community and the “localness” symbolizes the “values, needs, and aspirations of the members of the locals” (Özsomer, 2012). This may also be explained by individuals’ beliefs that the strong local economy brings the members of the community more economic benefits that can significantly influence the quality of life (Lee et al., 2009).

Conversely, in anti-brand consumption context, consumers under heavy influence of communitarian ideology can believe that multinational companies, or brands with foreignness may not distribute their earnings to the local community (Lee et al., 2009).

Therefore, when brand positioning status and localness are combined to address brands' or products' disadvantaged positions in the market place, consumers may be more prone to see the power imbalances between two competing brands and be more motivated to restore justice by actively avoiding non-local brands or products.

2.6. Brand Ideologies and System Justification Process

As mentioned in Van den Bos & Miedema's (2000) study, the justice-fairness perception is a core concept that sustains human beings' social norms and values. However, it brings the author to question whether individuals could truly see injustice in underdog positioning status. Can individuals really see inequity among corporate competitions only because underdog brands convey their disadvantaged positions in comparison to the corporate giants? On one hand, justice (fairness) is one of the societal values that individuals care greatly about while on the other hand, there are many other societal values that welcome or support healthy competitive business climate. In other words, the underdog effects cannot be fully examined unless this study investigates the individuals' degree of supporting dominant societal values. Therefore, such inquiries address the importance of consumers valuing social beliefs, values, ideologies and suggests the need to investigate the process of how individuals make sense of the world and relate these judgments to a competitive business climate or marketplace.

Therefore, this section begins with the reviews of social ideology within consumer behavioral research in relation to the underdog brand effects. In the Merriam-Webster dictionary (2015), "ideology" is defined as 1) "a systematic body of concepts especially about human life or culture"; and 2) "a manner or the content of thinking

characteristic of an individual, group, or culture”. These definitions implicitly and explicitly connect ideology with the value system or social norm that sustains the way individuals think of human life or culture. In Hirschman's (1993) investigation on the ideology in consumer research, she identifies three different types of ideologies: 1) social dominant, 2) complementary, and 3) oppositional ideologies. Social dominant ideologies legitimize the power that the dominant group exercises, and allow societies to form ways in which individuals can perceive social reality, and this in turn influences their social relations and institutions (Hirschman, 1993). Complementary ideologies co-exist with the dominant ideologies, but provide alternative explanations of the social reality, whereas oppositional ideologies are the beliefs that the dominant ideologies are erroneous and must be substituted by other counter or different beliefs and values (Hirschman, 1993).

Since dominant social ideologies provide a justification for the individuals' perception of societal realities, the degree to which businesses and/or brands reflect dominant or oppositional ideologies needs to be investigated. For example, Borghini, Diamond, Kozinets, McGrath, Muniz Jr., & Sherry Jr. (2009) analyzes *American Girl Place* and establishes an argument about why these themed brand stores are so powerful. Their reasoning for such success can be found in the brand ideologies that *American Girl Place* conveys through their brand stores. According to Borghini et al.'s (2009) theorizing, the ideological expressions embedded throughout these brand stores fabricate consumers' experiences of reality or in this case a “make-believe world” and eventually construct in the consumers' minds what is seen as natural, desirable, and complete. Therefore, when consumers purchase brands, they make decisions that align well with their own perceptions of a “perfect world.” In support of this argument, Khan, Misra, &

Singh (2013) offer an empirical examination of the link between daily choices (brands individuals frequently purchase in a supermarket) and societal values and ideologies. After analyzing data from 1,860 stores from 135 supermarket chains over a six-year period of 2001-2006 and a database representing approximately 47% of the total U.S. population, the researchers found that a “conservative ideology” can be a legitimate indicator for mundane purchase decisions (Khan et al., 2013). Here, the conservative ideology is defined as a “disposition in politics to preserve what is established and the tendency to prefer an existing or traditional situation to change” (p. 327) and is operationalized with Republican voting and religiosity.

These findings counter-argue that when products or brands impart ideologies that are inconsistent with consumers’ perceptions of a perfect world, this can backfire on consumers’ intention to purchase; and, if the consumers support oppositional ideologies, this can result in consumer activism. For example, Kozinets & Handelman (2004) describe that consumer activists are the “modern Puritans” (p.701) who desire to facilitate changes in consumption culture (beliefs and values) by enlightening consumers who are ignorant about certain business practices (e.g., anti-Nestle movement deprecates its irresponsible marketing and informs consumers that their baby milk formula infringes on the International Code of Marketing of Breast milk Substitutes and that also conceals genetically modified ingredients information (Ethical consumer research association, 2015)).

Consumers who drive these changes often consider themselves to be positive reinforcements who can bring more justice (and fairness) to their society and consumer culture (Kozinets & Handelman, 2004). One thing that is noteworthy to mention is that

this article sampled 1) anti-mega corporations (e.g., Nike, Coca-Cola, British Petroleum), 2) anti-corporation advertising (because it implicitly or explicitly manipulates one's thoughts and influences consumer culture), and 3) anti-genetically modified food and corporations (anti-multinational corporate giants that kill small businesses; farmers; ecosystems; and/or developing economies, (Kozinets & Handelman, 2004)).

The commonality the current study finds among the consumer activism studies is that the main evil that consumer activists are up against generally takes the form of multinational corporations or, the form of “winner” of a competition. This research suggests that consumers show a tendency to reject the brands that are considered to be bigger in market dominance, hence, acquire topdog positioning status and have brand hegemony (Cromie & Ewing, 2009). Such tendencies coincide with the underdog brand effects that are in support of smaller or disadvantaged brands in a competitive marketplace. Based on the previous literature review, this study also finds there may be a connection between “brand ideology” and “underdog positioning status” that may lead to more severe brand rejections, if brands convey the ideologies that are not consistent with purchasers' beliefs about a perfect world.

Levy & Luedicke (2012) find a connection between brand ideology and consumer reactions within the paradigm shifts of marketing ideology. In an analysis of the history of marketing ideology paradigm shifts, Levy & Leudicke (2012) find that, at first, marketing ideology (1900-1945) was placed on production and distribution. However, as the nature of marketing exchange shifts from distribution-oriented to customer-orientation (1945-1989), the brand ideology became more customer-oriented. Similar explanations are given by Merz, He, & Vargo (2009), as the evolution of brand logic

during the 1990s and 2000 placed its focus on the customer-firm and the customer-brand relationship (e.g., this is referred to as “brand ubiquity” in Levy & Luedicke’s analysis). Post 2000, Merz et al. (2009) calls the era a stakeholder focus brand period while Levy & Luedicke (2012) argue that this is a time when the network approach is central to understanding brand ideology. To the question of where marketing and brand ideology presently exists and will go into the future, Levy & Luedicke offer three scenarios: 1) the dark scenario, 2) the nice scenario, and 3) the bright scenario.

The dark scenario projects the worst possible future for marketing ideology, where the “nationalists, religious fanatics, and power hungry, corrupt, and dishonest actors” implement backward ideologies. The nice scenario foresees that someday marketing ideology will cater to true consumer needs and encourage consumers to spend more time together rather than over-consuming. Finally, the authors explain that in the bright scenario, this would be a time when consumers specifically demanded more “good” or “acceptable” practices from marketers. This suggests that consumers would want to see corporations more grounded by morality, and instead use their creativity to gratify the diverse needs and wants of their global customer base. (Levy & Luedicke, 2012). At the heart of such predictions lies the important role of brand creation that should be hypersensitive about ideologies that best represent consumers’ wants.

However, ideologies, reflected in marketing activities and brands, are culturally dependent. According to Bandura (2002), this is because of the human tendency to constantly pursue personal development through adaptation and adjustment to social change and “diverse cultural milieus” (p. 271). Therefore, the above association (brand-ideologies and consumer reactions) can only be presumed to be applicable to the culture

where the studies are conducted. As the literature reviews of this study and the study itself are limited within the U.S., this study remains relevant to American consumerism through its review of the dominant ideologies in the U.S. To explain what the dominant ideologies in the U.S. are, it is first fundamental to see the role of values in forming ideologies. According to Schwartz (2012), values have six different elements that may be closely connected to the ideologies, including the following:

“1) values are beliefs, 2) values refer to desirable goals, 3) values transcend specific actions and situations, 4) values serve as standards or criteria, 5) values are ordered by importance, 6) the relative importance of multiple values guides action...” (Schwartz, 2012; p. 4).

Hence, understanding values is particularly important because the dominant social values reflect the important social ideologies that matter to the members of that society.

In the initial studies of values, the value theory scholars assert explanations based on Rokeach's work (1973) and Hofstede's cultural values (1984). Unlike Hofstede's work, which is verified in over 50 different countries, Rokeach's work on values show weaknesses in representing realities of Western culture (Spini, 2003). Later, Schwartz proposes a universal “list of values (LOV)” that consist of 10 unique dimensions (e.g., achievement, benevolence, conformity, hedonism, power, security, self-direction, stimulation, tradition, and universalism). From these studies, Shepherd et al. (2015) identify two dominant ideologies that perhaps influence the recent U.S consumers the most: 1) power, and 2) universalism. “Power ideology” reflects the values such as “wealth, status, dominance over others, and resources” (p. 77), whereas “universalism

ideology” encompasses notions such as “tolerance, equality, and concern for the welfare of others” (p.77).

From the literature review, it is clear that consumers are more pleased when their brand selections reflect their individual conceptions of an ideal world, and it is also apparent that there can be potential negative consequences when brands fail to embed ideologies that consumers support the most. Then, the question becomes, would consumer groups support or reject the dominant ideologies of the U.S., especially when they are signaling their market positioning status within a competitive setting (e.g., underdog versus topdog setting)? Drawing from the earlier literature, this study endorses the logic drawn from system justification theory because it is closely related to the belief in a just world theory (Jost & Banaji, 1994). The review of system justification theory can provide broader application of the belief in a just world theory. System justification theory posits that individuals are motivated to “justify and rationalize the way things are, so that existing social, economic, and political arrangements tend to be perceived as fair and legitimate” (Jost & Hunyady, 2003, p.260). This means that individuals feel more comfortable living in a system they believe that is ideal; and when the prevalent views are challenged by outsiders, individuals tend to be a little more defensive in order to reducing the discomfort caused by cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957).

Moving on, when do individuals feel more threatened, and hence, more motivated to justify the system in which they live? That is, from the belief in a just world perspective, this question can be reiterated as “when do individuals feel more injustice (one’s just world belief is threatened) and are motivated to restore justice?” To answer this question, Jost & Hunyady (2003) mention that the basic human need for order,

structure, perception of a dangerous world, death anxiety (mortality salience), and system instability alter one's state of mind and positively influence system justification motives. As a consequence of these motives, individuals may experience affective changes (positive vs. negative), can demonstrate an in-group versus an out-group favoritism, alternate perceived legitimacy of authorities and institutions, and finally support social change and the redistribution of resources (Jost & Hunyady, 2003). This also leads to an examination of "system agreement" in the marketing research literature See Table 1 for a summary of the consequences anticipated by the system justification theory.

Table 1. Consequences expected from the system justification theory (Jost & Hunyady, 2003, p. 263)

Variable	Operational definition(s)	Consequences of system justification for advantaged	Consequences of system justification for disadvantaged
Positive and negative affect	Self-report ratings of (a) happiness, satisfaction, contentment, and general positive affect; and (b) frustration, anger, guilt, shame, discomfort, and general negative affect	Increased positive affect, decreased negative affect	Increased positive affect, decreased negative affect
Self-esteem, subjective well-being	Scores on self-report measures of individual self-esteem, depression, neuroticism	Increased self-esteem, subjective well-being	Decreased self-esteem, subjective well-being
In-group versus out-group favoritism	Favorability of (implicit and explicit) attitudes toward one's own group relative to the favorability of attitudes toward other groups	Increased in-group favoritism	Increased out-group favoritism (decreased in-group favoritism)
Perceived legitimacy of authorities and institutions	Trust and approval of the government, support for restricting criticism of the government, belief in the fairness of the economic system	Increased perceptions of legitimacy	Increased perceptions of legitimacy

(Continued)

Variable	Operational definition(s)	Consequences of system justification for advantaged	Consequences of system justification for disadvantaged
Support for social change and redistribution of resources	Support for policies of redistribution in educational and employment contexts; willingness to support community service programs to help the disadvantaged	Decreased support for social change	Decreased support for social change

In consumer and marketing research “system agreement” or “system confidence” concept is not yet applied extensively, because the majority of marketing research assumes that individuals generally agree with the system in which they live. Although the impacts of societal values and ideologies that influence consumer experience with brands or retail stores are frequently recorded in the literature (Massa & Testa, 2012; Khan et al., 2013), only a limited number of studies have applied system justification notion to explain how dominant ideologies motivate consumers to defend their own definition of realities. In the recent studies, some authors demonstrate the possibility of such concept application in explaining consumer choices and it is confirmed that much of consumers’ brand and/or product choices depend upon the conformity individuals have toward the systems (Cutright, Wu, Banfield, Kay, & Fitzsimons, 2011; Shepherd et al., 2015). Especially when individuals have a high degree of system confidence or, high level of belief that they are living in a just world that could alter consumers’ decisions for the brands or products that saliently convey relevant ideologies.

In the case of the underdog brands, it is questionable whether individuals are able to see power imbalance and the disadvantaged positions of underdogs when the brand

conveys different ideologies that may be consistent or against one's view toward the ideal world. Therefore, this study will attempt to build on Shepherd et al.'s (2015) findings on the linkages between brand ideology, system confidence, and consumer choices.

2.7. The Belief in a Just World Theory

In choosing a theory to best explain the underdog effects, this study first examines the applicability of system justification theory because it provides a broader understanding of the belief in a just world theory. Also, it is noteworthy to discuss the fundamental pillars related to the justice concerns found within the system justification theory foundations as it leads a discussion to the belief in a just world theory. According to Jost & Hunyady (2003), system justification theory is inspired by five distinctive psychological theories: 1) social identity theory; 2) belief in a just world theory; 3) cognitive-dissonance theory; 4) Marxist-feminist theories of ideology; and, 5) social dominance. Among these theories, belief in a just world theory is the one that has a particular interest in examining one's view of a just world and includes an individual's motivation to restore justice when their belief in a just world view is violated.

In Jost & Hunyady's (2003) study, they advocate the key differences of the belief in a just world theory and system justification theory. In system justification theory, one of the core concepts that sustains the theoretical conceptualization is the notion of the "status quo," and this is the major driver for the justification of system (Liviatan & Jost, 2011). Therefore, the theory of system justification posits that individuals have needs to justify their system when the world violates their "status quo." Such theoretical tenets are similar to those explained in social identity theory – that individuals perceive things

favorably when the world seems consistent with the way they identify themselves. Conversely, when an individuals' systems are under threat, they tend to apply stereotypical knowledge to legitimate group differences. This process, explained in the system justification theory, encompasses a wide range of social and cultural constructs such as family system, institutional or organizational systems, as well as political, social, and economic systems (Psychwiki, 2015). The definition of "system" is deliberately defined broadly so that it proliferates the theory application.

In contrast to the belief in a just world theory, system justification theory embraces the position argued in social cognitive theory that human beings learn from their environment and personal experience what is just or unjust, and apply rationalization processes accordingly. Conversely, the belief in a just world theory posits that individuals have a sense of genuine justice (Jost & Hunyady, 2003). However, for the purpose of this dissertation, system justification theory's boundaries seem to be too vague and perhaps not specific enough to capture the individuals' sense of genuine justice. Therefore, this study employs the belief in a just world theory's application for several compelling reasons:

- 1) the core concern involves the extent to which one's belief in a just world (a sense of genuine justice) is violated by the perception of a) how underdogs and topdogs are describing their brand positioning status, b) brand origins, and c) ideologies;
- 2) how such violations become threats to one's view of a just world and can activate a motivation to restore justice;
- 3) how it tests the third party (observer) judgment on the underdog brand positioning status (Wilson & Darke, 2012); and,

- 4) the need to understand the underdog effect as an automatic and preconscious processing of the situation.

However, as delineated in the previous underdog effects literature, it is noted that consumers' identification with underdog brands (social identity and status quo from the system justification theory) is also an important driver that determines whether or not underdogs will be supported (Paharia et al., 2011). Nevertheless, this is outside of this study's scope; yet such explanations could certainly be integrated into future studies.

What is the belief in a just world theory, then? The theory is first introduced by Lerner (1980) in his book, *The Belief in a Just World*. Since then, the theory is simply referred to as a *belief in a just world theory* or a *just world theory* and is adopted to numerous areas including social psychology, justice, marketing, and consumer research. He argues that "the 'belief in a just world' refers to those more or less articulated assumptions which underlie the way people orient themselves to their environment" (Lerner, 1980; p. 9). Here, the just world indicates the controllable or predictable world where individuals believe that they gain more control or power over their life and destiny. According to Furnham (2003), such beliefs help individuals perceive their world as orderly and believe the just world generally provides deserving outcomes for members of society. These beliefs are assumptions implicit in the beliefs in a just world theory and this belief is important because it sustains one's pursuit of short-term as well as long-term goals. Furthermore, day-to-day life and self-regulatory behavior cannot be anticipated without an individual's belief that his or her world is worthy of living in (Furnham, 2003).

Given the assumptions of this theory, the belief in a just world theory mainly predicts that, when the just world belief is violated, individuals demonstrate systematic reactions toward the injustice they perceive. In other words, individuals employ a wide range of strategies to reduce the perceived threats of their just world beliefs (Hafer & Bègue, 2005; Callan, Ellard, & Nicol, 2006). In an ideal just world, individuals get what they deserve, and this enables the notion of *good people get good outcomes and villains deserve bad things*. (Dion & Dion, 1987). When these views are threatened, individuals perceive injustice based on the analysis of outcome deservingness of the actors who are involved in the process. As Lerner (1980) explains, to reduce the injustice, individuals first try to restore justice by helping the victims. In contrast, when it becomes out of one's hands, individuals tend to become more derogatory toward the victims. For example, when individuals see a victim (patient) of AIDS who are facing death and then discover that this same person engaged in a promiscuous sex life, individuals react with derogatory claims toward the AIDS patient.

However, when individuals belong to the third party and perceive that they cannot restore justice in unjust situations, they will actively try to embrace injustice by justifying the victim's fate. Perhaps this stage of individuals' reactions can also be explained by the system justification theory as the members of the society actively defend their system by rationalizing victims' deservingness. In order to answer the question of what could be predicted through belief in a just world theory, Hafer & Bègue's (2005) review provides more in-depth information.

According to their review, the main application of the theory is when research questions are used to examine the third person's general tendencies in responding to the

violation of just world views by observing two other parties involved in competitive situations. Therefore, the dependent variables include blame, distancing (similarity and/or identification with the target and/or the target's situation), avoidance (of victim), punishment, negative affect, favorability of reaction, fairness, deservingness, helping, self-esteem, likelihood of participating parties' future success, long-term commitment (Hafer, Bègue, Choma, & Dempsey, 2005), happiness, comfort, satisfaction with fate, fairness, believability (believability of victims' account), and locus of resolution (p.134). Extensions of this theory are made through testing various responses to the different types of victims, such as victims of illness (AIDS and/or blood disorder), sexual assault, and unfairness, yet earlier researchers urge that the individual differences on the victim evaluation needs to be incorporated into the future research (Hafer & Bègue, 2005).

To explain one's psychological process that enables such anticipation, especially an adult's imminent justice reasoning, Callan et al. (2006) provide their audience with three plausible explanations. First, individuals may perceive and react to unjust situations in order to maintain their views of a just world because one's justice judgment is often made based on the analysis of what is idealistic in their current living culture and society (e.g., normative reactions) and what individuals witness. That is, the continuous comparative process between what individuals believe is fair and how unjust situations creates cognitive dissonance that individuals will strive to minimize. Second, as Kohlberg & Hersh (1977) assert, humans are developmental beings and one's morality progresses over time as well. Therefore, growing to adulthood allows individuals to gain experiences with a wide range of moral causal models (including imminent moral reasoning) that could be drawn from their memories to best explain the situations. Finally, the degree of

moral development may be different among individuals, hence, the individual differences (Rubin & Peplau, 1975) may have varying impacts on the degree of preservation of the just world beliefs (Smith & Green, 1984; Callan et al., 2006) and the individual differences can vary depending on the external stimuli presented (Alves & Correia, 2010) or one's experience of traumatic events (Janoff-Bulman, 1992).

In marketing and consumer research, the belief in a just world theory is not yet frequently or fully adopted. It is only in the recent attempts that marketing and consumer psychology researchers try to incorporate the theory into the field. The following table provides a summary of recent applications of the belief in a just world theory. The recent marketing and consumer research tend to apply the belief in a just world theory to consumers' perception toward their deservingness and fate and its consequences on the final decision-making process (See Table 2 for a summary of the applications of belief in a just world theory). However, as stated in a Kim, Kulow, & Kramer's (2014) study, surprisingly, the consumer research field has not yet fully explored consumers' perceptions of possible fates and deservingness. There is only a small amount of research analyzing the *justice received by others* (White et al., 2012, p. 103).

