International Journal of Wine Marketing

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Abstracts

Brand Damage Valuation: Theory and Practice
by Robert Eyler

Abstract
When wines are “corked”, as determined by distributors, retailers, or consumers, a winery’s brand image is damaged and return on winery marketing is lost. A tainted product can easily disrupt or destroy the competitive advantage gained by a winery over years of differentiation techniques through marketing and image. This problem exists for wineries worldwide. Large lawsuits have recently occurred due to problems with wineries using defective intermediate products, especially corks. While there is some debate as to corked wine’s cause, this study focuses assessing monetary damages in such a case and the breadth of financial effects on a winery. Tainted products easily disrupt or destroy competitive advantage gained by wineries over years of differentiation techniques through marketing. Augmentation of explicit and implicit costs, and reduced revenues, contribute to financial damages. This study provides insight on what damages to include in these calculations and how forensic economics views the discount rates to use and the dates defining business disruption.

Keywords: Marketing (M3), Litigation Process (K41), Winery Valuation, Product Quality

Drink Choice: Factors Influencing the Intention to Drink Wine
by Rob van Zanten

Abstract
This paper explores the reasons why consumers choose wine over other alcoholic beverages, with a focus upon the beliefs held by consumers towards the behaviour of wine drinking. The research findings show that attitudes are somewhat more predictive of the intention to drink wine than perceived social pressure. Nevertheless, both attitudinal and normative elements are required to adequately explain wine consumption. Despite the fact that the issue of health figured prominently amongst the salient beliefs identified in the qualitative phase of the research, the subsequent quantitative research found that drinking wine because of its purported health benefits was not a significant attitudinal or behavioural factor. Drinking wine because it provides ‘a variety of tastes and flavours’ and because it ‘goes well with food’ was found to be significantly more important. The results suggest that efforts to actively promote awareness of the health benefits of wine drinking may have limited value.

Key Words: Category choice decisions; health benefits; wine & food complementarity.

Initiation of Trust and Management of Risk in On-Line Retailing: UK On-Line Wine Market
by Sally Harridge-March and Sarah Quinton

Abstract
Managing potential customers’ perception of risk is essential to successful Internet wine retailing. If on-line providers can minimise risk thus instilling a level of trust, then the initiation of an on-line purchasing relationship can commence. This paper reviews the literature surrounding trust and risk and describes early findings of the elements of trust based on recent primary research. In addition, the paper develops an illustrative framework showing the links between the elements of trust and the parameters of risk for on-line wine purchasing. Finally, the paper offers recommendations to on-line wine providers to encourage trust, and these are outlined under the three discrete functions of an on-line provider: site design, marketing and the e-tailing function.

Keywords: On-line retailing, Buyer Behaviour, Trust, Risk, Wine

X-it: Gen-X and Older Wine Drinker Comparisons in New Zealand
by Art Thomas and Gary Pickering

Abstract
Some wine marketing studies make reference to the importance of Generation-X as the next wave of wine drinkers, but draw attention to a glaring fact; this next generation is consuming less wine than national averages. Whilst considerable amounts of information about Generation-X exist, few studies have addressed their underlying wine purchasing behaviours. A mock label for a red and white wine was developed and respondents were asked to indicate their probability of purchase and the price they would pay. A range of wine purchasing behaviour questions were included. A questionnaire was randomly presented in a mail survey to 1,144 New Zealand respondents drawn from a national wine mailing list (n=640) and an academic institution (n=504). No follow-up was undertaken and a 28% response rate was achieved.

Generation-X wine consumers exhibited more differences than similarities to the older age cohort, with many differences being statistically significant. Whilst Generation-X purchase wines in a similar fashion, they are mainly ‘light’ purchasers of bottled wine. Generation-X respondents showed a stronger likelihood of purchasing a never-before-seen wine and place a different emphasis on wine label information. More research on Generation-X and their behaviours as wine consumers is required.

