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The influence of cultural values on consumer buying behaviour: A case of the wine industry in South Africa

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A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in the field of Strategic Marketing

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ABSTRACT

As of two decades ago, the South African wine industry has been experiencing an incremental decline in exports as a result of major social and environmental changes, as well as a global oversupply of wine. In light of these negative changes, the South African wine industry is now turning some of its focus towards the domestic market. The biggest challenge is that there is insufficient information on the South African wine consumer behaviour, especially the underlying cultural values.

The purpose of this study was to review and understand the influence of cultural values (individualism/collectivism, masculine/feminine and extended/limited family) on wine consumers' buying behaviour based on the perceived influence of two extrinsic attributes (price and packaging) in South Africa. The study also briefly explored the impact of demographic variables (gender and age) on wine consumer behaviour. An online survey and pen-and-paper questionnaire were utilised to collect data from 151 wine consumers, primarily from Soweto and Sandton in Johannesburg. Data was analysed using multiple-linear regression conducted on IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 25.

The results of the study indicated that cultural values do have an influence on consumers' purchase decisions. Consumers with individual and extended family cultural values were found to associate wine quality with price and packaging perceptions when purchasing wine, while consumers with collective and limited family cultural values did not believe there was a relationship between wine quality and the two perceptions (price and packaging). However, the value of masculine/feminine was not supported. The demographic variables did not show an impact on purchasing intent.

Keywords; culture, cultural values (individualism/collectivism, masculinity/feminine and extended/limited family) consumer behaviour, price, packaging, emerging markets.

DECLARATION

I, Tafadzwa Francisco Chiswanda, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master in Management in Strategic Marketing in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Signed at ……

On the …….. day of …… 20…..

DEDICATION & ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife Pelma and my mother, for their endless love, faith, and support. Thank you for believing in me and all the encouragement.

I wish to extend my sincere gratitude to the following people that assisted me in completing this research report:

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

South Africa is considered to be in the top ten of the biggest producers of wine in the world, (Foxcroft (2009), producing 3,7% of the world's wines (Van Rooyen, Stroebel, & Esterhuizen, 2010). The biggest market of the South African wine industry since the removal of statutory controls and sanctions around the 1990s has always been the export market (Ndanga, Louw, & Van Rooyen, 2010). However, since the end of 2000s, the industry has been experiencing an incremental decline in exports as a result of major social and environmental changes in the global market that led to an increase in competition (Van Rooyen et al., 2010). According to Ndanga et al. (2010), the global oversupply of wines also had a negative influence on the South African export market. In light of these negative changes, the South African wine industry is now turning some of its focus towards the domestic market. The biggest challenge is that very little information is known about the South African wine consumer behaviour, especially the underlying South African cultural values influencing wine consumption (Weightman, Bauer, Terblanche, Valentin, & Nieuwoudt, 2019).The purpose of this study was to investigate how cultural values impact consumers' selection or purchase of wine while considering price and packaging perceptions within an emerging market, with a major focus on the South African wine market. In this opening chapter, a background for the study, research questions and an outline of the dissertation are laid out.

1.2 Background of the study

A country's culture has long been recognised as a core social attribute underlying the consistent differences in behaviour (Steenkamp, 2001), and is considered to be the personality of a country (Fam & Waller, 2003). Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) argue that although culture does not have an influence on consumer biological drives such as hunger or thirst, it does determine when and how these drives will be satisfied. It's been established that culture has an influence on consumer buying behaviour (Sarma, 2014) and failure to recognise cultural differences amongst different countries has been the major reason for international business failures (Ricks, 2009). It has also been recognised that culture is the heart of the mindset which determines consumer behaviours (Shoham, Gavish, & Segev, 2015).

The concept of culture has been accepted by social scientists and is defined by Lonner, Berry, and Hofstede (1980) as a broad collective pattern of perceptions, affects and processes that

have important repercussions for the functioning of societies and of groups within those societies and of individual members of such groups. Hawkins (2004) added that culture is a web that includes "knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, customs" and abilities and patterns attained by humans as part of a society. Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel (2001) claim that culture creates boundaries that act as rules of how individuals or groups are expected to behave in a society, and these rules are basically derived from cultural values or widely held beliefs of a society. Marketing scholars argue that of all the external influences on consumer behaviour, it is culture that exerts the biggest and most influence, and analysing the cultural values is the most imperative way to gauge the impact of culture on consumer behaviour (Patwardhan, Flora, & Gupta, 2010). Literature on cultural values mainly focused on cross-cultural differences of various nations, but neglected a deeper analysis of national cultures, especially of the emerging economies (Eaton & Louw, 2000). The espoused national cultural values of individualism/collectivism, masculinity/feminine and extended/limited family have been at the centre of analysis since the days of Hofstede (1984) and has been recently categorised by Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) under the other-oriented cultural values. The other-oriented values are said to have a major influence on the marketing field as they reflect the society's outlook on the appropriate relationships between individuals and groups in a society (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). Marcus and Le (2013) noted that the issue of individuals and groups has gained much popularity in the literature as the best way to differentiate societies and the people. Sarma (2014) had also stated that the subject of individuals and groups have been acknowledged to be a bigger force behind consumer behaviour.

Consumer behaviour is broadly accepted as a study of a process of how individuals or groups select, utilise and dispose of products and services to satisfy their needs and desires (Haider & Shakib, 2018). It has been acknowledged as a discipline that studies why customers buy or don't buy products and services (Peter, Olson, & Grunert, 1999). Nonetheless, according to Kolyesnikova, Dodd, and Duhan (2008), most research on culture and wine buying behaviour was mainly done in the western countries and a bit in the Asian countries, ignoring the African market, hence the importance of this research. Consumers in emerging markets are considered novices when it comes to wine purchases and usually considered to rely more on extrinsic cues to make purchase decisions (Orth, Lockshin, & d'Hauteville, 2007). Extrinsic cues are attributes of a product that can be altered without changing the main objective of a product, such as price and packaging (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). In contrast, the intrinsic cues are attributes that are inherent to the product, such as grape type, and cannot be altered (Veale & Quester, 2009). As there are hundreds of wine brands competing for attention in retail stores,

consumers in emerging markets are more likely to use short cuts to form their purchasing decisions, hence the extrinsic cues of price and packaging become important in the study of consumer behaviour in emerging markets (Li, Hu, & Jun, 2006). Consumers in emerging markets are considered to rely more on extrinsic cues because consumption of wine is considered a new phenomenon and there isn't much knowledge about the product (Barber & Almanza, 2007). The extrinsic cues (packaging and price) interfere with the consumers' cultural values to form buying decisions (Barber & Almanza, 2007). Considering the views of Steenkamp (2001) which point to a dearth of literature on the influence of culture on consumer behaviour in emerging markets, and the assertions by Barber & Taylor (2013) that consumer behaviour considers selecting/purchasing intentions as the predictor of a consumer purchasing behaviour, this study explored the influence of culture on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on the extrinsic cues of price and packaging in an emerging economy (South Africa).

More specific to this study, though South Africa is one of the biggest producers of wine in the world, (Foxcroft, 2009), producing 3,7% of the world's wines, its local wine market is still on infants stage in terms of wine consumption (Van Rooyen et al., 2010). Since the removal of trade sanctions on South Africa around the 1990s, the local wine industry has been predominately relying more on the international market than the local market (Ndanga et al., 2010). However, in the last decade or so , the industry has been experiencing incremental decline in wine exports (Van Rooyen et al., 2010). Global oversupply of wines also had an incremental negative influence on the South African export market, forcing the South African wine industry to turn some of its focus on exploring the probability of growing the local market (Ndanga et al., 2010). The biggest challenge is that very little information is known about the South African wine consumer behaviour, especially the underlying South African cultural values influencing wine consumption (Weightman et al., 2019). Previous research on the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour mainly focused on the west, particularly the USA, with little research done on emerging markets (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). This study intends to develop a framework of reference to assist with sales and marketing strategy recommendations for the South African wine industry in terms of the impact of cultural values on the wine market.

1.3 Problem statement

Steenkamp (2001) points to a dearth of literature on the relationship between culture and consumer buying behaviour in non-developed countries and notes that a further advancement on the impact of culture as an academic discipline demands that the theories and models be explored in other cultural societies so as to assess their levels of generalisability.

Ntibagirirwa (2009) added that cultural values in Africa have been ignored and perceived as unimportant in the business communities, and that all the strategies being utilised in Africa stem from the research done in western countries. There is dearth of research on the impact of the South African cultural values on consumer behaviour Nussbaum (2003). Hence, this study explored the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour with an inclination towards the wine market.

According to Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) there are three broad forms of cultural values that have relevance to consumer behaviour, namely other-oriented, environment-oriented and self-oriented.

- Other-oriented values mirror a society's view of the relationships between individuals and groups within one community (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). These values have a major impact on consumer buying behaviour since they determine how individuals will purchase products in relation to their relationships with other members of the society (Triandis, 2018) For example in a collective society consumers always consider other members in their purchase decisions and do not respond positively to products that promote individualism, whereas it is vice versa in the individualistic society (Marcus & Le, 2013).
- Environment-oriented values reflect the society's relationship to its economical, technological and physical environment (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). It has been realised and acknowledged that humans around the world are harming the natural environment and many other societies are beginning to be environment-oriented so as to save the world (Schultz & Zelezny, 1998). These societies would not purchase products that they consider to harm the environment, either during production or after being purchased by customers (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016).
- Self-oriented values prescribe a society whereby individuals' decisions are guided by their own needs and desires (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). Self-oriented

individuals/societies are considered to be egocentric, self-centered and self-contained (Millan & Reynolds, 2011).

Nussbaum (2003) argues that analysing the African cultural values without understanding the cultural value of Ubuntu in an African society would lead to misinformed information; Ubuntu is considered to be the underlying force of the African culture. Ubuntu, a Nguni word from South Africa upbraid about our connectedness, humanity and our responsibility to each other as humans (Lutz, 2009). The underlying value seeks to honour each individual and is concerned about the development and enhancement of mutually benefiting relationships (Nabudere, 2005) and it emphasises that a person is a person because of others (Nussbaum, 2003). However, to say that Ubuntu prescribes oneness does not mean African cultures are the same and to assume that they are the same would be a mistake as to assume that the European cultures are the same (Lutz, 2009). Lutz (2009) further states that it has been acknowledged that the Xhosa people of South Africa are more individualistic than the Zulu ethnic group, and that the English South Africans are also more individualistic than Afrikaners.

With the above understanding of Ubuntu as an underlying cultural force of the South African culture, which emphasises the relationship of individuals and others in the society. This study, therefore, found it more suitable to explore the impact of other-oriented cultural values which has the same emphasis of individual and groups, as that of the South African cultural value (Ubuntu culture). This is not to say other cultural values (environment-oriented and self-oriented) are not important in the African culture but for this study, the other-oriented values will be of major focus.

The other-oriented cultural values encompass the following values, individual/collective, youth/age, limited family/extended family, masculinity/feminine, competitive/cooperative and diversity/uniformity (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). This study focused on three main constructs of other-oriented values-individual/collective, limited family/extended family and masculine/feminine mainly because other-oriented values like youth/age, competitive/cooperative and diversity/uniformity can be conceptually and empirically incorporated into the three main constructs mentioned above (Blondel & Inoguchi, 2006). Furthermore, literature provides more insights on the three selected constructs (Marcus & Le, 2013) .

As mentioned in the background of this study, it is unfortunate that the African culture has been ignored for many years and as such there is little knowledge about the influence of African

culture (Eaton & Louw, 2000). Steenkamp (2001) stated that a further advancement on the impact of culture as an academic discipline demands that the theories and models be explored in other cultural societies so as to assess their levels of generalisability.

Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to address this gap with a conceptual framework consisting of the three main other-cultural values individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) and wine buying behaviour and its related extrinsic cues of price and packaging in South Africa.

1.3.1 *Main problem*

- To investigate the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on price and packaging perceptions.

1.3.2 *Sub-problems*

- To investigate the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on price perceptions.
- To investigate the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on packaging perceptions.

In terms of world wine production rankings, South Africa is ranked 7th in the world, in terms of wine production (Africa, 2016). However, with such a huge production base of wine, South Africa is currently not considered a wine drinking nation. Its consumption per capita is still very low for one of the largest wine producing nations in the world (Foxcroft, 2009). It has been argued that in South Africa a wine culture does not exist, that instead a beer culture prevails, contributing about 77% of alcohol consumption in 2015 (Tech, 2017). However, there is little to no research confirming the influence of culture on wine buying behaviour in emerging markets (Weightman et al., 2019).

Therefore, this study intends to contribute to the academic board on the influence of cultural values on wine buying behaviour in emerging markets. In addition, this study could assist South African wine companies that are planning on growing their domestic market and the international wine companies intending to tap onto the emerging markets.

1.4 Research Questions

Following the background shared on the problem statement, the following were the research questions of this study:

1.4.1 *Sub Problem 1: Research questions*

- What is the relationship between individual/collective cultural value and price perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine?
- What is the relationship between masculine/feminine cultural value and price perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine?
- What is the relationship between extended/limited family value and price perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine?

1.4.2 *Sub Problem 2: Research questions*

- What is the relationship between individual/collective cultural value and packaging perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine?
- What is the relationship between masculine/feminine cultural value and packaging perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine?
- What is the relationship between extended/limited family cultural value and packaging perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine?

1.5 Aims & Objectives of the Study

1.5.1 *Theoretical Objectives*

- To review literature on cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family)
- To review literature on consumer buying behaviour
- To review literature on emerging wine markets
- To review literature on price and packaging of wine

1.5.2 *Empirical Objectives*

- To investigate the influence of individual/collective value on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on price perception?
- To investigate the influence of extended/limited family value on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on price perception?

- To investigate the influence of masculine/feminine value on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on price perception?
- To investigate the influence of individual/collective value on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on packaging perception?
- To investigate the influence of extended/limited family value on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on packaging perception?
- To investigate the influence of masculine/feminine value on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on packaging perception?

1.6 Overview of the study

Cultural values are a powerful force that play an important role in consumer buying behaviour and their influence has been studied for many years (Sarma, 2014). Nonetheless, most of the research done have been contextualised to developed countries and the results of such may not be relevant to emerging economies (Steenkamp, 2001). This supports why this study explored and tried to understand the influence of cultural values on consumer behaviour in the South African context. and contribute to marketing strategies in emerging economies. The following chapter, the literature review, will explore to a great depth literature on the impact of culture, cultural values on consumer buying behaviour with an inclination on the wine markets.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Literature review refers to a deep analysis of all sources of evidence pertaining to the study in question (Sudheesh, Duggappa, & Nethra, 2016). Cronin, Ryan, and Coughlan (2008) define literature review as an objective summary and relevant analysis of the previous research done pertaining the topic. The purpose of the literature review is that it creates a solid base for advancing knowledge (Cronin et al., 2008) and clears the way for theory development (Hart, 2018). This study performed the review effectively through understanding areas of existing research (Webster & Watson, 2002).

This study used a combined academic method to summarise and critically analyse literature from various disciplines including marketing, psychology, the wine industry, and consumer behaviour (Cronin et al., 2008). This literature review is limited to articles only written in English and mainly using the key words, but not limited to the wine industry.

The literature review is built on the basis of the following framework: an understanding of consumers in emerging markets, and an exploration of the background of consumer behaviour. Thereafter, key prior research on culture and the influence of cultural values on consumer behaviour will be explored. An assessment on the influence of cultural values on wine buying behaviour and marketing strategies will be done and the gap analysis in the research context analysed. Finally, a conceptual framework of this study will be outlined, illustrating the hypotheses of this study.

2.2 Emerging Wine Markets

Arnold and Quelch (1998) mention that there is no an accepted meaning of an emerging market, but state that there are three statuses of a country's economy that would determine if a country is an emerging market i.e. economic development, pace of economic development and stability of a free-trade system. Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) contend and state that countries with low or medium development are normally considered emerging markets, while Krishnan and Jha (2011) defined emerging markets as low-income, rapid-growth countries with some characteristics of developed countries but do not meet the standards of a developed country.

Emerging countries compared to the western countries differ significantly culturally, demographically and economically (Batra, 1999) and much of what we know about consumer

behaviour has been studied in the western countries particularly the USA (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002). Steenkamp and Burgess (2002) further argue that very little research has been conducted on culture and consumer behaviour in emerging markets, while Steenkamp (2001) states that consumer research done in the USA needs to be tested and validated in the emerging nations. Failure to acknowledge the influence of culture on consumer behaviour in different markets has contributed to many business failures in emerging markets (Steenkamp, 2001).

The beginning of the 1990s saw a change in the development of the wine business and international wine markets (Orth et al., 2007). The "Old World" countries like France and Italy were overtaken in terms of wine production and wine business by the "New World" countries that included the less developed but rapidly growing countries (emerging economies) like South Africa, Brazil and Chile (Cusmano, Morrison, & Rabellotti, 2010). Consumers in emerging markets are now flooded with a variety of wines that include international and local brands and a research on what drives their choices will fill a huge gap in the body of literature (Kolyesnikova, Dodd, & Duhan, 2008). Much of the research on wine selection, just like consumer behaviour, was mainly done in western countries and less in the Asian countries (Camillo, 2012). It has also been argued that the area of wine marketing has not been noticed as the formal sector within business or marketing (Lockshin, 2003). These developments require a market-oriented research on consumers buying wine in Africa (Stoica, Cristescu, & Stancu, 2017). This study intends to fill the gap and contribute to the body of literature about the globalisation of wine markets and wine culture through an understanding of the influence of cultural values on consumers wine buying behaviour in emerging markets (Camillo, 2012).

2.3 Consumer Behaviour

Marketers are confronted with invigorating and daunting challenges as the factors that drive consumer behaviour are constantly changing (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). Consumer behaviour is now a complex ongoing process that is inconsistent in its application and marketers are forced to continuously study and manage their consumers (Hall, Binney, & Barry O'Mahony, 2004). Sevanandee and Damar-Ladkoo (2018) define a consumer as a person who buys goods for one's own use, while the definition by Kotler and Armstrong (2010) is that of an individual who develops a need and looks for a good or service to satisfy that need. To achieve the process of satisfying the need, consumers go through a decision making process which scholars study as consumer behaviour (Hawkins, 2004).

Peter et al. (1999) defines consumer behaviour as a discipline that studies why customers buy or don't buy products and services. Blackwell et al. (2001) states that consumer behaviour is the study of individuals, which relates to their purchases, consumption and how they dispose of the products, and services. Hawkins (2004) adds that it is the process of how consumers select, utilise and dispose of products and services. A more comprehensive and inclusive definition was put forward by Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) who state that consumer behaviour is the study of individuals, groups or firms and the process they go through to select, establish, utilise and dispose of products to satisfy their needs and the effect that these processes have on consumers and the society at large. Haider and Shakib (2018) state that it is imperative to study the subject of consumer behaviour as it assists companies to plan and execute excellent business and marketing strategies strategies.

2.4 Marketing Strategies and Wine Consumer Behaviour

Whenever consumers select or purchase wine in stores, it means they are seeking a certain value. Customer value is defined by Hawkins (2004) as the net valuation of benefits accrued from the total product and costs associated in acquiring those benefits. A product should be consisting of benefits that satisfy the customer (Barber, Almanza, & Donovan, 2006). Kotler and Armstrong (2010) state that the most fundamental core of a product is the benefit or the real need the consumer seeks to satisfy. Marketers, in their bid to oust compete each other and influence the consumer buying decision, come up with marketing strategies (Lappeman, Kabi, Oglesby, & Palmer, 2017). Because of the lack of academic literature on wine marketing, many companies still rely on the traditional strategies of the 4Ps of marketing - product, price, place and promotion, and their concomitant areas such as wine packaging and wine pricing, in their bid to service their markets (Lappeman et al., 2017). These variables have an impact on consumers selection of wine and their cultural values (Eaton & Louw, 2000).

- **Product**; is anything a consumer needs or might need to satisfy a need or want, and includes physical objects, services, ideas or a combination of these (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). Consumers, generally, are buying need satisfaction and not the real physical product (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016) and to be successful, companies' products must meet the needs of the target customers (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). Consumers in emerging markets are considered to be novices when it comes to wine understanding, hence wine packaging is of paramount importance as it represents branding, logos and information about the wine (Spawton, 1990). In the wine industry,

marketers tend to play around with packaging to make it appealing to the consumer culture and also provide information about the wine to ease consumers' buying decision (McClung, Freeman, & Malone, 2015). Batt and Dean (2000) mention how packaging is the most important factor in wine selection process.

- **Price**; is the amount of money a person must pay to have the right to use the product (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). Pricing a product requires a deep understanding of how the price determines the product position in the target market; the price of the product is not the same as the cost of the product to customers instead it is everything a customer is willing to surrender to enjoy the benefits of the product (Hawkins, 2004). Kotler and Armstrong (2010) state that price strategies are means of creating competitive advantage and delivering value to the target market. Price is considered the most powerful tool for marketers and has a significant influence on consumers' purchasing behaviour (Han, Gupta, & Lehmann, 2001). Established marketing theories have strongly agreed and maintained the position that consumers perceive a strong correlation between price and product quality (Hall et al., 2004). Usually, the higher the price, the higher the perceived quality by consumers (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). However, that theory does not work in all cultures as certain cultures always perceive higher prices as a rip off (Hall et al., 2004).