Table 2. Applications of belief in a just world theory in marketing field

Authors (year)	Purpose of the study	Independent variables	Dependent variables	Methods and findings
White, MacDonnell, & Ellard (2012)	Aims to test how consumers become more concerned about justice for others and how it alternates the decision making process (e.g., how to encourage consumers to choose products with ethical attributes)	<p>Communicated need to restore justice</p> <p>Justice restoration potential (high vs. low payoffs to the producer, positive vs. negative justice outcomes, new vs. long-standing situation)</p> <p>Moderating variables: individual differences in BJW*, product type (indulgence vs. necessity)</p> <p>Mediating variable: justice restoration efficacy</p>	<p>Consumer preference for fair-trade products</p> <p>Fair-trade purchase intentions</p>	<p>High need for justice restoration/ uncertain or unavailable justice restoration potential →support for fair trade decreases</p> <p>High need for justice restoration/ high potential to restore justice through fair-trade support → supports for fair trade increases</p> <p>The relationship is moderated by BJW*, product type</p>
Wilson & Darke (2012)	<p>Aims to test how consumers react to the central marketing threats. Identify possible coping strategies consumers employ.</p> <p>How and why consumers rely on just world beliefs as a coping mechanism and how it leads to more optimistic trust judgments.</p>	Belief in a just world (high vs. low), choice stage (pre-choice vs. post choice), cognitive load (no load vs. load), ego threat (low vs. high)	Trust of retail sales person, decision satisfaction	<p>Individuals use the belief in a just world as a coping strategy to overcome the marketplace threats.</p> <p>Belief in a just world acts as a positive force that helps individuals cope with decision threats.</p>

(Continued)

Authors (year)	Purpose of the study	Independent variables	Dependent variables	Methods and findings
Kim, Kulow, & Kramer (2014)	Aims to test whether individuals' belief in fate has an implicit or lay theory about the fate. To test interaction effects of lay theory of fate and fateful predictions on decision-making process.	Implicit theory of fate (malleable vs. fixed), fate horizon (daily vs. yearly), predicted fate (favorable vs. unfavorable)	Choice share (indulgent: Choice of going to a party vs. virtuous choice: choice of chocolate bar)	Choice share of an indulgent option increases only when consumer believe that their fate is malleable, especially when an unfavorable day ahead is anticipated.
Reczek, Haws, & Summers, (2014) – indirect application of the belief in a just world theory	How loyal customers react to randomly determined marketing results (e.g., lottery, drawing) Aims to test lucky loyalty effect	prior effect (yes vs. no), elite status (yes vs. no), effort investment (yes vs. no), comparison group (high-effort customers vs. low-effort customers)	Subjective likelihood of receiving a larger discount	All five studies demonstrated the “lucky loyalty effect” – that is, individuals believe that greater effort spent to earn a loyalty status results in greater likelihood of receiving random promotional outcomes. Individuals believe that they deserve such special treatment (or luck) because they invested more to earn the status.

*BJW (Belief in a just world)

Underdog effects may still be explained by many other justice related theories; however, as Michniewicz & Vandello (2013) assert, belief in a just world theory can capture the reasons why consumers are attracted to the underdog brands and explain what bolsters the attractiveness of underdogs. Although earlier theorists who attempted to

understand the underdog effects showed the potential of applying belief in a just world theory to this domain, only limited research endeavors were found. Moreover, the application of the theory in marketing and consumer research domains is surprisingly limited (White et al., 2012). Therefore, this study endeavors to provide more theoretical and practical implications in the explanation of consumers' tendency to support underdog (or local) products and brands from the perspectives of the belief in a just world theory.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT & HYPOTHESES

This chapter attempts to integrate literature reviewed in the previous chapter and builds upon the theoretical foundations of belief in a just world theory. First, the proposed hypotheses draw links between external and normative cues (brand positioning status, brand origin, and brand ideology) that best address underdog positioning and its impact on the motivation to restore justice. Second, this section incorporates individual differences in the just world views to test robustness of the connection between cues and motivation to restore justice in hypotheses development. Finally, the proposed model tests mediation effects of motivation to restore justice in stimulating consumers' behavioral outcomes. An overall conceptual model is depicted at the end of this chapter that captures these concepts into a theoretical model.

3.1. Application of Belief in a Just World Theory to Consumer Value Judgment of Underdog Brands

Many consumer decisions are grounded in consumers' ability to retrieve relevant information from the manner in which brand knowledge is shaped and retained in one's mind (Keller, 2003). The information in an individual's mind can be activated through various ways. One of the ways to motivate an individual to process information is through situational cues. This means when a consumer encounters available cues (e.g., through online or offline advertising, etc.), the cues can trigger relevant information connected to the activated memory nodes (Keller, 1993). These activated nodes allow an

individual to process information, and if the information is not sufficient, an individual either searches for more information or makes inferences based on the information already obtained (Dean, 1999). This process is particularly important, since it becomes the basis for consumer value judgment and decision-making. Thus, a major inquiry of this dissertation led to whether or not brands' market positioning status could be a cue that sets in motion the retrieval of information from consumers' minds, if so, does this information convey positive and negative valence (intrinsic attractiveness and averseness toward the stimuli presented).

3.2. Brand Positioning Status Cues

According to evolutionary theorists, human beings are attracted to the those with winner characteristics rather than people with loser characteristics because of reproduction purposes (Michniewicz & Vandello, 2013). However, recent studies in psychology and marketing domains find that this may not be true in some cases. Earlier studies examining underdog effects assert that individuals are not always in support of winners. In fact, in some cases, individuals can demonstrate their affinity toward underdogs (Paharia et al., 2014). Although, it is found that an individual's affinity for underdogs is not unconditional, but rather oftentimes contingent upon the framing of the brand positioning status (Allison & Burnette, 2010); there are some situations where individuals distinctively favor the underdogs rather than topdogs. This means there may be several external cues that can trigger information, which can encourage consumers to perceive the brand as an underdog, and eventually alter final behaviors.

Previous studies (e.g., Paharia et al., 2011) explain that underdogs are perceived as underdogs when they have particular biographies that can make the positioning status salient to consumers such as a disadvantaged status and/or the determination to succeed in the marketplace. Grounded in the belief in a just world theory, Michniewicz & Vandello's (2013) study finds that individuals' favoritism toward underdogs prevails when individuals see underdogs are losing due to the external constraints rather than their own faults. In such situations, individuals can see injustice and the power imbalance in competitive situations and are motivated to help underdogs.

Individuals' perception of power imbalance can be made based on how saliently the targeted brand conveys its disadvantaged images to consumers (Paharia et al., 2014). Oftentimes underdog brands address their disadvantaged positions based on their market dominance and lack of resources (e.g., market dominance is smaller in comparison to the winners, and/or lacking resources when compared to the industry standard). When individuals see differences in market dominance (resources are insufficient to compete) and can feel and appreciate the disadvantaged positions of underdogs, it can trigger many different consumer reactions based on the stereotypical information embedded in individuals' brain. For example, Richardson, Dick, & Jain (1994) find that consumers prefer national brands (topdogs) rather than store brands (underdogs) because consumers believe that national brands are more resourceful; hence, there is a great difference in product quality. Although individuals make constant good (helping) and bad (prohibiting) judgments based on the degree of external disadvantages associated in their business operations, the connection between the brand positioning status (topdog vs. underdog) and the motivation to restore justice is not yet fully examined.

However, a plausible hypothesis can be drawn within the context of early education. Children constantly learn about demonizing (e.g., Disney movies) and stereotypical images of innocent and evil beings (Fouts, Callan, Piasentin, & Lawson, 2006). One of the characteristics often embodied in villains is their advantaged positions when fighting. The victims of the villains are often depicted as weak and losing, while villains are described as powerful and dominating. Similarly, the Bible describes children as “little” and weak ones that are dependent on adults’ (strong ones) care and protection (e.g., Matthew 18:10 – “See that you do not despise one of these little ones. For I tell you that in heaven their angels always see the face of my Father who is in heaven”; Bible Gateway, 2015).

Such education received from a young age suggests individuals may more be biased when cues highlighting one’s externally disadvantaged positions are present. In the perspective of the belief in a just world, such stereotypical images of situational and external disadvantage situations imposed on underdogs can induce automatic judgments regarding justice and deservingness. That is, in a just world, strong winners should protect weaker and losing individuals, and when this is violated, it may be perceived as unjust. Conversely, when individuals believe that this is how natural evolution occurs (e.g., weak ones will be caught and killed by predators or weaker ones fail), the perception of injustice for underdog entities may not arise.

In other words, if individuals think that it is natural to have winning predators devour weaker and losing animals because that is how it works in a food chain (Cohen, 2007), then, perhaps the impact of brand positioning status cues may not create perceptions of injustice even in the marketing sense of larger firms dominating the

marketplace over smaller firms. It is then plausible to say that consumers' judgment can be altered based on the brand positioning status. When they are perceived as an underdog or a topdog, these brand positioning status cues could act as a spark for justice-based motivation or may not cause a reaction based on the feelings held in these situations. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that when consumers perceive a brand to be underdogs or topdogs, one's motivation to restore justice could be affected significantly.

H₁: The underdog brand positioning status has a greater positive influence on individuals' motivation to restore justice than when the topdog brand positioning status is presented.

3.3. Brand Origin Cues

One's moral judgment on what is a right thing to do arises when individuals' belief systems are challenged by witnessing unjust situations. Some explain that this is due to the individuals' preferences toward fair treatment of the members of society (Messick & Sentis, 1979; van den Bos & Miedema, 2000). Others address this by examining individuals' belief that their living system is just and the members of society being unfairly treated violates their personal belief systems and their just world views (Lerner & Miller, 1978). This is perhaps why marketing practitioners attempt to make normative appeals when they try to influence individuals' moral behavioral outcomes. Thus, earlier researchers explore the power of normative variables in changing individuals' intention to engage in pro-social behaviors (White & Simpson, 2013). For example, to promote one's intention to maintain pro-social attitudes (Han et al., 2015), moral norms and societal norms are manipulated (e.g., pro-environmental behavior).

One of the normative variables that often appears in examining one's intention to exercise "justice" in the purchasing decision is brand origin. That is, brand origin has a positive influence on individuals' intention to purchase products with ethical features (Andorfer & Liebe, 2012). The ample empirical evidence shows mixed results about consumers' intentions to support local or non-local brands or products. Some argue that consumers, especially the ones in the developing countries, have tendencies to support non-local or foreign brands because it provides consumers with prestige and status symbols (Batra et al., 2000). However, others report that individuals can be quite concerned about their national or local economy, thus, local brands and products become a symbol to invoke more nationalistic or patriotic purchase decisions (Zhou & Belk, 2004).

In the context of underdog positioning status, earlier researchers heavily exploit "localness" of underdogs (Paharia et al., 2011; Paharia et al., 2014) as a means to stimulate one's identification of underdog brand positioning status. However, this study perceives "localness" as a separate normative factor that may interact with the brand positioning status and may make the underdog positioning status more salient. Furthermore, this can be a factor that influences individuals' intentions to restore justice because of the situational unjustness involved in a competitive business marketplace.

Such anticipation is plausible because according to the earlier studies, it is reported that many of the consumers have normative beliefs that supporting local brands can eventually benefit their society's economy and the members' well-being (Lee et al., 2009). In the business world where the survival of local firms is constantly threatened by non-local global companies (Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010), it is perhaps inevitable for

consumers to associate “localness” to underdog biographies. As a result of such connections, consumers tend to choose local brands over global brands (Nijssen, 2011) and this is perceived as a more morally right or a sustainable thing to do (Dowd & Burke, 2013). Therefore, this study hypothesizes the following:

H₂: The local origin brand has a greater positive influence on individuals’ motivation to restore justice than when the non-local origin brand is presented. (Study 1)

3.4. Brand Ideology Cues

Another normative factor that heavily influences consumers’ supporting or avoiding behavior is societal ideologies (Crockett & Wallendorf, 2004). To the question of whether consumers’ consumption patterns really reflect one’s ideologies, Khan et al. (2013) advocated that ideology is such an important concept that it is even embedded in one’s routine purchases. To reiterate, one’s ideology is a powerful force that can alter an individual’s attitudes and behavior. In a similar vein, Shepherd et al. (2015) provide empirical evidence that individuals make purchase decisions based on the dominant ideology they support in society. Such links are closely related to one’s confidence in the currently existing societal system. These studies indicate the importance of the brand image in relation to consumers’ dominant ideologies. According to Shepherd et al. (2015), the dominant ideologies in the U.S. are “power” and “universalism”. Then, in terms of underdog positioning, it is plausible to estimate that when topdogs convey more powerful images, this could backfire in the consumers’ justice judgment on topdogs because it might demonstrate more severe level of power imbalance, or vice versa.

In terms of the link between brand ideology cues and their ability to stimulate motivation to restore justice, Cutright et al. (2011) explain that when individuals encounter brands or words that are inconsistent with the way individuals believe in the system, the individuals feel threatened (Jost & Banaji, 1994) and try to employ several strategies to close the cognitive gaps (e.g., cognitive dissonance). Their studies highlight the fact that regardless of the system confidence (high or low), individuals perceive injustice and manifest their attempts to restore justice in their consumer behavior. When the brand ideology is consistent with one's view of a societal system, an individual prefers and supports the brands that are not a threat to one's ideal world. Conversely, individuals engage in boycotting (Hollenbeck & Zinkhan, 2006) or brand aversion (Dalli, Romani, & Gistri, 2006) behavior, if a brand expresses the ideologies that are threats to the one's ideal world view.

In the belief of just world theory, ideology is a concept that cannot be separated from one's just world view(s). This is because dominant social ideologies reflect one's core thoughts about the world they live in (Callan et al., 2006). In terms of the underdog effects, it may be conceivable to say that when a topdog brand conveys power ideology rather than universalism, individuals who do not support power as a socially dominant ideology may perceive more severe power imbalance between topdogs and underdogs. Conversely, if consumers' dominant ideology is power, they may be engaged in a legitimization process to justify the topdog's powerful positioning. The effect may be decreased if a topdog's brand depicts a universalism ideology. Therefore, it is probable to hypothesize that brand ideology cues can alter consumers' motivations to restore justice.

H₂: The universalism brand ideology has a greater positive influence on individuals' motivation to restore justice than when the power brand ideology is presented. (Study 2)

3.5. Individual Differences of the Just World View

Even within a single nation, there can be many different sub-cultures, ideologies, and societal norms (Clarke, 1974). Such ideas allow individuals to believe that the members of a society can have a wide range of value systems. This suggests there is a need to understand the degrees of individuals' agreements or disagreements toward the social systems. In other words, some individuals may not be happy with the system they live in and thus endeavor to influence the system and thereby improve it (Brandt, 2013). Others may alternatively have a higher degree of confidence in the system (Cutright et al., 2011). Similarly, the belief in a just world theory questions the degree of one's justice perception toward the world in which one currently lives. Unlike the other variables used in this study, the belief in a just world variable is a difference in an individual's perceptions about the justice of the world (Tanaka, 1999).

As the theory posits, individuals try to restore justice when their view of a just world is violated. If individuals see that there is potential to correct injustice, they tend to be more motivated to restore justice. Yet, if the potential is low, individuals find other strategies (e.g., derogation of victims) to legitimize their beliefs in a just world (Lerner, 1980). In the case of the underdog effects, an individual's perceptions toward what is just may vary depending on the situation depicted. For example, some may think that an underdog's suffering is just, especially in the world where survival in the competitive

marketplace is a requisite of corporate success. However, others may think that a just world is a society in which individuals need to protect disadvantaged, weaker, or small entities. Therefore, it may be possible to say that the degree of how individuals form their belief in a just world may or may not activate one's motivation to restore justice in supporting the underdog or those unjustly suffering in a disadvantaged situation.

In earlier studies, researchers present the possibility that the belief in a just world construct acts as a moderator. As stated in Callan et al.'s (2006) study, individual differences in the belief in a just world moderates the relationship between just world threats and imminent reasoning. Tomaka & Blascovich (1994) also discover the similar moderating effects on the relationship between the just world threat and the coping process. With the business context, White et al. (2012) test the moderating role of individuals' belief in a just world perceptions on the relationship between potential to restore justice and the likelihood of choosing fair-trade products. Therefore, this study identifies the possibility that individuals' diverse beliefs in a just world influence consumers' motivations to restore justice and its moderating roles in the compassion of hospitality (restaurant) operations.

H₃: The degree of one's belief in a just world has positive influences on consumers' motivation to restore justice.

H_{3a}: The degree of one's belief in a just world moderates the relationship between brand positioning status and consumers' motivation to restore justice. Thus, when consumers perceive the brand positioning status to be underdog and they have weak confidence in a just world, it enhances consumers' motivation to restore justice in comparison to the situation where consumers

perceive the brand positioning status as an underdog, and they believe strongly in a just world. (Study 1 & 2)

H_{3b}: The degree of one's belief in a just world moderates the relationship between brand origin cue and consumers' motivation to restore justice. Thus, when consumers perceive a brand origin to be local and individuals have a weak belief in a just world, it enhances consumers' motivation to restore justice in comparison to the situation where consumers perceive the brand origin as non-local and individuals have high conviction in their belief in a just world. (Study 1)

H_{3b}: The degree of one's belief in a just world moderates the relationship between brand ideology cue and consumers' motivation to restore justice. Such that, when a brand ideology conveys universalism values and individuals have low degree of belief in a just world, it enhances consumers' motivation to restore justice in comparison to the situation where a brand ideology conveys power values and individuals have a strong belief in a just world. (Study2)

3.6. Behavioral Outcomes of Motivation to Restore Justice

When individuals are motivated to restore justice, several behavioral outcomes can be anticipated. As this study is nested within the theory of the belief in a just world, this study can anticipate that when individuals are motivated to restore justice because they perceive that there is an sufficient potential to restore justice; (White et al., 2012), individuals become engaged in helping behaviors to restore justice (Lerner & Miller,

1978). In White et al.'s (2012) study, it is found that consumers demonstrate preferences for fair trade products, and also show a high level of fair-trade product purchase intentions as a result.

In underdog effect studies, the consequences of motivation to restore justice are examined with broader outcome variables. In Paharia et al.'s (2014) study, researchers find that when individuals perceive disadvantaged positions of underdog brands, this can positively influence consumers' intention to help underdogs. For evidence, their study examines purchase intentions, real purchases, and more favorable online reviews in comparison to their competitors (Paharia et al., 2014). Although earlier studies investigating the underdog effects find its positive effects on pro-underdog behavior, many other outcome variables used to test the belief in a just world theory are not yet empirically tested in an underdog setting. Hence, this study hypothesizes the following:

H₄: Motivation to restore justice positively influences the intention to support underdog brands.

H_{4a}: Motivation to restore justice positively influences the overall support of underdog brands.

H_{4b}: Motivation to restore justice positively influences the intention to make a purchase for underdog brands.

H_{4c}: Motivation to restore justice positively influences the intention to pay price premium for underdog brands.

H_{4d}: Motivation to restore justice positively influences the intention to make an effort to write online reviews for underdog brands.

H_{4c}: Motivation to restore justice positively influences the intention to make an effort to write positive online reviews for underdog brands.

3.7. A Conceptual Framework

Based on a review of relevant literature, this study attempts to provide more comprehensive explanations on the underdog brand effects. By applying the belief in a just world theory, this study aims to demonstrate the influence of one's belief system on the judgment of injustice involved in underdog brand positioning status. Additionally, this study incorporates situational and normative factors (brand positioning status, brand origin, and brand ideology) and personal factors (belief in a just world view) into the model and predicts a range of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. The examination of the proposed conceptual model is pursued by conducting two 2x2x2 between-subjects experimental design studies. The first study examines the effect of brand positioning status and brand origin. Then, it incorporates the influence of individuals' belief in a just world view as a potential moderator. In the second study, brand ideology is used as a possible normative influence in altering individuals' motivation to restore justice. The second study also tests the moderating role of the belief in a just world view of individuals. Figure 3 is a summary of the conceptual model used for this study.

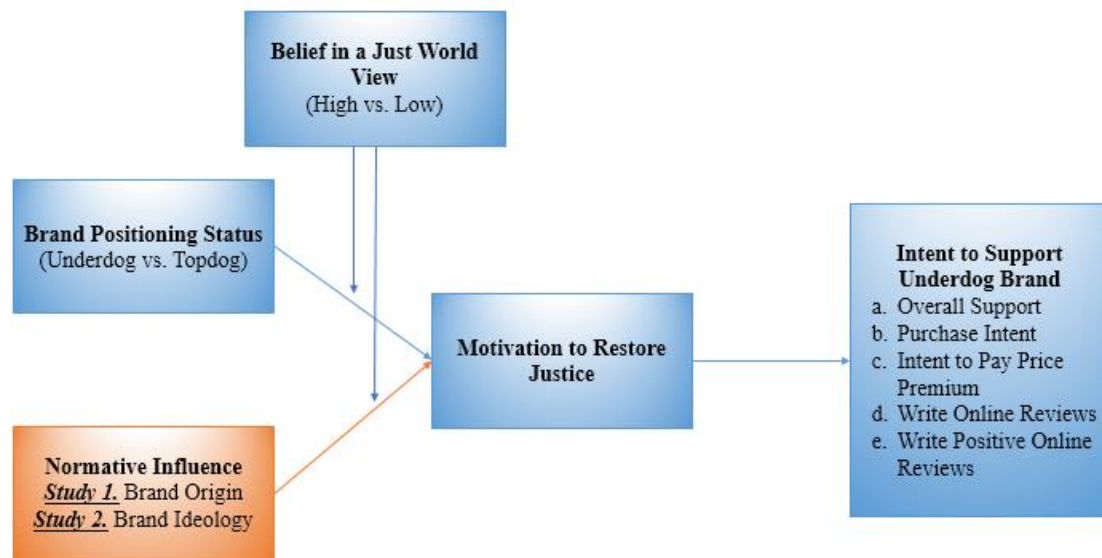
This study identifies several limitations in its design;

- 1) Although previous researchers introduce several plausible reasons for underdog support, due to the study scope, this study attempts to build an argument within the belief in a just world theory and only examines one's motivation to restore justice when encountering underdog brand positioning status.

2) In some studies, perception of injustice is detected through a multi-dimensional approach. However, this research follows White et al.'s (2012) approach and identifies motivation to restore justice as a unidimensional construct.

3) The belief in a just world theory addresses the point that individuals only demonstrate support behavior when there is enough potential to restore justice. That is, if individuals believe that there is no hope to restore justice, they tend to be engaged in more derogatory behaviors toward the victims of competition. However, this study's main research purpose is to investigate the social phenomena of underdog support. Hence, this study excludes derogatory behaviors from the conceptual framework.

Figure 3. Conceptual framework



Note: Study 1 (2 Brand Positioning Status x 2 Brand Origin x 2 Belief in a Just World Views) & Study 2 (2 Brand Positioning Status x 2 Brand Ideology x 2 Belief in a Just World Views)

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

4.1. Overview of Methods and Designs

This chapter begins by explaining the methods to test the proposed hypotheses. It details the study's design including the experimental conditions, the study participant characteristics, the data collection process, and the data analysis methods. This chapter further provides more specific information on how the study is developed, and which forces can be used to create salient underdog effects – explaining the procedures for the two experimental study designs. Finally, this chapter explains the measurements used for the survey questionnaires.