Keywords: Generation-X, wine consumer comparisons, wine marketing, New Zealand

The History and Development of the Turkish Wine Industry
by Aysu Ozay, Ayse Akyol and M.Omer Azabagaoglu

Abstract
Large parts of Turkey enjoy the right climate for viticulture. Viticulture for table grapes is an important part of the national economy. However, compared to the worldwide wine industry the Turkish wine industry is underdeveloped. Following the worldwide trend of growth in the wine industry the Turkish wine industry has started also to flourish and gain momentum. This article proposes to study the Turkish wine sector, including its historical background, its current situation, and the problems it is facing.

Keywords: Turkey, wine culture, industry size, industry problems, grape varieties

Research Notes

2004 The South African Wine Market
Peter Garrett

Champagne Campaign
Ian Wilson
Editorial

As befits an international journal we have one contribution from the UK in this edition while the rest are from overseas. The UK article is written by Sally Harridge-March and Sarah Quinton of Oxford Brookes University and deals with the on-line marketing of wine. I am sure that we will be receiving further contributions on this subject. From the USA, Robert Eyler, of Sonoma State University, who has written for the Journal before, has contributed an interesting piece on Brand Damage Valuation. Another previous contributor, Art Thomas from the Eastern Institute of Technology in New Zealand, together with Gary Pickering of Brock University in Canada, has written for us on the next generation of New Zealand wine consumers. The University of Adelaide has one of the most famous centres of wine education in the world, from which we have published a number of articles in the past, and I am pleased that we have received another article from there, from Rob van Zanten on alcoholic beverage choice. From Turkey Aysu Ozay and his associates have contributed an article with a historical flavour on the development of the Turkish wine industry while, Peter Garrett, from Cape Town, has sent in one of his regular up-dates on the South African wine industry. Peter’s article serves as a reminder that we publish the work of practitioners as well as academics. Last but by no means least the Champagne Campaign by Ian Wilson of the Staffordshire Business School, UK. From the early 1900’s the French champagne industry has been ruthless in its political and legal battles to protect the name of champagne whether from usurpation by foreign wine producers or from makers of non-wine products (www.champagnemagic.com). In 2003 a new weapon was added to the armoury. A consumer advertising campaign incorporating five bookmark – sized teasers have posed such questions as “Washington apples from Nevada?” and “Alaska salmon from Florida?” The questions are answered in full page adverts which explain why champagne can only come from Champagne.

Michael Howley
Editor
Editorial
Drink Choice: Factors Influencing the Intention to Drink Wine

by Rob van Zanten, Grad Dip Wine, MBA. Lecturer, Wine Business Group, Waite Campus, The University of Adelaide, Discipline of Wine and Horticulture, PMB #1, Glen Osmond, South Australia 5064.

Introduction

Over the years, marketing researchers and practitioners have attempted to gain an understanding of the factors that influence consumers’ decisions to engage in purchase or consumption behaviour in order to prevent, promote or change these behaviours (Aarts et al., 1998). Central to the research of purchase and consumption behaviour is the study of attitudes, together with the beliefs that influence attitudes (Dodd and Gustafson, 1997). In the wine environment, an understanding of consumers’ attitudes and beliefs towards wine consumption will enable marketers to develop relevant and effective marketing and promotional strategies.

Wine consumption in Australia has remained static over the last twenty years at around 20 litres per capita. Over the same period of time, per capita beer consumption has declined from 120 litres to 95 litres while spirit consumption has remained relatively stable at around 1.2 litres (pure alcohol) per capita (Winetitles, 2003). Consumption statistics provide evidence of a shift amongst wine drinkers in Australia from bag-in-box (cask) to bottled wine, and from white wine to red wine. Some have attributed these changes to the greater consumer awareness of the health benefits of moderate wine consumption, particularly red wine (the so-called “French Paradox” effect) (Norrie, 2000). Others have suggested that these shifts are the result of wine’s complementarity with food (Pettigrew, 2003) or perhaps increasing consumer affluence (The Marketing Decade - Setting the Australian Wine Marketing Agenda 2000 to 2010, 2000). The aim of this current study is to investigate the reasons why consumers in fact choose wine over other alcoholic beverages, with a focus upon the beliefs held by consumers towards the behaviour of wine drinking.