- **Place/Distribution**; is delivery of the desired product where target customers can easily access it. It is on very rare occasions when customers go an extra mile to find a product (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). Spawton (1990) states that the place element deals with where the wine will be distributed to, and where consumers will be able to purchase it. Wine market segmentation has always been done by wine companies thereby creating a certain image and culture about certain wines for certain markets (Kolyesnikova et al., 2008). Wine, as a product, is closely linked to many different cultures - some consume it for social interactions and others as a product during relaxation time, therefore it is important for wine marketers to know and segment their customers accordingly (Barber, Ismail, & Dodd, 2007).

- **Promotion**; It is a concept of all marketing communications that evaluates and strategically utilises a combination of communication disciplines (e.g. advertising, direct response, sales promotion and public relations) to effectively deliver a message to the intended customers (Belch, 2018). The whole idea being of achieving effective

persuasion of the customers (Belch, 2018). Key channels of communication are being employed by marketers to influence wine buying behaviour in emerging markets (Bruwer & Buller, 2012).

As stated earlier, consumer behaviour is a complex ongoing process that is inconsistent in its application (Hall et al., 2004). This is particularly noticeable in the purchase of wine where many studies have recognised a number of product and situational factors that impact on the wine selection process (Hall, Sharples, Cambourne, & Macionis, 2009). Many theoretical studies on consumer behaviour in the wine industry consider selecting/purchasing intentions as the predictor of a consumer purchasing behaviour (Barber & Taylor, 2013). The most common and broadest area of wine consumer behaviour is researched on the buying behaviour in retail stores where a consumer is facing the wine price and packaging (Orth et al., 2007). Spawton (1990) states that when considering purchasing/selecting intentions in the wine markets, pricing and product packaging are the most adopted strategies by consumers as ways of reducing perceived risk associated with purchasing wine. Thus, this study builds on Spawton (1990) and Orth et al. (2007) notions that when considering selecting/purchasing intentions in the wine markets the most important constructs are pricing and product packaging. These two constructs (price and packaging) were of the main focus in this study. However, this does not mean promotion and place are insignificant but instead might be worthwhile additions in any further investigation of emerging markets.

Consumers, in the process of purchasing , bring about different expectations and experiences hence the traditional way of one bottle fits all strategy no longer works, especially with the younger generation (Yuan, Cai, Morrison, & Linton, 2005). Buying wine, especially in emerging markets, is associated with uncertainties and expectations to its quality since wine is considered an experience product (Barber et al., 2006). Consumers looking to purchase wine are faced with a complex situation of choosing the right wine since there are a lot of brands with different prices and packaging in retail shelves (McClung et al., 2015). In retail stores, consumers are faced with enormous amounts of different types of wine with different prices and packaging which impacts on perceived risk (Spawton, 1990). Gluckman (1990) concurs that purchasing wine is clouded with uncertainties, therefore many wine purchases involve risk aversion. Spawton (1990) mentions that most of the consumers who purchase wine are high risk sensitive and their eventual purchases are governed by risk reduced strategies which involve comparison of the information on the wine packaging and pricing. Most of wine purchases in emerging markets are commonly bought together with the general groceries in

retail stores (Ritchie, 2009). Orth et al. (2007) suggest that the purchase behaviour would then be noticed depending upon the purchase for public or private occasion, whereby the highly priced wines are purchased for public consumption and lowly priced for private consumption. Therefore there is no doubt wine price and packaging plays an important role in a consumer's mind when purchasing wine on a crowded retail shelve (Barber et al., 2006).

2.4.1 *Wine Price Perception*

Research on the relationship between wine and price has a long history and continues attracting significant interest in wine literature (Oczkowski & Doucouliagos, 2015). Price is considered the most powerful tool for marketers and has a significant influence on consumers' purchasing behaviour (Han et al., 2001). According to research', price has been found to be a fundamental variable in wine consumers' purchase decision process (Barber et al., 2006). In western countries, price has been found to be an overriding criterion on wine purchase, either as an indicator of quality or as a sacrifice being made (Orth et al., 2007). Many wine producers want consumers to believe that they use a hedonic price model, which entails that the price function is a relationship between wine price and its attributes (grape quality, varietal, place of origin and skill of a wine maker) (Oczkowski & Doucouliagos, 2015). Research has also indicated that seasoned wine consumers believe in the hedonic price model because of previous experience and awareness of source and usually rate the wine price to quality, status, reputation and characteristics of the wine (Orth et al., 2007).

For the majority of consumers in emerging economies who do not have prior experience with wine, gauging the quality of wine is normally via the price indicating (PI) label - they perceive a strong correlation between price and wine quality (Hall et al., 2004). High price of wine is usually associated with high quality and high status (Lee, 2012; Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). Somogyi, Li, Johnson, Bruwer, and Bastian (2011) mention that wine in emerging economies is considered socially sophisticated and is used as a social symbol to abet one's social standing, hence high prices are always perceived as a representation of high quality. Yu, Sun, Goodman, Chen, and Ma (2009) discuss that wine in emerging markets is usually used as a gift and to save face consumers purchase expensive wine as it is considered of higher quality. The issue of risk aversion also comes into play in wine consumption in emerging markets, that is the risk of making a bad choice and, to avoid such, consumers use price when evaluating wine quality (Batt & Dean, 2000). However, most of all this research was done in western and Asian countries, ignoring Africa (Ntibagirirwa, 2009), hence the importance of this research.

2.4.2 *Wine Packaging Perception*

Wine packaging has an undeniable influence on wine purchasing decision and is often used to create an image in the minds of consumers (Orth et al., 2007). Wine packaging consists of interrelated components such as bottle shape, back and front labels, colour, brand name, logo and sometimes award stickers, and there is no question these components help create a spark in the minds of consumers (Barber & Almanza, 2007). It is argued that most consumers consider wine packaging as a direct reflection of the quality of wine (Barber et al., 2006). In support of this Batt and Dean (2000) concur that consumers rely on information on the wine label to make a purchase decision on the overcrowded retail shelves. Orth et al. (2007) mention that since packaging is the primary source of communication between companies and consumers, it is imperative that the information on the label be both attractive and informative. Wine companies are aware of these philosophies and, by all means, use packaging as a way of attracting consumers to purchase their wines (Batt & Dean, 2000).

Consumers buy with their eyes and most wine companies are aware of this, and besides using compelling labels to attract consumers they also use unusual bottle shapes, colour, and different types of closures to distinguish their wine from that of competitors (Barber & Almanza, 2007). In emerging economies, country of origin is of vital importance to consumers as it is also used as a reflection of quality (Yu et al., 2009) with the country of origin being noted on the wine label (Spawton, 1990). Consumers in emerging markets consider wine from western countries like France and Italy to be of superior quality to local wine, hence country of origin is used as a risk aversion strategy by consumers (Somogyi et al., 2011).

Hawkins (2004) states that culture interferes between the consumer decision process and marketing strategies. This supports the notion by Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) that states that successful marketing strategies require an understanding of the underlying forces of the consumer decision process. Thus, this study focused on the underlying influence of culture on consumer behaviour by understanding the relationship between cultural values and marketing strategies.

2.5 Culture

It has long been argued that culture is the heart of the brain, which informs the individual's judgement, feelings and creation of human patterns (Shoham et al., 2015). Hofstede and Bond (1988) define culture as a wide consolidated pattern of cognitions, affects and actions that contributes to the functioning of societies and of groups within those societies and of individual members of such groups. Hawkins (2004) mention that even though culture does not have an influence on the biological drives such as hunger and thirst, it does have an influence on how these drives are satisfied. In recent times, the influence of culture on consumer behaviour is seldom noticed as it does not provide specific prescription of behaviour; instead culture provides rules and boundaries of how consumers act (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). Culture has a common set of cultural values that stem from inter-related influences like education, religion, language and politics that influences the consumer's decision-making process (Belch, 2018). Hawkins (2004) is of the same opinion and states that cultural values bring about boundaries and rules that members of a society are expected to be bound by. Culture consists of elements that are mutually shared procedures, norms, values and unstated assumptions (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016).

Purchasing a bottle of wine is usually associated with expectations and uncertainty of its quality and, because of the pressure of the societal values, consumers end up purchasing wine that satisfies their need while minimising negative influences from the society (Barber et al., 2006). Some research has indicated that consumers are willing to buy expensive wines as long as they meet the standards of their cultural environment (Barber & Taylor, 2013). Some of the consumers in emerging markets are usually worried about their wine purchases because of the fear of societal rejection or embarrassment (McClung et al., 2015).

However, as mentioned in the background of this research, most of these studies on the influence of culture have been done and validated in the western countries with little focus on African nations (Ntibagirirwa, 2009). Steenkamp (2001) mentioned that a further advancement on the impact of culture as an academic discipline demands that the theories and models be explored in other cultural societies so as to assess their levels of generalisability. This study in its efforts to explore the influence of culture on wine buying behaviour in South Africa, the three prominent paths of operationalising culture were utilised: the cultural values of individual/collective, masculine/feminine and extended/limited family (Oyserman & Lee, 2008).

2.6 Cultural Values

Cultural values constitute the implicit or explicit common propositional ideas about what is good, right, and accepted in a society (Schwartz, 1999). These cultural values are the basis of the boundaries that tell people what is right or wrong in various situations (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). This is how societal institutions e.g. the family, education, economic, political and religious systems operate, their missions and their modes of operation, (Schwartz, 1999). Values depict an acceptable range of reactions to specific products, services or experience (Hawkins, 2004). Against this background, it is important to understand deeply how these values influence consumer behaviour and, without undermining other cultural values, this study concentrated on the main constructs of individual/collective, masculinity/feminine and extended/limited family which suits well with the African context and has gained a lot of research and guidance on the influence of culture on consumer buying behaviour (Marcus & Le, 2013).

2.6.1 *Individual/Collective*

Individual/collective refers to binary cultural worldviews whereby individualism is associated with loose ties amongst individuals and emphasis is on self over group, whereas collectivism is associated with norms that emphasise group over self (Marcus & Le, 2013). Individual/Collective is one of the main factors differentiating cultures and checks if a culture is individually oriented or collectively oriented (Triandis, 2018). Kacen and Lee (2002) define collectivism as a social pattern of individuals who see themselves as part of an integral group or in-groups, and define individualism as individuals who think of themselves as independent and not as part of a collective. People in a collectivism society emphasise the importance of the society over the individual, where people are intertwined into important societies that encourages accessibility, oneness, and collective over self, while, conversely, individualism refers to self-reliance with tendencies of isolating oneself from others (Marcus & Le, 2013). The value of individualism and collectivism precisely describes the distinction in different norm/values within a society, independence versus interdependence, extended versus limited family, competitive versus cooperation and individual versus group goals (Torelli, 2006). Thus, cultures with high levels of individualistic customers are more independent and demand high levels of customer service whereas in collectivism emphasis is on group satisfaction not individuals (Maiyaki, 2013).

Other scholars explicitly linked the concept of individual/collective to self-concept construal (Eaton & Louw, 2000). Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) define self-concept as the total sum of an individual's thoughts and feelings about his or herself. It is stated that consumers usually have two views about their association to others; one may have a genesis of oneself either as different from other people or as connected to others (Torelli & Aggarwal, 2011). Millan and Reynolds (2011) regard the independent self-concept as individualistic, egocentric and self-contained, whereas the interdependent self-concept is organised by what one perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the group.

Literature on Individualism/Collectivism is mainly focused on cross-cultural differences between western (USA) and Asian (Japan) nations, whereby the western nations were found to be of individualistic cultures and Asians to be collective (Eaton & Louw, 2000). Individualistic consumers seek to consume wine of higher quality and demand excellent service whereas individuals in collective society believe in harmony and also consider product/service providers as part of family and would not like to break the harmony so in turn they end up settling for enough (Donthu & Yoo, 1998). Japan is considered a collective culture while the USA is individualistic (Michaeli, Lazo, Thao Phung, Moussavi, & Steinberg, 2017). The Japanese are considered to be family oriented and when purchasing wine they consider family more than oneself, unlike in the USA whereby one considers self when purchasing wine (Michaeli et al., 2017). It's been noted that in Asia brand switching is very high, when a brand attribute to individual anatomy whereas in the western countries brand switching is very high when a brand attribute to collective anatomy (Torelli & Aggarwal, 2011). Individualistic societies have been linked to the idiocentric ideology which emphasises self-reliance, self-expressive, hedonism, uniqueness and competition and it's been noted that their choice of products should be relating to these elements (Sun, Horn, & Merritt, 2004). Conversely, collective individuals have been linked to the allocentric ideology which emphasises care for other societal members, interdependence, modesty and it's also been argued that it can be seen in their choice of products (Sun et al., 2004). It is assumed that Africa has the same culture like Asian countries but the truth is that there is no empirical evidence to prove that, instead it is based on stereotype (Eaton & Louw, 2000).

Oyserman and Lee (2008) argue that research in the field of individual/collective value left a gap in the body of academic literature since most of its research was based on cross-cultural perspectives between two countries, neglecting rigorous study on the influence of culture in one country. Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier (2002) had argued that one society may have

both individualistic and collective culture depending on the location or different situations (for example people in Soweto maybe collective but their relatives in Sandton could be individualistic). An individual can also have both cultures, for instance when consumers purchase/select a well-deserved wine for personal gratification but at the same time still purchase high status-oriented wine to show off to their society thereby indicating both individualistic and collective tendencies (Gregory & Munch, 1996). This is the main reason why this study is not comparing South Africa to other nations, instead it is an in-situ measurement of the influence of culture in South Africa. Whilst cultural values play a pivotal role on wine selection, consumers in retail stores still need to deal with prices and packaging when purchasing wine (Barber et al., 2006).

2.6.2 *Masculine/Feminine (M/F)*

Masculine/Feminine refers to the extent to which individuals or society see themselves as masculine or feminine considering what it means to be a man or a woman in a society thus other scholars referred to it as gender identity (Burke, Stets, & Pirog-Good, 1988). Masculine/Feminine are engraved and assigned roles by the society rather than the biological sex of one's self, and that means societal members determine what it means to be a man or a woman. Hofstede (2011) was more detailed in his description of this value and states that it mirrors to what extent values such as competitiveness and assertiveness are valued against compassion and empathy.

Individuals/societies with masculine traits are considered to emphasise work achievements, progression, competition, material success and high performance whereas individuals/societies with feminine traits are considered to emphasise personal drives like good working relations, modesty, friendly atmosphere and are less competitive (Srite & Karahanna, 2006). Masculine/feminine cultural value affects a person's self-concept causing the high masculine to be associated with self-ego and high status cues, which may lead to symbolic and hedonic consumer behaviour, whereas feminine relates with modest buying behaviour (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002). Bagchi et al (2004) contend that high masculinity societies purchase products to show off, whereas feminine societies purchase products mainly for their intended use They further contend that, like the collective value, when the culture is feminine, the society values human relationships and care of one another, whereas the masculine society is individualistic.

The value of masculine/feminine has also been explicitly linked to the notion of self-concept where it's been noted that self is a multi-dimensional construct and an individual could have various types of self-concept (Hawkins, 2004). For example, actual-self describes exactly how individuals perceive themselves, ideal-self is how individuals would like to be perceived by others and social-self describes how individuals think they are perceived by others (Kimmel & Tissier-Desbordes, 1999). Thus, consumers purchase products that they think resonate well with their current self-image or may elevate them to their desired ideal-self (Kimmel & Tissier-Desbordes, 1999). Consistent with the view of multi-self-concept, it is argued that an individual or society can encompass both the masculine or feminine value depending on the situation or environment (Oyserman & Lee, 2008). The construct of the multi-dimensional self is perhaps more evident in emerging markets where consumers are considered to be part of a feminine society whereas they still do their purchases concerned about saving their pride (Yu et al., 2009).

Srite and Karahanna (2006) argue that masculine/feminine is different from gender roles which are expected roles assigned to one's gender by the society; like women are expected to invest into domestic work while men are expected to invest into industrial work. However, it's been noted that gender roles, attitudes and stereotypes have an influence on masculine/feminine though there cannot be referred to the same as masculinity/feminine (Spence, 1993). Traditionally, all men were expected and considered to be masculine, while women were expected and considered to be feminine (Ourahmoune & Nyeck, 2007). Nonetheless, societies and individuals are evolving and it's been noted that identities are changing or shared, whereby there are women who are now considered to have masculine identity or both masculine and feminine, and vice versa (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016).

Many cultural researchers have suggested that certain products are perceived to be gender specific and customers with stronger feminine or masculine identities would associate with products that are of interest to that gender direction (Barber et al., 2006). Barber et al. (2006) further state that the unit size of a bottle of wine demonstrates the concept of sharing, which is a trait associated with feminine, unlike a beer bottle which demonstrates single consumption - a trait associated with masculine. Spawton (1990) had earlier stated that wine was generally perceived to be a feminine beverage than a masculine product while Saad (2005) contends that half of females prefer wine to other alcoholic beverages with only a quarter of males preferring wine. Even though wine has been perceived to have a feminine image, there is no study that empirically tested the gender identity of wine especially in emerging markets (Velikova, Dodd,

& Wilcox, 2013). Research indicates that when consumers are unsure about their selection process, wine packaging and price plays an important role in the decision making process (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007).

2.6.3 *Extended/Limited family*

The definition of family has been said that it varies widely across different cultures (Marcus & Le, 2013). The limited family is normally referred to as the nuclear or immediate family and consists of husband, wife and kids only, while the extended family is also referred to as nuclear family but together with their grandparents, aunties and uncles (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). Limited family societies tend to be more self-centred and less willing to sacrifice for their extended family members or society at large unlike the extended family societies who tend to care about all members of the family structure and all members of the society (Marcus & Le, 2013). Extended family societies prioritise keeping harmonious relationships with all members of the society and avoid loss of face with their societal members whereas limited family societies are not worried about what other extended family members think about them (Kacen & Lee, 2002). It has been argued that extended family societies consider members of their community when selecting products on the shelves, while limited family societies consider self-more than members of the community (Marcus & Le, 2013). It has long been recognised that in most emerging markets autonomy is not an option, hence individuals/families rely on their friends, extended families and their communities to cope with the risk of purchasing (Witoelar, 2013). Western countries are considered to be of limited family structures while the emerging countries are considered to be of extended family structures (Mothersbough & Hawkins, 2016). The western literature on which we rely more on our knowledge of family structures in the emerging economies has been criticised for lacking in-depth knowledge of the family structures in Africa since most of the studies were done on extended black families in the USA (Wilson, 1986). Nussbaum (2003) argues that the African culture and values are largely misunderstood in the western literature mainly because the culture is lived but not documented hence making it difficult to understand it from a distance. Marketers for long time have been trying to understand the economic decision unit within an extended family, whether it is one individual who makes a decision for the whole household unit or it is all members of the extended family that makes the decision (Altonji, Hayashi, & Kotlikoff, 1992)?

Nevertheless, literature indicates that whilst cultural values play a pivotal role on influencing consumer selection of products (wine) one cannot ignore the impact of marketing strategies on culture and consumer behaviour.

2.7 Sub problem 1: Cultural values and price perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine

2.7.1 *Individual/Collective and wine price*

The literature indicates that individuals with an individualistic orientation prefer to purchase wine that is unique and not common to everyone and such wine is associated with higher price thereby wine price is of higher importance in these societies, whereas individuals with a collective orientation prefer modest wine which is not associated with prices (Bagchi, Hart, & Peterson, 2004). Individualistic societies believe competition is the nature of life and when purchasing wines they usually compete on who knows the best wine and on rare occasions would the best wine not be associated with price, whereas collective societies are not there to outdo each other hence competition is not encouraged and consumers can just buy whatever they can afford (Yu et al., 2009). However, Hall et al. (2009) state that consumers in emerging markets tend to consume and purchase wine on social occasions such that they normally consider price and go for highly priced/expensive wines to avoid embarrassment within their social circles thereby contradicting the notion that says collective societies do not consider price when purchasing wine. Yu et al. (2009) contend that China is considered a collective society but it's been observed that the Chinese consumers prefer highly priced wines to cheaper ones. Lee (2012) also mention that both societies believe that there is a strong correlation between price and quality. This proves what Oyserman et al. (2002) had stated, that one society may have both individualistic and collective culture depending on the location or different situations. Nonetheless, most of the weight indicates that individualistic societies values price in their purchases more than the collective societies since they associate price with quality (Maiyaki, 2013).

Therefore, hypothesis 1 is offered as follows:

H1o: Individual and collective cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception.

H1a: Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and collective cultural value do not.