4.2. Study Design

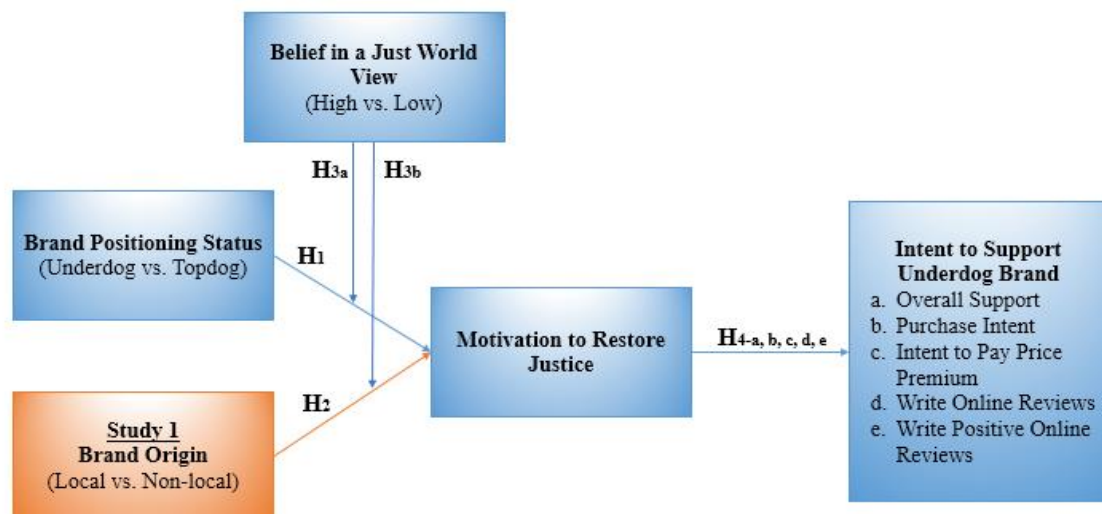
The purpose of this research is to investigate the conditions that create brand underdog effects and to examine their impact on consumers' behavioral outcomes. To create the underdog effects, this study uses situational and normative cues such as brand positioning status, brand origin, and brand ideology as manipulating variables. Also, by adding a variable that measures individual differences as a moderator (belief in a just world view or BJW), this study attempts to fill the gap in the just world theory noted by researchers (Hafer & Bègue, 2005) and how it affects the theory development around underdog effects. In order to test hypotheses, this research proposes two experimental design studies. In Study 1 (brand positioning status x brand origin), the principles to be examined include the underdog effects created by manipulating the brand positioning

status and brand origin variables. In Study 2 (brand positioning status and brand ideology), a separate examination is undertaken to address the importance of brand ideology, and it also makes an effort to generate underdog effects in this application.

4.3. Study 1 Design – Effects of Brand Positioning Status and Brand Origin

The aim of Study 1 is to create underdog effects by manipulating brand positioning status and brand origin, which can motivate consumers to restore justice. Therefore, a 2 (brand positioning status cue: underdog vs. topdog) x 2 (brand origin: local vs. non-local) x 2 (belief in a just world view: high vs. low) between-subjects factorial design experimental study is used to test H₁ (main effect of brand positioning status cue), H₂ (main effect of brand origin cue), H_{3a} (moderating effect of the belief in a just world view on the relationship between brand positioning status cue and motivation to restore justice), and H_{3b} (moderating effect of the belief in a just world view on the relationship between brand origin and motivation to restore justice). See Figure 4 for Study 1 design.

Figure 4. Study 1 design

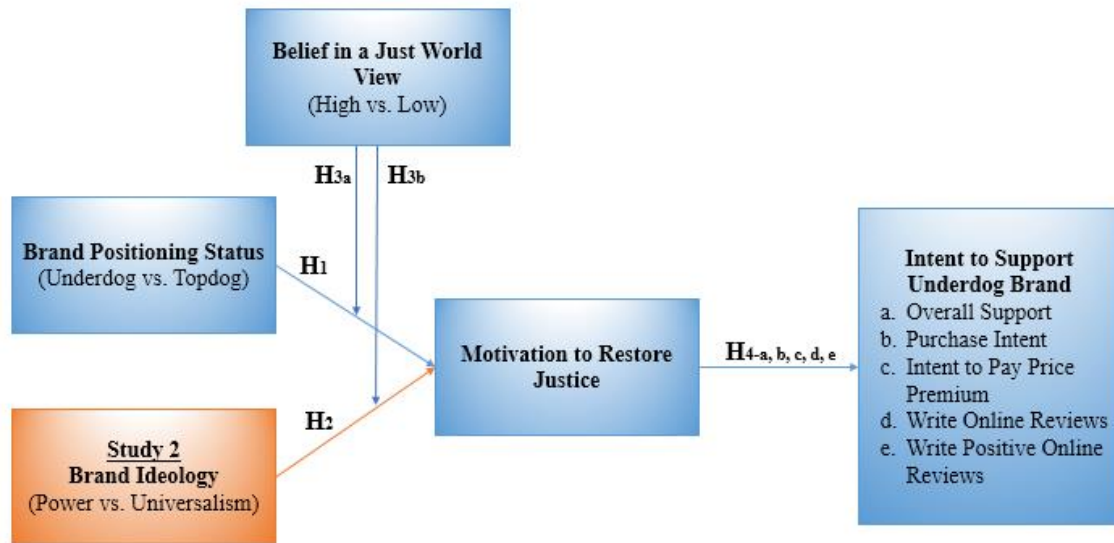


Following the traditional method of conducting experimental design studies in consumer research, this study sets up hypothetical scenarios with descriptions of fictitious brands. Earlier studies report that brand familiarity can greatly influence one's attitude or judgment and produce a bias (Kent & Allen, 1994). Hence, this study deliberately utilizes fictitious brands to reduce confounding effects. Drawn upon the literature review, it is predicted that when consumers perceive a brand as an underdog and one that is locally owned, they may see more unjustness in the situation, and this perceived injustice can motivate individuals to restore justice. The prediction that considers the role of moderating effects is explained in the "Individual Differences of the Belief in a Just World View" section (See page 68).

4.4. Study 2 Design – Effects of Brand Positioning Status and Brand Ideology

The purpose of Study 2 is to produce the underdog effects through manipulation of brand positioning status and brand ideologies, and then examine its impact on the motivation to restore justice. Hence, a 2 (brand positioning status cue: underdog vs. topdog) x 2 (brand ideology cue: power vs. universalism) x 2 (belief in a just world view: high vs. low) between-subjects factorial design is developed to test H₁ (main effect of brand positioning status), H₂ (main effect of brand ideology), H_{3a} (moderating effect of the belief in a just world view on the relationship between brand positioning status and motivation to restore justice), and H_{3b} (moderating effect of the belief in a just world view on the relationship between brand ideology and motivation to restore justice). See Figure 5 for Study 2 design.

Figure 5. Study 2 design



This study part employs a similar approach to the methods used in Study 1; the hypothetical scenario method and the use of fictitious brands for each trial. Based on the earlier literature, this study anticipates that Study 2 will find that the individuals see more injustice when they perceive the brand as an underdog and representative of universalism, in stark contrast to how they might react upon encountering a topdog brand conveying an ideology of power. Similar to the Study 1 description, the moderating effect of the belief in a just world view is explained in the following section.

4.5. Brand Positioning Status Cue

Although earlier studies manipulate underdog status by mentioning two competing brands in a quasi-experimental scenario (Paharia et al., 2014), this study follows Kim et al.'s (2008) approach in establishing an underdog status. In Kim et al.'s study, instead of using two competing brands to create an underdog effect, they explain

the individual entity's status as an underdog or a topdog. Therefore, brand positioning status is manipulated by providing respondents with underdog biographies and is operationalized by the degree of brands conveying their disadvantaged positions and determination to succeed in the market competitions (Paharia et al., 2011). Using underdog biographies in the examination of the underdog brand effects reports successful manipulation results because individuals have stereotypical memories associated with these descriptions of underdogs (Paharia et al., 2011).

To conduct a manipulation check, this study utilizes three questions to measure one's perception of brand positioning status: 1) Based on the descriptions you read, did you perceive that Louie's restaurant is an underdog?; 2) How passionate and determined is Louie's restaurant?; 3) How externally disadvantaged is Louie's restaurant?. A 7-point Likert-type scale that is anchored between *1: Not at all* and *7: Very much* is employed (Paharia et al., 2011). A 7-point Likert-type scale is selected because it has superior measurement accuracy in comparison to 3-, 5-, and 9-point scales (Malhotra, Krosnick, & Thomas, 2009). The respondents' answers to the three questions are summated and used to check the brand positioning status manipulation.

4.6. Brand Origin Cue

This study manipulates the brand origin by measuring the degree to which individuals identify the brand as a brand from one's local community (Zhang & Khare, 2009). To check manipulation, this study presents two items to respondents: 1) Based on the descriptions you read, do you perceive that Louie's restaurant is a locally owned, independent business?; and, 2) Based on the descriptions you read, would you evaluate

Louie's restaurant as a locally owned, independent restaurant?. This study adopts a 7-point Likert-type scale that is anchored between *1: strongly disagree* and *7: strongly agree* (Bauer, Heinrich, & Schäfer, 2013). Similar to the brand status manipulation, the respondents' answers to the two questions are summated and used to check the brand origin cue manipulation.

4.7. Brand Ideology Cue

Since this study is conducted in the U.S., it aims to manipulate ideologies associated with the most socially prevalent values in the U.S. Earlier studies identified that the most dominant ideologies in the U.S. are “power” and “universalism” (Shepherd et al., 2015). The most recent study published (Shepherd et al., 2015) manipulates brand ideology exclusively through the variables of power and universalism. The power domain reflects social status, wealth, prestige, authority, control, dominance over individuals, and dominance over resources, whereas universalism reflects values such as understanding, tolerance, equality, protection for the welfare of all individuals, and protection for the welfare of all nature (Schwartz, 1994).

The manipulation is done through descriptive information of the brand. First, this study utilizes a fictitious restaurant brand for the experiments and the detailed brand information is provided for the respondents. Hence, this study offers a broad array of brand information in descriptive ways. The manipulation check questions ask the respondents to rate the above-mentioned items, asking them whether or not they think the descriptions of brands reflect power or universalism values. This study uses a 7-point

Likert-type scale that is anchored between *1: strongly disagree* and *7: strongly agree* (Shepherd et al., 2015).

Consistent with the brand status and brand origin manipulations, the respondents' answers to the five questions (power ideology measurements) and four other questions (universalism ideology measurements) are separately summated and used to check the brand ideology cue manipulation. One thing to note is that universalism and power questions were separately asked to all respondents (regardless of the condition assigned randomly) because not perceiving power ideology does not necessarily mean that individuals perceived a universalism ideology from the descriptions. Therefore, it is important to check that respondents perceive the exact manipulating ideology.

4.8. Moderating Role of the Belief in a Just World View

In terms of the moderating roles of belief in a just world view, this study measures one's just world view with the Global Belief in a Just World (GBJW) Scale (Lipkus, 1991). Adopting the approaches from White et al. (2012), this study computes a factor score on the GBJW scale and use multiple regression and/or spotlight analyses technique to examine moderating effects. The relationship that Study 1 tests (the influence of brand positioning status and brand origin on the motivation to restore justice) is anticipated to be weaker when individuals have high GBJW scores, and stronger when individuals have low GBJW scores. The relationship predicted in Study 2 (the influence of brand positioning status and brand ideology on the motivation to restore justice) could also be moderated by the GBJW scores.

The GBJW scale consists of a total of seven items. The items are 1) “I feel that people get what they are entitled to have”; 2) “I feel that a person’s efforts are noticed and rewarded”; 3) “I feel that people earn the rewards and punishments they get”; 4) “I feel that people who meet with misfortune have brought it on themselves”; 5) “I feel that people get what they deserve”; 6) “I feel that rewards and punishments are fairly given”; and, 7) “I basically feel that the world is a fair place” (Lipkus, 1991, p. 1173). To measure these items, a 7-point Likert-type scale is used that is anchored between *1: strongly disagree* and *7: strongly agree*. These items are also summated as a factor score and is prepared for the further use.

4.9. Mediating Variable

Motivation to restore justice, sensibly, occurs when individuals perceive injustice. Especially in consumer research, it is reported that consumers’ reactions to unfairness can result in employing several strategies to deal with unjust situations. These include: 1) attempts to restore justice; 2) retaliation to punish the source; 3) displays of anger; 4) forgiveness or asking for compensation (when consumers experienced unfair treatment); and, 5) retaliation (Seiders & Berry, 1998). In a situation where underdogs are competing fiercely against giant corporations, individuals may feel that it is not fair for underdogs because of the uneven resources and capabilities used in the competition. Allison & Burnette (2010) argue that this is due to the power imbalance involved in the underdog-topdog positioning and underdogs’ ability to elicit sympathy for its disadvantaged position.

Therefore, when consumers are persuaded by the underdog appeals (brand positioning status, brand origin, and brand ideology), they can see the power imbalance between topdogs and underdogs. When this imbalance is perceived, individuals may feel compelled to enter a “justice restoration mode.” To measure this, the study adopts methods of measurement used in White et al.'s (2012) study through their scale items: 1) to what degree do you believe that your purchase can help to ensure that the restaurant business receive fair and just outcomes in the marketplace?; and 2) to what degree do you believe that you have the ability to reduce injustice experienced by the restaurant business in the marketplace? A 7-point Likert-type scale is used that is anchored between *1: strongly disagree and 7: strongly agree*. Again, these items are summated for the further use.

4.10. Dependent Variables

It is demonstrated in research that underdog effects have several behavioral outcomes. Earlier studies have reported that when consumers’ desire to restore justice (e.g., purchase activism, brand boycott) is activated, people display several behavioral outcomes (Paharia et al., 2011; Paharia et al., 2014). That is, individuals hope to either punish or forgive the entities that intentionally or unintentionally cause such injustice (Seiders & Berry, 1998). Therefore, this study examines the degree to which consumers’ desire to provide assistance in support of the underdog brands when consumers encounter underdog brands.

First, to test H_{4a}, this study measures the overall support of underdog brands by using Kim et al.’s (2008) scale: 1) willingness to support Louie’s restaurant; 2) interest in

supporting Louie's restaurant; and, 3) how sympathetic are you to Louie's restaurant? (measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale anchored between *1: not at all, and 7: a great deal*). Second, as support for underdogs can result in many different consumer behaviors, this study measures specific efforts to support an underdog brand.

To test H_{4b}, purchase intent, measurement items are adopted from Bian & Forsythe (2012). The items to measure purchasing intentions for a "underdog brand" are the following statements: 1) I would consider choosing Louie's restaurant; 2) the likelihood of me choosing Louie's restaurant is high; 3) my willingness to choose Louie's restaurant is high; and, 4) the probability I would consider choosing Louie's restaurant is high (measured on a 7 point Likert-type Scale: *1: strongly disagree and 7: strongly agree*).

To test H_{4c}, willingness to pay price premium for underdogs, this study adopts measures from Matilla (2001) and uses two items: 1) likelihood of continuing to dine in at Louie's restaurant, if prices increased; and 2) likelihood of paying a higher price for Louie's restaurant than competitor's charge (measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale: *1: highly unlikely and 7: highly likely*).

To test H_{4d}, intention to write online reviews for underdogs, this study adopts measures from Jeong & Jang (2011) and uses two items to measure the construct: 1) I want make more efforts to write online reviews for Louis' restaurant because I want to help Louie's restaurant to be successful; and 2) I want to make more efforts to write online reviews for Louis' restaurant because, in my opinion, businesses like Louie's restaurant should be supported (measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale: *1: strongly disagree and 7: strongly agree*).

To examine H_{4e}, intention to write more positive online reviews for underdogs, this study utilizes a scale from Molinari, Abratt, & Dion (2008) and employs the following items: 1) I will recommend Louie's restaurant to others more highly rather than its competitors; 2) I will say more positive things about Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors; 3) I will encourage others to purchase services from Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors; and, 4) I will refer other people to Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors (measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale: *1: strongly disagree and 7: strongly agree*). All items for each dependent variable are summated to be used in the further analyses.

4.11. Structure of Survey Questionnaire

The survey questionnaires used for both Study 1 and Study 2 consist of seven parts: 1) screening questions; 2) experimental conditions; 3) manipulation check questions; 4) moderating variable; 5) mediating variables; 6) open-ended questions about thoughts regarding underdog brands; and, 7) demographics. To ensure the quality of data, this study implements several quality check questions as well as a realism check question. For more detail on these items, see Appendix 2. "Measurement items, sources, and scales used."

4.12. Study Procedures

4.12.1. Pretests Procedures

To test the soundness of the proposed model and appropriateness of measurement items, this study first conducts a pretest. As previously noted, the underdog effect

literature reports that the effect disappears when excessive risk is involved (Allison & Burnette, 2010) and this needs to be carefully examined. Hence, this study used the food and beverage business context (low risks involved in the decision-making process), particularly restaurant brands (e.g., Louie's). For this reason, the study respondents could be anyone with experience dining in at a branded chain and/or locally owned restaurant in the last six months (screening questions). To confirm the effectiveness of study designs, this study conducted two pre-tests and recruited respondents from Amazon Mechanical Turk worker pools (limited to the U.S. residents only); monetary compensation was provided for the participants. Approximately 25 individuals per condition (a total of 100 respondents) were recruited for the pretest. Prior to the pre-test data collection, this study followed the University of Massachusetts, Amherst's ethical guidelines in dealing with human subjects. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved study designs for the Study 1 and 2.

A total of 200 sample respondents (100 respondents for the Study 1 and another 100 respondents for the Study 2) were used for both Study 1 and the Study 2 analyses. The pretest results confirmed that brand positioning status manipulation for both Study 1 ($M_{\text{underdog}}=5.75$, $M_{\text{topdog}}=2.89$; $t(1,86)=13.88$; $p=.000$) and 2 worked effectively ($M_{\text{underdog}}=5.05$, $M_{\text{topdog}}=2.63$; $t(1,96)=11.39$; $p=.000$). When a manipulation check for the brand origin variable was tested, this study found significant group differences between local and non-local manipulation ($M_{\text{local}}=5.83$, $M_{\text{non-local}}=2.40$; $t(1,86)=8.98$; $p=.000$). Furthermore, when this study examined the manipulation check for brand ideology variable, this study also found a significant mean difference between groups ($M_{\text{universalism}}=5.84$, $M_{\text{power}}=2.43$; $t(1,98)=13.19$; $p=.000$). Therefore, based on the pretest

results, this study continued with the main experimental procedures. The detailed procedures are explained in the next section.

4.12.2. Main Study Procedures

The same procedure was employed for the main study procedure. To ensure the quality of the data for the main parts of Study 1 (brand positioning status x brand origin x belief in a just world view) and Study 2 (brand positioning status x brand ideology x belief in a just world view), this study collected samples from Amazon MTurk; only master workers were hired to be part of the survey. Approximately 50 individuals were recruited for each condition (a total of 200 participants for each study). In Study 1, a restaurant serving American food was presented. Respondents were required to think about a situation where they need to make a restaurant choice to have a dinner with one of their best friends. The study respondents were then randomly assigned to different conditions (underdog vs. topdog / local vs. non-local).

The second study also used a food and beverage business as a study context and exactly the same scenarios were given to the respondents. The study respondents were again randomly assigned to different conditions (underdog vs. topdog/ power vs. universalism). In both scenarios, each independent variable was manipulated by brand description that contained detailed brand information. To control for confounding effects, this study controlled for decision maker (e.g., your friend is fine with whatever you decide, thus, the final decision is up to you), types of food (e.g., traditional American food and beverage items), price and quality (e.g., price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry). Additionally, two questions were used to control

for individual preferences for local products and services and two more questions were asked to control for political orientation and education level.

4.13. Data Analyses

To test the proposed hypotheses, this study employed several statistical techniques. This study first analyzed sample characteristics by using descriptive analysis. Once the researcher gained a better understanding of the sample characteristics and of the distribution of data, the author checked the effectiveness of the manipulations by using an independent sample t-test. Then, the main and moderating effects were tested by utilizing ANCOVA and PROCESS analyses. After completing these procedures, an analysis was conducted on consumers' behavioral outcomes by employing linear regression analysis (SPSS 22.0 statistical package). Finally, the mediating role of motivation to restore justice was tested through mediation analysis by using SPSS PROCESS Macro. Table 4 describes a summary of statistical procedures and analysis techniques. More detailed information is presented in Chapter 5.

Table 3. A summary of Study 1 (Effects of brand positioning status, brand origin, and moderation effects of the belief in a just world view) and Study 2 (Effects of brand positioning status, brand ideology, and moderation effects of the belief in a just world view)

Study	Study Descriptions	Experimental Designs
1	Main effects of brand positioning status cues Main effects of brand origin cues Moderating effects of the belief in a just world view on both brand positioning status and brand origin	2 (Brand positioning status: underdog vs. topdog) x 2 (Brand origin: local vs. non-local) x 2 (Belief in a just world view: high vs. low)
2	Main effects of brand positioning status cues Main effects of brand ideology cues Moderating effects of the belief in a just world view on both brand positioning status and brand ideology cues	2 (Brand positioning status: underdog vs. topdog) x 2 (Brand ideology: power vs. universalism) x 2 (Belief in a just world view: high vs. low)

Table 4. Statistical procedures and analyses

Procedures	Analyses	Programs
Sample characteristics	Descriptive analysis	
Manipulation checks	Independent samples t-test	
Measurement reliability	Reliability test	
Main and moderating effects	ANCOVA	SPSS22.0
	Moderation analyses	PROCESS
Consumer behavioral outcomes	Correlation analysis	Macro
	Linear regression analyses	
Mediating role of motivation to restore justice	Mediation analysis	
	Moderated mediation analysis	

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

In this chapter, the findings of study 1 (brand positioning status x brand origin x belief in a just world view) and 2 (brand positioning status x brand ideology x belief in a just world view) are presented. The first study attempts to provide an understanding of underdog effects combined with brand origin and then to test moderating effects of individuals' belief in a just world view. The second study expands the understanding of underdog effects and tests whether brand ideology and the belief in a just world (as a moderating variable) also influence the motivation to restore justice and ultimately change consumers' outcome behaviors. The results of hypotheses testing, mediation, moderation, and moderated mediation tests are presented in this section.

