DIFFERENT BRANDS FOR DIFFERENT OCCASIONS – DRIVERS OF CONSUMER PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CHOICES

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines individual wine brand choice across consumption situations including personality antecedents. Based on a consumer sample, it was established that individual choice of wine brands varied across three situations, depending on whether the wine was chosen for self-consumption, for hosting friends or as a gift. Similarly, four of the six benefits desired by consumers in wine were found to vary. Quality and social benefits were more important in the “host” and “gift” situation; value-for-money and emotional benefits were more important in the “self” consumption scenario. While less situational variation was found for environmental and health benefits, these factors were found to influence overall brand choice as well. The results further point to drivers of differential brand choice. Individual values and social identity complexity were found to influence consumer susceptibility to normative influence with downstream effects on desired brand benefits and choice. The findings assist managers in tailoring brands to both consumers and consumption occasions.

INTRODUCTION

Imagine that you want to market a new brand of wine. Your preliminary segmentation study shows that two distinct and equally sizable segments exist; (1) people who value self-fulfillment and buy wine for their personal enjoyment and to reward themselves, and (2) people who value a sense of belonging and choose wine brands according to what they believe will get their friends’ approval. Should you design a single brand to capture both segments, or should you rely on separate brands more specifically tailored to one segment each? If you develop two brands, should you emphasize the role of others in wine consumption in either brand communication (i.e., advertising, labeling) or in both communications? Should you emphasize the situation of enjoying the wine (i.e., in solitude or company), or should you assume people will like the wine regardless of the situation? We believe that the choices made will greatly influence the success of marketing efforts, and we believe meaningful answers to the questions raised require examining several considerations.

Past research in marketing, consumer behavior and social psychology has found that individual behavior varies across situations (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Bearden & Woodside, 1976; Miller & Gintner, 1979). Such variation in consumer choice has been reported for branded consumer goods such as candy (Ratner & Kahn, 2002), clothing (Batra, Homer & Kahle, 2001), snack foods (Ratneshwar & Shocker, 1991), mineral water and sodas (Van Trijp, 1994), fragrances (Chow, Celsi & Abel, 1990) and wine (Quester & Smart, 1998). A significant part of this variation has been attributed to individual differences in consumer susceptibility to normative influence (SNI, Bearden & Etzel, 1982).

Although a significant amount of research has focused on drivers of situational variation (cf. Gehrt & Shim, 2002; Park, Iyer & Smith, 1989; Schmitt & Schultz, 1995), past studies
almost exclusively focused on product attributes and failed to establish links to consumer-based brand equity in terms of the benefits desired by individuals in brands. Closing this knowledge gap is particularly important for wine because consumers buy brands (i.e. regional umbrella brands, proprietor or corporate brands) rather than merely products. Accordingly, wine marketing managers need to know how to design and deliver brand benefits and messages that are either robust across consumption situations and reference groups or are specifically tailored to a distinctive situation, where they outperform more universal brand designs.

Long-term objectives of this research thus aim at a better understanding of the consumer-situation-brand interactions in wine choice. More immediate objectives focus on the examination of what benefits consumers desire for different occasions, how SNI effects those benefits and consequently brand choice, and how individual values and social identity are antecedent to SNI. Figure 1 summarizes the postulated relationships.

**FIGURE 1. Conceptual Model**

**LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES**

**Desired Brand Benefits and Choice**

In the past, marketing researchers have focused on the relationship between consumers and the product class to predict brand choice (O’Connor & Sullivan, 1995). In particular, the
product attributes desired by consumers attracted researchers' interest, but researchers generally did not distinguish between the effect caused by the brand name and the effect originating in the product in terms of attribute level combinations. More recently, scholars have advanced the idea that the product as well as the brand name is capable of contributing several types of benefits to the consumer (Keller, 1993; Park & Srinivasan, 1994).