2.7.2 *Masculine/Feminine and wine price*

Since masculine consumers are associated with the dominance of self-ego and status cues, research has indicated that such consumers have a stronger preference of the most expensive wine ($25 and above), while in contrast the feminine individuals who are associated with being modest have a stronger preference for less expensive wine (less than $10) (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007). Bagchi et al. (2004) contend that masculine individuals purchase products for showing off while feminine individuals purchase for use. Spawton (1990) was of the same opinion when he mentioned that a higher price in wine boosts the consumers' ego and can be used as a show-off or as a sign of success in masculine societies. For feminine consumers, wine consumption was found to be more relaxing and a way to unwind hence most feminine consumers search for lowly priced wines, unlike masculine consumers who are more into premium drinking experience to show off their knowledge of wine (Barber et al., 2006). Feminine consumers are considered to be frequent wine drinkers than masculine consumers and as such they look for wine to enjoy more regularly without worrying about the price (Barber et al., 2006).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2o: Masculine and feminine cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception

H2a: Masculine cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and feminine cultural value do not.

2.7.3 *Extended/Limited family and wine price*

With regard to the symbolism of wine amongst extended family societies, wine is regarded as a socially sophisticated product which is used to aid one's social standing and as such, highly priced wine is preferred (Yu et al., 2009). Barber et al. (2007) contend and state that since wine is regarded highly amongst the extended family societies, it is also used as a gift and a highly priced wine always portrays the giver's social standing. Wine amongst extended family members is usually shared and consumers, to reduce the risk of sharing wrong wine, always use price as a sign of quality since high priced wine is considered to be of higher quality than the lowly priced (Yu et al., 2009). Conversely, the limited family societies purchase wine for self and not for groups hence wine is not considered a sophisticated product hence price does

not always matter (Barber et al., 2006). Nonetheless both societies have been found to use price as an indicator of quality when purchasing wine as a gift (Yu et al., 2009). However, consumers in developing nations have been proved to be influenced by their family members in their purchase decision mainly because it is assumed that a wrong purchase decision has a ripple financial effect on the whole family hence price is more important in such societies than in developed nations where families have the freedom of trying products without causing financial hardships for the whole family (Chandra Lal, Yambrach, & McProud, 2015).

Therefore, hypothesis 3 is offered as follows:

H3o: Extended family and limited family cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception

H3a: Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and limited family cultural value do not.

2.8 Sub problem 2: Cultural values and packaging perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine.

2.8.1 *Individual/Collective and wine packaging*

Atkin and Sutanonpaiboon (2007) indicate that wine packaging is important to both individualistic and collective societies, especially for checking country of origin. The individualistic societies are known to be aware of the best places that produce wine and the collective society believe in import wines (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007). Brand name also has an undeniable influence on both societies but for different reasons - individualistic societies prefer reputable brand names for competition sake while collective societies prefer reputable brands to save face (Barber & Almanza, 2007). Traditionally, wine was known to have a natural cork screw cap and collective societies still prefer wine packaging with such, unlike the individualistic societies (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007). Unusual bottle shapes are found to be attractive to individuals with a individualistic orientation than it is to the collective societies (Barber & Almanza, 2007). Nevertheless, individualistic societies are more inclined to consider wine packaging the most than collective individuals because there are considered to know what they are looking for on the package labels (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4o: Individual and collective cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception

H4a: Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and collective cultural value do not.

2.8.2 *Masculine/Feminine and wine packaging*

Barber et al. (2007) indicated that in a market where consumers are unsure of wine selection, feminine consumers are more apt than masculine consumers to rely on the wine label for information. While the place of origin is important to both traits, feminine consumers would still rely on the awards and medals indicated on the wine bottle than the masculine consumers (Spawton, 1990). It has also been noted that feminine consumers more than masculine consumers have a higher preference for a natural cork as a screw cap than a metal screw cap (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007). For fear of social rejection in case one purchases the wrong type of wine, feminine consumers tend to rely more on the information on the wine package than masculine consumers who are so confident and always rely on price as a sign of quality wine (Barber & Almanza, 2007).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5o: Masculine and feminine cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception

H5a: Feminine cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and masculine cultural value do not

2.8.3 *Extended/Limited family and wine packaging*

In an extended family environment, the family/group sets the tone and not individuals so when it comes to purchasing wine, a well-known brand to the family is considered first as such a brand label is of higher importance in extended family set ups (Somogyi et al., 2011). Furthermore, in limited family environments anonymity takes the lead and individuals might try new and less-known brands (Somogyi et al., 2011). The issue of high risk avoidance is also exhibited by extended family societies when selecting the right wine, as such wine packaging

without a reputable place of origin would not be purchased, in contrast to limited family societies which have resentment to conformity (Spawton, 1990). It's been noted that extended family societies always go for good looking packaging when selecting wine as it is also used as an indicator of quality wine, whereas limited family societies are unmoved by packaging styles (Batt & Dean, 2000).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6o: Extended and limited family cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception

H6a: Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and limited family cultural value do not.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework has been defined as a structure of the study that determines the natural flow of the importance of the study and outlines the current position of research and helps in informing the direction thereof (Adom, Hussein, & Agyem, 2018). A lot of literature exists proving the impact of culture on consumer buying behaviour, though only concentrating on western countries and cross-cultural societies (Steenkamp, 2001). A review of literature review indicates that there is dearth of literature on the relationship between the cultural values and wine selection process especially in emerging markets. It's also been noted that companies through their marketing strategies have an influence on culture and culture also have an influence on companies marketing strategies. As noted in the literature review there is a relationship between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour although there is little or no research on the influence of culture on consumer behaviour in Africa - this study intends to make a contribution to the board of knowledge with an emphasis on the wine industry in South Africa. Figure 1 overleaf shows the conceptual framework of the study.

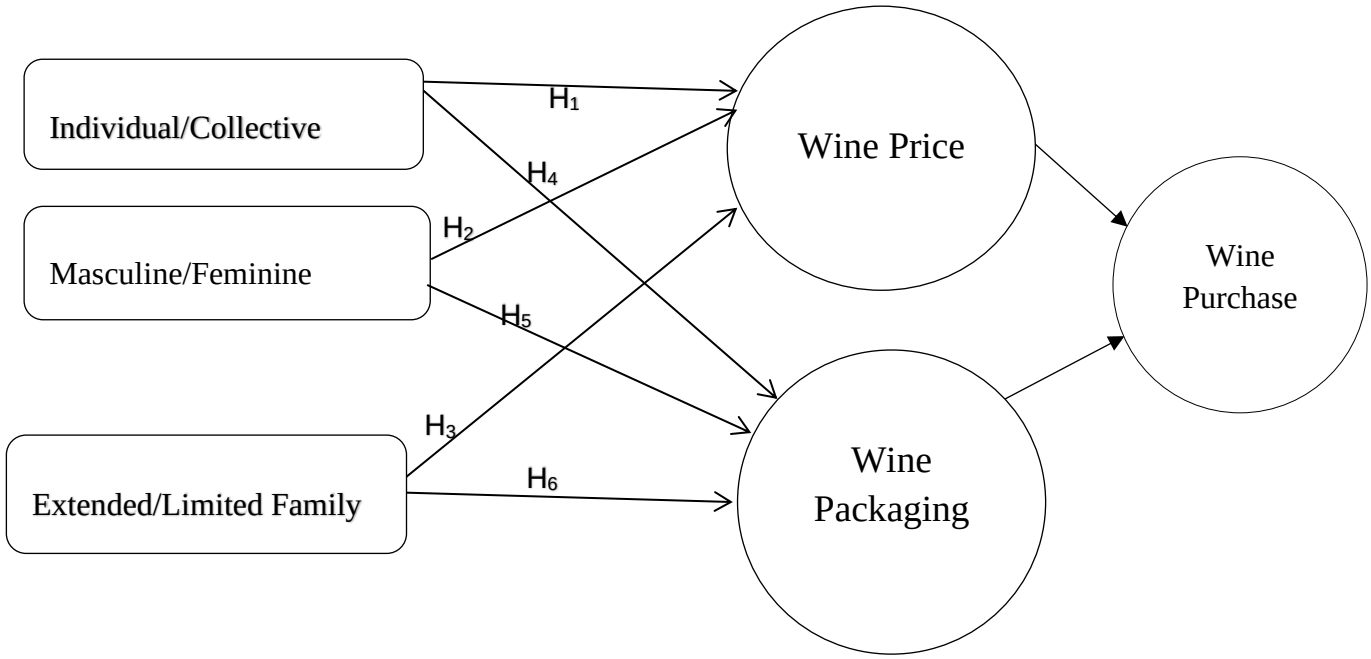


Figure 1: Conceptual framework

2.10 Summary of Hypotheses

2.11 Sub problem one: Cultural values and price perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine.

H1: *Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and collective cultural value do not.*

H2: *Masculine cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and feminine cultural value do not.*

H3: *Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and limited family cultural value do not.*

2.12 Sub problem two: Cultural values and packaging perception on consumers' decision to purchase wine.

H4: *Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and collective cultural value do not.*

H5: *Feminine cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and masculine cultural value do not.*

H6: *Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and limited family cultural value do not.*

2.13 Conclusion of the Literature Review

The influence of cultural values on consumer behaviour has been researched numerous times but there is still dearth of literature on the subject in the African context (Ntibagirirwa, 2009) and the previous results need to be validated by ascertaining their generalisability in the African context (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). The literature review has catalysed the objectives mentioned in chapter 1 since it has proved that there is little research on wine in one of the largest producing countries of wine (South Africa). Information about the impact of cultural values in emerging markets in general is still in its infancy (Eaton & Louw, 2000) and this study rigorously explored the influence of cultural values on consumer buying behaviour in South Africa with an emphasis on the wine industry. This study was grounded on the principle of linking the research literature and the current methodologies of conducting a research. The following chapter will discuss the objectives and methods of how this research was conducted.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 3.1 Introduction

Research methodology is defined as a systematic way of solving a research problem (Kothari, 2004) and it gives attention to the steps the researcher seeks took in conducting the research and the logic behind it (Babbie, 2015). It is important to spell out objectives of the methodology of each study because each research is different from the others and the logic behind it is always different (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The significance of spelling out a methodology strategy in this study was through stating a choice of methods of how to measure the influence of cultural values on consumer behaviour in an emerging market. This study did not assume that the same methods used in the western countries would apply in South Africa because already the context of the studies are different.

The specific methods of conducting a methodology strategy for this study were selected according to the objectives, research question and hypothesis of this study and there are as follows;

(1) Research Paradigm
(2) Research design
(3) Population and sampling procedure
(4) Research tools
(5) Procedure of data collection
(6) Data analysis and interpretation
(7) Validity and Reliability measures utilised

3.2 Research paradigm

Research paradigm, also known as research strategy or research approach is used to describe the researcher's worldview (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). This worldview is the perspective or set of beliefs that informs the meaning of research done by the researcher (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Bryman (2016) defines research paradigm as the telescope through which the researcher examines the methodological issues of their research to determine the research methods to be used and how the data will be analysed. The research strategy is generally divided into two distinct categories, namely qualitative and quantitative (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) though now there's a third strategy that combines the two called mixed method (Bryman, 2016). Qualitative research emphasises words over quantification and is mainly used when observing and interpreting reality with an aim to develop a hypothesis that will explain what would have been

noticed (Newman & Benz, 1998). Quantitative is different from qualitative research because the latter is a strategy that emphasises computation, collection and replication of data (Kothari, 2004). Quantitative research is mainly associated with positivism (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017) a notion that acknowledges that knowledge is objective and can thus be confirmed or disputed (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Quantitative research also emphasises quantification (Kothari, 2004) and is generally used when dealing with highly structured data collection and analysis, as is the case of this study (Bryman, 2016). A quantitative strategy was utilised in this study in order to be able to quantify and analyse data that was collected in the field in a bid to answer the research questions posed in chapter one regarding consumer buying behaviour and wine selection.

The quantitative strategy was utilised on similar studies before in emerging markets like China, Singapore and Japan (Bruwer & Buller, 2012) and this will assist on the concept of replication. The main advantage of using this strategy was the use of standardised measurements and easy analysis of data (Kothari, 2004) and this assisted with consistency of the research. This study investigated the influence of cultural values on consumer wine buying behaviour and utilised a quantitative strategy. Much of information was based on the reality of consumers and not literature (Bryman, 2016) which will provide an almost true reflection of the emerging markets. In addition, since this study aimed at testing the influence of cultural values on wine consumer behaviour, a quantitative strategy brought the benefit of being able to determine whether an association existed amongst the variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The other benefits of a quantitative method which applied to this study was being able to directly adopt pre-existing scales (replication) which assisted well with reliability and validity. The following section of research design outlines how the research was conducted.

3.3 Research Design

Research design refers to a concept that shows how the researcher went about collecting and examining the data (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The research design incorporates and considers the purpose, generalisation and causality of the research (Bryman, 2016). A cross-sectional survey design was utilised for this study, which highlights gathering of quantified data on numerous occasions at a single point in time and an analysis of data to identify patterns of associations (Bryman, 2016). This study intended to analyse the influence and association of different variables (cultural values) and (price and packaging) in a bid to understand how culture interferes with wine consumer behaviour at a single point in time on different cases. Using the adopted research designs which were once utilised by other studies

(Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995) data was collected on different scenarios but using a uniform method throughout (Bryman & Bell, 2015). This study utilised this design because of its main advantages of being able to collect unique data not available in other sources and unbiased representation of the population (Owens, 2002). This was important especially for this study in the sense that cultural values are always different and a research cannot always rely on the previous data collected in other settings. Same information was gathered from the respondents because of its capacity of being consistent, standardised and systematic technique for measuring (Bryman, 2016). A cross sectional survey design was easy to implement and administer through the use on an online survey and pen and paper questionnaire (Owens, 2002).

3.4 Target Population and Sampling

3.4.1 *Population*

The target population is the subset of the whole population whose findings are generalised (Bryman, 2016). Saunders et al. (2009) argue that identification of the population sample should be based on the focus of the research thereby reducing the chances of diverting from the aim and objectives of the research. This study focused on the Sandton area because of its characteristics of a developed nation and Soweto because of its characteristics of a developing nation. This combination brought about the meaning of an emerging market which is a developing nation with some characteristics of a developed nation (Krishnan & Jha, 2011).

The following was the target population parameters of this study:

- Age: Adults above legal drinking age of 18 years and above.
- Wine Purchase: Participants were required to be wine consumers

Although South Africans are considered not to be predominately wine drinkers (Ndanga et al., 2010) this study had to stick to its parameters of a sample of only wine drinkers. A sample size of 200 respondents was realised but due to uncompleted surveys and completion errors, only 151 were used for data analysis in this study, exceeding the rule of thumb of not less than 50 respondents for a multi linear regression analysis (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007). Surveys with more than 25% unanswered questions were considered to be invalid and identical surveys were also removed with an assumption that they pressed the submit button twice. A sample of 151 respondents was collected from within the Sandton and Soweto areas. 60% were of the black race which represents mainly the Soweto area and the highest race population in the country,

followed by 26,5% white respondents which mainly represented the Sandton area, then coloureds (7,9%) and Indians (4%) who are a minority in Johannesburg.

Unfortunately, research indicates that the field of cultural values left a gap in the body of academic literature since most of its research was based on cross-cultural perspective between two countries and neglecting rigorous study on the influence of culture in one country (Oyserman et al., 2002). Thus, this study had to create different groups in one country on the bases of a definition of an emerging market by Krishnan and Jha (2011) that states that it is a developing nation (Soweto) with some characteristics of a developed nation (Sandton).

3.4.2 *Sample and sampling method*

In any research, the best strategy would be to study the whole population under study, but in most instances it is practically impossible hence a sample has to be selected (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013). Sampling refers to the selection of individuals who meets the inclusion criteria for enrolment into the study (Sudheesh et al., 2016). A sample is a subgroup of the population that represents the bigger population (Acharya et al., 2013). In quantitative research the sampling method can either be probability or non-probability sampling (Bryman, 2016). This study utilised the non-probability sampling technique. A non-probability method is less expensive than the probability method and is the most utilised option when the probability method seem impractical or more expensive (Acharya et al., 2013). There are three types of non-probability techniques used in a quantitative research - convenience/purposive sampling; quota sampling and snowball sampling (Acharya et al., 2013). The convenience sampling technique, also known as random sampling, as well as judgmental sampling were utilised in this study whereby the respondents were selected according to their willingness and availability to be studied (Bryman & Bell, 2015). This assisted in reducing bias in the study since respondents were only participating out of their will.

This study considered the advantages of convenience sampling mentioned above and created an online survey https://forms.gle/ZCpKxfEF1KBgDVvF8 and a pen and paper questionnaire (see Appendix B) for distribution to potential respondents. In an effort to reach out to a diverse sample of respondents this study created three main groups of possible respondents namely; workmates and clients, personal friends and relatives, and social media contacts. Considering the issues of budget and time, through these groups the researcher also took advantage of snowball technique (Baltar & Brunet, 2012), whereby respondents suggested contacts of their

friends and relatives who were also wine drinkers, thereby increasing the number of respondents.

It is important to note that the wine market in South Africa is a niche market and access to the wine drinkers can be a difficult task unless one has a database of prestigious restaurants, or wine websites which are likely to be confidential and expensive to access. Hence, the non-probability technique was to the advantage of this study since it did not limit the reach and in some instances the researcher would just approach customers who would have bought wine in retail stores and ask for their willingness to participate in the research.

3.5 Research Tools

A research tool, also referred to as a research instrument, is a mechanism designed for collection of data that will be needed for analysis (Babbie, 2015). Bryman (2016) highlighted three main types of data collection using a quantitative method, namely interviewing, observation and self-completion questionnaires.

This study utilised self-completion questionnaires which gave an advantage of a bigger reach and easy distribution methods as stated by Babbie (2015). As mentioned in the research paradigm, quantitative research emphasises quantification and this study utilised a fully structured questionnaire which had an advantage of providing consistency amongst big data samples and provided responses that were easy to code and process as was also mentioned by Bryman (2016). It was also quick and easy to administer and the interviewer did not have to be present while the interviewee recorded their answers which Bryman (2016) had also indicated as an advantage of a self-administered questionnaire.

Structured questionnaires can be created in different forms that include, emails surveys, mail (postal), web-based (internet), and group administered (Babbie, 2015). This study made use of an online survey https://forms.gle/ZCpKxfEF1KBgDVvF8 and pen and paper questionnaire (see Appendix B) and the structure of these tools is discussed below.

3.5.1 *Measures*

Please refer to Appendix B and the link https://forms.gle/ZCpKxfEF1KBgDVvF8 for the whole structure of the data collection tools utilized (pen and paper questionnaire and online survey) . Below are sections briefly explaining each section of the tool.

Section 1: Screening questions

Questions 1-3 were screening questions to ensure respondents qualified to participate in the research. Respondents needed to indicate if they were above the legal drinking age of above 18 years and whether they had purchased wine before.

Section 2: Cultural Values and Beliefs

In an effort to deepen an understanding of all the respondents, all the three values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine, and extended family/limited family) were each broken into two and assessed individually in this section. The variables consisted of cultural values of individual values (IND), collective values (COL), masculine values (M), feminism value (F), extended family value (EXT) and limited family value (LIM). All the constructs investigated in this study were measured on five-point Likert scale where the value of 1 corresponded to "Strongly disagree" and the value of 5 to "Strongly agree" as was done by previous researchers (Oyserman et al., 2002; Realo, Koido, Ceulemans, & Allik, 2002; Sharma, 2010; Singelis et al., 1995; Snell, Belk, & Hawkins, 1986)

Individual value questions (IND1-IND8) were adapted from the cultural value scales of: *(Oyserman et al., 2002; Sharma, 2010; Singelis et al., 1995)*

Collective values questions (COL-COL8) were adapted from the cultural value scales of: *(Oyserman et al., 2002; Sharma, 2010; Singelis et al., 1995)*

Masculine value questions (M1-M9) were adapted from the cultural value scales: *(Prasongsukarn, 2009; Sharma, 2010; Snell et al., 1986)*

Feminine value questions (F1-F9) were adapted from the cultural value scales: *(Snell et al., 1986)*

Extended family value questions (EXT1-EXT9) were adapted from the cultural value scale: *(Realo, Allik, & Vadi, 1997; Singelis et al., 1995)*

Limited family value questions (LIM1-LIM7) were adapted from the cultural value scales: *(Realo et al., 1997; Realo et al., 2002)*

Section 3: Outcome variables (Considerations of wine attributes of Price and Packaging)

Exactly as in section 2 of the cultural values, the considerations of the wine attributes (price and packaging) were measured on a five-point Likert scale, with the value of 1 corresponding

to “Strongly disagree” and the value of 5 to “Strongly agree”. The scales (PR1-PR7) and (PAC1-PAC14) were adopted from *: (Lee, 2012; Li et al., 2006) (Barber & Almanza, 2007; Li et al., 2006) and ??*

Section 4: Demographic Variables

Finally, a descriptive profile of the respondents was captured in this section through 5 profile questions that covered, gender, marital status, educational level, monthly income and ethnicity.

3.6 Pilot research

Zikmund and Babin (2006) confirm that a questionnaire has to be pre-tested on a small group of participants similar to the group that will be eventually sampled. Regardless of whether the questionnaire is using new or existing scales, a pre-test is still imperative (Johanson & Brooks, 2010). The main purpose of a pilot research is to make sure the scales adhere to clear and appropriate language, that there are no unnecessary errors and investigate the feasibility of the study (Johanson & Brooks, 2010). As prescribed by Johanson and Brooks (2010) and other authors, this study ran a pilot study first; reliability and validity of the scales were also tested at this stage. Time required to complete the questionnaire was also calculated during the pilot phase.