5.1. Study 1 (Brand Positioning Status x Brand Origin x Belief in a Just World View) Results

5.1.1. Sample Profile for Study 1

In this study, samples were collected from Amazon MTurk. Only respondents residing in the United States were invited to the study. Of 260 samples collected, after eliminating responses that did not pass sample eligibility (e.g. dining experience at a local and chain restaurant in the last 6 months) and quality check questions (see Appendix 2.), 226 sampled respondents were used for the further analyses. Approximately 54% of respondents were male and 46% were female. Among these, the majority of respondents had incomes ranging between \$25,000 and \$99,999 (66.8%), indicated themselves as

Caucasians (78.2%), and had education levels between some college/technical or vocational school and four-year college (83.1%). Table 5 provides a summary of the characteristics reported by participants in Study 1.

Table 5. Sample characteristics (n=226)

	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	122	54.0
Female	104	46.0
Income		
Less than \$25,000	53	23.5
\$25,000-\$49,999	78	34.5
\$50,000-\$99,999	73	32.3
\$100,000-\$149,000	16	7.1
\$150,000-\$199,999	3	1.3
\$200,000 or more	3	1.3
Ethnicity		
White/Caucasian	176	78.2
Hispanic/Latino	10	4.4
Asian	13	5.8
Black/African-American	22	9.8
Other	4	1.8
Education		
High school graduate or below	22	9.8
Some college/Technical or vocational school	85	37.8
Four year college	102	45.3
Post graduate degree	16	7.1
Age (Mean)	38 years old	

Note: Total n of each category may not add up to 226 due to missing values

5.1.2. Scale Reliabilities

All variables were measured with multiple items. As shown in the Table 6, measurement items for each variable showed high levels of internal consistency recording Cronbach's α values all above the threshold level of 0.7 (Molinari et al., 2008).

Multiple items for each variable were summated to be used in the further analyses. See Table 6 for the summary of measurement scale reliabilities.

Table 6. Scale reliabilities

Variable	Measurement	Cronbach's α
Brand positioning status (Paharia, Keinan, Avery, & Schor, 2011) ^a	Based on the descriptions you read, did you perceive that Louie's restaurant is an underdog?	.87
	How passionate and determined is Louie's restaurant?	
	How externally disadvantaged is Louie's restaurant?	
Brand origin (Bauer, Heinrich, & Schäfer, 2013) ^b	Based on the descriptions you read, did you perceive that Louie's restaurant is a locally owned, independent business?	.98
	Based on the descriptions you read, would you evaluate Louie's restaurant as a locally owned, independent restaurant?	
Belief in a just world view (Lipkus, 1991) ^b	I feel that people get what they are entitled to have.	.95
	I feel that a person's efforts are noticed and rewarded.	
	I feel that people earn the rewards and punishments they get.	
	I feel that people who meet with misfortune have brought it on themselves.	
	I feel that people get what they deserve.	
	I feel that rewards and punishments are fairly given.	
	I basically feel that the world is a fair place.	
Motivation to restore justice (White, MacDonnell, & Ellard, 2012) ^b	To what degree do you believe that your purchase can help to ensure that restaurant businesses receive fair and just outcomes in the marketplace?	.75
	To what degree do you believe that you have the ability to reduce injustice experienced by restaurant businesses in the marketplace?	
Intent to support underdog brand (Kim, Allison, Eylon, Goethals, Markus, Hindle, McGuire, 2008) ^c	Willingness to support the Louie's restaurant.	.91
	Interest in supporting the Louie's restaurant.	
	How sympathetic are you to the Louie's restaurant?	

Intent to purchase underdog brand (Bian & Forsythe, 2012) ^d	If I were going to dine out at a restaurant... I would consider using the Louie's restaurant. The likelihood of me using the Louie's restaurant is high. My willingness to use the Louie's restaurant is high. The probability I would consider using the Louie's restaurant is high.	.96
Intent to purchase pay price premium (Matilla, 2001) ^e	Likelihood of continuing to dine in at the Louie's restaurant, if prices increased somewhat. Likelihood of paying a higher price for the Louie's restaurant than competitors charge.	.86
Intent to write online reviews (Jeong & Jang, 2011) ^b	I want make more efforts to write online reviews for the Louie's restaurant because I want to help the Louie's restaurant to be successful. I want make more efforts to write online reviews for the Louis' restaurant because in my opinion, businesses like the Louis' restaurant should be supported.	.95
Intent to write positive online reviews (Molinari, Abratt, & Dion, 2008) ^b	I will recommend the Louie's restaurant to others more highly rather than its competitors. I will say more positive things about the Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors. I will encourage others to purchase services from the Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors. I will refer other people to the Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors.	.98

^a measured on a 7 point scale: not at all (1) – very much (7)

^b measured on a 7 point scale: strongly disagree (1) – strongly agree (7)

^c measured on a 7 point scale: not at all willing (1) – extremely willing (7); highly unlikely (1) – highly likely (7); not at all sympathetic (1) – very sympathetic (7)

^d measured on a 7 point scale: strongly disagree (1) – strongly agree (7); highly unlikely (1) – highly likely (7); not at all willing (1) – extremely willing (7); strongly disagree (1) – strongly agree (7)

^e measured on a 7 point scale: highly unlikely (1) – highly likely (7)

5.1.3. Manipulation Checks

5.1.3.1. Brand Positioning Status

To test manipulation of brand positioning status, this study ran independent samples t-test with a summated scale (3 items were summated). The results showed that

respondents identified the scenarios as intended and found that there were significant differences between the mean scores ($M_{\text{underdog}} = 5.90$ (n=114); $M_{\text{topdog}} = 2.96$ (n=112); $t=21.94$, $p<.000$).

5.1.3.2. Brand Origin

To examine manipulation, two measurement items were summated and used for the independent samples t-test. Respondents of this study also perceived the scenarios as intended indicating that there were significant mean differences between the scenarios ($M_{\text{local}} = 5.88$ (n=113); $M_{\text{non-local}} = 2.59$ (n=113); $t=12.66$, $p<.000$). Table 7 shows summary results of manipulation checks.

Table 7. Manipulation checks

	Local (n=113)			Non-local (n=113)		
	Underdog (n=57)	Topdog (n=56)	t (1, 97)	Underdog (n=57)	Topdog (n=56)	t (1, 104)
Manipulation check: Brand positioning status						
Average of the three items	5.98	3.11	14.55***	5.83	2.81	16.68***
	Underdog (n=114)			Topdog (n=112)		
	Local (n=57)	Non- local (n=57)	t (1, 74)	Local (n=56)	Non- local (n=56)	t (1, 110)
Manipulation check: Brand origin						
Average of the two items	6.47	3.03	10.01***	5.29	2.15	8.54***

Notes: Items were measured on a seven-point scale; 1=not at all, 7=very much.

5.1.3.3. Realism check

Additionally, following Mattila's (2006) procedure, this study used one item to check the scenario realism question. In Study 1, respondents perceived the given scenario as realistic (Mean 5.85; SD: .1.136).

5.1.4. 2x2x2 ANCOVA on the Motivation to Restore Justice

To test group mean differences on motivation to restore justice (2 items summated), this study used a 2 (brand positioning status) x 2 (brand origin) x 2 (belief in a just world view approach with 7 items summated and categorized into two based on the median score) ANCOVA analysis. In terms of the belief in a just world view, traditionally, belief in a just world view has been identified as a variable that is difficult to manipulate. Hence, the variable has been used as a latent construct that is measured with a *Global belief in a just world scale* (Lipkus, 1991). Therefore, to conduct 2 x 2 x 2 ANCOVA analysis, the summated *Global belief in a just world scale* was transformed as a dichotomous variable by using the median split technique (White et al., 2012). For experimental design studies, median split is a sound methodological technique used frequently in the field (Karande, Magnini, & Tam, 2007; Lee, Conklin, Cranage, & Lee, 2014).

5.1.4.1. Covariates

To negate possible confounding effects, first, it assessed potential variables that were strongly correlated with a dependent variable (in this case, motivation to restore justice) and not strongly correlated with independent variables (in this case, brand status

positioning, brand origin, and belief in a just world views). Once this process was completed, multiple ANOVA models were ran with or without possible covariate variables in order to detect the variables that have significant impacts on the motivation to restore justice (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham., 2006). Two variables (preference for local products and services and education) that were found to have significant impacts on the motivation to restore justice were used as final covariates in the proposed ANCOVA model. By effectively controlling for possible covariates, statistical analyses gained more statistical power and eliminated systematic errors (outside of the researcher's control) that may have hindered the study results (Hair et al., 2006).

5.1.4.2. Assumption Check

Prior to conducting ANCOVA analysis, this study first checked the following assumptions for ANCOVA of the following items: 1) independence; 2) normality; 3) homogeneity of variance; and 4) homogeneity of regression slopes (Field, 2013). To meet the first assumption, this study employed random assignment and to examine the independence of the covariate and treatment effect statistically, multiple independent samples t-tests were run on covariates (c.f., used independent variables (brand positioning status, brand origin, and belief in a just world view (categorized) as grouping variables; and covariates (preferences for local products and services and education) as testing variables). All tests were found to be non-significant. These results showed that the first assumption was satisfied and indicated that the covariates were not different across the groups in the analysis.

The second assumption was assessed through examining skewness and kurtosis values across all conditions (skewness of motivation to restore justice in all conditions ranged between -.641 and .161; kurtosis ranged between -.227 and .671; within the threshold range of -1.00 and +1.00 (Hair et al., 2006)). The third assumption, homogeneity of variance, was scrutinized by Levene's test of equality of error variances and it was found to be non-significant. ($F=1.58$ (7, 217), $p=.144$). This result indicated that the group variances are equal and meet the third assumption.

Finally, homogeneity of regression slopes test was inspected by examining significance of all interaction effects among independent variables (brand positioning status, brand origin, and belief in a just world view (categorized)) and covariates (preferences for local products and services and education) on dependent variables. The results showed that interaction effects among independent variables and covariates were non-significant, indicating that the relationship between the outcome variables and covariates were not different across all of the groups. This means that the overall ANCOVA model can represent all of the groups (statistical procedures followed the suggestions made in Field (2013)). The assumption testing results showed that these assumptions were met and it could be further tested for main and interaction effects among the variables.

5.1.4.3. Direct Effects

As shown in Table 7, this study found that there were significant main effects of brand positioning status ($M_{\text{topdog}}=3.98$; $M_{\text{underdog}}=4.95$; $F(1, 215)=45.52$; $p=.000$), brand origin ($M_{\text{non-local}}=4.28$; $M_{\text{local}}=4.65$; $F(1, 215)=6.67$; $p=.010$), and belief in a just world

view ($M_{\text{low}}=4.20$; $M_{\text{high}}=4.73$; $F(1, 215)=13.44$; $p=.000$) on the motivation to restore justice when controlled for preference for local products and services and education – supporting H₁ and H₂. Furthermore, to examine the effect size of brand positioning status and brand origin, partial eta squared (η^2) was computed for both variables. The η^2 value for brand positioning status was .17, indicating that 17% of the total variability was due to a difference in means. In terms of the brand origin and belief in a just world view, the effect size values were much smaller ($\eta^2=.03$; .06 respectively). The standard of measurement on magnitudes of effect sizes suggest that partial eta squared can be evaluated as small, medium, and large effects, if η^2 values are 0.01 (small effect), 0.06 (medium effect), and 0.14 (large effect) respectively (MRC-Cognition and brain sciences unit, 2016).

This finding showed that although group mean differences of motivation to restore justice were found to be varied, brand positioning status is a more powerful variable that causes people to be motivated to restore justice in unfair situations such as business competitions. In this model, no moderating effects of belief in a just world view on the paths between brand positioning status and motivation to restore justice; brand origin and motivation to restore justice were detected. Therefore, H_{3a} (interaction between brand positioning status and BJW view) and H_{3b} (brand ideology and BJW view) were rejected in this study. Table 8 is a summary of the tests of between-subjects effects and Table 9 shows the treatment means, standard deviations, and cell sizes.

Table 8. Tests of between-subjects effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Variance Estimate (Mean Squares)	Partial Eta Squared	F Ratio	Sig
Corrected model	106.89	9	11.88	0.31	10.59	0.000
Intercept	69.38	1	69.38	0.22	61.87	0.000
Preference for local products and services ^a	20.24	1	20.24	0.08	18.05	0.000
Education ^a	5.11	1	5.11	0.02	4.55	0.034
Brand positioning status (A)	51.04	1	51.04	0.17	45.52	0.000***
Brand origin (B)	7.48	1	7.48	0.03	6.67	0.010*
Belief in a just world View (C)	15.07	1	15.07	0.06	13.44	0.000***
A x B	0.65	1	0.65	0.00	0.58	0.446
A x C	2.93	1	2.93	0.01	2.61	0.108
B x C	1.31	1	1.31	0.01	1.17	0.280
A x B x C	0.09	1	0.09	0.00	0.08	0.782
Error	241.11	215	1.12			
Total	4837.00	225				
Corrected total	348.00	224				

Note: Dependent variable=motivation to restore justice

^a covariate variables

Adjusted R² = .28

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 9. Treatment means, standard deviations, and cell sizes

	Topdog				Underdog			
	Non-local		Local		Non-local		Local	
	Low BJW	High BJW	Low BJW	High BJW	Low BJW	High BJW	Low BJW	High BJW
Mean of MRJ	3.33	4.21	3.92	4.48	4.63	5.04	4.97	5.15
SD	1.02	1.03	1.57	1.04	1.04	1.03	.98	.97
Cell Size	30	26	31	25	19	38	32	24

Notes: MRJ=Motivation to restore justice; measured on a seven-point scale; High-low categorization was made by median split method; Higher number indicates greater motivation to restore justice.

5.1.4.4. Bivariate Correlations

To test the effects of motivation to restore justice, this study utilized bivariate correlation analysis and a series of linear regression analyses. For this process, all dependent variables were measured with multiple items and items were summated; overall support for underdogs (3 items), intent to purchase underdog brands (4 items), intent to pay a premium price for underdog brands (2 items), intent to write online reviews for underdog brands (2 items), and intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands (4 items). A summary of the bivariate correlation analysis results is presented in Table 10. The results show that all independent variables, moderating variables, and mediating variables were correlated with dependent variables; however not to the extent which causes multicollinearity issues.

Table 10. The results of correlation analysis

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Local Preference	-										
2. Education	.02	-									
3. BPS	-.07	-.07	-								
4. BO	-.07	.03	.00	-							
5. BJW	-.06	-.04	.10	-.12	-						
6. MRJ	.18 ^b	-.16 ^a	.41 ^b	.11	.23 ^b	-					
7. Overall Support	.18 ^b	-.16 ^a	.44 ^b	.26 ^b	.08	.63 ^b	-				
8. Intent to Purchase	.14 ^a	-.18 ^b	.28 ^b	.29 ^b	.09	.56 ^b	.78 ^b	-			
9. Intent to pay price premium	.21 ^b	-.12	.18 ^b	.24 ^b	.12	.43 ^b	.62 ^b	.53 ^b	-		
10. Intent to write reviews	.28 ^b	-.15 ^a	.29 ^b	.17 ^a	.13	.51 ^b	.64 ^b	.52 ^b	.45 ^b	-	
11. Intent to write positive reviews	.24 ^b	-.09	.35 ^b	.23 ^b	.17 ^b	.65 ^b	.80 ^b	.74 ^b	.62 ^b	.64 ^b	-

Notes: BPS=brand positioning status; BO=brand origin; BJW=belief in a just world view; MRJ=motivation to restore justice

^a p<.05, ^b p<.01

5.1.5. Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice

A series of linear regression analyses was conducted to test the effects of motivation to restore justice on consumers' behavioral outcomes. In terms of the assumption of independent errors, the Durbin-Watson values were ranged from .166 to .199, indicating that the values were closer to the threshold of 2 (George & Mallery, 2006). This means that the autocorrelation among the variables were not found in the data. If the Durbin-Watson values were substantially lower and close to 1.0 point or higher, it requires researchers to interpret the regression results with reservations.

When the regression analysis was performed on intent to support brands, it had a significantly positive influence ($\beta = .62, p < .001$). Similar patterns were shown in the other

four dependent variables (intent to purchase underdog brands $\beta = .58, p < .001$; intent to pay price premium for underdog brands $\beta = .45, p < .001$; intent to write online reviews for underdog brands $\beta = .50, p < .001$; intent to write positive reviews for underdog brands $\beta = .65, p < .001$). Among the dependent variables tested, this study found that individuals showed great overall support for underdog brands when they reached the motivational state to support underdogs. Particularly, this study found that consumers intended to write positive reviews for underdog brands when they perceived that business entities were suffering from the competition, and when consumers saw the injustice of the situation. Such results confirmed that H_{4a, 4b, 4c, 4d, & 4e} were supported. See Table 11 for a summary of regression analyses results.

Table 11. Regression results of behavioral outcomes on motivation to restore justice

IV: Motivation to restore justice	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	SE	β		
DV1: Intention to support underdog brands	.63	.05	.62	11.83	.000***
DV2: Intention to purchase underdog brands	.56	.05	.58	10.65	.000***
DV3: Intention to pay price premium for underdog brands	.45	.06	.45	7.49	.000***
DV4: Intention to write online reviews for underdog brands	.65	.07	.50	8.76	.000***
DV5: Intention to write positive reviews for underdog brands	.73	.06	.65	12.75	.000***

Adjusted R² for DV1: .38; DV 2: .33; DV3: .20; DV4: .25; DV5: .42

IV: Independent variable; DV: Dependent variable

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

5.1.6. Mediation Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice

In order to test the mediating role of motivation to restore justice between independent variables (brand positioning status and brand origin) and dependent variables (intent to support, purchase, pay price premium, write reviews, write positive reviews for underdog brands), this study followed the recommendations made by Hayes and Preacher (2014). A summary of mediation test results is presented in Table 12.

This study found that motivation to restore justice mediates the relationships between brand positioning status and all dependent variables; 1) intent to provide overall support for underdog brands ($\beta = .48$; 95% CI [.30, .69]); 2) intent to buy underdog brands ($\beta = .45$, 95% CI [.28, .65]); 3) intent to pay price premium for underdog brands ($\beta = .32$, 95% CI [.17, .50]); 4) intent to write online reviews for underdog brands ($\beta = .46$, 95% CI [.26, .72]); and, 5) intent to write positive online reviews for underdogs ($\beta = .59$, 95% CI [.40, .82]). The results indicated that motivation to restore justice acted as a mediator between these paths.

Finally, when the mediation effect was examined, the path between brand origin and all the dependent variables, this study also found a mediation effect of the motivation to restore justice; 1) intent to provide overall support for underdog brands ($\beta = .20$; 95% CI [.07, .36]); 2) intent to buy underdog brands ($\beta = .18$, 95% CI [.06, .34]); 3) intent to pay price premium for underdog brands ($\beta = .13$, 95% CI [.04, .27]); 4) intent to write online reviews for underdog brands ($\beta = .19$, 95% CI [.06, .35]); and, 5) intent to write positive online reviews for underdogs ($\beta = .24$, 95% CI [.08, .43] - indirect paths' confidence intervals did not contain 0, indicating significant mediating effects through the motivation to restore justice (Hayes, 2013)).

In using Hayes and Preacher's (2014) mediation test, people oftentimes raise questions in regards to testing mediation effects simultaneously with multiple independent or dependent variables. To this question, Hayes (2013) suggests that by estimating mediating effects with all independent variables simultaneously, it may create misleading statistical outcomes. This is because all independent variables are correlated with mediating variables and dependent variables to a certain extent. Therefore, the correlations may cancel out each independent variable's impact on mediating and dependent variables (Hayes, 2013). Therefore, it is recommended that when a research model involves multiple independent variables, that independent variables other than mediating testing independent variable should be used as covariates (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Hayes, 2013). Therefore, this study tested mediation effects non-simultaneously, but included other independent variable (for Study 1 – brand positioning status, brand origin in turn and also belief in a just world view; for Study 2 – brand positioning status and brand ideology in turn and also belief in a just world view) as covariates of the mediation effect testing models. See Table 12 for results.

Table 12. Regression results for simple mediation (Hayes, 2013)

DV	Indirect effect		Direct effect		Mediation
	Coef.	95% CI	Coef.	t-value	
	Brand positioning status				
Overall support for underdog brands	.48	[.30, .69]	.64	4.19***	Yes
Intent to buy underdog brands	.45	[.28, .65]	.20	1.28	Yes
Intent to pay price premium for underdog brands	.32	[.17, .50]	.13	.80	Yes
Intent to write online reviews for underdog brands	.46	[.26, .72]	.48	2.22*	Yes
Intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands	.59	[.40, .82]	.43	2.64**	Yes
	Brand origin				
DV	Coef.	95% CI	Coef.	t-value	
Overall support for underdog brands	.20	[.07, .36]	.56	4.30***	Yes
Intent to buy underdog brands	.18	[.06, .34]	.58	4.40***	Yes
Intent to pay price premium for underdog brands	.13	[.04, .27]	.57	3.67***	Yes
Intent to write online reviews for underdog brands	.19	[.06, .35]	.51	2.76**	Yes
Intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands	.24	[.08, .43]	.57	3.93***	Yes

Notes: N=226; Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size=5,000 In Hayes and Preacher's (2014) mediation test method, total effects from X(independent variable) to Y(dependent variable) do not have to be significant to make mediation inferences as long as the indirect effect is found to be significant. In addition, the division of partial and full mediation reporting is not recommended (Hayes, 2013, p. 169).

CI=confidence interval; IV=Independent variable; DV=Dependent variable;

Covariate variables: brand origin (only when IV is brand positioning status), brand positioning status (only when IV is brand origin), belief in a just world view, preference of local products and service, political orientation, education

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

5.1.7. Summary of Hypotheses

The results of study 1 demonstrated that H_{1, 2, 4a, 4b, 4c, 4d, & 4e} were supported (H₁: the main effect of brand positioning status; H₂: the main effect of brand origin, H_{4a}: the

main effect of motivation to restore justice on overall support for underdogs; H_{4b}: the main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to buy underdog brands; H_{4c}: the main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to pay price premium for underdog brands; H_{4d}: the main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to write online reviews; H_{4e}: the main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to write positive online reviews). Additional mediation tests also showed that motivation to restore justice acts as a mediator in paths between brand positioning status and outcome behavior variables, as well as brand origin and outcome behavior variables. See Table 13 for a summary of hypotheses testing.