The theoretical and empirical literature on consumer-perceived or desired brand benefits suggests classifying those benefits according to a number of basic dimensions (Sheth, Newman & Gross, 1991). Multiple-item scales for assessing individual perceptions and desire of brand benefits have been developed (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Vazquez, Del Rio & Iglesias, 2002; Orth et al. 2004) with six distinct dimensions emerging, termed quality/performance, price/value for money, social, emotional, environmental, and health benefit. Recent applications of these scales to wine have demonstrated that the basic dimensions are suitable for predicting consumer preferences (Orth, McGary Wolf & Dodd, 2005). No study could be found, however, applying these insights to predict consumer choice of wine brands.

**Variation in Desired Benefits and Choice**

An ample body of studies indicates that the awareness that others will observe one’s decision induces impression-management concerns that lead individuals to alter their consumption choices (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Experimental evidence has confirmed that reference groups influence both individual brand and product choices (Aaker, 1999). The benefits desired by consumers in a brand have been found to play a role in this choice because they add to the self-expressive and symbolic value of the brand for the buyer (Lautmann, 1991), and thus to that buyer’s impression management efforts.

In situations where reference groups are salient, purchase and consumption are thus at least partly motivated by a need for public self-presentation and impression management (Aaker, 1999). Some brand benefits specifically pertain to socially visible aspects of a brand, e.g., how classy, or fashionable it is widely perceived to be or how cheap, value-for-money it is. The desire to obtain or avoid these benefits thus ought to be greater in consumption occasions in which a reference group is salient, i.e., where impression management needs are higher. Past research has indeed shown that social brand benefits are more important when the outcome is visible to others, e.g. for clothing (Batra, Homer & Kahle, 2001). Similarly, the social and value-for-money benefits consumers seek have been found to affect choice e.g. of candies (Dibley & Baker, 2001).

Just as different reference groups can make different self-conceptions more salient for an individual, the absence of these groups could also influence the salience of brand benefits. In a situation where the brand is being chosen privately for self-consumption, greater salience of more self-centered benefits such as emotional, or health benefits might lead to differential effects on brand choice. In short, there is both theoretical and empirical support for our notion that consumers seek different benefits in wine depending on the consumption occasion, and that this variation in desired benefits will ultimately cause variation in brand choice.

**Consumer Susceptibility to Normative Influence**

Researchers have further argued that those reference group effects discussed above will be stronger for certain more influenceable individuals, characterized by an individual difference construct called the susceptibility to interpersonal influence (McGuire, 1968). Consumer
susceptibility to interpersonal influence has been conceptualized as a general personality trait that varies across individuals and is related to other individual traits and characteristics. Social psychologists distinguished between informational influence, in which the group provides information about the issue in question, and normative influence, the motivation to mesh with the group’s standards and norms (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel (1989, p.278) define the construct as: “the need to identify with or enhance one’s image in the opinion of significant others through the acquisition and use of products and brands, the willingness to conform to the expectations of others regarding purchase decisions, and/or the tendency to learn about products and services by observing others or seeking information from others”.

Given the reference group effects outlined before, it seems likely that the benefits desired by an individual in wine, particularly social acceptance, and value-for-money, will depend on his or her susceptibility to the normative influence of others.

**Individual Values and SNI**

Values are conceptualized as enduring beliefs that individuals hold about specific modes of conduct they believe are important (Rokeach, 1973). Values have also been defined as cognitive representations of universal human requirements, both biological and social (Kahle & Timmer, 1983), and as the guiding principles in an individual’s life (Schwartz, 1992). Past research established that values as such guide the resolution of situations (Kahle, 1980), gift-giving behavior (Beatty et al., 1993) and effect consumer behavior more generally (Kahle, 1996).

Values can be divided into internal, external and fun/excitement values. External values, such as being well-respected and sense of belonging emphasize fulfillment beyond the control of the individual. Internal values, such as self-fulfillment and self-respect imply that the individual believes that he or she can control value fulfillment.