The pilot study was administered to a convenient sample of 20 participants that included experts in the field of wine marketing, workmates, friends and relatives that fell within the target population. The pen and paper questionnaire were distributed to only wine drinking individuals as this was the main focus group of the research. Participants were well informed that they were part of a pilot study and were asked to share their honest opinion of the questionnaire from the instructions, wording of questions and the feel of the questionnaire. Participants were also asked to check how long it took them to complete the questionnaire.

3.6.1 *Feedback from the pilot research*

Comprehension: Overall, most of the participants found the questions to be straight forward and easy to understand. There were a few other participants who felt they were going through a psychometric test. However, considering that the research was concerned with consumer behaviour, and the need for a high reliability result, the questions were left as there were.

Length: All the participants were happy with the time it took them to complete the questionnaire. A10 minute time frame was asserted as the maximum a participant could take to complete the questionnaire.

3.6.2 *Reliability of the pilot research*

Reliability

The reliability analysis of the pilot research was conducted on IBM SPSS version 25. Reliability refers to tractability and creditability of measures used in terms of replicability and repeatability of the results and also aims at identifying the possible limitations in the structure of the measurement instrument (self-administered questionnaire) (Bryman & Bell, 2015). For the scale to be considered reliable and internally consistent in its measurement, the Cronbach Alpha should be above 0.7 (Pallant, 2013).

Table 1 below indicates that besides the masculine construct, all other constructs had a Cronbach Alpha above 0.7. One question was then noticed in the item-total correlations that if removed the Cronbach Alpha of masculine would improve and as such a few adjustments were made in the final questionnaire.

Table 1: Reliability Results of the Pilot Research

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on the standardised item	Number of items
Individual	.728	.736	8
Collective	.772	.771	8
Masculine	.525	.529	7
Feminine	.719	.753	9
Extended Family	.712	.745	9
Limited Family	.719	.729	7
Price	.802	.803	7
Packaging	.842	.841	14

Face Validity

Onwuegbuzie (2000) states that in determining validity in a quantitative study, there are four main types of validity to be considered, which are internal validity, external validity, measurement of variables and face validity. For the pilot study, only face validity was considered, which is said to be concerned with how logical the research measures appear to be

able to measure correctly, that it is supposed to measure (Bryman & Bell, 2015). As was mentioned by Zikmund and Babin (2006) face validity can be confirmed as correct, if experts of the field in question believe the variables provides adequate coverage of research: this study utilised experts of the wine industry as respondents to the pilot and they confirmed face validity of the questionnaire. The supervisor of the study also confirmed face validity of the measurement instrument.

3.7 Ethical Clearance

It has been stated that it is the responsibility of the researcher to make sure no harm befalls the respondents due to their participation in the research, either physically, emotionally, legally or financially (Greaney et al., 2012). Therefore, before the final data was collected the research proposal and questionnaire of this study were reviewed by the Wits Business School ethical committee and ethical clearance granted before the research commenced. A cover letter (see Appendix B) was included in the questionnaire explaining to the participants that participating was strictly on voluntary basis and confidential.

3.8 Data Analysis and interpretations

3.8.1 *Data processing*

After data had was collected in the field, it needed to be processed and analysed in accordance with the initial purpose of conducting the research (Kothari, 2004). Data may come with errors or missing values, and it will need to be processed first and that entails, coding, entering, cleaning and tabulation of collected data so that it can be easily analysed and interpreted (Bryman, 2016). Coding, in research, means transformation of answers provided in a questionnaire into a meaningful numerical structure (Blanche, Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). This study utilised a pen and paper self-administered questionnaire and a web survey. The data for the web survey was automatically coded by the survey software online whereas the pen and paper required to be manually coded. Again statistical computer packaging requires that information obtained in a questionnaire be entered (data entry) in certain formats so that it can be clearly analysed (Blanche et al., 2006). For the online survey, data was entered automatically and for the pen and paper it had to be done manually. To avoid errors and making the research invalid, the researcher needed to clean the data and make necessary corrections if need be (Blanche et al., 2006). Out of an initial 200 participants of this study, only 151 managed to correctly and fully complete the questionnaires.

3.8.2 *Data Analysis*

Once processing of data was done and it was now in an appropriate form, it was then ready for analysis and drawing of conclusions that showcases the interests that initiated the research in the first place (Babbie, 2015). There are a number of different methods that a researcher can utilize to analyse quantitative data, including the more basic analysis tools like variate analysis to the multi-variate analysis such as multiple-regression analysis and multiple-discriminate analysis (Kothari, 2004). Multiple-regression analysis was utilised in this study because of its main strength that was stipulated by Bryman (2016) of being able to measure the relationship between two or more variables and evaluate if there is a statistically significant relationship between the variables as presented in the proposed model. This study intended to measure the relationship of cultural values and wine attributes (price and packaging) when consumers are purchasing/selecting wine, hence the multiple-regression analysis suited this study well. Data analysis was conducted in several steps on IBM SPSS version 25.

Central tendency measure of the constructs

The main aim of the central tendency measure was to distinguish the single value that best represented the whole set of data (Wilcox & Keselman, 2003). This helped the researcher to understand the respondent's main orientation in terms of values and beliefs. All the constructs (individualism/collectivism, masculine/feminine, extended family/limited family, price and packaging) investigated in this study were measured on a five-point Likert scale where the value of 1 corresponded to "Strongly disagree" and the value of 5 to "Strongly agree". The mid-point of the five-point Likert scale was therefore 2,5. Meaning that all the mean values below 2,5 suggested that most respondents tend to disagree with the statements and the values between 2,5 and 3,5 indicate that respondents tend to neither agree nor disagree (neutral). All the mean above 3,5 reflected that most respondents tend to agree with the statements.

Multiple-linear regression

To test the hypotheses, multiple-linear regression analysis was utilised in this study. Multiple-linear regression analysis is a statistical method that seeks to understand the relationship between one independent variable and two or more dependent variables (Uyanık & Güler, 2013). The main advantage of this measurement technique is its capability to measure significantly which independent variable is more related to the dependent variable (Blanche et al., 2006). Multi-linear regression is the most used multi-variate technique in social science studies (Uyanık & Güler, 2013) and has been used in other similar researchers by the likes of Yu et al. (2009) when they surveyed wine consumers in Beijing.

Mansfield and Helms (1982) state, almost four decades ago, that the multicollinearity test should always be one of the initial steps whenever a multiple regression analysis is conducted and this study followed suit. The multicollinearity test was conducted to assess if there is a high correlation between independent variables and the advantage of conducting it as stipulated by Grewal, Cote, and Baumgartner (2004) that, it is easier to notice which variable is causing problems. Multicollinearity can be assessed by examining the Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). The value of the Tolerance should be above 0.1 and the value of VIF is expected to be below 10.

Before running Multi-linear regression analysis to test the hypotheses, a correlation test was conducted to ascertain the relationships between the constructs. A correlation test mainly measures the relationship between two variables and ascertains the significance of the relationship (Mudelsee, 2003). Because the researcher wanted to understand the significance of the study, the correlation test was conducted. However, the correlation test does not determine the predictive effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable hence the multiple-linear regression analysis had to be employed.

In this study, the multiple-linear regression test was conducted on two models. In one test the research evaluated the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on wine consumer buying behaviour while price is the outcome variable. In the other test the research evaluated the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on wine consumer buying behaviour while packaging is the outcome variable.

3.9 Validity and reliability

The most important aspect in research is to ascertain validity and reliability (Bashir, Afzal, & Azeem, 2008). Reliability and validity assist in determining trustworthiness, plausibility and acceptability of the research results (Kirk, Miller, & Miller, 1986). Validity refers to how well the research will be able to measure correctly, that which it is supposed to measure (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Reliability refers to tractability and creditability of measures used in terms of replicability and repeatability of the results (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Validity and reliability were assessed in this study in order to minimise errors and make sure the results are transferable and can be generalised in other contexts (Bashir et al., 2008). For the context of this research and considering that face validity was already conducted through the pilot study, the main

emphasis in the final study was on internal and external validity. Reliability of a measurement in a quantitative study is mainly concerned with consistency stability and replicability (Kirk et al., 1986). This study placed the measurement instrument under scrutiny based on the groundwork logic to assure reliability of the study as was prescribed by Kirk et al. (1986). The determinants of validity and reliability are further discussed below:

3.9.1 *External validity*

External validity is referred to as the ability of the research results to be generalised in other contexts and settings (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). This study utilised convenience sampling whereby respondents participated depending on their willingness and convenience, though this sampling method has a disadvantage of failing to have 100% representation of the population (Bryman, 2016). However, the population samples of this study were from two different locations i.e. a developing town (Soweto) and a developed town (Sandton) in an effort to have all samples of an emerging market be represented as was mentioned by Krishnan and Jha (2011) that an emerging market is a developing nation with some characteristics of a developed nation; and also the fact that respondents' demographics were quite different which helped to acquire a more varied sample and increases the external validity of the study.

3.9.2 *Internal validity*

Internal validity is referred to as the ability of the research results to be considered accurate after errors inherent in the research instrument have been eradicated or reduced (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). In other words, the results should be trustworthy and credible (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) further state that there are certain aspects of the research design and research methods that need to be considered in order to improve internal validity of the research results. Random selection technique, was utilised in selecting participants that represented the intended population sample in an effort to reduce bias and increase internal validity. However, since this study utilised a self-administered questionnaire which makes it difficult for the researcher to control the outcome variable (Saunders et al., 2009). The internal validity was then slightly restricted in this study.

3.9.3 *Reliability*

Reliability refers to consistency of the results over time and correct delineation of the total population under the study (Bashir et al., 2008), and if the results can be replicated using the same methodology (Kirk et al., 1986). Kirk et al. (1986) went on to identify three factors of reliability cited in quantitative research, which are stability of the research results, consistency

of the research results and similarity of the results over time. Bashir et al. (2008) states that a reliable test of behaviour should be able to test the same thing more than once and still obtain the same outcome. This study established internal consistency and reliability of measures of the study by utilising the most common method of the Cronbach Alpha as prescribed by Santos (1999). For the scale to be considered reliable and internally consistent in its measurement, the Cronbach Alpha should be above 0.7 (Pallant, 2013).

Table 2 below demonstrates that all the constructs were reliable and internally consistent in their measurement because of the Cronbach's Alpha values of above 0.7 and were consistent with the values achieved in previous research like *(Oyserman et al., 2002; Sharma, 2010; Singelis et al., 1995).*

Table 2: Reliability results of the main data

Constructs	Items	Corrected Item – Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Individualism	IND1	0,273	**0,821**	**8**
	IND2	0,506		
	IND3	0,276		
	IND4	0,635		
	IND5	0,651		
	IND6	0,600		
	IND7	0,657		
	IND8	0,686		
Collectivism	Col1	0,291	**0,775**	8
	Col2	0,560		
	Col3	0,560		
	Col4	0,512		
	Col5	0,364		
	Col6	0,490		
	Col7	0,545		
	Col8	0,474		
Masculine	M1	0,472	**0,703**	9
	M2	0,404		
	M3	0,230		
	M4	0,375		
	M5	0,510		
	M6	0,447		
	M7	0,177		
	M8	0,327		
	M9	0,479		

Constructs	Items	Corrected Item – Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Feminine	F1	0,771	**0,862**	9
	F2	0,804		
	F3	0,752		
	F4	0,419		
	F5	0,542		
	F6	0,208		
	F7	0,561		
	F8	0,586		
	F9	0,515		
Extended family	EXT1	0,565	**0,831**	9
	EXT2	0,446		
	EXT3	0,467		
	EXT4	0,482		
	EXT5	0,585		
	EXT6	0,581		
	EXT7	0,593		
	EXT8	0,573		
	EXT9	0,521		
Limited family	LIM1	0,377	**0,695**	6
	LIM2	0,456		
	LIM3	0,413		
	LIM4	0,408		
	LIM5	0,531		
	LIM6	0,306		
Price	PR1	0,455	**0,805**	7
	PR2	0,578		
	PR3	0,474		
	PR4	0,534		
	PR5	0,579		
	PR6	0,614		
	PR7	0,538		
Packaging	PAC1	0,534	**0,866**	14
	PAC2	0,616		
	PAC3	0,540		
	PAC4	0,547		
	PAC5	0,674		
	PAC6	0,520		
	PAC7	0,564		
	PAC8	0,491		
	PAC9	0,381		
	PAC10	0,532		
	PAC11	0,554		
	PAC12	0,223		
	PAC13	0,582		
	PAC14	0,560		

CHAPTER 4. PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

An all-inclusive result of the research is presented in this chapter. First, the profile of the respondents is described in terms of the demographic questions contained in the last section of the questionnaire (age, gender, marital status, level of education, employment status, monthly income and ethnic group). Then, the respondent's frequency of wine purchases is outlined. This will be followed by the hypotheses results which would go on step by step from the central tendency measure of the constructs that recognises the cultural orientation of respondents and buying behaviour. Then finally, the results relating to each hypothesis are presented, with a conclusion stating whether the hypothesis has been supported or not by the research findings.

4.2 Demographics

A representative analysis of the demographic variables of the respondents who completed the questionnaire 100% fully and correct is presented in this section.

4.2.1 *Age*

Respondents were required to be above the drinking age limit of 18, thus the age of respondents ranged from 18 and older. The results in Figure 2 below indicate that the majority of respondents who participated in the study were between the ages of 25 and 34 years (54,3%), followed by 35 to 44 (31.1%), then 44 years above (9%) and lastly 18 to 24 (5.3%). According to STATS (2018) the majority of the South African youth (18-34) resides in Gauteng, thus it is unsurprising that the majority of the study respondents fall within that age group.

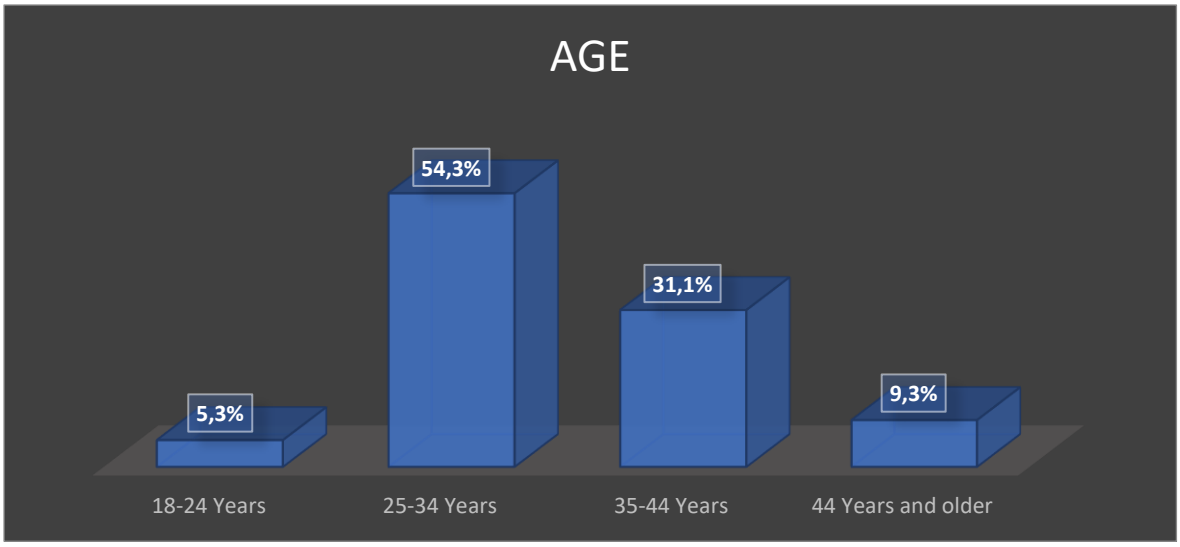


Figure 2: Age distribution of the research sample

4.2.2 *Gender*

The respondents of this study weighted more towards males (64.2%), with females consisting 35.8% of the sample population. Figure 3 below illustrates the gender distribution of the research sample.

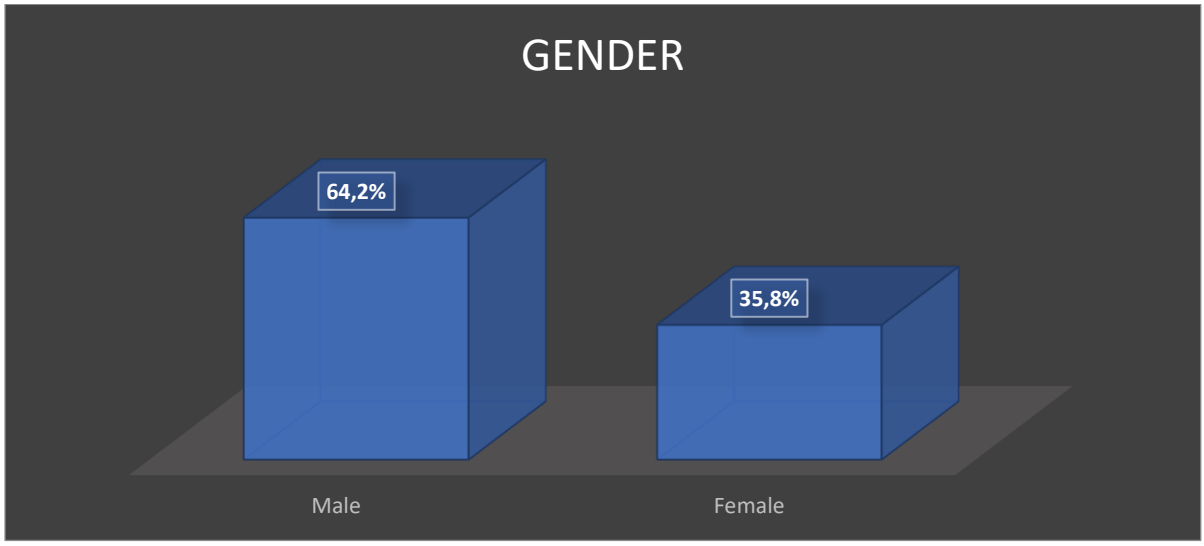


Figure 3: Gender distribution of the research sample

4.2.3 *Marital Status*

As can be seen in Figure 4 below, most respondents were either single or married, at 47,0% and 45.7% of the sample population, respectively. The reminder of the sample population was either divorced (6.6%) or widowed (0.7%).

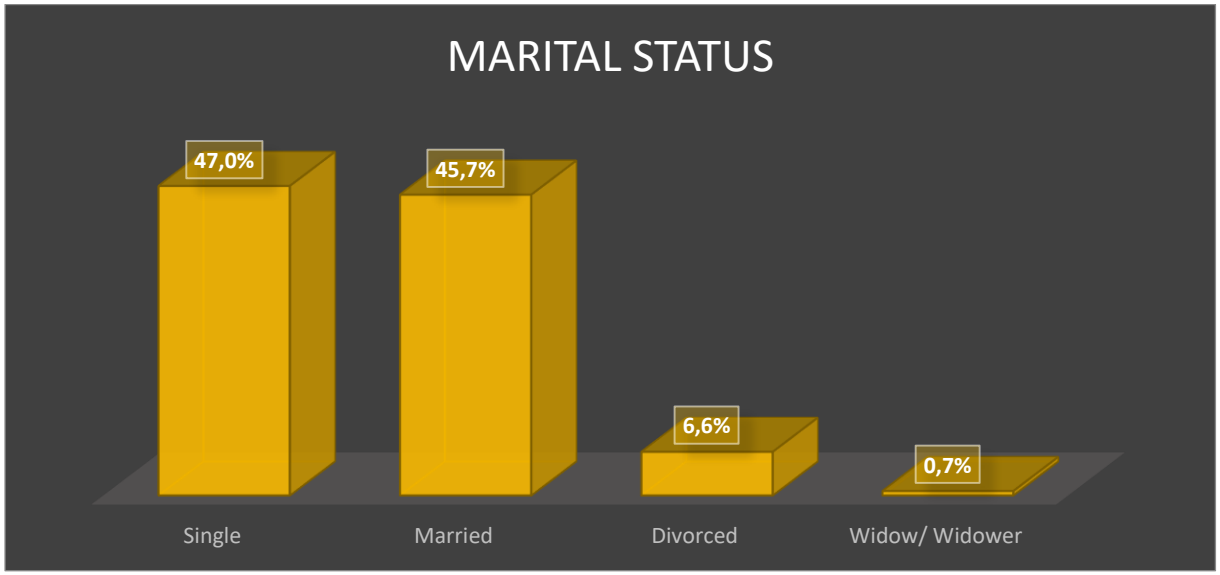


Figure 4: Marital statuses of the research sample

4.2.4 *Level of Education*

Figure 5 below indicates that the majority of respondents who contributed to the study had obtained matric (51%), with the remainder being holders of diplomas (20.1%), degrees (16.1), masters (12.1%) and the least with a doctorate or higher (0.7%).