Table 13. Summary of hypotheses testing

Study	Hypotheses	Description	Support	Effect Size
Study 1	H ₁	Main effect of brand positioning status	Supported	.17
	H ₂	Main effect of brand origin	Supported	.03
	H _{3a}	Moderating effect of belief in a just world views on brand positioning status	Not supported	-
	H _{3b}	Moderating effect of belief in a just world views on brand origin	Not supported	-
	H _{4a}	Motivation to restore justice to the overall support of underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4b}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to purchase underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4c}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to pay price premium for underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4d}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to write online reviews for underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4e}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brand	Supported	-
Support for hypotheses at p<.05 level				

5.1.8. Discussion for Study 1 (Brand positioning status x Brand origin x Belief in a just world view)

The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the impacts of brand positioning status and brand origin on motivation to restore justice, and how motivation to restore justice affects consumers' behavioral outcomes. This study also attempted to ascertain the role of belief in a just world view as a moderator. Consistent with the earlier findings of Paharia et al. (2011), this study found that brand positioning status can encourage consumers' motivation to restore justice.

However, previous studies have used brand origin as a means to make underdog effects more salient despite the local icon-ness (the degree to which local brands symbolize the values, needs, and aspirations of the local community) involved in the term "local" itself (Özsomer, 2012; Winit, Gregory, Cleveland, & Verlegh, 2014). Therefore, this study tried to test brand origin and the power of "localness" apart from the underdog appeal. The results confirmed that there was a significant main effect when brand origin was perceived to be "local" than "non-local" in increasing one's motivation to restore justice.

Belief in a just world view also had a significant main effect indicating that individual's beliefs about the social justice (whether or not the society they live in is just or unjust) directly influenced individuals' motivation to restore justice when they saw unjust business competition situations. However, this study did not find the hypothesized interaction effects between brand positioning status, brand origin, and motivation to restore justice.

One additional noteworthy finding was identified in this study. From the mediation analysis, the results showed that both brand positioning status and brand origin influence consumers' behavior through motivation to restore justice. That is, when businesses compete and their practices are perceived as unjust for the losing side, this can thus motivate individuals to seek to restore justice for underdogs. Once individuals are motivated, the motivation heavily influences consumers' intent to restore justice by practicing more favorable actions to benefit underdogs.

In conclusion, this study, Study 1 (brand positioning status x brand origin x belief in a just world view), found that brand positioning status and brand origin were important factors that can create unjust situations for underdogs in the eyes of consumers and motivation to restore can be inspired. However, in Study 1, it was not found that a moderating effect mentioned in the belief in a just world theory literature. Moreover, this study did not capture other normative variables that may influence the presence of underdog effects. Therefore, brand positioning status was again tested with another normative variable, "brand ideology," in Study 2 (brand positioning status x brand ideology x belief in a just world view).

5.2. Study 2 (Brand Positioning Status x Brand Ideology x Belief in a Just World View) Results

5.2.1. Sample Profile for Study2

Another set of 255 samples was collected through Amazon MTurk. After eliminating samples that did not meet sample eligibility (e.g., respondents' previous experience of dining in independent and chain restaurants in the past 6 months) and

quality control questions (See Appendix 2.), 221 responses were used for the further analyses. Approximately 51% of the respondents were male and the rest were female (48.9%). Of these, the majority of people had incomes between \$25,000-\$99,999 (77.2%). About 77 percent of respondents were Caucasian and 45.2% had finished four-year college. The mean age of the respondents was 38 years old. See Table 14 for frequencies and percent distribution.

Table 14. Sample characteristics (n=221)

	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	113	51.1
Female	108	48.9
Income		
Less than \$25,000	44	19.9
\$25,000-\$49,999	73	33.0
\$50,000-\$99,999	91	41.2
\$100,000-\$149,000	8	3.6
\$150,000-\$199,999	5	2.3
\$200,000 or more		
Ethnicity		
White/Caucasian	171	77.4
Hispanic/Latino	15	6.8
Asian	16	7.2
Black/African-American	15	6.8
Other	4	1.8
Education		
High school graduate or below	26	11.8
Some college/Technical or vocational school	82	37.1
Four year college	100	45.2
Post graduate degree	13	5.9
Age (Mean)	38 years old	

Note: Total n of each category may not add up to 221 due to the missing values

5.2.2. Scale Reliabilities

First, brand positioning status manipulation check was done with three items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$) and to examine brand ideology manipulations, this study separately measured power and universalism manipulations. This was because people who perceived power ideology would not necessarily perceive universalism ideology from the scenarios. Therefore, it was important to check manipulations for both ideologies across all conditions and this is a recommended approach adopted in the previous study (Shepherd et al., 2015). All items used for the Study 2 showed that the internal consistency was above .70 level (Hair et al., 2006). Measurement items for each variable were summated to be used for the further analyses. See Table 15 for the summary of scale reliability tests.

Table 15. Scale reliabilities

Variable	Measurement	Cronbach's α
Brand positioning status (Paharia, Keinan, Avery, & Schor, 2011) ^a	Based on the descriptions you read, did you perceive that Louie's restaurant is an underdog? How passionate and determined is Louie's restaurant? How externally disadvantaged is Louie's restaurant?	.86
Brand ideology (power) (Shepherd, Chartrand, & Fitzsimons, 2015) ^b	Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant brand communicates a sense of social status and prestige? Would you evaluate that Louie's restaurant brand communicates a sense of control or dominance over people and resources? Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant users care a lot about being rich and having a lot of money? Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant users want to get respect? Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant users want to get authority?	.89
Brand ideology (universalism) (Shepherd,	A sense of understanding for the welfare of all people and for nature? A sense of appreciation for the welfare of all people and for nature?	.98

Chartrand, & Fitzsimons, 2015) ^b	A sense of tolerance for the welfare of all people and for nature? A sense of protection for the welfare of all people and for nature?	
Belief in a just world view (Lipkus, 1991) ^b	I feel that people get what they are entitled to have. I feel that a person's efforts are noticed and rewarded. I feel that people earn the rewards and punishments they get. I feel that people who meet with misfortune have brought it on themselves. I feel that people get what they deserve. I feel that rewards and punishments are fairly given. I basically feel that the world is a fair place.	.95
Motivation to restore justice (White, MacDonnell, & Ellard, 2012) ^b	To what degree do you believe that your purchase can help to ensure that restaurant businesses receive fair and just outcomes in the marketplace? To what degree do you believe that you have the ability to reduce injustice experienced by restaurant businesses in the marketplace?	.85
Intent to support underdog brand (Kim, Allison, Eylon, Goethals, Markus, Hindle, McGuire, 2008) ^c	Willingness to support the Louie's restaurant. Interest in supporting the Louie's restaurant. How sympathetic are you to the Louie's restaurant?	.96
Intent to purchase underdog brand (Bian & Forsythe, 2012) ^d	If I were going to dine out at a restaurant... I would consider using the Louie's restaurant. The likelihood of me using the Louie's restaurant is high. My willingness to use the Louie's restaurant is high. The probability I would consider using the Louie's restaurant is high.	.98
Intent to purchase pay price premium (Matilla, 2001) ^e	Likelihood of continuing to dine in at the Louie's restaurant, if prices increased somewhat. Likelihood of paying a higher price for the Louie's restaurant than competitors charge.	.92
Intent to write online reviews (Jeong & Jang, 2011) ^b	I want make more efforts to write online reviews for the Louie's restaurant because I want to help the Louie's restaurant to be successful. I want make more efforts to write online reviews for the Louis' restaurant because in my opinion, businesses like the Louis' restaurant should be supported.	.95

Intent to write positive online reviews (Molinari, Abratt, & Dion, 2008) ^b	I will recommend the Louie's restaurant to others more highly rather than its competitors. I will say more positive things about the Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors. I will encourage others to purchase services from the Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors. I will refer other people to the Louie's restaurant rather than its competitors.	.98
---	--	-----

^a measured on a 7 point scale: not at all (1) – very much (7)

^b measured on a 7 point scale: strongly disagree (1) – strongly agree (7)

^c measured on a 7 point scale: not at all willing (1) – extremely willing (7); highly unlikely (1) – highly likely (7); not at all sympathetic (1) – very sympathetic (7)

^d measured on a 7 point scale: strongly disagree (1) – strongly agree (7); highly unlikely (1) – highly likely (7); not at all willing (1) – extremely willing (7); strongly disagree (1) – strongly agree (7)

^e measured on a 7 point scale: highly unlikely (1) – highly likely (7)

5.2.3. Manipulation Checks

5.2.3.1. Brand Positioning Status

In order to test manipulations for brand positioning status (Paharia et al., 2011), this study used a three items summated scale. The results indicated that respondents perceived the randomly assigned scenarios as intended. The independent samples t-test results showed that there were significant mean differences across different conditions ($M_{\text{topdog}} = 5.35$ (n=108); $M_{\text{underdog}} = 2.64$ (n=113); $t=19.02$, $p<.000$).

5.2.3.2. Brand Ideology

A different approach was used for the test of brand ideology manipulation check. The manipulating conditions for the brand ideology were 1) power and 2) universalism. However, when individuals perceived power ideology, respondents assigned to the other conditions (universalism) might feel some other ideologies than universalism (as opposed to power). Therefore, this study adopted a method used in Shepherd et al. (2015) and examined power and universalism ideologies separately.

Based on the independent samples t-test, it was found that there were significant group mean differences in power and universalism manipulations. Those who were assigned to the power condition rated power manipulation check questions highly ($M_{\text{power condition}} = 5.79$ (n=106); $M_{\text{universalism condition}} = 3.42$ (n=115); $t=17.71$, $p<.000$) and had a low mean score for universalism manipulation check questions ($M_{\text{power condition}} = 2.76$ (n=106); $M_{\text{universalism condition}} = 5.91$ (n=115); $t=19.19$, $p<.000$). See Table 16 for detailed results.

Table 16. Manipulation checks

	Universalism (n=115)			Power (n=106)		
	Underdog (n=57)	Topdog (n=58)	t (1, 113)	Underdog (n=51)	Topdog (n=55)	t (1, 77)
Manipulation check : Brand positioning status						
Average of the three items	5.82	2.97	18.42***	4.83	2.31	11.61***
	Underdog (n=108)			Topdog (n=113)		
	Universalism (n=57)	Power (n=51)	t (1, 106)	Universalism (n=58)	Power (n=55)	t (1, 111)
Manipulation check : Brand ideology						
Average of the five items (Power measure)	3.19	5.68	11.03***	3.64	5.89	12.67***
Average of the four items (Universalism measure)	5.98	3.24	t (1, 93) 12.64***	5.85	2.32	t (1, 89) 17.69***

Notes: Items were measured on a seven-point scale; 1=not at all, 7=very much.

5.2.3.3. Realism Check

Additionally, following Mattila's (2006) procedure, this study used one item to check the scenario realism question. In Study 1, respondents perceived the given scenario as realistic (Mean 5.39; SD: 1.379).

5.2.4. 2x2x2 ANCOVA on the Motivation to Restore Justice

To examine the effects of brand positioning status, brand ideology, and belief in a just world view, this study conducted 2 (brand positioning status) x 2 (brand ideology) x 2 (belief in a just world view; 7 items summated and categorized into two based on the median score) ANCOVA analysis. Similar to the procedure used in the Study 1, in Study 2, belief in a just world view was measured with a *Global belief in a jus world scale* and transformed as a dichotomous variable by using median spilt method (White et al., 2012). In experimental design, ANOVA analysis is particularly powerful because it examines the effects among variables based on the cause-effect, while regression analysis is based on the correlations, hence, it is difficult to establish causal relationships.

5.2.4.1. Covariates

To select covariates for the Study 2, similar to the Study 1, this study examined correlations among the variables used in this study. Among the variables tested, individuals' preferences for local products and services were found to have a very significant effect on the motivation to restore justice. Therefore, in the Study 2, individuals' preferences for local products and services were used to control for possible interference in the ANOVA model.

5.2.4.2. Assumption Check

To conduct ANCOVA analysis, this study first examined the following assumptions: 1) independence; 2) normality; 3) homogeneity of variance; and, 4) homogeneity of regression slopes (Field, 2012). To meet the first assumption, this study

randomly assigned participants to the different conditions and to examine the independence of the covariate and manipulation effects a series of independent sample t-tests were run on covariates (c.f., used independent variables (brand positioning status, brand origin, and belief in a just world view (categorized) as grouping variables) and covariates (preferences for local products or services) as a testing variable) and all tests were found to be non-significant.

The normality assumption was checked by examining the motivation to restore justice's skewness and kurtosis in all conditions. The skewness values were ranged from -.603 and .013; kurtosis values were ranged between -.880 and .013 (within the recommended range of -1.00 and +1.00 (Hayes et al., 2006)). The third assumption, homogeneity of variance was tested with the Levene's test of equality of error variances ($F=2.27$ (7,213), $p=.030$). The results showed that the assumption was not met. However, Levene's test is "not necessarily the best way to judge whether variances are unequal enough to cause problems" (Field, 2012, p.6). Therefore, F_{max} (the ratio of the largest within-group variance to the smallest within-group variance (Wuensch, 2015, p.5.) was measured instead and was used to examine the third assumption. The results showed that the F_{max} ratio was at 2.58, which was lower than the recommended cutoff line of 4 or 5 (Wuensch, 2015).

Finally, homogeneity of regression slopes tests were assessed by examining the significance of all interaction effects among independent variables (brand positioning status, brand ideology, and belief in a just world view (categorized)) and covariates (preferences for local products and services) on dependent variables. The results showed that interaction effects among independent variables and covariates were non-significant,

indicating that the relationship between the outcome variables and covariates were not different across all of the groups. Overall, the results of assumptions were all met and suitable for ANCOVA analysis.

5.2.4.3. Direct Effects

The results showed that brand positioning ($M_{\text{topdog}}=3.64$; $M_{\text{underdog}}=4.71$; $F(1, 210)=47.41$; $p=.000$) and brand ideology ($M_{\text{power}}=3.76$; $M_{\text{universalism}}=4.59$; $F(1, 210)=28.63$; $p=.000$) both had significant impacts on the motivation to restore justice – supporting hypotheses H₁ and H₂. From this analysis, this study also found a significant interaction effect between brand positioning status and belief in a just world view. Table 17 is a summary of the between-subject effects and Table 18 is an overview of treatment means, standard deviations, and cell sizes.

In terms of the effect sizes, the results showed that brand positioning status and brand ideology had the effect size of .18 and .12 respectively. The interaction effect between brand positioning status and belief in a just world view had $\eta^2=.04$, which indicates that about 4% of the total variability was due to this interaction. The standard of measurement on the magnitudes of effect sizes suggest that partial eta squared can be evaluated as small, medium, and large effects, if η^2 values are 0.01 (small effect), 0.06 (medium effect), and 0.14 (large effect) respectively (MRC-Cognition and brain sciences unit, 2009).

Table 17. Tests of between-subject effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Variance Estimate (Mean Squares)	Partial Eta Squared	F Ratio	Sig
Corrected model	160.58	8	20.07	0.37	15.70	.000
Intercept	41.96	1	41.96	0.13	32.83	.000
Preference for local products and services ^a	22.92	1	22.92	0.08	17.93	.000***
Brand positioning status (A)	60.80	1	60.80	0.18	47.57	.000***
Brand ideology (B)	36.95	1	36.95	0.12	28.91	.000***
Belief in a just world View (C)	1.12	1	1.12	0.00	0.88	.350
A x B	0.04	1	0.04	0.00	0.03	.853
A x C	11.57	1	11.57	0.04	9.05	.003**
B x C	1.23	1	1.23	0.00	0.96	.327
A x B x C	0.03	1	0.03	0.00	0.02	.883
Error	270.97	212	1.28			
Total	4257.25	221				
Corrected total	431.55	220				

Note: Dependent variable=motivation to restore justice

^a covariate variables

Adjusted R² = .37

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 18. Treatment means, standard deviations, and cell sizes

	Topdog				Underdog			
	Power		Universalism		Power		Universalism	
	Low BJW	High BJW	Low BJW	High BJW	Low BJW	High BJW	Low BJW	High BJW
Mean of MRJ	2.84	3.52	3.78	4.29	4.47	4.20	5.50	4.81
SD	1.00	1.54	1.24	1.03	1.40	1.22	1.08	.96
Cell Size	32	23	30	28	16	35	31	26

Notes: MRJ=Motivation to restore justice; measured on a seven-point scale; High-low categorization was made by median split method; Higher number indicates greater motivation to restore justice.

5.2.4.4. Bivariate Correlations

To understand the effects of motivation to restore justice, this study first used bivariate correlation analysis to check correlations among variables. A summary of the bivariate correlation analysis results is presented in Table 19. The results show that all independent variables, moderating variables, and mediating variables were correlated with dependent variables; however not to the extent which causes multicollinearity issues.

Table 19. The results of correlation analysis

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Local Preference	-									
2. BPS	0.07	-								
3. BI	0.01	0.01	-							
4. BJW	-.13 ^a	0.11	-0.08	-						
5. MRJ	.28 ^b	.42 ^b	.33 ^b	0.05	-					
6. Overall Support	.19 ^b	.15 ^a	.61 ^b	-0.05	.63 ^b	-				
7. Intent to Purchase	.16 ^a	0.10	.63 ^b	-0.01	.59 ^b	.92 ^b	-			
8. Intent to pay price premium	.22 ^b	0.13	.56 ^b	-0.07	.52 ^b	.83 ^b	.81 ^b	-		
9. Intent to write reviews	.24 ^b	.27 ^b	.44 ^b	0.06	.66 ^b	.76 ^b	.69 ^b	.68 ^b	-	
10. Intent to write positive reviews	.24 ^b	.23 ^b	.53 ^b	0.01	.64 ^b	.90 ^b	.86 ^b	.79 ^b	.78 ^b	-

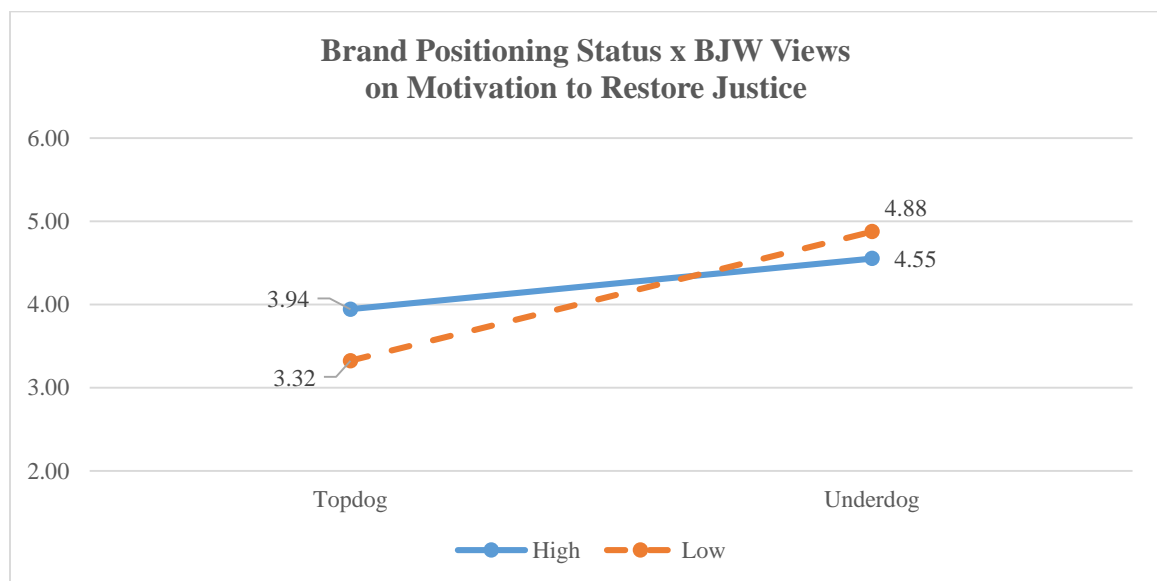
Notes: BPS=brand positioning status; BI=brand ideology; BJW=belief in a just world view; MRJ=motivation to restore justice

^a p<.05, ^b p<.01,

5.2.5. Moderating Effects of Belief in a Just World View

To illustrate the interaction effect between brand positioning status and belief in a just world view (a moderating role of belief in a just world view), Figure 6 is presented below. As shown in the graph, this study found that when individuals had a low level of belief in a just world view, they tended to be more motivated by the brand positioning status. That is, individuals who do not think that the society they live in is a just place, where the members of society get what they deserve, become highly motivated by the underdog brand positioning status than those who believe that the world they live in is a just place. Therefore, hypotheses H_{3a} was supported and H_{3b} was rejected.

Figure 6. Brand positioning status x Belief in a just world (BJW) view on motivation to restore justice



A covariate appearing in the model was evaluated at the following values: preference for local products and services = 5.42.

5.2.6. Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice

A series of regression analyses was conducted to examine the effects of motivation to restore justice on five dependent variables. Durbin-Watson values ranged between 1.75 and 1.87 indicating that the assumption of independent errors was acceptable (George & Mallery, 2006). Regression coefficients indicated that motivation to restore justice had significant impacts on all dependent variables at high levels ranging from $\beta = .52$ to $\beta = .66$. Particularly, motivation to restore justice had more salient effects on the overall intent to support underdog brands, intent to write online reviews, and intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands. Therefore, hypotheses H_{4a}, 4b, 4c, 4d, & 4e were all supported. Table 20 contains these results.

Table 20. Regression results of behavioral outcomes on motivation to restore justice

IV: Motivation to restore justice	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	SE	β		
DV1: Intention to support underdog brands	.78	.07	.63	11.87	.000***
DV2: Intention to purchase underdog brands	.74	.07	.59	10.70	.000***
DV3: Intention to pay price premium for underdog brands	.59	.07	.52	8.99	.000***
DV4: Intention to write online reviews for underdog brands	.79	.06	.66	13.10	.000***
DV5: Intention to write positive reviews for underdog brands	.72	.06	.64	12.24	.000***

Adjusted R² for DV1: .38; DV 2: .34; DV3: .27; DV4: .44; DV5: .40

IV: Independent variable; DV: Dependent variable

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

5.2.7. Mediation Effects of Motivation to Restore Justice

Similar to Study 1, Study 2 followed the mediation testing method proposed by Preacher and Hayes (2008). The results of the mediation test indicated that the motivation to restore justice has mediation effects between brand positioning status and overall support for underdog brands ($\beta = .67$, 95% CI [.46, .92]), intent to buy underdog brands ($\beta = .63$, 95% CI [.43, .89]), intent to pay price premium ($\beta = .45$, 95% CI [.26, .67]), intent to write online reviews for underdog brands ($\beta = .68$, 95% CI [.48, .96]), and intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands ($\beta = .59$, 95% CI [.40, .82]).