Because the motivational underpinnings of SNI are the desires to identify and comply with the norms of reference groups (cf. Burnkrant & Cosineau, 1975), it should relate to those values that lead to a greater desire to be obedient to and to comply with others. In fact, SNI has been found to correlate positively and strongly with external values (Batra, Homer & Kahle, 2001). In addition, “internals” have been found to be influenced less by environmental circumstances in contrast to “externals” (Rotter, 1967). There is also empirical support for the proposition that fun/excitement values behave in an internal way (Homer & Kahle, 1988). Overall, there is substantial support for our notion that individual susceptibility to normative influence is greatly effected by external, internal, and fun values.

**Social Identity, Values and Susceptibility to Normative Influence**

The importance of social group membership to an individual’s self-concept and social behavior is explicitly acknowledged in social identity theory (e.g., Tajfel, 1982; Turner, 1985), which posits that the self-concept has two distinct aspects. One is personal identity, which includes specific attributes of the individual such as competence, talent, and sociability. The other aspect is one’s social identity, defined as that part of an individual’s self-concept that derives from his or her knowledge of membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership (Tajfel, 1982). Social identity can
derive from a variety of group memberships, including those groups based on culture, gender, occupation, lifestyle, age, and brand preferences. Whereas personal identity refers to how people view themselves as individuals, social identity refers to how they view the social groups to which they belong. The latter constitutes the focus of our study.

Past consumer research has emphasized the potential of social identity theory for marketing applications (Reed, 2002). Referring to an individual’s subjective representation of the interrelationships among his or her multiple group identities, Roccas and Brewer (2002) introduce the concept of social identity complexity (SIC). SIC reflects the degree of overlap perceived to exist between groups to which a person simultaneously belongs. When the overlap of multiple ingroups is perceived to be high, the individual maintains a relatively simplified identity structure whereby memberships in different groups converge to form a single ingroup identification. When a person acknowledges and accepts that memberships in multiple ingroups are not fully convergent or overlapping, the associated identity structure is both more inclusive and more complex (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). Accordingly, SIC has been conceptualized as a two-dimensional construct with a similarity and an overlap dimension.

The scholars further suggest that SIC may interact with situational factors to effect the salience of specific ingroup identities and consequently relationships between self and others (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). In short, high SIC is suggested to have a buffering effect by helping individuals to confront threats to the status of any single ingroup (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). This is viewed as support for our notion that individuals with a more complex social identity will be less susceptible to the influence of others.

Through an empirical study, using Schwartz’s value inventory (Schwartz, 1992), Roccas and Brewer (2002) further demonstrate that SIC is related to individual values, that is, conservatism, openness, power, and universalism. An internal value orientation should foster development of social identity complexity because people with an internal orientation take a more active role in structuring their internal self-perceptions. External people, on the other hand, rely more strongly on the influence of others to structure their social identity, thus taking a less active role in constructing the complexity. With fun/excitement values, the focus of creating the environment is internal, but the structure of self is not the final product of the structuring. Enjoyment of the environment is the goal. Thus, for self structuring activities such as the development of social identity complexity, we may expect people who value fun to behave more externally. Given the previously described relation between SIC and SNI, social identity complexity appears to function as a mediator between individual values and SNI.

**Research Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses summarize the relationships developed over the previous sections and formalize the postulated links between brand choice, desired brand benefits, consumer susceptibility to normative influence, individual values, and social identity.

**H1:** Consumers will choose different wine brands for different occasions.

**H2:** The benefits desired by consumers in wine will affect their brand choice.

**H3:** The benefits desired by consumers will differ between occasions.

**H4:** The brand benefits that consumers desire will be influenced by consumer susceptibility to normative influence.
H5: Consumer susceptibility to normative influence will be directly affected by individual values and social identity complexity.

H6: An individual’s social identity complexity will be affected by their values.