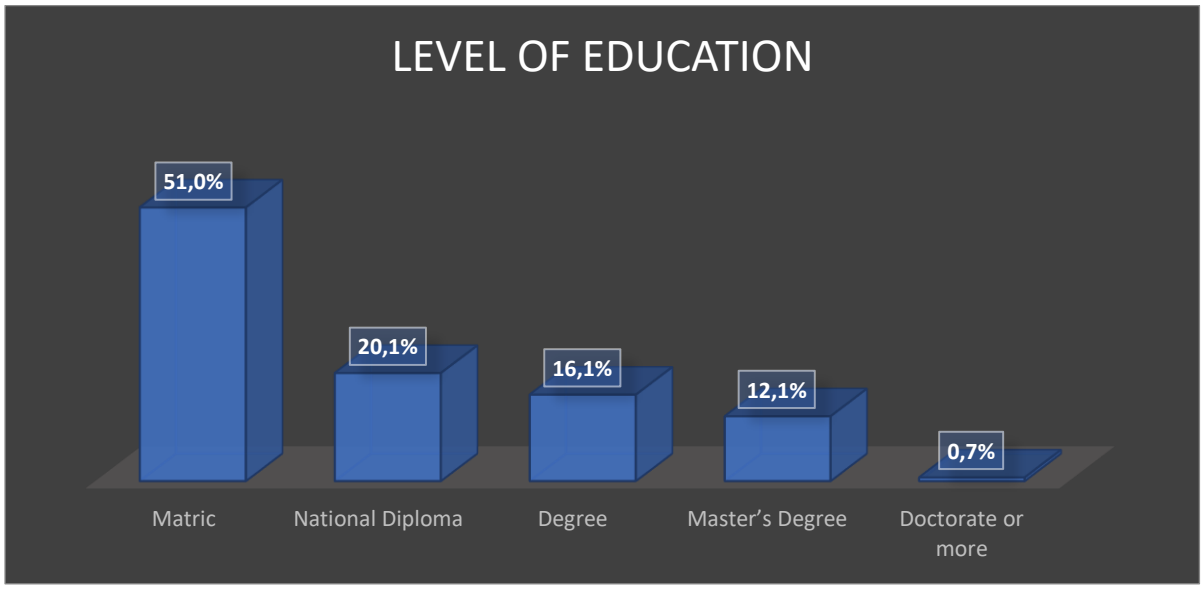


Figure 5: Educational level of the research sample

4.2.5 *Employment Status*

As indicated by figure 6 below, the majority of respondents were permanently employed (85.4%), with only 9.3% being temporarily employed. The reminder (5,3%) were students. These stats indicate that wine is still considered a luxurious sophisticated product only consumed by employed consumers as mentioned by Eaton and Louw (2000).

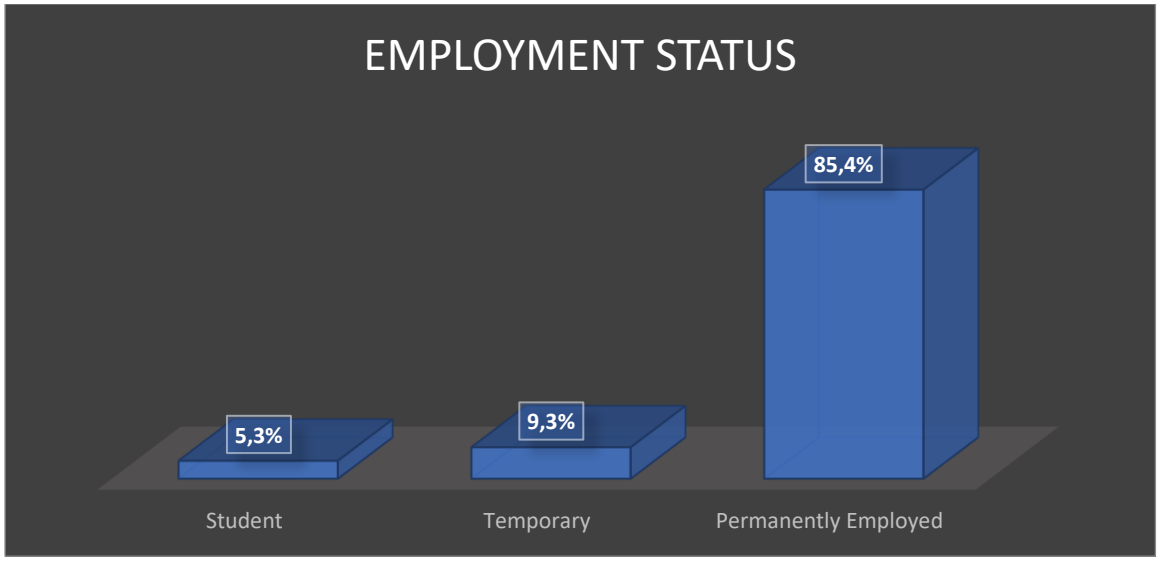


Figure 6: Employment statuses of the research sample

4.2.6 *Monthly Income*

Considering that the majority of respondents' highest educational qualification was only the matric certificate, it is not surprising that 65,7% of the population earned between 0 and R20 000. The actual break down was as follows: R10 000 per month (34,9%), R10 001 to R20 000 (30.8%), R20 001 to R30 000 (15.8%), R30 001 to R40 000 (5,5%) and 13% earned above R40 001. The monthly income groups are presented in Figure 7 below.

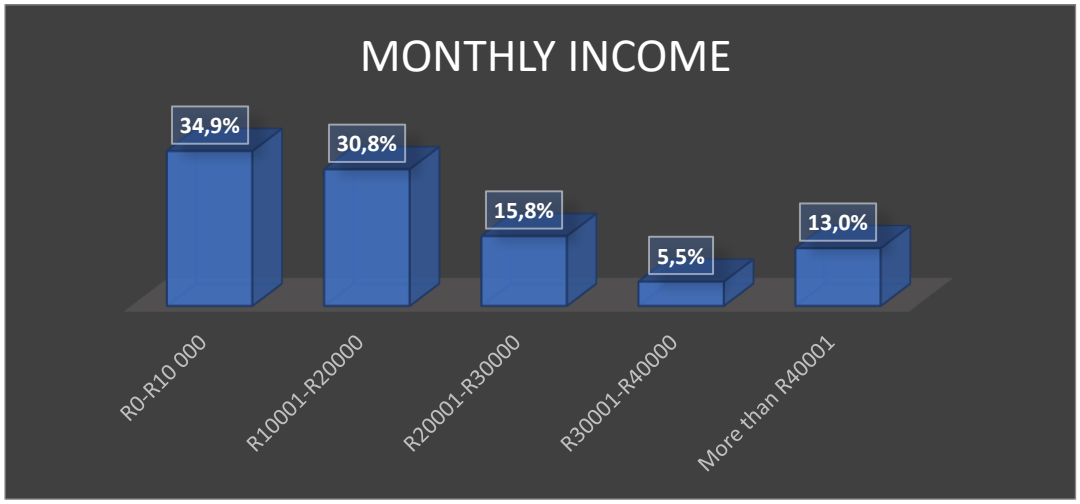


Figure 7: Monthly income distribution of the research sample

4.2.7 *Ethnic Group*

It is important to understand the ethnic distribution of the sample size considering the racial diversity of South Africa. Figure 8 below indicates that the majority of respondents (60.9%) reported their race as black, followed by white (26.5%), coloured (7.9%), Indian (4%) and other (those who decided not to specify) at 0.7%. This is almost consistent with the country's population whereby black people constitute almost 80% of the population according to STATS (2018).

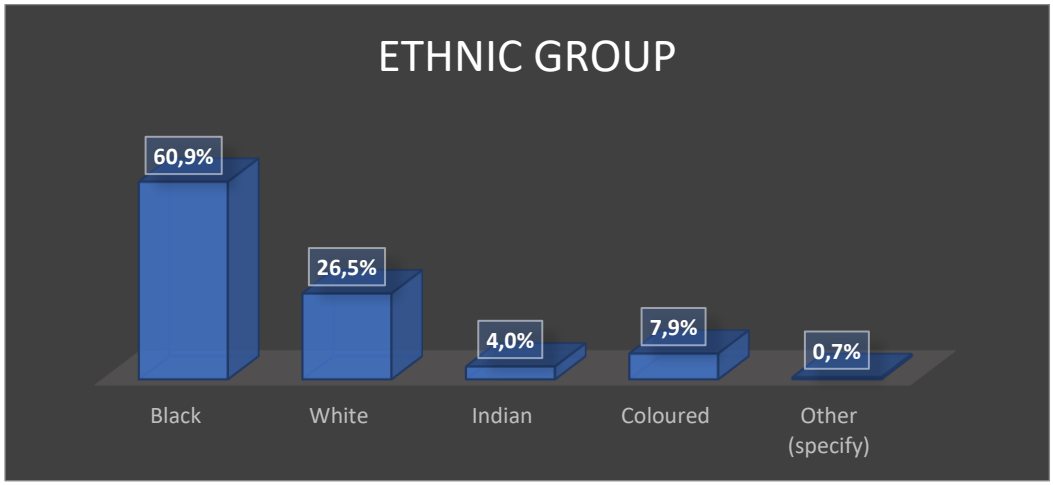


Figure 8: Ethnic distribution of the research sample

4.3 Purchase frequency

As part of the screening questions to avoid the questionnaire being completed by respondents who had never purchased wine, respondents were asked to indicate how often they purchase wine. The results demonstrate that the greatest number of respondents purchased wine occasionally (41.7%) supporting the evidence by Ndanga et al. (2010) that South Africans are predominately non-wine drinkers. The weekly purchasers followed at 23.8%, which are likely to be the ones representing the developed part of Johannesburg and predominately wine drinkers. It should be noted that those who purchased wine fortnightly and monthly were both at 14.6%, with the least frequency purchasing every three weeks at 5.3%. Figures 9 below illustrates the purchase frequency distribution.

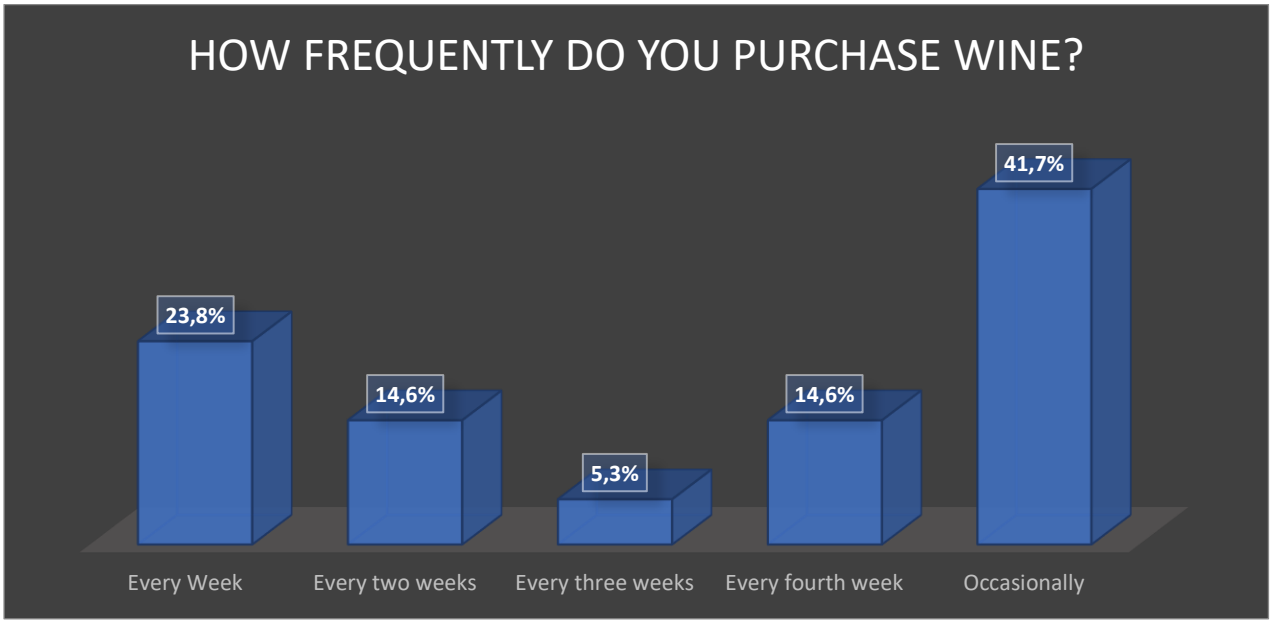


Figure 9: Purchase frequency of the research sample

4.4 Hypotheses Results

In order to extensively address the overarching research problem of this study, two sub problems and six hypotheses were comprehensively addressed. By addressing these two sub-problems and either confirm or disconfirm statistical significance the researcher was able to infer comprehensive answers. The sections which follows details the researcher's findings.

4.5 The main problem

To investigate the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on price and packaging perceptions.

Firstly, and before examining the various facets of this main research problem (which is exactly what the two sub-problems of the research have done) it was imperative to ascertain the cultural values of the South African consumers and assess how far they are influenced by the two extrinsic (price and packaging) product attributes when purchasing wine. To this end, questions relating to one's cultural values and levels of significance of the two extrinsic attributes were included in the survey. The responses to which were accumulated per respondent. Thus, all the constructs (individual/collective, masculine/feminine, eextended family/limited family, price and packaging) investigated in this study were measured on a five-point Likert scale where the value of 1 corresponded to "Strongly disagree" and the value of 5 to "Strongly agree". The mid-point of the five-point Likert scale is therefore 2,5. Meaning that all the mean values below 2,5 suggested that most respondents tend to disagree with the statements. The values between 2,5 and 3,5 indicated that respondents tend to neither agree nor disagree (neutral). All the means above 3,5 reflect that most respondents tend to agree with the statements. In the subsequent paragraphs and tables, the findings related to the cultural values and the difference in importance of the extrinsic attributes are outlined. The data set was then used as the input for the multi linier regression analysis to test the statistical significance of the responses and thereby addressing the two sub problems and hypotheses of the study. All the constructs' central tendency measures are explained in the sub-sections below:

4.5.1 *Individualism*

Following the explanation above, the overall mean (3,73) and standard deviation (0,73) stated in Table 3 below indicate that the majority of respondents agreed with being individualistic individuals. This result is inconsistent with many previous findings on cross-cultural studies that stated that individualism refers to self-reliance with tendencies of isolating oneself from others and was not a cultural value associated with emerging markets since consumers in emerging markets believed in importance of the society over the individual; where people are intertwined into important societies (Marcus & Le, 2013; Torelli & Aggarwal, 2011). However, considering that the results in Table 4 indicate that the majority of respondents also agreed with collectivism, one can then bring the issue of multi-cultural system which Oyserman et al. (2002) argued that it is possible to have individuals with both individual and collective values.

Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Individual

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Individualism	**3,73**	**0,73**
(IND1) One should live life independently of others	3,11	1,34
(IND2) I enjoy being different from others all the times	3,56	1,13
(IND3) Winning is everything	3,23	1,33
(IND4) I like my privacy	4,20	0,95
(IND5) I rely on myself most of the times	3,72	1,14
(IND6) I believe in self-love	4,11	1,04
(IND7) I often do “My own thing”	3,72	1,03
(IND8) My personal identity is very important to me	4,17	1,01

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.5.2 *Collective*

According to Table 4 overleaf, the results shown (Mean=3,72: SD=0,61), indicate that the majority of respondents tend to agree with possessing a collective cultural value. The majority were also in agreement with group success (Mean = 4.30, SD = .82). This is congruent with prior findings on cultural values of emerging nations, whereby it was noticed that consumers believed in allocentric ideology which emphasises care for other societal members, interdependence and group success (Bruwer & Buller, 2012; Michaeli et al., 2017; Nabudere, 2005).

Table 4: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Collective

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Collectivism	**3,72**	**0,61**
(COL1) I emphasize winning with others, not competition.	3,74	0,95
(COL2) I enjoy working in groups than as an individual	3,50	1,04
(COL3) I feel good when I contribute to group success.	4,30	0,82
(COL4) I find pleasure in spending time with others	4,00	0,85
(COL5) My personal needs are always second to the group's needs	3,20	1,14
(COL6) I would sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group	3,40	0,96
(COL7) I always consider other people's opinions.	3,85	0,97
(COL8) Neighbours should live as one happy big family	3,72	1,10

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.5.3 *Masculine*

The results (Mean=3,09: SD=0,59) in Table 5 overleaf indicate that the majority of respondents tend to be neutral about having a masculine cultural value. This is aligned with previous studies that mentioned that the value of masculinity is associated with ego and competition, which are values that do not resonate with emerging markets (Nussbaum, 2003; Yu et al., 2009)

Table 5: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Masculine

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Masculine	**3,09**	**0,59**
(M1) Men are generally stronger than women	2,94	1,23
(M2) I often see myself in charge of my group members	3,44	1,02
(M3) I usually talk first in a group discussion	3,02	1,00
(M4) Men are generally more ambitious than women	2,46	1,01
(M5) Men are generally physically stronger than women	3,62	1,11
(M6) Men usually solve problems with logical analysis	2,90	1,01
(M7) Women usually solve problems with intuition	2,32	1,07
(M8) Being physically strong than others is more important to me	3,67	1,00
(M9) I believe I am self sufficient	3,55	1,19

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.5.4 *Feminine*

The descriptive results (Mean=3,99: SD=0,68) of the constructed feminine value stated in Table 6 below indicate that many of the respondents tend to agree to having a feminine cultural value. This is consistent with previous findings by Lutz (2009); Ntibagirirwa (2009) who realised that most South Africans believe in one another and each is worried about the welfare of their neighbour. This is mainly supported by the value of care and kindness for others in Table 6 which has a score of Mean = 4.21, SD .85 and Mean = 4.26, SD = .82, respectively.

Table 6: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Feminine

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Feminine	**3,99**	**0,68**
(F1) I care for others	4,21	0,85
(F2) I am a kind person	4,26	0,82
(F3) I am a sympathetic person	4,06	0,85
(F4) I believe we should all be rewarded equally.	3,85	1,19
(F5) I often stop to help others pick things they had dropped	3,97	0,81
(F6) I believe I am considerate of others	4,17	1,80
(F7) I often tell others how much I value our relationship	3,79	0,94
(F8) I often hug my family members	3,99	1,03
(F9) I often call to check on my work mates	3,64	1,02

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.5.5 *Extended family*

According to the results in Table 7 overleaf (Mean=3,78: SD=0,66), most of the respondents tend to agree with the statements used to measure extended family, meaning the majority have a cultural value of extended family. This is congruent with prior studies of culture in emerging markets where it was noticed that family/group members set the tone and not individuals (Ntibagirirwa, 2009; Yu et al., 2009). Table 7 also indicates that the value of sharing is caring is valued by the majority of the respondents with a score of Mean = 4.17, SD = .86. This indicates that most of the products in emerging markets are bought to be shared.

Table 7: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Extended Family

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Extended family	**3,78**	**0,66**
(EXT1) I believe in my whole family tree	3,77	1,06
(EXT2) I would sacrifice my interests for the happiness pf other family members.	3,66	0,94
(EXT3) We should keep on staying with our ageing parents	3,43	1,15
(EXT4) I always inform family members of my major moves	3,50	1,01
(EXT5) Sharing is caring	4,17	0,86
(EXT6) I believe that Parents and children must stay togethers as much as possible	3,82	1,17
(EXT7) I would help within my means if a relative were in financial difficulty	4,11	0,84
(EXT8) I frequently visit my other family members	3,74	0,96
(EXT9) Family celebrations are the most important events in my life	3,79	1,06

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.5.6 *Limited family*

Table 8 overleaf illustrates the mean of 2,98 and standard deviation of 0,65 indicating that the majority of the respondents tend to neither disagree nor agree (are neutral) about having limited family cultural values. This is consistent with previous findings on the cultural values of South Africa (Nabudere, 2005); Nussbaum (2003) who mentioned that the limited family value was not dominant in Africa as Africans believe in living in harmony with all relatives, including the uncles and aunties.

Table 8: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Limited Family

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Limited family	**2,98**	**0,65**
(LIM1) I tend to do my own thing, and others in my family do the same	3,03	1,019
(LIM2) I prefer my own space with the people close to me	3,38	1,142
(LIM3) I am disturbed if anyone tries to intervene in my life	3,28	1,151
(LIM4) My close family decision is final	2,98	1,086
(LIM5) I don't like to represent anyone except my close family	2,71	1,116
(LIM6) To me the interests of one's family are not of the most important	2,55	0,964
(LIM7) I enjoy going out with my own close family not extended family	2,92	1,192

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.5.7 *Price*

The construct of price was used to assess if people tend to consider price when purchasing wine. According to the results in Table 9 overleaf (Mean = 3.46, SD = .79) the majority of respondents tend to neither disagree nor agree (neutral) about looking at the price when purchasing wine. Nonetheless the majority also indicated that they consider price the most when buying wine as a gift with a score of Mean = 3.71, SD = 1.164.