The Theory of Reasoned Action

Most studies concerned with the prediction of behaviour from attitudinal and other variables are conducted within the framework of the Theory of Planned Behaviour and to a lesser extent the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, 2001). The factors that input into both theories are consistent with the expectancy-value framework which posits that an individual’s attitude towards a
given behaviour is a function of his or her beliefs about the behaviour and the evaluative aspects of those beliefs (Fishbein and Middlestadt, 1995).

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) postulates that attitudes together with subjective norms are the antecedents of behavioural intentions, which in turn precede actual behaviour. Attitudes represent the desirability of the behaviour while subjective norms represent the perceived social pressure to perform (or not to perform) the behaviour. If an individual perceives that significant others approve (or disapprove) the performance of the behaviour, he or she will be more (or less) likely to form an intention to perform it.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991) is an extension of the TRA model and includes as an additional antecedent of intention the construct of Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC). PBC is an individual’s perception that the behaviour is within his or her control. Control is viewed as a continuum with easily performed behaviours at one end (for example, brushing one’s teeth) and behaviours demanding specialised skills, opportunities and resources (for example, losing weight) at the other (Conner et al., 1999). The addition of PBC allows for better prediction of behaviours that are not under an individual’s complete volitional control. PBC has been omitted from the present study as wine consumption is considered to be a behaviour largely under volitional control (Thompson and Vourvachis, 1995).

The TRA and TPB models have been used in many domains, and these studies have largely found support for the theories (Ajzen, 2001). The Theory of Reasoned Action has a good track record in food and drink applications. Examples include table salt, snack foods and low fat milk (Shepherd, 1990); chocolate and meat (Sparks et al., 2001); starchy foods (Stubenitsky and Mela, 2000); and olive oil (Thompson et al., 1994). The TRA model also has good predictive powers in relation to alcohol consumption intentions and behaviour (O’Callaghan et al., 1997)

**Method**

The TRA model is a general theory of behaviour and as such is used to explain a broad range of individual behaviours. The model does not specify the particular beliefs that are associated with any given behaviour, this being left to the researcher to determine. (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) posit that five to nine beliefs will be the most relevant or salient for any given individual, and advise that beliefs be elicited in a free response open-ended manner. Utilising the theory is therefore a two-step process. The first step involves identifying the salient beliefs held by the target population with respect to the behaviour in question. The second step makes use of these elicited beliefs in order to construct a series of scale questions. Respondents involved in the
In the present study, 48 individuals representative of the target group (wine drinkers 18 years and over) were asked via depth interviews to respond to six questions: first, to list what they saw as the advantages or “good points” of drinking wine in the next month; second, the disadvantages or “bad points” of the same behaviour; and third to write down anything else they associated with drinking wine. Three further questions were asked with respect to perceived referents in relation to wine drinking. Respondents were asked to list people or groups who they believed would approve of them drinking wine in the next month; people or groups who would disapprove; and last, to write down any other groups or people who came to mind when they thought about drinking wine.

FIGURE 1: COMPONENTS OF THE THEORY OF REASONED ACTION

Behaviour (actual): Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of their wine drinking by selecting one of seven choices ranging from ‘never’ to ‘once a day’. In addition, demographic questions related to age, gender and education were included in the questionnaire.

Behavioural Intention (BI): assessed by one question: ‘some time in the next month I intend to drink wine’ accompanied by a 7-point scale ‘extremely likely, quite likely, slightly likely, neither, slightly unlikely, quite unlikely, and extremely unlikely’.

Attitude towards Action (Aact): assessed by three questions: ‘my drinking wine in the next month (is) (will have)….’ accompanied by 7-point scales ‘sensible’ to ‘foolish’, ‘harmful’ to ‘beneficial’ and ‘bad consequences’ to ‘good consequences’ (Chronbach’s alpha = 0.74). The mean score of the three questions was used in the statistical analysis.

Subjective Norm (SN): assessed by one 7-point scale question: ‘most people who are important to me think I should…..I should not drink wine in the next month’.