EMPIRICAL STUDY

Pilot Study
A pilot study was conducted to select wine brands for the subsequent testing of hypotheses. Consistent with past research (Lautmann, 1991), this study examines wine as a single product category embedded within different situations. This selection takes into account the need for a product that is widely relevant for private as well as for public consumption. Furthermore, it builds upon Quester and Smart’s (1998) research which identified relevant consumption occasions and reference groups for wine. The specific situations include the purchase of a bottle of wine (1) to drink at home during the week, by oneself or with the significant other, (2) to share with five or six friends during a more formal dinner occasion, and (3) as a gift for the 50th birthday of a highly respected employer.

The brand selection further took into account past research reporting that consumer (wine) brand choice is formed more on the basis of benefits than on product attributes (Quester & Smart, 1998; Orth et al., 2004). Starting with the full set of wine brands available to consumers in major retail outlets on the U.S. West coast, a group of wine brand managers narrowed down the list to twelve brands covering a range of choices that differed on the brand benefits sought by consumers according to the three consumption situations. The final selection included six red wine brands (1999 Chateau Mont-Redon, Chateauneuf-du-Pape; 1999 Robert Mondavi Cabernet Sauvignon, Napa Valley; 2000 Chateau Ste. Michelle Merlot, Columbia Valley; 2002 Rosemount Estate Shiraz, Australia; 2001 Errazuriz Estates Cabernet Sauvignon, Chile; 2000 Mouton Lafitte, Bordeaux) and six white wines (2001 King Estate Pinot gris, Oregon; 2002 Kendall-Jackson Vintner’s Reserve Chardonnay, California; 2003 Yellow Tail Chardonnay, South Eastern Australia; 2002 Ecco Domani Pinot Grigio, Venezia; 2002 Bridgeview Blue Moon Riesling, Oregon; 2001 Columbia Crest Grand Estates Chardonnay, Columbia Valley). All brands included in this study are real and were obtained from local retailers.

Procedure
Respondents were recruited from a consumer panel on the U.S. West Coast. Each participant received a $10 gift certificate valid at a variety of regional stores for their effort. With knowledge of wine brands being regional, extending the study to a broader geographical area was considered counterproductive. 381 panel members were invited to participate in the survey with a response rate of 93.2% (N = 355). While the potential for non-response bias cannot be dismissed, we take this high response rate as evidence that non-response bias may be minimal.

An electronic survey site was set up where information was collected in one general section (demographics, personality) and three reference group-specific scenarios (choice, desired brand benefits). Consistent with past panel participation, consumers could access the survey through the Internet using individual login and password combinations. Each respondent first
completed the general section of the survey before proceeding to the situational scenarios which were presented in random order. Participants were permitted to complete only one scenario at a time, and at least 24 hours had to pass before the software algorithm allowed them to log on again and complete the next situation.

**Measures**

*Brand choice.* Within each situation, brand choice was measured by respondents choosing one brand from the set of twelve by double-clicking the respective color image.

*Desired Brand Benefits.* Measurement of desired brand benefits followed past studies and included the dimensions quality, price/value-for-money, social, emotional, environmental, and health benefits (Orth et al., 2004). The adequacy of the six-factor model was established through confirmatory factor analysis with results indicating an acceptable fit of the model ($\chi^2 (137) = 201.23, p < .001, GFI = .97, AGFI = .94, RMSEA = .058$). Item scores were aggregated into individual measures for each of the six factors (mean values) for use in subsequent analyses.

*Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence.* The eleven-item battery developed by Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel (1989) was employed to measure both the informational and the normative dimensions of an individual’s susceptibility to interpersonal influence. The adequacy of the two-factor model was supported through confirmatory factor analysis with results indicating an acceptable fit of the model ($\chi^2 (34) = 98.68, p < .001, GFI = .93, AGFI = .91, RMSEA = .077$). With past research indicating that only the normative dimension relates to situational effects (Bearden, Netemeyer & Teel, 1989), the aggregated measure of the normative component only (mean value of eight item scores) was used for further analyses.