Table 9: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Price

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Price	**3,46**	**0,79**
(PR1) Wine price is an important factor when purchasing wine	3,75	1,115
(PR2) Wine Price is an indicator of quality	3,34	1,270
(PR3) Price is important when purchasing wine for private consumption	3,55	1,090
(PR4) Price is important when purchasing wine for social consumption	3,64	0,996
(PR5) Price is important when purchasing wine as a gift	3,71	1,164
(PR6) The higher the price the higher the quality of wine	3,23	1,283
(PR7) Wine price reflect taste status	3,04	1,238

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.5.8 *Packaging*

The other construct of assessing respondents' behaviour towards purchasing wine is packaging. The results (Mean=3,31: STD=0,70) indicated in Table 10 overleaf demonstrate that the majority of respondents tend to neither disagree nor agree (neutral) about looking at wine packaging when purchasing wine. However, it also shows that most of the respondents agreed that award and medals are an indication of quality with a score of Mean = 3.83, SD = 1.10.

Table 10: Mean and Standard Deviation Measures of Packaging

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Packaging	**3,31**	**0,70**
(PAC1) Wine packaging is an important factor when purchasing wine	3,76	1,08
(PAC2) Wine Packaging is an indicator of quality	3,23	1,24
(PAC3) Wine packaging is important for private consumption	3,23	1,17
(PAC4) Wine packaging is important when purchasing wine for social consumption	3,58	1,06
(PAC5) Country of origin is an indication of quality	3,22	1,22
(PAC6) Bottle shape is important when purchasing wine	2,87	1,20
(PAC7) Awards and medals are an indication of quality	3,83	1,10
(PAC8) Foil paper covering the cork indicate quality	2,97	1,25
(PAC9) Bottle size is important when selecting wine	3,26	1,13
(PAC10) Information on the bottle package is vital when selecting wine	3,71	1,15
(PAC11) Cork seal is an indicator of quality	3,05	1,20
(PAC12) Screw top is an indication of cheap wines	2,47	1,07
(PAC13) Brand name is important when selecting wine	3,58	1,15
(PAC14) Grape varietals are important when purchasing wine	3,65	1,12

Note: The five point-Likert scale means: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither agree nor disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

4.6 Multilinear Regression analysis

Multicollinearity test, correlation analysis, multiple-regression analysis and analysis of variance were conducted to determine the influence of cultural values on wine consumer behaviour based on wine price and packaging.

4.6.1 *Multicollinearity test*

Table 11 below represents the multicollinearity of 6 independent variables: individualism, collectivism, masculine, feminine, extended family, and limited family. The results indicate that there is no multicollinearity issue found in all presented variables because the value of Tolerance for each variable is above 0.1 and VIF is below 10.

Table 11: Multicollinearity of Independent Variables

COEFFICIENTS			
MODEL		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
	Individualism	0,528	1,894
	Collectivism	0,552	1,812
	Masculine	0,721	1,388
	Feminine	0,455	2,198
	Extended family	0,524	1,908
	Limited family	0,841	1,190
a. Dependent Variable: Price			
	Individualism	0,528	1,894
	Collectivism	0,552	1,812
	Masculine	0,721	1,388
	Feminine	0,455	2,198
	Extended family	0,524	1,908
	Limited family	0,841	1,190
a. Dependent Variable: Packaging			

4.6.2 *Correlation Analysis*

Table 12 below presents the correlation coefficients among research variables. The results indicate that all the correlations are statistically significant at the 0.01 level and there is a positive and significant correlation among research variables. However, there is a positive but non-significant relationship between limited family and collectivism ($r= 0.099$; $p>0.05$: 0.114) because of the p-value above 0.05.

Table 12: Correlation Analysis

CORRELATIONS							
Price							
	Price	**Individualism**	**Collectivism**	**Masculine**	**Feminine**	**Extended family**	**Limited family**
Individualism	0,354**						
Collectivism	0,205**	0,369**					
Masculine	0,193**	0,488**	0,346**				
Feminine	0,218**	0,495**	0,614**	0,271**			
Extended family	0,406**	0,461**	0,548**	0,233**	0,644**		
Limited family	0,149**	0,394**	0,099	0,204**	0,145**	0,149**	
Package							
	Packaging	**Individualism**	**Collectivism**	**Masculine**	**Feminine**	**Extended family**	**Limited family**
Individualism	0,417**						
Collectivism	0,231**	0,369**					
Masculine	0,263**	0,488**	0,346**				
Feminine	0,320**	0,495**	0,614**	0,271**			
Extended family	0,446**	0,461**	0,548**	0,233**	0,644**		
Limited family	0,153**	0,394**	0,099	0,204**	0,145**	0,149**	
Packaging							
***** significant at 0.01 level*** ***NB: values with ** means that the relationship is significant.***							

4.6.3 *Multiple regression model*

The multiple-linear regression test was conducted on two models to evaluate the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on price and on packaging. The results in Table 13 below show that all the models are statistically

significant, with model 1 predicting that the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on price is statistically significant (F = 6.423; R^2= 0.181; P < 0.001). The model explained up to 18.1% of the variance of price. Model 2 predicted the impacts of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) on packaging is statistically significant (F = 8.447; R^2= 0.233; P<0.001). The model explained up to 23.3% of the variance of packaging.

Table 13: Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**
1	.463[a]	0,215	0,181	0,71782
a. Predictors: (Constant), Limited family, Collectivism, Masculine, Extended family, Individualism, Feminine				
b. Dependent Variable: Price				
2	.514[a]	0,264	0,233	0,61253
a. Predictors: (Constant), Limited family, Collectivism, Masculine, Extended family, Individualism, Feminine				
b. Dependent Variable: Packaging				

ANOVA						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	19,856	6	3,309	6,423	.000[b]
	Residual	72,653	141	0,515		
	Total	92,509	147			
a. Dependent Variable: Price						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Limited family, Collectivism, Masculine, Extended family, Individualism, Feminine						
2	Regression	19,015	6	3,169	8,447	.000[b]
	Residual	52,902	141	0,375		
	Total	71,917	147			
a. Dependent Variable: Packaging						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Limited family, Collectivism, Masculine, Extended family, Individualism, Feminine						

Furthermore, a multiple regression analysis as depicted in Table 14 below was conducted to determine the significance of each predictor variable and thereby addressing the hypotheses of the study. The sections after table 14, discusses the key focus areas of the study in terms of the relationship between cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine and extended family/limited family) and extrinsic attributes (price and packaging) of wine.

Table 14: Significant effect of the predictor variables

Coefficients				
Model		**Standardised Coefficients** Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)		2,693	0,008
	Individualism	0,232	2,260	0,025
	Collectivism	-0,016	-0,162	0,872
	Masculine	0,031	0,358	0,721
	Feminine	-0,153	-1,381	0,170
	Extended family	0,396	3,844	0,000
	Limited family	0,015	0,187	0,852
a. Dependent Variable: Price				
2	(Constant)		2,525	0,013
	Individualism	0,239	2,407	0,017
	Collectivism	-0,087	-0,893	0,373
	Masculine	0,093	1,095	0,275
	Feminine	-0,004	-0,036	0,971
	Extended family	0,365	3,654	0,000
	Limited family	-0,006	-0,071	0,943
a. Dependent Variable: Packaging				

4.7 Sub-problem one results: Cultural values and price perception on consumer's decision to purchase wine

The first problem of this study was to investigate the causal relationship between cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) and wine price perception on consumer's decision to purchase wine.

<u>Hypothesis 1 results:</u> The relationship between individual/collective cultural value and wine price

H1o: *Individual and collective cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception*

H1a: *Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and collective cultural value do not.*

Correlation analysis showed that individual and collective cultural values have a positive correlation with wine price that was also significant i.e. IND (r= .354; p>0.05) and COL (r= .205; p>0.05) as indicated in Table 11.

Furthermore, multiple-regression analysis as indicated in Table 14 indicates that individual value (β= 0.232; p<0,05; t= 2.260), has a significant effect on **Price** as its P value (0.025) is lower than .05. Whilst a collective value (β= -0.016; p>0,05; t= -0.162) has an insignificant effect on price as its P value (.872) is above .05. H1, which postulated that Individual value relate with wine price when purchasing wine, but collective value do not is therefore supported by the statistical data. This result is consistent with the results of (Orth et al., 2007) when they studied the global wine business as a research field, their results indicating that price was an overriding criterion in making the purchase decision among consumers from the developed countries who were considered individualists and not among consumers from the developing nations who were considered collectivists.

<u>Hypothesis 2 results:</u> The relationship between Masculine/Feminine cultural value and wine price

H2o: *Masculine and feminine cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception*

H2a: *Masculine cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and feminine cultural value do not.*

According to the correlation analysis data in Table 11 it can be noticed that both masculine and feminine values have a positive and significant correlation with the price perception i.e. M (r= .193; p>0.05), F (r= .218; p>0.05), respectively.

However, multiple regression analysis as shown in Table 14 indicates that both masculine (β= 0.031; p>0,05; t= 0.358), and feminine (β= -0.153; p>0,05; t= -1.381) were insignificant predictors to wine price with p values above .05, M (.721) and F (.170). Therefore, hypothesis 2 which postulated that masculine individuals/societies relate wine price with wine quality when purchasing wine whereas masculine do not, is therefore not supported. The findings suggest that most likely the masculine individuals just purchase expensive wine for their ego but does not believe it is a sign of quality. This implies that societies of masculine/feminine cultural values utilise other means to rate the quality of wine, not price. This finding is inconsistent with a number of previous studies which reported a positive association between masculine and price perception (Barber et al., 2006; Charters & Pettigrew, 2007). Nonetheless, this result is consistent with other researches that explored cultural impacts in other various consumer behaviours, such as consumer perceptions, preferences and attitudes where is was discovered that the value of masculine/feminine is not associated with product attributes (Aaker, 2000; Moon, Chadee, & Tikoo, 2008)

<u>Hypothesis 3 results:</u> The relationship between extended/limited family cultural value and wine price

H3o: *Extended family and limited family cultural values do not have a relationship and wine price perception*

H3a: *Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and limited family cultural value do not.*

According to the correlation analysis data in Table 11, it can be noticed that both extended family and limited family has a positive and significant correlation with the price perception i.e. E (r= .406; p>0.05), L (r= .149; p>0.05), respectively.

Multiple-regression analysis as indicated in Table 14 indicates that societies/individuals with an extended family cultural value (β= 0.396; p<0,05; t= 3.844), have a positive and significant effect on **Price** as its P value (0.000) is lower than .05. Whilst the limited cultural value (β= -0.015; p>0,05; t= -0.187), is insignificant as its P value (.852) is greater than .05. Hypothesis H3, which posited that extended family cultural value believe there is a relationship between price and wine quality whereas the limited family cultural value do not believe there is a relationship between wine price and quality is therefore supported. This is consistent with previous studies on the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour which realised that wine amongst extended family members is usually shared and consumers, to reduce the risk of sharing wrong wine, always use price as a sign of quality, whereas the limited family societies were found to purchase wine for self and not for groups hence wine is not considered a sophisticated product and thus, the price does not always matter (Barber et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2009).

4.8 Sub-problem two results: Cultural values and packaging perception on consumer's decision to purchase wine

The second problem of this study was to investigate the causal relationship between cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine, extended/limited family) and wine packaging on consumer's decision to purchase wine.

<u>Hypothesis 4 results:</u> The relationship between individual/collective cultural value and wine packaging

H4o: *Individual and collective cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception*

H4a: *Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and collective cultural value do not.*

Correlation analysis showed that individual and collective have a positive and significant correlation with wine packaging i.e. IND (r= .417; p>0.05) and COL (r= .231; p>0.05), respectively, as indicated in Table 11.

Furthermore, Multiple-regression analysis as indicated in Table 14 indicates that societies/individuals with an individual value (β= 0.239; p<0,05; t= 2.407), has a positive and significant effect on **Price** as its P value (0.017) is lower than .05. Whilst the collective value (β= -0.087; p>0,05; t= 0.373), is insignificant with a P value (.373) above .05. Therefore, H4 which posited that individualists believe there is a relationship between wine packaging and wine quality, whilst collectivists do not believe so, was supported by the statistical data. This finding is consistent with prior research where it was concluded that individualists are worried about their image and they believe wine packaging conveys an image, whereas collectivists are more worried about the community image and not individual value hence wine package or image does not matter (Barber et al., 2007; Charters & Pettigrew, 2007; Lockshin, 2003).

Hypothesis 5 results: The relationship between Masculine/Feminine cultural value and wine packaging

H5o: *Masculine and feminine cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception*

H5a: *Feminine cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and masculine cultural value do not*

According to the correlation analysis data in Table 11 it can be noticed that both masculine and feminine have a positive and significant correlation with the packaging perception i.e. M (r= .263; p>0.05), F (r= .320; p>0.05), respectively.

However, the predictive effect of masculine/feminine cultural value to wine consumer behaviour considering wine packaging as depicted in Table 14 indicated that both Masculine (β= 0.093; p>0,05; t= 0.275), and Feminine (β= -0.004; p>0,05; t= -0.036), are insignificant with P values above .05 M (.275) M (.971). Therefore, hypothesis H5 which postulated that Feminine individuals/societies relate wine packaging with wine quality when purchasing wine whereas masculine do not, is not supported. The findings suggest that both feminine and masculine individuals do not believe wine packaging can be a sign of wine quality. This implies that societies of masculine/feminine cultural values utilise other means to rate the quality of wine but not packaging. This finding is incongruent with a number of previous studies which

reported a positive association between feminine and packaging perception and a negative association between masculine and packaging association (Barber & Almanza, 2007; Spawton, 1990).

<u>Hypothesis 6 results:</u> The relationship between extended/limited family cultural value and wine packaging

H6o: *Extended and limited family cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception*

H6a: *Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and limited family cultural value do not.*

According to the correlation analysis data in Table 11 it can be noticed that both extended family and limited family have a positive and significant correlation with the packaging perception i.e. E (r= .446; p>0.05), L (r= .153; p>0.05), respectively.

Multiple-regression analysis as results in Table 14 indicate that societies/individuals with an extended family cultural value (β= 0.365; p<0,05; t= 3.654), have a positive and significant effect on **Packaging** as its P value (0.000) is lower than 05. Whilst limited family cultural value (β= -0.006; p>0,05; t= -0.071) is insignificant as its P value (.943) is greater than .05. Therefore, H6 which posited that Extended family cultural value associate wine packaging with wine quality when purchasing wine, whereas the limited family cultural value do not is supported by the statistical data. This is consistent with previous studies on the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour, which confirmed a positive relationship between extended family value and packaging and a negative relationship between limited family value and packaging (Barber et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2009).

4.9 Summary of the results

Table 15: Summary of the Hypotheses and Results

HYPOTHESIS	RELATIONSHIP	RESULTS
H1	Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and collective cultural value do not.	Supported
H2	Masculine cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and feminine cultural value do not.	Not Supported
H3	Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and limited family value do not.	Supported
H4	Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and collective cultural value do not.	Supported
H5	Feminine cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and masculine do not.	Not supported
H6	Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and limited family cultural value do not.	Supported

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The results of the research are discussed and interpreted in this chapter. First the possible impact that the demographic profile (gender and age) of the sample had on the key variables and the hypothesised relationships in the study are deliberated (section 5.2) Then the results in relation to each hypothesis within sub-problem 1 (section5.4) and sub-problem 2 (section 5.5) are discussed in light of the literature and possible explanations are offered for any differences and similarities in reference to prior academic studies. A summary of chapter 5 is concluded in section 5.6

5.2 Demographic profile of respondents

Recent research has been emphasising that two demographic variables – gender and age have an important effect on wine consumer behaviour. For instance Barber et al. (2006) realised that slowly, females are taking over males on wine purchases worldwide and Atkin and Sutanonpaiboon (2007) stated that males are more likely to associate wine price with wine quality than their female counterparts. In terms of age, there has been a serious focus on the younger generation, which some prefer to call the millennials or Y generation. However, in countries like France, it has been noticed that the older age of 44 and above are the most consumers of wine (Orth et al., 2007). Closer to the study in South Africa, it is the younger generation below the age of 32 who are considered to be the biggest market of wine (Ndanga et al., 2010). In lite of the above, although not hypothesised in the research model, it is justified to understand the study results of this research in the context of gender and age profile of the sample, and particularly the potential impact of these variables on the findings.

5.2.1 *Gender*

Gender continues to be one of the most adopted base of segmentation as it is an easy distinguishing demographic variable (Barber et al., 2006). Male and female consumers are considered to have different perspectives on how to evaluate products and their decision making process is also considered to be different (Dlačić & Kadić-Maglajlić, 2013). Prior similar studies that explored the impact of culture on wine buying behaviour have found out that gender can have a significant predicting effect on the wine purchases depending on different cultural backgrounds (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007). Resent research indicates that in the most individualistic cultures females have overtaken males in terms of wine purchases and consumption whilst in collective cultures males are still leading in terms of wine purchases

(Barber & Taylor, 2013). In addition other studies outside the realm of wine purchases discovered gender to be a secondary variable that affected consumer purchases and cultural values (Ourahmoune & Nyeck, 2007).

This study had a higher proportion of males (64,2%) than females (35,8%) in the sample. The Independent T-test was conducted to compare the mean score of price and packaging across males and females to determine whether any significant difference existed. Table 16 and 17 below shows the score mean and standard deviation of the constructs of Price and Packaging.

Table 16: Independent T- test for price and gender

Group Statistics			
GENDER		**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Price	Male	3,38	0,83
	Female	3,61	0,70

Independent Samples Test							
	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Price	-1,699	149	**0,091**	-0,22746	0,13385	-0,49195	0,03703

The results above in Table 16 show that the score mean is almost the same for both males (Mean=3,38) and females (Mean=3,61), and the Independent Samples Test indicate that the p-value (0.091) is above 0.05. This means that there is no significant difference in the manner which men and women associates wine price to quality when purchasing wine. However, females were found to exhibit a higher need to consider price (mean = 3,61: SD = 0.70) than males (mean = 3,38: SD = 0.83).

Table 17: Independent T- test for packaging and gender

Group Statistics			
GENDER		**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Packaging	Male	3,28	0,73
	Female	3,38	0,64

Independent Samples Test							
	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Packaging	-0,872	149	**0,384**	-0,10367	0,11885	-0,33852	0,13119

The results in Table 17 above show that the score mean for packaging is almost the same for both males (Mean=3,28) and females (Mean=3,38), and the Independent Samples Test indicate that the p-value (0.384) is above 0.05. This means that there is no significant difference in the manner which men and women associates wine packaging to quality when purchasing wine. Although females were found slightly to exhibit a higher need to consider price (mean = 3,38: SD = 0.64) than males (mean = 3,28: SD = 0.73). The results of the statistical analyses for gender are explained below.

Regarding gender differences and wine purchasing decision process, considering the extrinsic attributes of wine price and packaging, this study is consistent with prior researchers like (Barber et al., 2006); Kolyesnikova et al. (2008) who found that females tend to exhibit higher levels of considering wine price and packaging when purchasing wine than males, although the difference was not that significant. The authors attributed these differences to various factors such as genetic factors and employment status of males and females in emerging markets.

In conclusion, although slight differences were noticed between the sexes in the way they associate wine price and packaging to quality in the current study, the difference is negligible. As such, gender was not found to be a significant predictor. Therefore, caution must be practiced when making inferences about the impact of males and females particularly on the outcome variables. This conclusion is consistent with the results of a previous study by Michaeli et al. (2017) that realised that when consumers are grouped according to their gender differences there is no significance differential preference in products, instead they emphasised

that it is better to segment and analyse the impact of masculine and feminine rather than the impact of gender differences. However, these results are incongruent with the findings of Atkin and Sutanonpaiboon (2007) who found that gender had significant predicting effect when consumers purchase wine, they went further and discovered that males prefer expensive and good looking bottles of wine as they associate that to quality than their female counterparts.

5.2.2 *Age*

Just as gender, age is another demographic distinguishing segmentation variable in marketing (Hall et al., 2004). Various wine products are produced to meet the needs of different age groups (Barber et al., 2006). More often than not, age also has a direct correlation with other segmentation variables like income, educational level and employment status (Barber & Taylor, 2013).

An analysis of age group differences was conducted between the introductory group of wine consumption (18-24 years), the developing stage (25-34 years), established (35-44 years) and mature wine drinkers (44+ years) as recommended by Hall et al. (2004). The majority of respondents who participated in the present study were between the ages of 25 and 34 years (54,3%) followed by 35 to 44 (31.1%) then 44 years above (9%) and lastly 18 to 24 with 5.3%. A multivariate analysis of variance was utilised to test whether the constructs developed varied significantly according to age segment. In order to investigate how the variables that made up each of the constructs varied according to age category, an analysis of variance was undertaken on both price and packaging as was done by Hall et al. (2004).

<u>Age and Price</u>

The statistical analysis in Table 18 overleaf shows that the average score of Price seem to slightly differ across all the age groups. The introductory and developing wine drinkers were found to exhibit a significantly higher need to consider price or associate it with quality (averaging Mean = 3,50, SD = .68) than the established and mature wine drinkers (averaging Mean = 3.30, SD .78). However, age was also entered in the regression model in order to determine the predictive effect of this demographic variable on wine purchases while considering price perceptions. Table 18 below indicates that there is no significant effect across and within all age groups when purchasing wine while putting price into effect as the P- values are all above .05.