Beliefs (b): each of the five salient beliefs (e.g., ‘compared with drinking other alcoholic beverages, my drinking wine in the next month means better taste enjoyment’) was assessed by means of a 7-point scale ‘extremely likely’ to ‘extremely unlikely’.

Outcome Evaluations (oe): the outcome evaluation corresponding to each of the five salient beliefs (e.g., ‘taste enjoyment when drinking alcoholic beverages is…..’) was assessed by means of a 7-point scale ‘extremely important to me’ to ‘extremely unimportant to me’.

Normative Beliefs (NB): each of the three salient referents (e.g., ‘most members of my family think…’) was assessed by means of a 7-point scale ‘I should’ to ‘I should not drink wine in the next month’.

Motivation to Comply (MC): the motivation to comply with each of the three referents (e.g., ‘generally speaking, I want to do what my family thinks I should do’) was assessed by means of a 7-point scale ‘not at all’ to ‘very much’.

NB In accordance with the guidelines set out by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) the last measure (MC) was scored +1 to +7. All other measures (apart from actual behaviour) were scored –3 to +3.
The responses (salient beliefs) were categorised and tallied. The beliefs most often named in relation to wine drinking were, in order of importance: wine is sociable; wine goes well with food; wine is good for my health; wine has better taste enjoyment (than other alcoholic beverages); and, wine allows the experience of a variety of tastes and flavours. The salient referents named by the respondents were, in order of importance: family, friends and work colleagues.

In a similar study, Thompson and Vourvachis found the following salient beliefs amongst British wine drinkers: better taste than other alcoholic drinks; wine is only to accompany meals; wine is for special occasions; an expensive wine is a good wine; and, wine is sociable. The salient referents were family, friends and guests (Thompson and Vourvachis, 1995). A clear difference, amongst others, between the 1995 study and the present one is the latter’s inclusion of the belief related to the perceived health benefits of drinking wine.

The salient beliefs elicited by the initial phase of the research were used to construct a questionnaire comprised of a series of scale questions (see Figure 1) developed in accordance with the guidelines set out by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and administered to 204 respondents via face-to-face interviews held in two liquor stores in Adelaide, South Australia. The SPSS computer program was used to carry out correlations and multiple regression, with the data manipulated according to the procedure as set out by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980). Belief and outcome evaluation items for each salient belief were multiplied (b x oe) and the results summed. Likewise, the normative belief and motivation to comply items for each salient referent were multiplied (NB x MC) and then summed.

Findings

The demographic and wine consumption data of the survey respondents are presented in Table I. All age groups were well represented, apart from the categories over 57 years of age. Of the 204 respondents, 65% consumed wine on more than one occasion per week. Batt and Dean (2000) in their survey of 251 wine drinkers reported a similar figure of 61% who consumed wine on more than one occasion per week.

The TRA model allows the researcher to access an individual’s “global” attitude towards a given behaviour (Aact) as well as to quantitatively determine attitudes through a summation of the measures of a set of salient beliefs weighted by the corresponding evaluation of those beliefs (Óboe). The latter more indirect route provides the researcher with a deeper understanding of which beliefs influence a particular attitude (Stubenitsky and Mela, 2000). Likewise, the influence of relevant others towards the behaviour of wine consumption is measured directly by means of the Subjective Norm (SN) item, and indirectly through a summation of measures of a set of salient referents weighted by the corresponding motivation to comply
with those refersnts (ΣNBMC). The results of the correlations between these and other components in the TRA model together with the regression (beta) coefficients from the multiple regression can be seen in Figure 2.

### Table I: Percentage of Respondents by Gender, Age and Drinking Frequency, N = 204

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-33</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34-41</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42-49</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-57</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58-65</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66 and over</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking Frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once every 3 months</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a fortnight</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 6 times a week</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a day</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings show that attitudes are somewhat more predictive of the intention to drink wine than the subjective norm. The reverse was reported in study of Thompson and Vourvachis (1995), although with both studies it cannot be claimed that one component is clearly predominant over the other. Attitudes and normative influences are both required to adequately explain the intention to drink wine. Wine drinking often occurs in the company of others so it is not surprising that the subjective norm plays a role in shaping this behaviour, together with attitudes (Mitchell and Greatorex, 1988; O’Callaghan et al., 1997; Rink, 1998).