From the paths between brand ideology to all dependent variables, it was found that the motivation to restore justice mediates the relationships among all of these variables (overall support: $\beta = .55$, 95% CI [.35-.79]; intent to buy underdog brands: $\beta = .53$, 95% CI [.33, .76]; intent to pay price premium: $\beta = .37$, 95% CI [.21, .58]; overall intent to write online reviews for underdogs: $\beta = .57$, 95% CI [.37, .82]; intent to write positive online review: $\beta = .49$, 95% CI [.31, .72]). See Table 21 for these results.

Table 21. Regression results for simple mediation (Hayes, 2013)

DVs	Indirect effect		Direct effect		Mediation
	Coef.	95% CI	Coef.	t-value	
Brand positioning status					
Overall support for underdog brands	.67	[.46, .92]	-.22	.18	Yes
Intent to buy underdog brands	.63	[.43, .89]	-.39	2.21*	Yes
Intent to pay price premium for underdog brands	.45	[.26, .67]	-.11	.62	Yes
Intent to write online reviews for underdog brands	.69	[.48, .96]	.10	.56	Yes
Intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands	.59	[.40, .82]	.05	.33	Yes
Brand ideology					
DVs	Coef.	95% CI	Coef.	t-value	
Overall support for underdog brands	.55	[.35, .79]	1.57	8.69***	Yes
Intent to buy underdog brands	.53	[.33, .76]	1.71	9.20***	Yes
Intent to pay price premium for underdog brands	.37	[.21, .58]	1.39	7.61***	Yes
Intent to write online reviews for underdog brands	.57	[.37, .82]	.88	4.69***	Yes
Intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands	.49	[.31, .72]	1.16	6.55***	Yes

Notes: N=221; Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size=5,000 In Hayes and Preacher’s (2014) mediation test method, total effects from X (independent variable) to Y (dependent variable) do not have to be significant to make mediation inferences as long as the indirect effect is found to be significant. In addition, the division of partial and full mediation reporting is not recommended (Hayes, 2013, p. 169).

CI=confidence interval; IV=Independent variable; DV=Dependent variable.

Covariates: brand ideology (only when IV is brand positioning status), brand positioning status (only when IV is brand ideology), belief in a just world view, preference of local products and service, political orientation, education.

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

5.2.8. Moderated Mediation Effects of Belief in a Just World View and Motivation to Restore Justice

Since this study found a moderating effect of belief in a just world view on the path between brand positioning status and the motivation to restore justice, this study followed up with its results by examining the moderated mediation effects. A summary of results is presented in Table 22.

The results showed that as the value of belief in a just world view decreased, the indirect effect strengthened in magnitude. The moderated mediation effects between brand positioning status and all dependent variables were all significant, regardless of the differences in the respondents' belief in a just world views. However, the mediation effect decreased significantly based on the high and low conditions of belief in a just world view. Followed by the method proposed by Altman and Bland (2003), this study conducted heterogeneity tests to examine whether the differences in indirect effects across different belief in a just world view conditions were significant. Heterogeneity tests showed that the differences of indirect coefficients in different belief in a just world view groups (high vs. low) were significant. This indicated that the belief patterns in a just world view can act as a moderator that alters the degree of mediation effects of motivation to restore justice.

Table 22. Moderated mediation effects of belief in a just world view and motivation to restore justice

DVs	Moderator (BJW)	Indirect effect		Direct effect		Mediation
		Brand positioning status				
		Coef.	95% CI	Coef.	t-value	
Overall support for underdog brands (Heterogeneity test: p=.009)	Low	.96	[.66, 1.35]			Yes
	High	.38	[.12, .67]	-.22	1.24	Yes
Intent to buy underdog brands (Heterogeneity test: p=.009)	Low	.92	[.62, 1.28]			Yes
	High	.37	[.12, .66]	-.38	2.15*	Yes
Intent to pay price premium for underdog brands (Heterogeneity test: p=.030)	Low	.64	[.39, .98]			Yes
	High	.25	[.07, .49]	-.12	.68	Yes
Intent to write online reviews for underdog brands (Heterogeneity test: p=.008)	Low	1.01	[.68, 1.38]			Yes
	High	.40	[.15, .72]	.13	.67	Yes
Intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brands (Heterogeneity test: p=.010)	Low	.86	[.58, 1.19]			Yes
	High	.34	[.11, .61]	.06	.37	Yes

Notes: N=221; Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size=5,000 In Hayes and Preacher's (2014) mediation test method, total effects from X(independent variable) to Y(dependent variable) do not have to be significant to make mediation inferences as long as the indirect effect is found to be significant. In addition, the division of partial and full mediation reporting is not recommended (Hayes, 2013, p. 169).

Heterogeneity tests (two-tailed) – this indicates significant difference between indirect effects (high vs. low BJW).

CI=confidence interval; IV=Independent variable; DV=Dependent variable; BJW=belief in a just world view.

Covariates: brand ideology, preference of local products and service, political orientation, education.

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

5.2.9. Summary of Hypotheses

The results of Study 2 revealed that this dissertation's hypotheses 1 (main effect of brand positioning status), 2 (main effect of brand ideology), 3_a (moderating effect of belief in a just world view on motivation to restore justice), 4_a (main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to support underdog brands), 4_b (main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to buy underdog brands), 4_c (main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to pay price premium), 4_d (main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to write online reviews for underdogs), and 4_e (main effect of motivation to restore justice on consumers' intent to write more positive online reviews for underdogs) were supported. Additionally, this study tested the mediation effect of motivation to restore justice as well as the moderated mediation effects. The results showed that there was a significant mediation found between brand positioning status and outcome variables, as well as the path between brand ideology and outcome variables. The moderated mediation test showed that people with a low belief in a just world view had high level of motivation to justice when encountering underdog positioning brands. Table 23 contains a summary of hypotheses testing results.

Table 23. Summary of hypotheses testing

Study	Hypotheses	Description	Support	Effect Size
Study 2	H ₁	Main effect of brand positioning status	Supported	.18
	H ₂	Main effect of brand ideology	Supported	.12
	H _{3a}	Moderating effect of belief in a just world views on brand positioning status	Supported	.04
	H _{3b}	Moderating effect of belief in a just world views on brand ideology	Not supported	-
	H _{4a}	Motivation to restore justice to the overall support of underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4b}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to purchase underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4c}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to pay price premium for underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4d}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to write online reviews for underdog brand	Supported	-
	H _{4e}	Motivation to restore justice to the intent to write positive online reviews for underdog brand	Supported	-
	Support for hypotheses at p<.05 level			

5.2.10. Discussion for Study 2 (Brand positioning status x Brand ideology x Belief in a just world view)

The purpose of Study 2 was to examine the effects of brand positioning status when it was presented with different types of brand ideology. Also, how individuals' belief in a just world views could alter the motivation to restore justice when they observed underdog businesses. Similar to the Study 1 results, Study 2 also found a significant impact of brand positioning status on the motivation to restore justice. The brand ideology was also an important factor that made people more motivated to restore justice.

Interestingly, this study found a moderating effect of the belief in a just world view when it was presented with brand ideology. That is, when consumers believe that the world they live in does not give what is deserved to the members of society (low belief in a just world view), they tend to be more motivated to restore justice in unjust situations. This outcome was consistent with the tenets of “belief in a just world” (Furnham, 2003).

Consistent with the findings of Study 1, this study found that the motivation to restore justice acted an important mediator that connected the relationship between brand positioning status, brand ideology, and consumers’ outcome behaviors. Finally, this study conducted a series of moderated mediation tests to examine whether there were any group differences in terms of the mediation tests. As a result, this study found that motivation to restore justice acted as a strong mediator when consumers had a low belief in a just world view, but that the effects significantly decreased when people believed that the world is a just place, where members of society receive what they deserve.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This section includes a general discussion of the two studies and addresses the theoretical and managerial contributions from the perspectives of 1) theories pertaining to underdog brand effects; 2) deriving academic interest from luxury branding to small business branding; 3) considering brand effects within a group of brands; 4) broadening the understanding of consumer rejection of corporations and support for underdogs, thus extending the understanding of pro-social behavior; 5) understanding of the justice restoration motive and third party justice; and, 6) the application and extension of the belief in a just world theory.

6.1. Discussions

In the mainstream branding literature, the main concern for earlier marketing scholars has been centered on how to build brand knowledge and images in consumers' minds (Keller, 1993). In this discourse, the assumption is that "a brand" is such a powerful concept that it can act as a tool to appeal to consumers in the marketplace. However, Paharia et al., (2014) argue differently than the previous literature, suggesting that consumers live in a society where individuals are exposed to a flood of brand information, and oftentimes each brand's positions and images have a tremendous impact on consumers' decision-making processes. In their study, they find that brands, regardless of the images and information they endeavor to establish in consumers' mind, can project completely different images depending on the brand positioning status it has in the

marketplace – resulting in consumer support for underdogs (Allison & Burnette, 2010; Paharia et al., 2011; Paharia et al., 2014).

The investigation of underdog brand effects has only recently started, and still lacks a significant theoretical understanding of the subject matter (Siemens, Smith, & Missouri, 2013). Therefore, this study attempts to expand the understanding of underdog effects by examining possible interactions with normative variables and by attempting to discover the situations in which consumers are most motivated to restore justice in a competitive business climate where underdogs and topdogs exist.

In Study 1 (2 brand positioning status x 2 brand origin x 2 belief in a just world view), the results indicated that brand positioning status and brand origin together created a situation in which respondents could see unjustness and then positively influenced the situation through their motivation to restore justice, especially when businesses were described as underdogs and locals. When people were inspired to restore justice, they continued to take actions, and would exercise their power to make the unjust situations better and fairer for the losing business entities either directly or indirectly – thus exemplifying the underdog effects (Paharia et al., 2014).

Study 1 results was consistent with earlier studies' arguments. Today's consumers do not wish to be influenced by outbound marketing (c.f., conventional marketing approaches that penetrates into consumers' lives by bombarding their lives with marketing messages) because it simply increases consumer annoyance. Instead, consumers prefer to personally find the companies (coined as "inbound marketing") that have ethical business practices and have consistent values that mirror consumers' value systems (Achrol & Kotler, 2012), because it gives consumers greater autonomy in

choosing a company to form a relationship with and increase consumers' perceived power by allowing them express their opinions to the businesses. The significant main effect of brand positioning status on motivation to restore justice demonstrated that the way a brand is positioned in the market place could act as a situational cue that can influence consumers' judgments on what operational factors are more consistent or inconsistent with their belief systems. In other words, situational market positioning status can make consumers perceive that supporting underdogs can be a more ethical or fairer option. Moreover, brand positioning status can provoke consumers' justice perceptions if they see a great degree of power imbalance.

The main effect of brand origin on motivation to restore justice showed that power imbalance in competitive business climate could also be triggered by normative cues. That is, individuals' perceptions on what is a more just option to support might also be influenced by the origin of a brand. Those who are motivated by supporting local businesses and are committed to the local economy may especially prefer to support these viable businesses based on the fact that buying locally is more convenient and the right thing to do in maintaining a vibrant community. Furthermore, they may also strongly believe that spending locally ensures that their expenditures stay local and the generated wealth that ripples through the local economy.

However, it should be noted that there were no significant interaction effects between brand positioning status, brand origin, and the belief in a just world view. Regardless, this study found that there were significant main effects of brand positioning status and brand origin on the motivation to restore justice. While this study did not find interaction effects among brand positioning status, brand origin, and belief in a just world

view, it may be possible to say that consumers still perceived competitive business marketplace as very unjust. In other words, a competitive business climate may trigger more automatic or embedded consumer reactions to the situations rather than shifting consumers' minds to the motivated state (motivation to restore justice) and this may depend upon what belief world views individuals hold.

This explanation may be more plausible, since marketing practitioners rely heavily on marketing of "local" products and services, and create an ultimate favoritism toward "local" businesses (Winit et al., 2014). Perhaps, in one's mind, the words such as "local," "having fewer resources," and "striving for success" may be associated with "businesses that need my support" belief nodes, thus activating automatic reactions to these business entities. Therefore, further research should be conducted by directly regressing behavioral outcome variables (e.g. intent to support underdog brands – rather than regressing motivation to restore justice) on brand positioning status, brand origin, and belief in a just world views to more fully understand the underlying motivations in the concept of "underdogs" and "localness."

Consumers' consumption of brands is based on a complex mind map. This means that consumers' brand choice is influenced not only by a single factor but also by a wide range of factors including individual differences, social values, and norms of consumers. Therefore, Study 2 (2 brand positioning status x 2 brand ideology x 2 belief in a just world view) incorporated the effects of brand ideology and its interplay with brand positioning status in creating an unjust situation to the eyes of consumers. This is because in the underdog literature, it is shown that individuals' rejection of the topdog brands is an example of pro-social behavior (McGinnis & Gentry, 2009) and a type of avoidance

toward certain types of brands (Lee et al., 2009). Therefore, it is questionable whether the underdog effect would be sustained if brands conveyed different reflections of social ideologies (e.g., core societal norms supported by majority of members).

Consistent with the Study 1 results, the main effect of brand positioning status again acted as a strong situational cue that alters consumers' perceptions on what is just or unjust. In Study 2, another normative factor, brand ideology, also strongly influenced consumers' justice-fairness perceptions in the described situations. This result indicated that consumers tend to see more unjustness when the target brand or company communicates universalism values, and individuals are more motivated to support underdog and universalism ideology conveying brands. This could be explained by the early education individuals received that the weak and losing entities should be the ones that need our compassion and protection. This claim appears to be supported by Allison & Burnette (2010) where business entities or sports players that define themselves as underdogs earn more compassion when they fail and ask for more credit when they succeed.

Another interesting finding in Study 2 is that when the study examined the impacts of the belief in a just world view, it was found that a significant moderating effect on the path between brand positioning status and motivation to restore justice existed. This means that people with a high level of belief in a just world view – meaning “individuals who believe that their world is a just place and that members of society receive what they deserve” – tend to have lower motivation to restore justice when the effect was compared to those individuals who hold low belief in a just world view.

The results were consistent with the tenets of the belief in a just world theory (Lerner, 1980). When individuals witness a business (a victim – an underdog) in a highly competitive business climate, especially when they believe that society does not provide the businesses (victims) with what they deserve, then individuals tend to engage more in justice restoration actions such as being more favorable to the business entities (victims or underdogs in this case). However, such an inclination tends to be significantly decreased when individuals believe that the disadvantageous business position is something that underdogs should bear and strive to overcome. Perhaps it also means that consumers may recognize the struggles in a highly competitive business climate is part of the real world and the struggles also make these underdogs better to experience the competition and also makes them work harder to overcome difficulties and to compete more effectively.

However, the moderating effect of the belief in a just world was not significant in the path between brand ideology and motivation to restore justice. This may be explained by the strong links between brand ideology and consumer behavior. According to the earlier qualitative research evidence, consumers are often engaged in activism, especially when brand ideology is inconsistent with their societal belief systems (Kozinets & Handelman, 2004; Shepherd et al., 2015; Cutright et al., 2011). As some scholars view the underdog brand supporting behavior as a type of consumer activism (Paharia et al., 2014), the degree of individuals' belief in a just world view may be influential if it were directly tested on the paths between brand ideology and consumer behavior.

Consistent with Study 1 (brand positioning status x brand origin x belief in a just world view), in Study 2 (brand positioning status x brand ideology x belief in a just world

view) the motivation to restore justice acted as a mediator that influenced consumers' purchasing and word-of-mouth behavior for underdogs. This appears to explain that when consumers see a brand struggling in a competitive business marketplace, they perceive the situation as unjust for underdog business entities. Consequently, the unjust situation becomes an important stimulus that makes people more motivated to restore justice and may lead to supportive behavioral outcomes. That effect is perhaps more salient in the casual food and beverage consuming context. This is because it does not require significant monetary expenditures or risks from consumers (hence lower risks involved than more expensive decision-making contexts) and consumers have greater potential to restore justice such as might be the case in pricey and risky decision-making contexts that work as a boundary condition of brand underdog effects (Allison & Burnette, 2010) and that could possibly lead to lowering the motivation to restore justice (White et al., 2012).

Finally, this study found that a boundary condition for the underdog brand effect exists. From the moderated mediation analysis, this study identified that people are more strongly motivated to restore justice when they have a weak belief in a just world view. Consequently, the mediation effect decreased significantly when individuals think that the world we live in is a just place. In other words, individuals who consider that the society they live in does not deservedly reward/punish members of society will most likely attempt to make the world a more just place by putting more efforts into justice restoration.

6.2. Theoretical Contribution

6.2.1. Theorizing of the Underdog Brand Effects and Comparative Appeals

The findings of this study contribute to several bodies of literature. First, the results of this study build upon the theorizing of underdog brand effects by incorporating additional normative variables (e.g., brand origin and brand ideology) into the understanding of the subject matter. Consumers make purchase decisions constantly and oftentimes those decisions are consistent to one's values (e.g., brand origin (Dunne, Chambers, Giombolini, & Schlegel, 2011)) and beliefs (e.g., brand ideology (Massa & Testa, 2012; Khan et al., 2013)). However, previous research on underdog brand effects is somewhat limited because it failed to incorporate some other normative techniques that marketers frequently utilize (e.g., normative appeals such as societal norms in the brand perception and communication).

This study demonstrates that people observe injustice and power imbalance in a competitive business marketplace when brands are not only presented as an “underdog” but also as a “local entity.” Moreover, when brands convey universalism values such as understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of people and for nature, the underdog appeal conveys more salient injustice and power imbalance to consumers. As a result, these factors influence individuals to be more motivated to restore justice and inspire consumer activism. Therefore, the motivation to restore justice is an important state of mind that causes individuals to be engaged in support for underdog brands under these value orientations.

This study also found a boundary condition for underdog effects. While previous literature assumes that every person has a strong desire to support underdogs (Paharia et

al., 2011; Paharia et al., 2014), this study reveals that the results may not be entirely true. The results indicate that individuals might have varying disparate sets of opinions regarding societal systems. Therefore, some may think that a competitive business climate is a healthy thing for consumers because businesses strive for success, innovation, and ultimately provide more values for and to the consumers. Moreover, some people believe that topdogs deserve the leading positions, as they have worked hard throughout, and underdogs are underdogs because they are working hard to be competitive and viable (perhaps not as good as topdogs yet). It may be, although not tested here, that some believe that even topdogs were underdogs at one point in their business history and thus not deserve the topdog status. In these situations, people tend not to see underdogs as a “victim” of the competitive marketplace, but a condition a business needs to endure to become successful. The effect of brand positioning status, in this case, becomes weaker in influencing consumers’ motivation to restore justice and may not play a dominant role in influencing actual purchasing or justice restoration activities.

These findings also provide meaningful implications to the comparative advertising body of literature. Previously, comparative appeal (or, advertising) literature reported that advertising messages work more effectively when it is compared to the competing business entities or brands (Grewal et al., 1997). However, it was found that comparative appeal can, in fact, backfire on consumer perceptions if a brand with greater market share attempts to use it against brands with smaller market share (Pechmann & Stewart, 1990) and the perception exists that these other firms are “underdogs.” The reason for this can be explained by the findings of the current dissertation study. It is

plausible to say that consumers perhaps identified the brand with smaller market share as an underdog and the one with greater market share as a topdog. If this was how comparative appeal was perceived by consumers, perhaps consumers might have felt that topdogs (with a high market share) are bullying underdogs (with a smaller market share) in their comparative approach. This might have positively influenced consumers' motivation to restore justice in the power imbalance situations. This effect has not been explained thoroughly in comparative appeal literature; therefore, the link between brand positioning status and motivation to restore justice could provide one plausible explanation and may further contribute to this line of inquiry.

Finally, in theorizing of underdog brand effects, since the social phenomenon recently came to marketing researchers' attentions, there are many convoluted notions in conceptual and operational definitions of underdog brand positioning status. In addition, there are significant gaps in measurement development for this concept. Therefore, this study attempted to dissect "underdog biographies" and examined exactly what factors form consumers' perception of underdogs. By pursuing experimental design studies with situational and normative variables that could make underdog appeals more salient, this study could increase internal validity by trying to correctly conclude what independent variables are responsible for the variations of dependent variables (Kirk, 1995).

6.2.2. Application and Extension of the Belief in a Just World Theory

In the hospitality and tourism management field, the belief in a just world theory hardly appears in the literature (White et al., 2012). This implies that the majority of studies assume that consumers have universal agreement concerning the societal system

in which they live and these judgments are not accounted for the competitive hospitality business climate. However, this is a dangerous assumption to make. According to the belief in a just world theory and system justification theory, individuals have largely different and varied understandings and views toward the societal system they live within (Hafer et al., 2005). This means that some may think that the system they live in is a just place, where the members of society receive what they deserve. However, others may see the system as an unjust one that needs to be changed into something different. Therefore, findings of this study provided additional empirical evidence that individuals are motivated to various levels depending upon the level of agreement they have with the societal system they are in (e.g., whether the world they live in is just or unjust).

Accepting the argument made by Hafer & Bègue (2005), this study attempts to close some of the arguments around the theory – how to understand the just world view (e.g., situational or personal differences?). The belief in a just world view was conceptualized as individual level differences in world-views and this study found significant differences in the degree of one’s personal just world view in terms of how people react to the brand positioning status (e.g., underdogs vs. topdogs) and how they may or may not put these beliefs into actions. In the Study 2 (brand positioning status x brand ideology x belief in a just world views), the results showed significant differences in individuals’ support for underdogs depending on their level of agreement to the societal system. That is, individuals who think that the world is not a just place, they tried to restore justice by giving underdog businesses fair chances to compete against the industry topdogs. The results indicated a danger of assuming that every consumer has an exactly same degree agreement toward the societal systems in which they live and

highlighted an importance of understanding individuals' just world views when examining consumers' decision-making processes.