Table 18: Significant effect of Age on price

DESCRIPTIVES						
Price						
	Mean	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
18-24 Years	3,50	0,58	3,02	3,98	2,29	4,14
25-34 Years	3,53	0,79	3,35	3,70	1,14	5,00
35-44 Years	3,45	0,85	3,20	3,70	1,00	5,00
44 Years and older	3,14	0,70	2,74	3,55	1,71	4,29
Total	3,47	0,79	3,34	3,59	1,00	5,00

ANOVA					
Price					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.771	3	.590	.937	.425
Within Groups	92.625	147	.630		
Total	94.397	150			

multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: Price						
Tukey HSD (I) Age	(J) Age (J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J) Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error Std. Error	Sig. Sig.	95% Confidence Interval 95% Confidence Interval	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
18-24 Years	25-34 Years	-.02526	.29402	1.000	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
18-24 Years	25-34 Years	-.02526	.29402	1.000	-.7893	.7388
	35-44 Years	.05015	.30359	.998	-.7388	.8391

multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: Price						
		Mean Difference (I-J)			95% Confidence Interval	
Tukey HSD (I) Age	(J) Age (J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error Std. Error	Sig. Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	Upper Bound
25-34 Years	44 Years and older	.35714	.35181	.741	-.5571	1.2714
25-34 Years	18-24 Years	.02526	.29402	1.000	-.7388	.7893
	35-44 Years	.07541	.14523	.954	-.3020	.4528
35-44 Years	44 Years and older	.38240	.22955	.345	-.2141	.9789
35-44 Years	18-24 Years	-.05015	.30359	.998	-.8391	.7388
	25-34 Years	-.07541	.14523	.954	-.4528	.3020
	44 Years and older	.30699	.24169	.583	-.3211	.9351
44 Years and older	18-24 Years	-.35714	.35181	.741	-1.2714	.5571
	25-34 Years	-.38240	.22955	.345	-.9789	.2141
	35-44 Years	-.30699	.24169	.583	-.9351	.3211

Age and Packaging

The statistical analysis in Table 19 overleaf also shows that average score of Packaging seem to slightly differ across all the age groups. However, it is slightly different from the price scores, as it is only the introductory group with a significant difference (Mean = 3.46, SD = .46) which is higher and different from the rest as the other age groups are averaging around (Mean = 3.30, SD = .70). In this case, it shows that amongst the age group in the sample, the younger generation of 18 to 24 are the ones that are moved by the wine packaging the most than the rest of the group. As was done for price, age was also entered into the regression model in order to determine the predictive effect of this demographic variable on wine purchases while considering packaging perceptions. Table 20 overleaf also indicates that there is no significant effect across and within all age groups when purchasing wine, while putting packaging into effect as the P- values are all above 0.05.

Table 19: Significant effect of Age on packaging

Descriptive						
Packaging						
	Mean	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
18-24 Years	3,46	0,46	3,08	3,85	2,50	3,93
25-34 Years	3,31	0,72	3,15	3,47	1,36	5,00
35-44 Years	3,37	0,70	3,16	3,57	1,50	4,64
44 Years and older	3,06	0,64	2,69	3,44	1,93	4,50
Total	3,31	0,70	3,20	3,43	1,36	5,00

ANOVA

Packaging

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.187	3	.396	.806	**.492**
Within Groups	72.198	147	.491		
Total	73.385	150			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Packaging

Tukey HSD

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
18-24 Years	25-34 Years	.15113	.25958	.937	-.5234	.8257
	35-44 Years	.09764	.26803	.983	-.5989	.7942
	44 Years and older	.40051	.31060	.571	-.4066	1.2077
25-34 Years	18-24 Years	-.15113	.25958	.937	-.8257	.5234
	35-44 Years	-.05349	.12822	.975	-.3867	.2797
	44 Years and older	.24938	.20266	.609	-.2773	.7760
35-44 Years	18-24 Years	-.09764	.26803	.983	-.7942	.5989
	25-34 Years	.05349	.12822	.975	-.2797	.3867
	44 Years and older	.30287	.21338	.489	-.2516	.8574
44 Years and older	18-24 Years	-.40051	.31060	.571	-1.2077	.4066
	25-34 Years	-.24938	.20266	.609	-.7760	.2773
	35-44 Years	-.30287	.21338	.489	-.8574	.2516

Comparison of the research results with prior studies on the effect of age to wine purchases demonstrates some consistency and differences. For instance, in terms of price, this study realised that the effect does not vary significantly amongst age groups which is consistent with the results of the study by Hall et al. (2004) that found insignificant difference amongst age groups when price is considered during wine purchases. In terms of packaging these results are also consistent with the study by Barber et al. (2006) that found that it was only the young generation below the age of 30 who would get intimidated by the wine packaging. However, this study's results are not supported by Barber and Almanza (2007), that discovered that different age groups are likely to purchase a bottle of wine based upon different wine packaging and price.

In conclusion, even though age is a promising demographic variable in this research as was for gender, caution must also be utilised when making inferences about the differences amongst wine drinking age groups since the variable also had an insignificant effect. The age groups were also not evenly distributed, having the majority (60%) in the introductory and developing wine consumers (18-25) this probably did affect the results of the effect of age.

5.3 Hypothesis results discussion

The main problem of this study was to investigate the influence of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine, extended/limited family) on consumers' decision to purchase wine based on wine price and packaging perceptions. A multi-linier regression analysis was conducted to test the moderating effects of the relationship between cultural values and wine extrinsic attributes (price and packaging) on consumer's intention to purchase wine. The results indicate that individual/collective and extended/limited family values were supported to have an effect on wine purchase intentions when considering wine price and packaging perceptions while the value of masculine/feminine was not supported. Broadly the results are discussed in the following sections:

5.4 Sub-problem one discussion: Cultural values and price perception on consumer's decision to purchase wine

The first problem of this study investigated the causal relationship between cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine extended/limited family) and wine price perception on consumer's decision to purchase wine. The hypotheses are discussed in the following sub-sections.

5.4.1 *Hypothesis 1 discussion: The relationship between individual/collective cultural value and wine price perception*

H1o: *Individual and collective cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception*

H1a: *Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and collective cultural value do not.*

Through multiple regression analysis the first hypothesis of this study was confirmed and provided evidence that individual cultural value, unlike collective cultural value, was an important contributor to wine purchases when wine price perception is being considered. Support of the hypotheses is consistent with the results from previous studies. For instance, when Orth et al. (2007) studied the global wine business as a research field, their results indicated that price was an overriding criterion in making the purchase decision among consumers from the developed countries who were considered individualists and not among consumers from the developing nations who were considered collectivists. Other recent researchers like Michaeli et al. (2017) investigating global cultural differences have also reported similar findings that individual value influenced wine purchasing decisions when price perception is put into effect. Li et al. (2006) also found similar findings when they studied the Chinese wine market, where they found that when other multi attributes are considered, the collectivists did not link wine quality with price. The result, like predicted in the hypothesis, indicated that collective value was a non-significant predictor of wine purchase intention when price perception is considered and further support of this comes from Hall et al. (2004) who mentioned that traditional researchers in the field of wine segmentation assumed price to be a primary cue used to indicate wine quality in all cultural backgrounds though in so many of his studies, this has been disproved.

Interestingly, the results also give credence to the argument of multi self-concept that Oyserman and Lee (2008) presented, that the field of individual/collective value left a gap in the body of academic literature since most of research was based on cross-cultural perspective between two countries and neglecting rigorous study on the influence of culture in one country. Oyserman and Lee (2008) had argued that one society may have both an individualistic and collective culture depending on the location or different situations. A look at the central tendency measure in tables 2 and 3 indicate that the sample had both individualists (Mean = 3.73, SD = .73) and collectivists (Mean = 3.72, SD = .61). Clearly, this shows that most of the individuals have both values of individualism and collectivism depending on their situations. This would also support the fact that consumers from the same supposed cultural orientation bring about different values, expectations and experience hence the traditional way of one bottle fits all strategy, assuming the whole society has the same cultural background, no longer works (Yuan et al., 2005).

This stresses the point that there is more to wine than one tangible attribute amongst the collectivists who are still learning about the product. For wine companies to be successful in the emerging markets, they need to understand exactly what is important to different consumers/targets (Hall et al., 2004). Other researchers on the cultural effects assumed Africa was just the same as Asia whereby the whole market was a collective market and wine consumers would go for expensive wine just to save face (Ndanga et al., 2010). In contrast, this study disputes that and proves two facts; one that not all consumers in Africa are collectivists and two that not all collectivists associate wine quality with price. This result might actually also mean that South Africans know more about wine than what is perceived in other literatures, for example the conclusions by Camillo (2012) that stated that collectivists do not know much about wine and in their effort to reduce risk buying they always associate wine quality with wine price was disputed in this study.

One can therefore conclude that the research result of hypothesis 1, combined with theoretical evidence from previous studies on emerging markets, especially China and Japan, – show that individual cultural value significantly affected wine price perception, whereas collective cultural value had an insignificant effect on price perception when consumers intend to purchase wine. It's been also noted that one society can have both individual and collective values. This result also implies that it is possible to segment one emerging market into two different cultural values than to assume all emerging markets have the same culture.

5.4.2 *Hypothesis 2 discussion: The relationship between Masculine/Feminine cultural value and wine price perception*

H2o: *Masculine and feminine cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception*

H2a: *Masculine cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and feminine cultural value do not.*

Hypothesis 2, which predicted that masculine individuals associate wine quality with price when purchasing wine while the feminine individuals did not, was not supported in the present research. The results suggest that masculine consumers do not perceive wine price to be linked to wine quality, just as the feminine consumers. The result is inconsistent with other reported findings that found masculine consumers to be ego-centric and associate wine price with wine quality and always go for the highly priced wine (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007; Bagchi et al., 2004). Others have also found wine price to have predicting effect on masculine and not feminine consumers. For example Barber et al. (2006) reported that feminine consumers found wine to be more relaxing and as a way to unwind hence they purchase wine for its intended use, unlike masculine consumers who are more into premium drinking experience to show off their knowledge of wine.

The assumption that masculine consumers always associate wine price with quality is not entirely obvious in this study. As demonstrated by the results, masculine consumers in South Africa do not relate price to quality when it comes to wine. This may be explained by the fact that when masculine consumers are purchasing expensive wines, it does not mean they think it is of higher quality but instead it is just their ego that they are concerned about. Another explanation could be that usually masculine consumers purchase wine for mass consumption or as a gift, thereby go for expensive wines to protect their ego. A look at Table 9 indicates that most respondents agreed on price being important when purchasing wine as a gift (Mean = 3.71, SD = 1.164).

Nonetheless, this result is consistent with other researches that explored cultural impacts in other various consumer behaviours, such as consumer perceptions, preferences and attitudes (Aaker, 2000; Moon et al., 2008) whereby the masculine value was found not to have a predicting effect on purchasing intentions when price is involved. The lack of support could also be because the research population was small and a look at the Table 4 indicates that the

respondents were neutral about the masculine value and maybe a bigger sample population would have given us different results.

However, the result, as predicted in the hypothesis, indicated that feminine consumers do not associate wine price with quality, therefore it could be safe to mention that the hypothesis was partially supported. Several other studies found justification for this notion that feminine individuals, like collectivists, do not link wine price with wine quality (Atkin & Sutanonpaiboon, 2007; Bagchi et al., 2004; Barber et al., 2006).

5.4.3 *Hypothesis 3 discussion: The relationship between extended/limited family cultural value and wine price perception*

H3o: *Extended family and limited family cultural values do not have a relationship with wine price perception*

H3a: *Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine price perception and limited family cultural value do not.*

Confirmation of the third hypothesis in the current study supports the idea that individuals with an extended family cultural value always consider price when purchasing wine whilst the unlimited family individuals do not consider price when purchasing wine. This result is consistent with previous findings found by Yu et al. (2009) when they did a survey of the Chinese wine consumers. It was discovered that wine amongst extended family members is usually shared and consumers, to reduce the risk of sharing wrong wine, always use price as a sign of quality, whereby highly priced wine was considered to be of higher quality than the lowly priced wine. Yu et al. (2009) also found that with regards to the symbolism of wine amongst extended family societies, wine is regarded as a socially sophisticated product which is used to aid one's social standing and, as such, high price is always associated to quality wine. This result is also supported by the findings of Witoelar (2013) when they did a survey of the extended families of Indonesia, consumers were found to be influenced by their family members in their purchase decision mainly because it is assumed that a wrong purchase decision has a financial ripple effect on the whole family, hence price is quite important in purchase decisions.

Further support of the current research findings are found in the study which examined the motivational factors of selecting a bottle of wine (Barber et al., 2006) - limited family societies

were found to purchase wine for self and not for groups hence wine is not considered a sophisticated product thus the price does not always matter. The same result was also discovered when Michaeli et al. (2017) studied the customer wine preferences in the United states – they found consumers from unlimited family cultural background to be self-confident, knowledgeable and mainly concerned with convenience since they are time economical and as such they were totally indifferent to price variation among stores or merchandise.

Interestingly, a look at the central tendency measure in tables 6 and 7 indicates that the majority of the sample population are affiliated with extended family value (Mean = 3,78, SD.66) more than the limited family value (Mean = 2.98, SD = .65), indicating that South Africa as an emerging market it is more extended family oriented. This is supported by Michaeli et al. (2017) when they studied the global cultural differences of USA and Japan; Japan was considered an emerging market while USA a developed nation. The extended family value was found to be more dominate in an emerging market of Japan and limited family value was dominate in the USA. Similarly, Bruwer and Buller (2012) in their findings of the wine consumer behaviour in the Japanese market found that the market was more extended family oriented and wine price was also of importance, whereby consumers preferred expensive wines from old world countries like France and Spain.

Clearly, this result also shows that there is a difference between extended/limited family value and individual/collective value like Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) emphasised. Hypothesis 1 proves that collectivists do not find price to be an important factor, whilst in this result, the extended family are proven to highly consider price. This indicates that the collectivists and extended family-oriented individuals could have the same traits but their purchase decisions could be based on different values.

Based on the results of hypothesis 3 and support from previous studies on cross cultural markets, one can conclude that the extended family value has a predictive effect on wine price perception whereas the limited family value has an insignificant effect on wine price perception. It is also safe to conclude that extended family value is more dominate than limited family value in emerging markets. Risk aversion is also an important consideration and wine producers should focus on marketing strategies that would help in reducing the stress consumers in emerging markets go through when purchasing wine especially for a special occasion.

5.5 Sub-problem two discussion: Cultural values and wine packaging perception on consumer's decision to purchase wine

The second problem of this study investigated the causal relationship between cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine, extended/limited family) and wine packaging on consumer's decision to purchase wine.

5.5.1 *Hypothesis 4 Discussion: The relationship between individual/collective cultural value and wine packaging perception*

H4o: *Individual and collective cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception*

H4a: *Individual cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and collective cultural value do not.*

Acceptance of the fourth hypothesis suggests that individualists believe wine packaging is related to wine quality, whilst the collectivists believe there is no relation between the two. The result of the present study is aligned with the findings of Charters and Pettigrew (2007) that realised individualists or high involved wine consumers are worried about their image and believe wine packaging conveys an image that is directly linked to price, whereas collectivists are more worried about the community image hence modest or normal is the way of life. Collectivists do not link wine packaging to quality because on most occasions no way would a bottle of wine enhance the image of the society, thus, it is also unsurprising that hypothesis 1 in this present study found individualists to also associate wine price to wine quality and not the collectivists. The result is also consistent with the previous findings that stated that individualists, or wine enthusiasts utilise more information and are interested in learning more about wine through wine packaging, especially the back label, while collectivists or low involved consumers tend to simplify their wine choices through risk-aversion strategies, such as brand name and sales personal (Lockshin, 2003).

From a practical perspective, a potential explanation why individualism has a significant effect on wine packaging and not collectivism in this study, could be explained by the conclusion by Barber and Almanza (2007) that collectivists do not regard wine as part of their lifestyle and do not spend time in trying to understand wine, for example, this or that wine has a screw top and that one does not have. By contrast, individualists would be interested in every detail and

would not buy certain wine because they have a screw top and not a cork seal or vice versa. Furthermore, Charters and Pettigrew (2007) mention how individualists purchase wine for their cabinet and not necessarily for them to consume right away so they would always rely on packaging information to assess wine quality. In contrast, most of collectivists seek an instant affective response so most of the time the quality of wine is only assed after consumption and not through packaging information.

However, this study result is in contrast with Yu et al. (2009) who found that collectivists, because of their lack of knowledge about wine, tend to rely more on the wine packaging and also derive interest from awkward bottle designs. Nonetheless, the analysis by Yu et al. (2009) cannot be wholly disregarded because this study was only conducted on wine consumers and not necessarily first time customers.

Also, a look at the central tendency measure in tables 2 and 3 indicates that the sample had an almost equal representation of individual (Mean = 3,73, SD = .73) and collective (Mean = 3.72, SD = .61) values, supporting Oyserman et al. (2002) when they stated that one society can have both cultural values or one individual can have both values but exudes one depending on circumstances and situations, hence the predictive effects are also different. One can, therefore, conclude that the study results for hypothesis 4, combined with the support of the academic literature on individual/collective – show that individualists have a predictive effect on wine packaging when intending to purchase wine whilst collectivists have an insignificant effect on packaging when purchasing wine.

5.5.2 *Hypothesis 5 discussion: The relationship between Masculine/Feminine cultural value and wine packaging perception*

H5o: *Masculine and feminine cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception*

H5a: *Feminine cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and masculine cultural value do not*

Feminine individuals were hypothesised to believe that there is a relationship between wine packaging and wine quality whilst the masculine does not believe so. The result did not support this hypothesis. It was actually found that neither masculinity nor femininity had an effect on purchasing intentions when wine packaging is considered.

This study result is in contrast with many previous studies in the field of masculine/feminine values, for instance Barber and Almanza (2007) who found that for fear of social rejection in case one purchases the wrong type of wine, feminine consumers tend to rely more on the information on wine packaging than masculine consumers who are so confident and always rely on price as a sign of quality wine. Spawton (1990) had also earlier stated that wine is usually shared in feminine communities and, to reduce embarrassment, consumers always rely on the awards and medals showcased on the wine packaging to make their purchase decisions. These somewhat contradictory results could potentially be explained by the fact that probably both feminine and masculine consumers in South Africans know more about wine to the extent that packaging does not play a big role on their purchase intentions. The lack of support could also be because the research population was small; perhaps a bigger sample population would have given different results.

5.5.3 *Hypothesis 6 results: The relationship between extended/limited family cultural value and wine packaging perception*

H6o: *Extended and limited family cultural values do not have a relationship with wine packaging perception*

H6a: *Extended family cultural value has a relationship with wine packaging perception and limited family cultural value do not.*

Confirmation of the sixth hypothesis in the study through multiple regression analysis provides evidence that extended family cultural value would link wine packaging with wine quality whereas limited family cultural value do not believe packaging is correlated to quality.

Support for the sixth hypothesis is consistent with findings from previous studies such as those of Somogyi et al. (2011) when they studied the underlying motivations of the Chinese consumers. They discovered that in an extended family environment, family/group sets the tone and not individuals and as such, when it comes to purchasing of wine, a well-known brand/packaging to the family is considered first. For example, if they always consume wine with a screw top, they will always purchase the same, whereas in limited family environments anonymity takes the lead and individuals might try new styles, packaging and not so well-known brands without being worried about the opinions of other family members.

Similarly, an earlier study by Spawton (1990) found that high risk avoidance is rampantly exhibited by extended family societies when selecting the right wine. As such, wine packaging showcasing a reputable place of origin, popular grape variety and known closures is always the first preference, in contrast to limited family societies which have resentment to conformity and are always willing to try other types of wine irrespective of the wine package. The results in Table 9 indicate that awards and medals scored highly as indicators of quality (Mean = 3.83, SD = 1.10) thus supporting the idea of risk avoidance considering the majority indicated to be extended family oriented. Batt and Dean (2000) also confirmed that in an extended family environment wine is usually purchased for sharing consumption so wrong packaging might not be accepted by the other family members. In contrast, limited family societies wine purchasing is usually for own self consumption hence packaging does not have much weight.

A look at the central tendency measures in tables 6 and 7 indicate that the majority of the sample population are more affiliated with the extended family value (Mean = 3,78, SD.66) and less with the limited family value (Mean = 2.98, SD = .65). This suggests that the extended family value is more dominant within the sample, which is consistent with other findings e.g. by Michaeli et al. (2017) in countries like Japan which are also considered to be extended family oriented. Majority of the Japanese were also found to associate wine packaging to wine quality as their way of avoiding humiliation.

The issue of ubuntu mentioned in the literature review which states that a person is as good as his or her family members, whereby one's purchase is not just for self but for the family and community was supported in this result as packaging has to resonate well with all family members. Unfortunately, there is little or no research on the impacts of cultural values on the South African wine market though these results suggest why box wines of 3L and 5L occupy the least space on the wine shelves of South African retail stores but still remain the most selling category. This suggests that sharing is an important factor in the extended family communities and wine marketers and retail stores, especially in the townships, need to create a segment for extended family societies. However, this is not to say the limited family value does not exist and should not be accounted for. Instead, marketers need to know that limited family segments do not value wine packaging when they are purchasing wine.