The underlying attitudinal and social beliefs

Tables II and III show the correlations between the “global” attitude measurement (Aact) and the individual belief-evaluation components for the total sample and for age and education groupings. The most important predictors of respondents’ attitudes towards wine drinking were found to be wine taste (in terms of variety and enjoyment) and the ability of wine to complement food. Taste was found to be more important for those respondents who are university educated and for those who are aged 41 years or less (‘Generation X’). More significantly, food complementarity was found to be more important for those respondents aged over 41 years (the ‘baby boomer’ generation) and for those who are university educated. The purported health benefits of wine consumption were not found to be particularly important to any age or education group.

These results are in keeping with those reported elsewhere. Several studies have shown taste to be the most important choice factor with respect to wine purchase (Batt and Dean, 2000; Dodd, 1995; Dodd and Gustafson, 1997). In terms of wine consumption, taste is seen as an important ‘trans-situational’ motive (Dubow, 1992). In a study exploring wine choice and dining occasions, Hall et al (2001) found that taste was the most important attribute across all consumption occasions, from an intimate dinner to a business related occasion. Health benefits, on the other hand, appeared on less than 7% of means-end ladders hence being a consequence of only minor importance (Hall et al., 2001a).

Tables IV and V show the correlations between the ‘global’ subjective norm measurement (SN) and the individual belief-compliance components for the total sample and for age and education groupings. Family and friends were found to be the most predictive of consumers’ overall perception of the ‘social pressure’ in relation to wine consumption. A number of studies have previously reported similar results (Chaney, 2000; Thomas, 2000; Thompson and Vourvachis, 1995) in relation to both wine purchase and wine consumption.
### Table II
Correlations (r) between Attitude and Belief-Evaluation components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total sample N = 204</th>
<th>Aged 41 or less N = 98</th>
<th>Aged over 41 N = 106</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good for my health</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.20*</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goes well with food</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.48**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of tastes/flavours</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
<td>0.39**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is sociable</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better taste enjoyment</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>0.41**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = <0.05, **p = <0.01

### Table III
Correlations (r) between Attitude and Belief-Evaluation components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total sample N = 204</th>
<th>Non-university educated N = 78</th>
<th>University educated N = 115</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good for my health</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goes well with food</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of tastes/flavours</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is sociable</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.26*</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better taste enjoyment</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>0.42**</td>
<td>0.43**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1: The totals for these columns do not equate to the total number of respondents due to 11 refusals or “other” responses.

*p = <0.05, **p = <0.01

### Table IV
Correlations (r) between Subjective Norm and NBMC components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total sample N = 204</th>
<th>Aged 41 or less N = 98</th>
<th>Aged over 41 N = 106</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.55**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workmates</td>
<td>0.26**</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p = <0.01
Table V
Correlations (r) between Subjective Norm and NBMC components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total sample N = 204</th>
<th>Non-university educated N = 78</th>
<th>University educated N = 115</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
<td>0.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
<td>0.41**</td>
<td>0.55**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workmates</td>
<td>0.26**</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.28**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1: The totals for these columns do not equate to the total number of respondents due to 11 refusals or “other” responses.

**p = <0.01

Table VI
Inter-correlations (r) between Belief-Evaluation components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Good for my health</th>
<th>Goes well with food</th>
<th>Variety of tastes</th>
<th>Is sociable</th>
<th>Better taste enjoyment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good for my health</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goes well with food</td>
<td>0.16*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of tastes/flavours</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is sociable</td>
<td>0.17*</td>
<td>0.19**</td>
<td>0.19**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better taste enjoyment</td>
<td>0.16*</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p = <0.05, **p = <0.01