6.2.3. Extending the Understanding of Consumer Pro-social Behavior

In the branding literature, the main focus of academic attention has previously been on how to build strong brand knowledge and image that can be retrieved from the consumers' memory network systems (Keller, 2003). However, Palazzo & Basu (2007) assert that corporate branding may also act as a signal for among consumers who are engaged in anti-corporation or boycotting behavior.

By investigating underdog effects with possible normative variables, non-local brands that convey power and topdog images may trigger negative memories in consumers' associative networks by making a competitive business marketplace look saliently unjust to the eyes of consumers. Therefore, this study's findings contribute to the consumers' pro-social behavior and brand avoidance behavior, because it explains that top brands may reflect or trigger negative images or perceptions to the consumers when these situations are encountered in the marketplace.

6.3. Managerial Implications

6.3.1. Deriving Industry Interest to Small Business Branding

The majority of the brand literature in the hospitality and tourism management domain is heavily reliant on the branding of large and international corporations. However, this study emphasizes the importance of understanding the benefits to smaller

businesses of the importance in understanding underdog positioning status in the marketplace. As the hospitality industry is comprised of a majority of small business entities (more than 50% according to Maze, 2015), this may help small business entities address their struggles and how they may more effectively position themselves against large corporate entities. Therefore, this study highlights the importance of understanding the differences between the perceptions of underdog and topdog brand positioning status in a competitive business climate.

Moreover, this study provides meaningful implications about brand origin and brand ideology. The findings are important for both large and for small businesses. For large corporations, this study explains that when they are competing in a local environment that is highly supportive of local business that conveys universalism values among its consumers, these corporations need to be cautious about what and how they deliver brand messages to consumers. This is because corporations may be subject to attaining unwanted images or perceptions that are a result of the market positioning status they hold (topdog vs. underdog). For small businesses, these results become a strong weapon that can help them compete effectively against large corporations.

For instance, although some studies have examined the trustworthiness of the alleged negative impacts of large corporations on local community (e.g., WalmartTM) and found non-significant results (Fitzgerald & Wirtz, 2008), consumers still largely believe that topdog businesses with great resources could be detrimental for the local economy and it is oftentimes reflected on consumers' decision-making process. Therefore, underdog and local businesses can take advantage of consumers' common beliefs on topdogs and underdogs.

6.3.2. Considering Brand Effects in a Network of Brands

One major issue that previous literature has disregarded is how brands are reflected in a network of brands (in the market, many brands are simultaneously presented to consumers). Realistically speaking, consumers are exposed to a flood of brands transcending different product categories. Consumers are also confronted with making decisions on many of these brands presented simultaneously (Paharia et al., 2014). Therefore, today's consumers have to make decisions while observing numerous brands at the same time rather than looking at one brand at a time. The findings of this study highlight the importance of managing brand images when a brand interacts with many other brands in the marketplace. This study's results suggest that unwanted and unintended brand images could be created when brands are positioned in network of brands.

Depending on what origin the brand has and what ideology it conveys to consumers in general, the brand images may backfire on consumers' choices. Therefore, marketing practitioners need to constantly monitor how their brands are viewed by consumers and manage unwanted brand images created by the market share and competitions if the concept of underdogs holds true across any number of branded products or services. Furthermore, if global conglomerates attempt to penetrate into a new market, they may need to be cautious about a location setting, particularly if the area hosts many local small businesses that have local connections and community support.

6.3.3. Understanding of Justice Restoration Motive and Third Party Justice in Consumer Behavior

Only recently are researchers trying to understand the justice perceptions of a third party (the ones who are not involved in the unjust situation but are observing an unjust situation) in the hospitality and tourism field (Mattila et al., 2014). However, the majority of these research attempts mainly focus on the situations where “people” are involved and they examine individuals’ reactions toward “people” being unfairly treated. This study, however, shows that an observer’s justice perception of the third party justice concept is applicable to the “non-human” context, too. This means that individuals may project sympathy and emotions toward suffering business entities (the underdogs) even though they are not actually involved in the unjust situations or purchase or decision-making decision, but express these beliefs or opinions that may influence their future behavior or those who they come in contact when exchanging thoughts or information about various consumer decisions.

This may also be because humans have a tendency to project human-like images to the objects (coined as “anthropomorphism”; (Epley, Waytz, & Cacioppo, 2007)). In fact, some marketers intentionally create brands that have a “personality” and align endorsers or celebrities that reflect or enhance the personality. Therefore, the findings of this study urge marketing practitioners to closely monitor how consumers interpret and also misinterpret corporations’ brand messages and associations, especially when brand images are not from the local area, and how they convey these ideologies that are not consistent with their target consumers when entering into new marketplaces. For smaller business operators, this may be a good opportunity to carefully position their products

and services in the marketplace to differentiate themselves. Particularly, those businesses that are located close to giant corporations can benefit from this situation, because they can effectively use underdog appeals to their consumers and both position their entities and reposition the large corporate entities effectively. Such opportunity also puts an emphasis on the designing of marketing messages (e.g., utilizing underdog appeals such as Boston Brewing Company positioning of Sam Adams Beer versus Budweiser owned by the corporate giant, Anheuser-Busch InBev).

6.4. Limitations and Future Research Directions

The results of this study should be interpreted with some reservations. First of all, since the data were collected from Amazon MTurk, these findings may not be representative of a broad sample for the US population – hence, there may have a potential concern in relation to the generalizability of the findings. Secondly, the respondents of this study were mainly white Caucasian (over 70 % of the Study 1 and 2). According to Chambers, Schlenker, Collisson (2013), race has a connection with the individuals' preferred societal ideologies. Therefore, this study anticipates that the results would have been more varied or different, if it had more racially diverse or proportionate respondents.

Thirdly, unlike the stimuli used in Paharia et al.'s (2014) study, this study strictly relied on hypothetical or descriptive brand information and descriptions portrayed controlled experimental statements in the case scenarios. As found in Baker, Shin, & Kim (2016), consumers may react differently when they are exposed to specific imagery and descriptive manipulation stimuli. Lastly, this study only examines the main societal

ideologies that are supported by the majority members of society (such as universalism and power). There are and may be other and equally or more important societal ideologies to consider and to incorporate. Therefore, findings of this study only could be generalizable to the brands that communicate power and universalism values.

Future research can make improvements on the aforementioned areas and add a more holistic viewpoint toward understanding the underdog effects in other comparative or interactive research study methodologies. This study also could not find significant moderating effect of the belief in a just world view. This may be caused by consumers' automatic reactions upon encountering different brand origins and/or brand ideologies. Therefore, future studies can examine the role of the belief in a just world view without a mediating variable (motivation to restore justice). It may be plausible that consumer reactions to brand origin and ideology are or may be more automated or more reactionary, as these beliefs and reactions are more deeply rooted in the individuals' memory and belief systems and not simply "reactionary in the moment to a given situation."

Consistent with the Study 1 and the Study 2, the results showed decreased regression coefficients when respondents were asked to indicate their intention to support underdogs financially (e.g., intention to pay and intention to pay price premium). This hinted that there might be boundary conditions in relation to pricing thresholds or financial/non-financial support for underdogs. This might be of future researchers' interests in testing boundary conditions. Although previous studies identified that underdog effects weaken if individuals have to embrace high risks in supporting underdogs (Kim et al., 2008), the exact boundary conditions and thresholds were not

tested extensively. Therefore, future study could investigate whether or not there is an inverse relationship in underdog support.

Future research can also examine the applicability of system justification theory, as its tenets are very closely linked to the belief in a just world theory. In that way, underdog effect research could attain more robust explanations than the current studies available. Another research path may be taken from the perspectives of social identity theory. According to Paharia et al. (2011), some people do not wish to consume or be involved with underdog brands or sports teams because it could possibly damage individuals' status quo or identity. This may be another possible research direction future researchers could take. Additionally, using comparative marketing theories, future researchers may seek to examine different ways of addressing brand positioning status. In this study, descriptive information on a brand was used. However, perhaps as done in Paharia et al. (2014), perhaps brand positioning status could be manipulated through describing the salience of business competitions or by describing two competing brands at the same time or visually take respondents into a controlled purchase or buying decision where both an underdog and topdog business are competing for the same purchase.

APPENDIX I

STUDY INVITATIONS AND SCENARIOS

Study Invitations

You are being invited to participate in a research study titled “*Underdog brand*”. This study is being done by *Jungyoung Tiffany Shin and Rod Warnick, Ph.D.* from the University of Massachusetts Amherst. You are eligible to participate in this study if *you are over 18 years old and have a dining experience at a local and a chain restaurant in the last one year.*

The purpose of this research study is *to understand your intention to support underdog (losing ones in business competitions) businesses.* If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey/questionnaire. This survey/questionnaire will ask about *your perception of underdog brands, top dog brands, business competitions, and your intention to support underdog or top dog brands* and it will take you approximately *15-20* minutes to complete.

You may not directly benefit from this research; however, we hope that your participation in the study may *help you be aware of business competitions and winners and losers of those competitions.*

We believe there are no known risks associated with this research study; however, as with any online related activity the risk of a breach of confidentiality is always possible. To the best of our ability your answers in this study will remain confidential. We will minimize any risks by *limiting data access to the key investigator and password protect the data. Also, the data will be disposed after completing academic research analyses – approximately a year.*

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you can withdraw at any time. You are free to skip any question that you choose.

If you have questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the researcher(s), *Jungyoung Tiffany Shin (phone: 413-545-5376 or Rod Warnick (phone: 413-545-6629).* If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the University of Massachusetts Amherst Human Research Protection Office (HRPO) at (413) 545-3428 or humansubjects@ora.umass.edu.

By clicking “I agree” below you are indicating that you are at least 18 years old, have read and understood this consent form and agree to participate in this research study. Please print a copy of this page for your records.

I Agree

I Do Not
Agree

Scenarios – respondents are randomly assigned to one of these scenarios.

Study 1

2 (Underdog brand status: Underdog vs topdog) x2 (brand origin: Local vs non-local)

Condition 1. Underdog x Local

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items. Louie's is a locally owned independent restaurant with significantly fewer resources than the industry's leading topdog restaurants. Here, the locally owned, independent restaurant Louie's is perceived as an underdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively disadvantaged position in the marketplace but it has a determination to succeed. That is, even though Louie's has a disadvantaged position in the market, the owners believe that if they tried hard enough, they would be able to compete.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

Condition 2. Underdog x Non-local

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items. Louie's is a "Non-locally owned" independent restaurant with significantly fewer resources than the industry's leading topdog restaurants. Here, the "Non-locally owned", independent restaurant Louie's is perceived as an underdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively disadvantaged position in the marketplace but it has a determination to succeed. That is, even though Louie's has a disadvantaged position in the market, the owners believe that if they tried hard enough, they would be able to compete.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

Condition 3. Topdog x Local

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items. Louie's is a locally owned chain restaurant with significantly more resources than the industry's underdog restaurants. Here, the locally owned, chain restaurant Louie's is perceived as a topdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively advantaged position in the marketplace but it just wants to maintain its current market share rather than striving for more success.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

Condition 4. Topdog x Non-local

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items.

Louie's is a "Non-locally owned" chain restaurant with significantly more resources than the industry's underdog restaurants. Here, the "Non-locally owned" chain restaurant Louie's is perceived as a topdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively advantaged position in the marketplace but it just wants to maintain its current market share rather than striving for more success.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

Study 2

2 (Underdog brand status: Underdog vs topdog) x2 (brand ideology: Power vs universalism)

Condition 1. Underdog x Power

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items.

Louie's is an independent restaurant with significantly fewer resources than the industry's leading topdog restaurants. Here, the independent restaurant Louie's is perceived as an underdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively disadvantaged position in the marketplace but it has a determination to succeed. That is, even though Louie's has a disadvantaged position in the market, the owners believe that if they tried hard enough, they would be able to compete.

Louie's restaurant brand and customer information:

Louie's restaurant mainly attracts customers who strongly believe that it is important to be rich, have a lot of money and expensive things. They also care greatly about getting respect from others and being able to make people do what they say.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

Condition 2. Underdog x Universalism

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items.

Louie's is an independent restaurant with significantly fewer resources than the industry's leading topdog restaurants. Here, the independent restaurant Louie's is perceived as an underdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively disadvantaged position in the marketplace but it has a determination to succeed. That is, even though Louie's has a disadvantaged position in the market, the owners believe that if they tried hard enough, they would be able to compete.

Louie's restaurant brand and customer information:

Louie's restaurant mainly attracts customers who strongly believe that people should care about nature and look after the environment. Also, customers of Louie's believe that it is important to treat everyone equally and listen to people who are different from them because they want to understand individual differences.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

Condition 3. Topdog x Power

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items.

Louie's is a chain restaurant with significantly more resources than the industry's underdog restaurants. Here, the chain restaurant Louie's is perceived as a topdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively advantaged position in the marketplace but it just wants to maintain its current market share rather than striving for more success.

Louie's restaurant brand and customer information:

Louie's restaurant mainly attracts customers who strongly believe that it is important to be rich, have a lot of money and expensive things. They also care greatly about getting respect from others and being able to make people do what they say.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

Condition 4. Topdog x Universalism

Imagine you are in the mood for traditional American food for dinner.

You need to choose a restaurant to have dinner with one of your best friends. Your friend is fine with whatever you decide. Thus, the final decision is up to you.

Louie's is a restaurant that serves traditional American food and beverage items.

Louie's is a chain restaurant with significantly more resources than the industry's underdog restaurants. Here, the chain restaurant Louie's is perceived as a topdog in the market. Louie's has a distinctively advantaged position in the marketplace but it just wants to maintain its current market share rather than striving for more success.

Louie's restaurant brand and customer information:

Louie's restaurant mainly attracts customers who strongly believe that people should care about nature and look after the environment. Also, customers of Louie's believe that it is important to treat everyone equally and listen to people who are different from them because they want to understand individual differences.

The price and quality of Louie's restaurant services are average for the industry.

APPENDIX II

MEASUREMENT ITEMS, SOURCES, AND SCALES USED

Section (# of items)	Items (Source)	Scale
Screening Questions (3)	<p>Q1. Have you dined in local and chain restaurants in the past six months?</p> <p>① Yes ② No</p> <p>Q2. How frequently do you dine in at a locally owned independent restaurant?</p> <p>Q3. How frequently do you dine in at a nationally owned chain restaurants?</p>	<p>Never (1) – All the time (7)</p> <p>Never (1) – All the time (7)</p>
M-Turk Quality Check Questions (3)	<p>Q1. Which sports do you like? Please just press “3” instead of clicking the sports you like.</p> <p>① Basketball ② Baseball ③ Football</p> <p>Q2. Please click “5” for this question.</p> <p>Q3. Please click “Strongly disagree” for this question.</p>	<p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p>
Manipulation Checks (18)	<p><i>Brand Status (Underdog vs. Topdog) – (Paharia, Keinan, Avery, & Schor, 2011)</i></p> <p>Q1. Based on the descriptions you read, did you perceive that Louie’s restaurant is an underdog?</p> <p>Q2. How passionate and determined is Louie’s restaurant?</p> <p>Q3. How externally disadvantaged is Louie’s restaurant?</p> <p><i>Brand Origin (Local vs. non-local) – (Bauer, Heinrich, & Schäfer, 2013)</i></p> <p>Q1. Based on the descriptions you read, did you perceive that Louie’s restaurant is a locally owned, independent business?</p> <p>Q2. Based on the descriptions you read, would you evaluate Louie’s restaurant as a locally owned, independent restaurant?</p>	<p>Not at all (1) – Very much (2)</p> <p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p>

	<p><i>Brand Ideology</i> (Shepherd et al., 2015) Based on the description you read,</p> <p>Q1. Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant brand communicates a sense of social status and prestige?</p> <p>Q2. Would you evaluate that Louie's restaurant brand communicates a sense of control or dominance over people and resources?</p> <p>Q3. Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant users care a lot about being rich and having a lot of money?</p> <p>Q4. Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant users want to get respect?</p> <p>Q5. Do you perceive that Louie's restaurant users want to get authority?</p> <p>Based on the description you read, do you perceive that Louie's restaurant brand communicates...</p> <p>Q6. A sense of understanding for the welfare of all people and for nature?</p> <p>Q7. A sense of appreciation for the welfare of all people and for nature?</p> <p>Q8. A sense of tolerance for the welfare of all people and for nature?</p> <p>Q9. A sense of protection for the welfare of all people and for nature?</p>	<p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p> <p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p>
Moderating Variable (7)	<p><i>Global belief in a just world scale</i> (Lipkus, 1991)</p> <p>Q1. I feel that people get what they are entitled to have.</p> <p>Q2. I feel that a person's efforts are noticed and rewarded.</p> <p>Q3. I feel that people earn the rewards and punishments they get.</p> <p>Q4. I feel that people who meet with misfortune have brought it on themselves.</p> <p>Q5. I feel that people get what they deserve.</p> <p>Q6. I feel that rewards and punishments are fairly given.</p> <p>Q7. I basically feel that the world is a fair place.</p>	<p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p>

<p>Mediating Variable (2)</p>	<p><i>Motivation to Restore Justice</i> (White, MacDonnell, & Ellard, 2012)</p> <p>Q1. To what degree do you believe that your purchase can help to ensure that restaurant businesses receive fair and just outcomes in the marketplace?</p> <p>Q2. To what degree do you believe that you have the ability to reduce injustice experienced by restaurant businesses in the marketplace?</p>	<p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p>
<p>Dependent Variables (17)</p>	<p><i>Overall support of underdog brands</i> (Kim, Allison, Eylon, Goethals, Markus, Hindle, McGuire, 2008)</p> <p>Q1. Willingness to support the Louie’s restaurant.</p> <p>Q2. Interest in supporting the Louie’s restaurant.</p> <p>Q3. How sympathetic are you to the Louie’s restaurant?</p> <p><i>Purchase Intention</i> (Bian & Forsythe, 2012)</p> <p>If I were going to dine out at a restaurant...</p> <p>Q1. I would consider using the Louie’s restaurant.</p> <p>Q2. The likelihood of me using the Louie’s restaurant is high.</p> <p>Q3. My willingness to use the Louie’s restaurant is high.</p> <p>Q4. The probability I would consider using the Louie’s restaurant is high.</p> <p>Willingness to Pay Price Premium (Matilla, 2001)</p> <p>Q1. Likelihood of continuing to dine in at the Louie’s restaurant, if prices increased somewhat.</p> <p>Q2. Likelihood of paying a higher price for the Louie’s restaurant than competitors charge.</p>	<p>Not at all willing (1) – Extremely willing (7)</p> <p>Highly unlikely (1) – Highly likely (7)</p> <p>Not at all sympathetic (1) – Very sympathetic (7)</p> <p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p> <p>Highly unlikely (1) – Highly likely (7)</p> <p>Not at all willing (1) – Extremely willing (7)</p> <p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7)</p> <p>Highly unlikely (1) – Highly likely (7)</p>

	<p><i>Intention to write online reviews for underdogs</i> (Jeong & Jang, 2011)</p> <p>Q1. I want make more efforts to write online reviews for the Louie’s restaurant because I want to help the Louie’s restaurant to be successful.</p> <p>Q2. I want make more efforts to write online reviews for the Louis’ restaurant because in my opinion, businesses like the Louis’ restaurant should be supported.</p> <p><i>Intention to write more “positive” online reviews for underdogs</i> (Molinari, Abratt, & Dion, 2008)</p> <p>Q1. I will recommend the Louie’s restaurant to others more highly rather than its competitors.</p> <p>Q2. I will say more positive things about the Louie’s restaurant rather than its competitors.</p> <p>Q3. I will encourage others to purchase services from the Louie’s restaurant rather than its competitors.</p> <p>Q4. I will refer other people to the Louie’s restaurant rather than its competitors.</p>	<p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree(7)</p> <p>Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree(7)</p>
Realism Check Questions (1)	(Mattila, 2006) Q1. The simulated experience through the given scenario was realistic.	Highly unrealistic (1) – Highly realistic (7)
Control Questions (2)	Q1. I prefer to purchase local products. Q2. I prefer to purchase local services.	Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree(7)
Demographic Characteristics (7)	<p>Q1. You are;</p> <p>a) Male</p> <p>b) Female</p> <p>Q2. You were born in (e.g. 1960); _____</p> <p>Q3. What is your approximate gross household income (before taxes):</p> <p>1) Less than \$25,000</p> <p>2) \$25,000 to \$49,999</p> <p>3) \$50,000 to \$99,999</p> <p>4) \$100,000 to \$149,999</p> <p>5) \$150,000 to \$199,999</p> <p>6) \$200,000 or more</p>	

	<p>Q4. Which of the following best describes your current marital status?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Single 2) Married 3) Divorced/Separated 4) Living with a Same Sex Partner 5) Living with Opposite Sex Partner 6) Widowed <p>Q5. Your ethnic background;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) White/ Caucasian 2) Hispanic/ Latino 3) Asian 4) Black/ African-American 5) Other _____ <p>Q6. What is your highest level of education?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Below or high school graduate 2) Some college/ Technical or Vocational school 3) Four year college 4) Post graduate degree <p>Q7. Your political orientation Very liberal (1) ----- Moderate (4) ----- Very conservative (7)</p>
--	--

Thank you for your participation.
Randomly generated codes presented here: _____

Below message will appear on MTurk site.

Be sure to type in your code here so you can be paid.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- American Marketing Association (AMA). (2014, December 9). David and Goliath: When do underdog business benefit from neighborhood giants?. Retrieved from <http://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2014/12/141209133531.htm>
- American Hotel & Lodging Association. (2015). *2014 Lodging Industry Profile*. Retrieved from <https://www.ahla.com/content.aspx?id=36332>
- Aaker, D. (1996). *Building Strong Brands*. New York: The Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. (1991). *Managing brand equity: Capitalizing on the value of a brand name*. New York: Free Press.
- Aaker, J., Fournier, S., Brasel, S. A., & Brasel, S. A. (2014). Journal of Consumer Research, Inc., *31*(1), 1–16.
- Achrol, R. S., & Kotler, P. (2012). Frontiers of the marketing paradigm in the third millennium. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *40*(1), 35–52.
- Allison, S. T., & Burnette, J. L. (2010). Fairness and preference for underdogs and top dogs. In R. M. Kramer, A. E. Tenbrunsel, & M. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Social Decision Making: Social Delemmas, Social Values, and Ethical Judgments* (pp.291-314). New York: Taylor & Francis Group, LLC.
- Alves, H., & Correia, I. (2010). The strategic expression of personal belief in a just world. *European Psychologist*, *15*(3), 202–210.
- Amine, L. S. (2008). Country-of-origin, animosity and consumer response: Marketing implications of anti-Americanism and Francophobia. *International Business Review*, *17*(4), 402–422.