In summary, based on the research findings of hypothesis 6, as well as academic support from the studies of emerging markets – extended family cultural value is dominant in emerging markets and extended family-oriented wine consumers would purchase wine based upon wine

packaging perception while the limited family value individuals do not have a predicting effect on wine packaging when purchasing wine. It is also important for wine producers and marketers to focus their efforts on attaining medals and awards for their wines.

5.6 Conclusion

In summary, the results supported the predictions of the individual/collective and extended/limited family hypothesis and disconfirmed the masculine/feminine hypothesis. Individual was found to have a positive relationship with price and packaging perception while collective was found to have a negative relationship with price and packaging perception. Extended family value was shown to have a positive relationship with price and packaging perception while limited family value was shown to have a negative relationship with price and packaging perception. The Masculine/feminine value was somewhat found not to have a significant effect on either price or packaging perception. The research findings were discussed in consideration of prior studies, theoretical evidence from the literature and a bit of the South African wine market. Apart from the hypothesis, the demographic variables of age and gender were also discussed and it was shown that they did not have a significant effect on purchasing intent when considering the extrinsic attributes of price and packaging. The following chapter concludes the overall research report.

CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusion of the study. The first section summarises the findings of the research and conclusions are drawn with a comparison of prior studies. The second section outlines the theoretical and practical implications of the study. Lastly, the limitations of the study are discussed and suggestions for areas of future research are outlined.

6.2 Conclusions of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of cultural values (individualism/collectivism, masculinity/feminine and extended/limited family) on consumers' purchase decision of wine while considering the extrinsic attributes, of wine (price and packaging perception) in South Africa. Based on the results, one can conclude that cultural values do have an influence on consumers purchase decision and how consumers rate the quality of wine. However, it is important to note that the masculine/feminine value was not supported in this study even though there was a positive correlation. This therefore means that while there is a connection between cultural values and extrinsic perceptions, other factors should be explored and be taken into account.

A prelude investigation of the potential effect of the demographic variables of the sample (gender and age) as well as extrinsic attributes (price and packaging) was also conducted in the study. Even though the impact of the relationship of these variables was not hypothesised in the study model, the results of the data analysis assisted in providing factors that could assist in wine market segmentation. The current study is consistent with previous studies by Barber et al. (2006); Hall et al. (2004); Kolyesnikova, Dodd, and Wilcox (2009) in terms of prediction of gender and age on the extrinsic attributes of price and packaging. For instance, this study and previously mentioned studies found that the effect of different age groups on selection of wine based on price and packaging was insignificantly different. Therefore, this study illustrates that caution must be used when using gender and age as the basis of a wine consumer segmentation strategy.

6.3 Recommendations

The research gap in this study stemmed from the lack of academic studies rigorously studying the impact of cultural values in one country and also the lack of academic studies on wine consumer behaviour in emerging markets such as South Africa. This study, in an effort to fill in that gap, explored the impact of the relationship of cultural values (individual/collective, masculine/feminine and extended/limited family) and the extrinsic attributes of wine price and packaging. The theoretical and practical implications and recommendations derived from this research are outlined below.

6.3.1 *Theoretical implications*

From a theoretical point of view, this study adds to body of literature in terms of understanding wine consumer behaviour by establishing the impact of the relationship between cultural values and wine extrinsic attributes on consumers' purchase intent, particularly within an emerging market context. The main outcome extracted from this study is that people's cultural values can, in part, explain how consumers rate the quality of wine and explain their purchasing behaviours.

Previous studies, mainly conducted across-cultural basis primarily between USA and various Asian countries found that various cultural values did influence how consumers evaluate price and packaging perception of wine (Bruwer & Buller, 2012; Camillo, 2012; Michaeli et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2009). This study, conducted in South Africa, also found that individuals' cultural values determines how they evaluate wine on the basis of extrinsic attributes (price and packaging perception) when purchasing wine. Therefore, this study contributes to the academic body of knowledge regarding the influence of cultural values on wine consumer behaviour and also extends the generalisability of research findings beyond cross-cultural research context into emerging markets context such as South Africa.

6.3.2 *Practical implications*

Essentially, it is almost universally agreed that evaluation of quality is closely linked to purchase decision (Lockshin, 2003). From a practical point of view, this study provides relevant marketing information for wine dealing companies operating in emerging economies, especially in the wine industry. The results of this study would provide much needed information on understanding how consumers from various cultural values evaluate the quality of wine before purchase.

In the design of market segmentation based on culture, the findings of this study, through the central tendency measure of the constructs supported by the previous argument of Oyserman et al. (2002), demonstrates that one society can have two different cultural values and that one individual could have both individual and collective values. Therefore, companies should not assume that all customers in the emerging markets are collective oriented. Furthermore as was suggested by Bartlett and Ghoshal (1987) that as markets are globalised, international marketers should question if purchase behaviours of consumers from country to country is similar enough to allow a standardised marketing/segmentation strategy worldwide. This current study answers that question and demonstrates that a one size fits all strategy would not work across all market segments, instead as was mentioned by Levy, Weitz, and Grewal (1998) marketers and retailers should both understand their consumers' cultural backgrounds in order to effectively segment and serve their target markets more efficiently, as well as managing the customers lifetime value.

Given the results which support hypothesis 1, this study recommends that wine marketers use a hedonic pricing model when targeting individualists. A hedonic pricing model entails that the price function is a relationship between wine price and wine quality. Individualists were found, in this present study, to believe that wine quality is associated with wine price. This study assumes consumers from Sandton resemble customers from the developed world and are most likely to be the individualists and as such, wine companies need to target this segment market and alike utilising the hedonic pricing model. In addition, as suggested by Orth et al. (2007), in an individualistic society, price is an overriding criterion on wine purchase and is used as an ego or status booster especially when one is buying wine for a gift. This study also illustrates that many respondents agreed to consider price when purchasing wine as a gift and that could be used as a marketing strategy by retail stores by creating a gift section of the best wines.

Furthermore, hypothesis 1 results indicate that collectivists do not associate price with wine quality and this is in support of Charters and Pettigrew (2007) when they studied the dimensions of wine quality. It is argued that collectivists believe in modest/normal wine that is not for showing off one's status; research has indicated that collectivists believe in living in harmony with each other. In this present study, it can be assumed that most of the collectivists are from Soweto and obviously the intention of purchasing wine in those areas is usually not for show off but for the intended use/consumption. On another note, this could actually mean that the black community of South Africa know more about wine than what research imply and, in that case, they believe there is more to wine than price. The current study illustrates that

not all collectivists have the same values and purchasing behaviour, especially the ones in Asia and Africa. Thus, it is wrong to generalise on the basis of research that was done in Asia and assume the results would be the same for Africa. Wine marketers need to do research in each segment and most likely serve them differently. The current study demonstrates that effective marketing strategies need to be formulated to target specific segments. A differentiated price strategy would work well in this market and emerging markets at large.

Interestingly, most of the research assumes that the extended family value is equal to the collective value. This current study, and in support of Mothersbough and Hawkins (2016) illustrates that there is a difference. Hypothesis 1 and 3 results show that collectivists do not link wine price to quality whilst extended family-oriented individuals believe there is an association between price and quality, respectively. This most likely indicates that South Africans believe in a collective culture but behave differently when it comes to family. When it comes to family, one becomes more sensitive unlike when one is dealing with the whole community. This indicates that consumers are likely not too worried about being judged by the community and everyone believes in being modest within one's community but everyone is sensitive when it comes to family. Extended family-oriented individuals believe there is a link between price and quality and this is also because most of the time, wine purchase is for family consumption and not personalised, whereas one can be a collectivist but still does not have to consume wine with the whole community. In addition Chandra Lal et al. (2015) mentions that in extended family societies, most purchases costs are shared and as such, price is always very important. This indicates that a consumer could be collective and believe in the whole Zulu nation but when it comes to purchases, family comes first in decision making process. Therefore, wine companies should understand that there is a difference in targeting the society and different individuals within that same society. Customers could all be collective but probably more family oriented and, in that case, targeting a market segment as a family unit would be more effective than to target the whole collective society. In addition, the fact that extended family-oriented consumers associate price and quality does not mean that they believe in a hedonic pricing model as expensive wines could still be seen as a rip off. Therefore, a differentiated pricing strategy is still the best option.

The results of this study also show that individualists associate wine quality with wine packaging whereas collectivists do not. Since the sample respondents had both traits, it indicates that consumers value most likely change depending on the situation. When wine is being purchased in restaurants and as gift, most of the consumers become individualists and

consume wine with the best packaging and also pretend to read more of the wine packaging, whereas when they are purchasing wine for own consumption or for home consumption, packaging does not matter and many would be in the collective mode. This is in support of Lockshin (2003) who states that wine consumers in developing countries usually engage into risk-aversion strategies when they are buying wine in restaurants or as a gift. Wine marketers need to take note and educate consumers about wine, thereby reducing risk buying and increase consumers' confidence in purchasing wine. This also indicates why most alcohol drinkers in emerging markets shun wine and opt for beer which requires no expertise to buy or consume. There is still a lot of wine education needed in emerging markets in order to increase consumption. The other point is that collectivists do not regard wine as part of their lifestyle and do not spend time in trying to understand why, for example, this or that wine has a screw top and that one does not and by contrast, individualists would be interested in every detail and would not buy certain wine because they have a screw top and not a cork seal or vice versa. Marketers need to understand that collectivists normally purchase wine for immediate gratification so packaging is not as important as it is with individualists who would sometimes purchase wine to keep in the wine cabinet or as a display. As such, wine packaging should be differentiated as well.

As indicated on the price perception, the study results also found extended family-oriented individuals to associate wine packaging to quality, whereas the limited family did not. These results are in support of Spawton (1990) who states that high risk avoidance is rampantly exhibited by extended family societies when selecting the right wine. Accordingly, wine packaging showcasing a reputable place of origin, popular grape variety and known closures is always the first preference. In the case of extended/limited family value there was a great difference of respondents' orientation between the extended and limited value. Most of respondents believed in extended family values therefore wine companies dealing with emerging markets need to understand that the extended family value is more prudent and marketing strategies should focus more on this than the limited family value.

The value of masculine/feminine was not supported although it is indicated that very few respondents were linked to the masculine value, while most had the feminine value. In this current study, feminine consumers could be associated with all the values of collectivists whereby they did not believe in associating quality to price and packaging.

The results of this study showed that when it comes to price, most respondents thought price was more important when buying it as a gift (Mean = 3.71, SD= 1.164). This, like mentioned earlier on, creates a niche market for wine gifts in retail stores of South Africa.

The results of this study also showed that when it comes to packaging respondents regarded awards and medals (Mean = 3.83, SD = 1.10), and information on the bottle package (3.71, SD = 1.15) highly more than all other attributes when purchasing wine. This indicates that the majority of wine consumers in South Africa know more about wine than what prior research indicates. Consumers understand that a good wine should be getting awards thus proving they know a lot more about wine. Wine producers need to thrive on producing good wine that attains awards and marketers should always make sure the awards are communicated to the intended target market.

In conclusion, this study shows that there is a huge opportunity for the wine industry in South Africa if companies understand the different cultural values and preferences of the local consumers. Wine companies can achieve lifetime success in the South African wine market if they understand the different characteristics of each segment market and launch fitting marketing strategies within each segment. Whilst the study indicates that price and packaging are still important extrinsic attributes, it is also important to note that beyond price and packaging, consumers from the same cultural orientations are also likely to purchase wine differently depending with the situation involved. A risk-reduction strategy is also a significant consideration on wine consumer behaviour in emerging markets and wine marketers need to come up with various strategies that would reduce risks associated with purchasing wine amongst different cultures, including availing simple basic information on the style of wine.

6.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research

6.4.1 *Limitations*

The current study results should be considered with the following limitations and suggestions for the future research.

The first limitation of the study was the small sample size of 151 respondents, represented by wine consumers who are based in the Sandton and Soweto areas of Johannesburg, only. Therefore, the study results cannot be generalised to the South African population as a whole. Also, amongst the sample, the gender distribution was uneven with more males than females

whilst most prior research indicated that many wine consumers were female. Therefore, caution must be practiced when generalising the results.

The second limitation was the research design and instrument utilised in this study i.e. a self-administered measure with respondents selected on their will to participate, therefore bias could not be managed well. Therefore, caution must be practiced when interpreting the relationship between variables. Also, the outcome variables could not be controlled thereby probably allowing other variables to influence the results thus causality between variables can only be inferred and not confirmed.

The third limitation was that measurement scales in this study were originally developed for western consumers with an assumption that they would work equally well for the South Africa consumers.

The current study results need to consider these limitations as they may have an effect on internal and external validity.

6.4.2 *Suggestions for future research*

- In order to evaluate and assess generalisability, this study would need to be to replicated in other wine emerging markets like Chile and Brazil.
- Investigate the influence of other cultural values like the environment and self-oriented values on wine consumer behaviour. The research could also look at the intrinsic attributes of wine like taste or grape variety.
- Further investigation of the risk-reduction strategies used by wine consumers could assist in easing consumer purchase behaviour.
- Furthermore, it will be of interest to understand why beer drinkers do not prefer wine.

To sum up, further investigations of other factors could have provided more information on what influences wine consumer behaviour in the research model. Therefore, further studies can expand and investigate the impact of all personal traits like attitude and personalities on wine consumer behaviour. However, this study provides a beginning point for future studies on wine consumer buying behaviour in emerging/African markets.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire Cover Letter

Good day,

Thank you for taking the time to complete this academic questionnaire. I am a post-graduate student at the University of the Witwatersrand – School of Business Administration, undertaking a Master of Management degree in the field of Strategic Marketing.

I am currently conducting research for my dissertation entitled: ***The influence of cultural values on consumer buying behaviours: A case of wine industry in South Africa***

I kindly request you to complete the attached survey, which should take less than 10 minutes to complete. Your response will be greatly appreciated and of great value to my research.

Your participation is voluntary and you will not be asked to provide any identification information; your identity and responses will remain anonymous. This research is for academic purposes only and the information obtained will be kept strictly confidential.

Your views are very important to me.

Sincerely,

Tafadzwa F Chiswanda

Email: taffchiswanda@yahoo.co.uk

Study Supervisor

Dr Yvonne K Saini

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire (Pen and paper)

SECTION 1: Screening questions

Q1. What is your age group? Please tick the appropriate response. **Please note: If less than 18 years is selected, please do not continue with the rest of the questionnaire.**					
[1] Less than 18 years	[2] 18-24 Years	[3] 25-34 Years	[4] 35-44 Years	[5] 44 Years and older	
Q2. What is your employment status? Please tick the appropriate response.					
[1] Student	[2] Casual	[3] Temporary	[4] Permanently Employed	[5] Retired	
Q3. How frequently do you purchase wine? Please tick the appropriate response. **Please note: If none is selected, please do not continue with the rest of the questionnaire.**					
[1] None	[2] Every Week	[3] Every two weeks	[4] Every three weeks	[5] Every fourth week	[6] Occasionally

SECTION 2: Cultural Values & Beliefs

The following question contains a list of statements that are to determine certain cultural values and beliefs. There is no right or wrong answer and please be as honest as possible according to your own values and beliefs.

For each of the statements below, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree? Please circle the appropriate response:

INDIVIDUALISM		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
IND1	One should live life independently of others	1	2	3	4	5
IND2	I enjoy being different from others all the times	1	2	3	4	5
IND3	Winning is everything	1	2	3	4	5
IND4	I like my privacy	1	2	3	4	5
IND5	I rely on myself most of the times	1	2	3	4	5
IND6	I believe in self-love	1	2	3	4	5
IND7	I often do “My own thing”	1	2	3	4	5

IND8	My personal identity is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5

For each of the statements below, please indicate to what extent you agree? Please circle the appropriate response:

COLLECTIVISM		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
COL 1	I emphasize winning with others not competition.	1	2	3	4	5
COL 2	I enjoy working in groups than as an individual	1	2	3	4	5
COL 3	I feel good when I contribute to a group success.	1	2	3	4	5
COL 4	I find pleasure in spending time with others	1	2	3	4	5
COL 5	My personal needs are always second to the group's needs	1	2	3	4	5
COL 6	I would sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group	1	2	3	4	5
COL 7	I always consider other people's opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
COL 8	Neighbours should live as one happy big family	1	2	3	4	5

For each of the statements below, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree? Please circle the appropriate response:

MASCULINE		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
M1	Men are generally stronger than women	1	2	3	4	5
M2	I often see myself in charge of my group members	1	2	3	4	5
M3	I usually talk first in a group discussion	1	2	3	4	5
M4	Men are generally more ambitious than women	1	2	3	4	5
M5	Men are generally physically stronger than women	1	2	3	4	5
M6	Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.	1	2	3	4	5
M7	Being physically strong than others is more important to me	1	2	3	4	5
M8	I believe I am self sufficient	1	2	3	4	5
M9	There are some jobs a man can do better than a woman	1	2	3	4	5

For each of the statements below, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree? Please circle the appropriate response:

FEMINISM		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
F1	I care for others	1	2	3	4	5
F2	I am a kind person	1	2	3	4	5
F3	I am a sympathetic person	1	2	3	4	5
F4	I believe we should all be rewarded equally.	1	2	3	4	5
F5	I often stop to help others pick things they had dropped	1	2	3	4	5
F6	I believe I am considerate of others	1	2	3	4	5
F7	I often tell others how much I value our relationship	1	2	3	4	5
F8	I often hug my family members	1	2	3	4	5
F9	I often call to check on my work mates	1	2	3	4	5

For each of the statements below, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree? Please circle the appropriate response:

EXTENDED FAMILY		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
EXT 1	I believe in my whole family tree	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 2	I would sacrifice my interests for the happiness pf other family members.	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 3	We should keep on staying with our ageing parents	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 4	I always inform family members of my major moves	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 5	Sharing is caring	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 6	I believe that Parents and children must stay togethers as much as possible	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 7	I would help within my means if a relative were in financial difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 8	I frequently visit my other family members	1	2	3	4	5
EXT 9	Family celebrations are the most important events in my life	1	2	3	4	5

For each of the statements below, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree? Please circle the appropriate response:

LIMITED FAMILY		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
LIM 1	I tend to do my own thing, and others in my family do the same	1	2	3	4	5
LIM 2	I prefer my own space with the people close to me	1	2	3	4	5
LIM 3	I am disturbed if anyone tries to intervene in my life	1	2	3	4	5
LIM 4	My close family decision is final	1	2	3	4	5
LIM 5	I don't like to represent anyone except my close family	1	2	3	4	5
LIM 6	To me the interests of one's family are not of the most important	1	2	3	4	5
LIM 7	I enjoy going out with my own close family not extended family	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3: Wine Attributes

The following question contain a list of wine attributes you normally consider when selecting or purchasing wine. *For each of the statements below, please indicate to what extent you agree? Please circle the appropriate response:*

PRICE		**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
PR1	Wine price is an important factor when purchasing wine	1	2	3	4	5
PR2	Wine Price is an indicator of quality	1	2	3	4	5
PR3	Price is important when purchasing wine for private consumption	1	2	3	4	5
PR4	Price is important when purchasing wine for social consumption	1	2	3	4	5
PR5	Price is important when purchasing wine for as a gift	1	2	3	4	5
PR6	The higher the price the higher the quality of wine	1	2	3	4	5
PR7	Wine price reflect taste status	1	2	3	4	5

WINE PACKAGING		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
PAC1	Wine packaging is an important factor when purchasing wine	1	2	3	4	5
PAC2	Wine Packaging is an indicator of quality	1	2	3	4	5
PAC3	Wine packaging is important for private consumption	1	2	3	4	5
PAC4	Wine packaging is important when purchasing wine for social consumption	1	2	3	4	5
PAC5	Country of origin is an indication of quality	1	2	3	4	5
PAC6	Bottle shape is important when purchasing wine	1	2	3	4	5
PAC7	Awards and medals are an indication of quality	1	2	3	4	5
PAC8	Foil paper covering the cork indicate quality	1	2	3	4	5
PAC9	Bottle size is important when selecting wine	1	2	3	4	5
PAC10	Information on the bottle package is vital when selecting wine	1	2	3	4	5
PAC11	Cork seal is an indicator of quality	1	2	3	4	5
PAC12	Screw top is an indication of cheap wines	1	2	3	4	5
PAC13	Brand name is important when selecting wine	1	2	3	4	5
PAC14	Grape varietals are important when purchasing wine	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4. Personal details

What is your gender? ***Please tick the appropriate response***				
[1] Male	[2] Female			
What is your marital status? ***Please tick the appropriate response***				
[1] Single	[2] Married	[3] Divorced	[4] Widow/ Widower	
What is your highest level of education? ***Please tick the appropriate response***				
[1] Matric	[2] National Diploma	[3] Degree	[4] Master's Degree	[5] Doctorate or more
What is your average gross monthly income? ***Please tick the appropriate response***				
[1] R0-R10 000	[2] R10001-R20000	[3] R20001-R30000	[4] R30001-R40000	[5] More than R40001

Which ethnic group do you belong to? ***Please tick the appropriate response***				
[1] Black	[2] White	[3] Indian	[4] Coloured	Other (specify) _____

Thank you for your participation