*Values.* To measure individual values, respondents were asked to provide importance ratings on 7-point scales from 1 (extremely important) to 7 (not at all important), of the value items included in the list of values (Kahle, 1996). The adequacy of the three-factor measurement model confirmed before (Homer & Kahle, 1988: external, internal, and fun/excitement factors) was examined through confirmatory factor analysis (Hair, et al., 1998). Specifically, the three-factor model had a significantly lower chi-square and significantly better fit statistics (higher AGFI, lower RMSEA; $\chi^2 (24) = 90.72, p < .001, GFI = .93, AGFI = .90, RMSEA = .077$) than alternative one-, two- or four factor solutions. The results further indicate that the items loaded onto the constructs *internal values* (self-fulfillment, self-respect, sense of accomplishment), *external values* (security, sense of belonging, warm relationships with others, being well-respected), and *fun/excitement values* (fun and enjoyment in life, excitement). Those findings are compatible with past results (Homer & Kahle, 1988). Accordingly, the model was accepted for use of the constructs *internal values* (AVE = .69, CR = .82), *external values* (AVE = .74, CR = .88), and *fun values* (AVE = .73, CR = .87) in subsequent analysis, and item ratings were averaged to generate mean scores for the three dimensions.

*Social Identity Complexity.* Measurement of SIC followed the procedure outlined by Roccas and Brewer (2002). Respondents were reminded of their individual social group identities and answered a series of questions about the relationship they perceived between all pairings of their ingroups (e.g., friends, co-workers, social class). One series assessed their subjective impression of the extent of overlap in membership between each of their ingroups (e.g., “Of persons who are your friends, how many are also wine drinkers?”). Judgments were made on a 10-point scale ranging from 1 (very few) to 5 (about half) to 10 (all). An index of
overlap complexity was created by calculating the mean rating of overlap between ingroups.

A second series of questions assessed respondents’ subjective impression of the extent of similarity between each of their ingroups. Participants indicated how much they agree that a typical member of an ingroup is highly similar to a wine consumer (e.g., “In general, the typical wine consumer is very similar to my typical friend”), using a 7-point rating scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). An index of similarity was created by computing the mean similarity ratings across all ingroup pairs, with higher scores indicating greater shared characteristics and lower complexity. Considering the high correlation between overlap and similarity complexity, an aggregated measure of SIC was computed as the mean value of overlap and similarity complexity.

RESULTS

Variation in Brand Choice and Desired Benefits

Hypothesis 1 suggests that consumers will choose different brands for different occasions. This was tested through analysis of variance (ANOVA). As can be seen in Table 1, ANOVA results indicate that consumer choice differs for seven of twelve wine brands. A series of pair-wise comparisons of mean values (Scheffé) was conducted to identify details. For example, choice of Columbia Crest in the “self” scenario was found to be significantly different to both the “host” and the “gift” scenario. Choice of six more brands in the “self” situation was significantly different to either one or the other situation where reference groups were present. In addition, consumer choice in the “gift” scenario was found to be different to both other scenarios for four wine brands. Hypothesis 1 was accepted for seven brands.

Apparently there are two categories of brand designs. One category holds more “robust” brands, such as King Estate, Kendall Jackson, and Ecco Domani which show little variation in consumer choice across situations, maintaining relatively high percentages. The other category is made up of more “sensitive” brands which consumers chose with quite different frequencies. Respective brands are very popular in either the “self” (Columbia Crest, Rosemount), “host” (Chateau Ste. Michelle) or “gift” situation (Chateau Mont-Redon, Mondavi) but significantly less in others. This raises the question of what makes a brand design more or less robust.