- Anderson, S. P., & Renault, R. (2009). Comparative advertising : disclosing horizontal match information. *The RAND Journal of Economics*, 40(3), 558–581.
- Andorfer, V. A., & Liebe, U. (2012). Research on Fair Trade Consumption—A Review. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 106(4), 415–435.
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1975). Marketing as Exchange. *Journal of Marketing*, 39(4), 32–39.
- Baker, M. A., Shin, J. T., & Kim, Y. W. (2016). An exploration and investigation of edible insect consumption: The impacts of image and description on risk perceptions and purchase intent. *Psychology & Marketing*, 33(2), 94–112.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (2002). Social cognitive theory in cultural context. *Applied Psychology*, 51(2), 269–290.
- Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D., Steenkamp, J., & Ramachander, S. (2000). Effects of Brand Local and Nonlocal Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9(2), 83–95.
- Bauer, H. H., Heinrich, D., & Schäfer, D. B. (2013). The effects of organic labels on global, local, and private brands: More hype than substance?. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(8), 1035-1043.
- Beard, F. K. (2013). A History of Comparative Advertising in the United States. *Journalism & Communication Monographs*, 15(3), 114–216.
- Bian, Q., & Forsythe, S. (2012). Purchase intention for luxury brands: A cross cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(10), 1443–1451.

- Bible Gateway. (2015). The parable of the lost sheep (Matthew 18:10). Retrieved from <https://www.biblegateway.com/passage/?search=Matthew+18%3A10&version=ESV>
- Borghini, S., Diamond, N., Kozinets, R. V., McGrath, M. A., Muniz, J. a M., & Sherry, J. F. (2009). Why Are Themed Brandstores So Powerful? Retail Brand Ideology at American Girl Place. *Journal of Retailing*, 85(3), 363–375.
- Brandt, M. J. (2013). Do the disadvantaged legitimize the social system? A large-scale test of the status-legitimacy hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 104(5), 765–85.
- Bronnenberg, B. J., Dhar, S. K., & Dubé, J.-P. (2007). Consumer Packaged Goods in the United States: National Brands, Local Branding. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 44(1), 4–13.
- Burnette, J. L., Allison, S. T., Goethals, G. R., Eylon, D., & Beggan, J. K. (2008). *Associating with both winners and losers: Underdog and BIRGing effects reconciled*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Richmond
- Callan, M. J., Ellard, J. H., & Nicol, J. E. (2006). The belief in a just world and immanent justice reasoning in adults. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 32(12), 1646–58.
- Carnes, N. C., Lickel, B., & Janoff-Bulman, R. (2015). Shared Perceptions: Morality Is Embedded in Social Contexts. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 41(3), 351–362.
- Chambers, J. R., Schlenker, B. R., & Collisson, B. (2013). Ideology and Prejudice The Role of Value Conflicts. *Psychological science*, 24, 140-149.

- Cheng, J. M.-S., Chen, L. S.-L., Lin, J. Y.-C., & Wang, E. S.-T. (2007). Do consumers perceive differences among national brands, international private labels and local private labels? The case of Taiwan. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 16(6), 368–376.
- Clark, C. M. (1992). Deviant adolescent subcultures: Assessment strategies and clinical interventions. *Adolescence*, 27(106), 283-293.
- Cohen, J. E. (2007). *Body sizes in food chains of animal predators and parasites*.
- Crockett, D., & Wallendorf, M. (2004). The Role of Normative Political Ideology in Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(3), 511–528.
- Cromie, J. G., & Ewing, M. T. (2009). The rejection of brand hegemony. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 218–230.
- Cutright, K. M., Wu, E. C., Banfield, J. C., Kay, A. C., & Fitzsimons, G. J. (2011). When Your World Must Be Defended: Choosing Products to Justify the System. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 38(1), 62–77.
- Daye, D. (2010, December 2). Capitalizing on the underdog brand effect. Retrieved from <http://www.brandingstrategyinsider.com/2010/12/capitalizing-on-the-underdog-brand-effect.html#.Vg3yR3pVikp>
- Dalli, D., Romani, S., & Gistri, G. (2006). Brand dislike: Representing the negative side of consumer preferences. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 33, 87–95.
- Dean, D. H. (1999). Brand Endorsement, Popularity and Event Sponsorship as Advertising Cues Affecting Consumer Pre-Purchase Attitudes. *Journal of Advertising*, 28(3), 1–13.

- Demirdjian, Z. S. (1983). Sales Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising: An Experimental Field Investigation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10(3), 362–364.
- Dion, K. L., & Dion, K. K. (1987). Belief in a just world and physical attractiveness stereotyping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(4), 775–780.
- Dowd, K., & Burke, K. J. (2013). The influence of ethical values and food choice motivations on intentions to purchase sustainably sourced foods. *Appetite*, 69(October), 137–144.
- Dröge, C., & Darmon, R. Y. (1987). Associative Positioning Strategies through Comparative Advertising: Attribute versus Overall Similarity Approaches. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(4), 377–388.
- Dunne, J. B., Chambers, K. J., Giombolini, K. J., & Schlegel, S. A. (2011). What does “local” mean in the grocery store? Multiplicity in food retailers’ perspectives on sourcing and marketing local foods. *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems*, 26(1), 46–59.
- Ellett, J. (2012, September 20). 3 reasons Samsung's latest advertising poking Apple is so smart. Retrieved from <http://www.forbes.com/sites/johnellett/2012/09/20/3-reasons-samsungs-latest-advertising-poking-apple-is-so-smart/>
- Epley, N., Waytz, A., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2007). On seeing human: A three-factor theory of anthropomorphism. *Psychological Review*, 114(4), 864–886.
- Ethical Consumer Research Association. (2015). *Ethical Consumerism*. Retrieved from <http://www.ethicalconsumer.org/boycotts.aspx>
- Festinger, L. A. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Evanston, Ill: Row Peterson.

- Field, A. (2012). *Discovering statistics-Analysis of covariance*. Retrieved from <http://www.statisticshell.com/docs/ancova.pdf>
- Field, A. P. (2013). *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics: And Sex and Drugs and Rock 'N' Roll* (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Fitzgerald, T. J. & Wirtz, R. A., (2009, January 1). The Wal-Mart effect: Poison or antidote for local communities?. Retrieved from <https://www.minneapolisfed.org/publications/fedgazette/the-walmart-effect-poison-or-antidote-for-local-communities>
- Fouts, G., Callan, M., Piasentin, K., & Lawson, A. (2006). Demonizing in Children ' s Television Cartoons and Disney Animated Films. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, 37(1), 15–23.
- Friedman, M. (1985). Consumer Boycotts in the United States , 1970-1980 : Contemporary Events in Historical Perspective B. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 19(1), 96–117.
- Furnham, A. (2003). Belief in a just world: research progress over the past decade. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34(5), 795–817.
- Gartner, M. (1976). Endogenous Bandwagon and Underdog Effects in a Relational Choice Model. *Public Choice*, 25, 83–89.
- George, D. & Mallery, P. (2006). *SPSS for Windows: Step by step*: Pearson Education.
- Gladwell, M. (2013). *David and Goliath: Underdogs, misfits, and the art of battling giants*. Hachette UK.

- Grewal, D., Kavanoor, S., Fern, E. F., Costley, C., & Barnes, J. (1997). Comparative versus Noncomparative Advertising: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 61(4), 1–15.
- Hafer, C. L., & Bègue, L. (2005). Experimental research on just-world theory: problems, developments, and future challenges. *Psychological Bulletin*, 131(1), 128–167.
- Hafer, C. L., Bègue, L., Choma, B. L., & Dempsey, J. L. (2005). Belief in a Just World and Commitment to Long-Term Deserved Outcomes.: EBSCOhost. *Social Justice Research*, 18(4), 429–444.
- Hair, J. F., Black, B., Babin, B., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., 2006. *Multivariate Data Analysis* (6 Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Han, H., Hwang, J., Kim, J., & Jung, H. (2015). Guests' pro-environmental decision-making process: Broadening the norm activation framework in a lodging context. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 47, 96–107.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Hayes, A. F., & Preacher, K. J. (2014). Statistical mediation analysis with a multicategorical independent variable. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, 67(3), 451-470.
- Haynes, G. A., & Olson, J. M. (2006). Coping With Threats to Just-World Beliefs: Derogate, Blame, or Help?. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36(3), 664-682.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

- Hirschman, E. (1993). Ideology in Consumer Research, 1980 and 1990: A Marxist and Feminist Critique. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(4), 537–555.
- Hofstede, G., & Bond, M. H. (1984). Hofstede's culture dimensions an independent validation using Rokeach's value survey. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, 15(4), 417-433.
- Hollenbeck, C. R., & Zinkhan, G. M. (2006). Consumer activism on the internet: The role of anti-brand communities. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 33, 479–485.
- Ideology. (n.d.). In Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online. Retrieved from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/ideology>
- Irwin, J. (2015, January 12). Ethical consumerism isn't dead, it just needs better marketing. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2015/01/ethical-consumerism-isnt-dead-it-just-needs-better-marketing>
- Janoff-Bulman, R., (1992). *Shattered assumptions: Towards a new psychology of trauma*. New York: The Free Press.
- Jeong, E., & Jang, S. S. (2011). Restaurant experiences triggering positive electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) motivations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(2), 356–366.
- Jost, J. T., & Banaji, M. R. (1994). The role of stereotyping in system-justification and the production of false consciousness. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 33, 1-1.
- Jost, J., & Hunyady, O. (2002). The psychology of system justification and the palliative function of ideology. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 13(1), 111–153.

- Karande, K., Magnini, V. P., & Tam, L. (2007). Recovery Voice and Satisfaction After Service Failure: An Experimental Investigation of Mediating and Moderating Factors. *Journal of Service Research, 10*(2), 187–203.
- Kay, M. J. (2006). Strong brands and corporate brands. *European Journal of Marketing, 40*(7/8), 742–760.
- Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity. *Journal of Marketing, 57*(1), 1–22.
- Keller, K. L. (2003). Brand Synthesis: The Multidimensionality of Brand Knowledge. *Journal of Consumer Research, 29*(4), 595–600.
- Kent, R. J., & Allen, C. T. (1994). Competitive interference effects in consumer memory for advertising : The role ... *Journal of Marketing, 58*(3), 97–105.
- Khan, R., Misra, K., & Singh, V. (2013). Ideology and brand consumption. *Psychological Science, 24*(3), 326–33.
- Kim, H. (Christian), Kulow, K., & Kramer, T. (2014). The Interactive Effect of Beliefs in Malleable Fate and Fateful Predictions on Choice. *Journal of Consumer Research, 40*(April), 1139–1148.
- Kim, J., Allison, S. T., Eylon, D., Goethals, G. R., Markus, M. J., Hindle, S. M., & McGuire, H. a. (2008). Rooting for (and then abandoning) the underdog. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 38*(10), 2550–2573.
- Kirk, R. E. (1995). *Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Kohlberg, L., & Hersh, R. H. (1977). Moral Development : A Review of the Theory. *Theory into Practice, 16*(2), 53–59.

- Kozinets, R. V., & Handelman, J. M. (2004). Adversaries of Consumption: Consumer Movements, Activism, and Ideology. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(3), 691–704.
- Lee, K., Conklin, M., Cranage, D. A., & Lee, S. (2014). The role of perceived corporate social responsibility on providing healthful foods and nutrition information with health-consciousness as a moderator. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 37, 29–37.
- Lee, M. S. W., Motion, J., & Conroy, D. (2009). Anti-consumption and brand avoidance. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 169–180.
- Lerner, M. J. (1980). *The belief in a just world: A fundamental delusion*. NY: Plenum Press.
- Lerner, M. J., & Miller, D. T. (1978). Just world research and the attribution process: Looking back and ahead. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85(5), 1030–1051.
- Levy, S. J., & Luedicke, M. K. (2012). From Marketing Ideology to Branding Ideology. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 33(1), 58–66.
- Lipkus, I. (1991). The construction and preliminary validation of a global belief in a just world scale and the exploratory analysis of the multidimensional belief in a just world scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 12(11), 1171–1178.
- Liviatan, I., & Jost, J. T. (2011). Special Issue: System Justification Theory: Motivated Social Cognition in the Service of the Status Quo. *Social Cognition*, 29(3), 231–237.
- Malhotra, N., Krosnick, J. a., & Thomas, R. K. (2009). Optimal design of branching questions to measure bipolar constructs. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 73(2), 304–324.

- Massa, S., & Testa, S. (2012). The role of ideology in brand strategy: the case of a food retail company in Italy. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 40(2), 109–127.
- Mattila, A. S. (2001). The effectiveness of service recovery in a multi-industry setting. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 15(7), 583-596.
- Mattila, A. S. (2006). The power of explanations in mitigating the ill-effects of service failures. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(7), 422-428.
- Mattila, A., Hanks, L., & Wang, C. (2014). Others service experiences: emotions, perceived justice, and behavior. *European Journal of Marketing*, 48(3/4), 552–571.
- Maze, J. (2014). Chains restaurants still grabbing market share. Retrieved from <http://www.restfinance.com/Restaurant-Finance-Across-America/May-2014/Chains-Restaurants-Still-Grabbing-Market-Share/>
- Mccoll-Kennedy, J. R., & Sparks, B. a. (2003). Application of Fairness Theory to Service Failures and Service Recovery. *Journal of Service Research*, 5(3), 251–266.
- McGinnis, L. P., & Gentry, J. W. (2009). Underdog consumption: An exploration into meanings and motives. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 191–199.
- McTigue, J. (2011, October 25). A brief history of inbound marketing. Retrieved from <http://www.kunocreative.com/blog/bid/66753/A-Brief-History-of-Inbound-Marketing>
- Merz, M. a., He, Y., & Vargo, S. L. (2009). The evolving brand logic: A service-dominant logic perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 37(3), 328–344.

- Messick, D. M., & Sentis, K. P. (1979). Fairness and preference. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 15*(4), 418–434.
- Michniewicz, K. S., & Vandello, J. A. (2013). The attractive underdog: When disadvantage bolsters attractiveness. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 30*(7), 942–952.
- Miller, D. T. (2001). Disrespect and the experience of injustice. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*(1), 527-553.
- Molinari, L. K., Abratt, R., & Dion, P. (2008). Satisfaction, quality and value and effects on repurchase and positive word-of-mouth behavioral intentions in a B2B services context. *Journal of Services Marketing, 22*(5), 363–373.
- Morrison, A., & Thomas, R. (1999). The future of small firms in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 11*(4), 148–154.
- MRC-cognition and brain science unit. (2016). *Rules of thumb on magnitudes of effect sizes*. Retrieved from <http://imaging.mrc.cbu.cam.ac.uk/statswiki/FAQ/effectSize>
- Muehling, D. (1987). Comparative advertising: The influence of attitude-toward-the-ad on brand evaluation. *Journal of Advertising, 16*(4), 43–49.
- Muehling, D. D., Stoltman, J., & Grossbart, S. (1990). The Impact of Advertising on Comparative Levels of Message Involvement. *Journal of Advertising, 19*(4), 41–50.
- Nijssen, E. J. (2011). in Advertising : An Examination of. *Journal of International Marketing, 19*(3), 113–133.
- Oh, H. (2000). The Effect of Brand Class, Brand Awareness, and Price on Customer Value and Behavioral Intentions. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 24*(2), 136–162.

- Özsomer, A. (2012). The Interplay Between Global and Local Brands: A Closer Look at Perceived Brand Globalness and Local Iconness. *Journal of International Marketing*, 20(2), 72–95.
- Paharia, N., Avery, J., & Keinan, A. (2014). Positioning Brands Against Large Competitors to Increase Sales. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 51(6), 647–656.
- Paharia, N., Keinan, A., Avery, J., & Schor, J. B. (2011). The Underdog Effect: The Marketing of Disadvantage and Determination through Brand Biography. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(5), 775–790.
- Palazzo, G., & Basu, K. (2007). The Ethical Dimension of Corporate Branding. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 73(4), 333–346.
- Pechmann, C., & Stewart, D. W. (1990). The Effects of Comparative Advertising on Attention, Memory, and Purchase Intentions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17(2), 180.
- Petty, R. E., & Briñol, P. (2012). The elaboration likelihood model. In P. A. M. van Lange, Kruglanski, A. W., & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of theories of social psychology: Volume one* (pp. 224-245). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Prasad, V. (1976). Communications-effectiveness of comparative advertising: a laboratory analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 13(2), 128–137.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879-891.
- Psychwiki.com. (2015). *System justification theory*. Retrieved from http://www.psychwiki.com/wiki/System_Justification_Theory

- Reczek, R. W., Haws, K. L., & Summers, C. a. (2014). Lucky Loyalty: The Effect of Consumer Effort on Predictions of Randomly Determined Marketing Outcomes. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 41(4), 1065–1078.
- Richardson, P. S., Dick, A. S., & Jain, A. K. (1994). Extrinsic and Intrinsic of Store Perceptions Cue Effects on Brand Quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(October), 28–36.
- Rubin, Z., & Peplau, L. A. (1975). Who Believes in a Just World? *Journal of Social Issues*, 31(3), 65–89.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human values?. *Journal of social issues*, 50(4), 19-45.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2012). An Overview of the Schwartz Theory of Basic Values An Overview of the Schwartz Theory of Basic Values. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1), 1–20.
- Seiders, K., & Berry, L. L. (1998). Service Fairness: What it is and Why it Matters. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 12(2), 8–20.
- Shepherd, S., Chartrand, T. L., & Fitzsimons, G. J. (2015). When Brands Reflect Our Ideal World: The Values and Brand Preferences of Consumers Who Support versus Reject Society’s Dominant Ideology. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 42(1), 76–92.
- Siemens, J. C., Smith, S. D., & Missouri, C. (2013). Second best: Exploring the effectiveness of underdog brand positioning. *AMA Winter Educators’ Conference Proceedings*, (Winter), 454–456.
- Smith, K. B., & Green, D. N. (1984). Individual Correlates of the Belief in a Just World. *Psychological Reports*, 54(2), 435–438.

- Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(2), 429-444.
- Spini, D. (2003). Measurement Equivalence Of 10 Value Types From The Schwartz Value Survey Across 21 Countries. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 34*(1), 3–23.
- Starbucks Corporation. (2015). Business ethics and compliance. Retrieved from <http://www.starbucks.com/about-us/company-information/business-ethics-and-compliance>
- Steenburgh, T., Avery, J., & Dahod, N. (2009). Hubspot: inbound marketing and Web 2.0. *Harvard Business School Case, 509-049*.
- Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., & de Jong, M. G. (2010). A Global Investigation into the Constellation of Consumer Attitudes Toward Global and Local Products. *Journal of Marketing, 74*(6), 18–40.
- Tanaka, K. (1999). Judgments of Fairness by Just World Believers. *Journal of Social Psychology, 139*(5), 631–638.
- Thompson, C. J., & Arsel, Z. (2004). The Starbucks Brandscape and Consumers' (Anticorporate) Experiences of Glocalization. *Journal of Consumer Research, 31*(3), 631–642.
- Thompson, D. V., & Hamilton, R. W. (2006). The Effects of Information Processing Mode on Consumers' Responses to Comparative Advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research, 32*(4), 530–540.

- Tomaka, J., & Blascovich, J. (1994). Effects of justice beliefs on cognitive appraisal of and subjective, physiological, and behavioral responses to potential stress. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67(4), 732–740.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1981). The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice. *Science*, 211(4481), 453-458.
- Tyler, T. R. & Smith, H. J. (1998). Social justice and social movements. In D. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.). *Handbook of social psychology* (vol. 4, pp. 595-629). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.
- Underdog. (n.d.). In Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online. Retrieved from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/underdog>
- van den Bos, K., & Miedema, J. (2000). Toward understanding why fairness matters: the influence of mortality salience on reactions to procedural fairness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79(3), 355–366.
- Vandello, J. a, Goldschmied, N. P., & Richards, D. a R. (2007). The appeal of the underdog. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(12), 1603–1616.
- Vitell, S., & Singhapakdi, a. (1993). Ethical Ideology and Its Influence on the Norms and Judgments of Marketing Practitioners. *Journal of Marketing Management* (10711988), 3(1), 1–11.
- White, K., MacDonnell, R., & Ellard, J. H. (2012). Belief in a Just World: Consumer Intentions and Behaviors Toward Ethical Products. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(1), 103–118.
- White, K., & Simpson, B. (2013). When Do (and Don't) Normative Consumer Behaviors? *Journal of Marketing*, 77(March), 78–95.

- Wilson, A. E., & Darke, P. R. (2012). The Optimistic Trust Effect: Use of Belief in a Just World to Cope with Decision-Generated Threat. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39(3), 615–628.
- Winit, W., Gregory, G., Cleveland, M., & Verlegh, P. (2014). Global vs local brands: how home country bias and price differences impact brand evaluations. *International Marketing Review*, 31(2), 102–128.
- Wuensch, K. L. (2015). One-way independent samples analysis of variance. Retrieved from <http://core.ecu.edu/psyc/wuenschk/docs30/anova1.pdf>
- Zhang, Y., & Khare, A. (2009). The Impact of Accessible Identities on the Evaluation of Global versus Local Products. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(3), 524–537.
- Zhou, L., Yang, Z., & Hui, M. K. (2010). Non-local or local brands? A multi-level investigation into confidence in brand origin identification and its strategic implications. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38(2), 202–218.
- Zhou, N., & Belk, R. W. (2004). Chinese Consumer Readings of Global and Local Advertising Appeals. *Journal of Advertising*, 33(3), 63–76.
- Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P., Aguiar-Quintana, T., & Suárez-Acosta, M. A. (2013). A justice framework for understanding how guests react to hotel employee (mis)treatment. *Tourism Management*, 36, 143–152.