Discussion and Recommendations

Marketers need to know which attributes influence attitudes and social pressure towards wine consumption, and which do not, in order to develop effective promotional and marketing strategies (Dodd and Gustafson, 1997). This present study is a replication of an earlier one conducted by Thompson and Vourvachis (1995). A comparison of the two studies highlights the changing nature of consumers’ beliefs in relation to wine drinking. The apparent health benefits of wine consumption, not mentioned in the 1995 study, figured prominently amongst the salient beliefs identified in the initial qualitative phase of the current research. The present research has shown however that the mere awareness of an attribute does not by itself necessarily lead to a conviction to consume the product.
Some three decades of research has shown that drinking small to moderate amounts of alcohol has cardiovascular benefits (Klatsky, 2003). The issue caught the attention of the drinking public in the US when in 1991 CBS 60 Minutes aired the program ‘The French Paradox’. The program reputedly resulted in a significant increase in US wine consumption, particularly red wine. (Dodd and Morse, 1994). The question is this: how long-lasting are such health-driven shifts in drinking behaviour? The evidence from this study indicates that health-mediated motivations to change wine drinking behaviour may only be ephemeral in nature. Despite a high level of awareness of the health benefits of wine consumption amongst the depth interviewees (health was the third most frequently mentioned response), the subsequent quantitative research found that drinking wine because ‘it is good for my health’ was not a significant attitudinal or behavioural factor. Drinking wine because it provides ‘better taste enjoyment’ and a ‘variety of tastes and flavours’ was found to be far more important.

Although the traditional Hierarchy of Effects model (Lavidge and Steiner, 1961) indicates that an increase in awareness of a particular attribute potentially leads to enhanced liking, preference and ultimately to an increased likelihood of product trial, the ‘distance’ in some instances from awareness to liking, or from liking to preference may be so great as to preclude consumer movement towards trial with respect to that attribute. This seems to be the case with wine health claims. Consumers appear to be well aware that wine drinking in moderation may lead to positive health outcomes. However the present research has shown that this knowledge does not significantly influence their attitudes or behaviour towards wine drinking.

The results suggest that efforts to actively promote awareness of the health benefits of wine drinking (via for example wine label messages or media communications) may have limited value, at least in the longer term. Although some recommend that ‘the facts should be made known to everyone’ (Norrie and Trroup, 2001) the pursuit of awareness in itself would seem to be a relatively futile exercise. Marketers can of course focus upon higher steps in the Hierarchy of Effects model such as the liking and preference for wine (based on its health attributes) but they then risk the ire of medical and government lobby groups and the possible introduction of countermeasures.

The inter-correlation of the five belief-evaluation components (Table VI) provides insight into what may really drive consumers’ attitudes towards wine drinking. The strongest correlation ($r = 0.52$) occurs between the elements of food complementarity and wine’s variety of tastes and flavours. This result confirms the findings of others who have remarked upon the importance to consumers of matching wine with food (Hall et al., 2001b; Pettigrew, 2003). The present research shows however that it is not just the taste of wine that drinkers find important in food and wine matching but the variety of tastes and flavours that wine has to offer.
This finding indicates that wine marketers must not shy away from promoting (for fear of somehow confusing the consumer) wine’s diverse range of styles, types and varieties. Consumer education and advice on topics such as regional taste differences, vintage variations, and which food goes with which wine, should be encouraged. The research shows however that food and wine matching advice will have particular resonance amongst those consumers who are better educated, and those consumers aged over 41 years.

Conclusion

This paper presented a number of factors that help explain why consumers choose wine over other alcoholic beverages. The research shows that attitude is a somewhat better predictor of the intention to drink wine than perceived social pressure.

Nevertheless, both attitudinal and normative elements are required to adequately explain wine consumption. Despite the fact that the issue of health figured prominently amongst the salient beliefs identified in the qualitative phase of the research, the subsequent quantitative research found that drinking wine because of its purported health benefits was not a significant attitudinal or behavioural factor. Drinking wine because it provides ‘a variety of tastes and flavours’ and because it ‘goes well with food’ were found to be significantly more important. The results suggest that efforts to actively promote awareness of the health benefits of wine drinking may have limited value, at least in the longer term.
References