Similarly, Hypothesis 3 suggests that the benefits desired by consumers in a wine brand will differ between occasions. This was first tested in a between-subjects design through analysis of variance. ANOVA results in Table 1 indicate that four of the benefits desired by consumers are different across situations, namely quality, price/ value-for-money, social and emotional benefits. Pair-wise comparisons of mean values (Scheffé) for the significant differences further indicate that consumers seek the highest quality and social benefits in the “gift” situation, and that price/ value-for-money and emotional benefits were significantly less desired in this situation. For the social benefit dimension, mean values are significantly different for all three scenarios. Hypothesis 3 was thus accepted for four benefits.
### TABLE 1. ANOVA Results (N = 346)

| Variable                   | Consumption occasion | Self | Hosting friends | Gift for employer | F    | p <  
|---------------------------|----------------------|------|-----------------|-------------------|------|------
| **Wine Brand Choice**     |                      |      |                 |                   |      |      
| Châteauneuf-du Pape       |                      | .02  | .02             | .23 ab            | 91.85| .001 
| Robert Mondavi            |                      | .07  | .14             | .33 ab            | 33.27| .001 
| Columbia Crest            |                      | .13  | .04 ab          | .02 b             | 15.66| .001 
| Rosemount                 |                      | .20  | .16 ab          | .06 ab            | 11.71| .001 
| Errazuriz                 |                      | .06  | .07 b           | .00 ab            | 6.99 | .001 
| Chateau St. Michelle      |                      | .19  | .23 a           | .12 a             | 5.67 | .004 
| Yellow Tail               |                      | .04  | .02             | .00 a             | 4.32 | .014 
| Mouton Lafitte            |                      | .03  | .02             | .00               | 1.82 | .163 
| King Estate               |                      | .10  | .15             | .12               | 1.65 | .192 
| Kendall Jackson           |                      | .08  | .05             | .05               | .818 | .442 
| Ecco Domani               |                      | .06  | .08             | .04               | 1.78 | .169 
| Bridgeview                |                      | .03  | .02             | .01               | .545 | .580 
| **Desired Brand Benefits**|                      |      |                 |                   |      |      
| Quality                   |                      | 5.52 | 5.70 ab         | 6.03 ab           | 16.36| .001 
| Price                     |                      | 5.43 | 5.25 ab         | 4.46 ab           | 43.05| .001 
| Social                    |                      | 2.50 | 3.74 bc         | 4.44 bc           | 115.10| .001 
| Emotional                 |                      | 5.29 | 5.14 ab         | 4.73 bc           | 13.24| .001 

*Pairs of identical superscripts indicate a significant difference between mean values (p < .001).*

With each participant providing information about the brand benefits desired in each situation, a supplementary within-subjects analysis was conducted to compare the “self” and the “gift” situation. For each respondent, difference scores were computed as $x_{\text{Diff.}} = x_{\text{self}} - x_{\text{gift}}$. T-test results in table 2 indicate that all differences are significant (p < .05). This finding complements the between-subjects ANOVA where environmental and health benefits did not differ significantly across all three situations. Considering individual variation in these brand benefits indicates that consumers seek more environmental and health benefits in the “self” situation. The findings further corroborate Hypothesis 3.
Desired Benefits Effect Choice

Hypothesis 2 and Hypotheses 4 – 6 postulate causal relationships between choice and antecedent constructs. They tested simultaneously through a confirmatory factor analysis (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 2000) using AMOS 4.0 (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999). Based on the preliminary analyses, the aggregated measures for individual values, SNI, SIC, and desired benefits were included. Utilization of these aggregated constructs parallels past efforts (Batra & Homer, 2004; Bearden, Netemeyer & Teel, 1989; Roccas & Brewer, 2002), yields an acceptable variable-sample size ratio, and reduces model complexity. Table 3 (see last page) holds the results for the data pooled across situations (Model A) with statistics indicating a satisfactory fit of the data: $\chi^2(66) = 384.63, p < .001, GFI = .96, AGFI = .93, RMSEA = .068$.

Overall, the satisfactory fit indices indicate that the hypothesized relations between model constructs are well represented by the data. Specifically, the benefits desired by consumers in wine strongly influenced their choice of wine for any consumption situation. For each of the twelve brands included in this study several benefits dimensions predicted choice. Hypothesis 2 was accepted accordingly.

While the fit statistics describe how well the data fits the models across brands, regression coefficients are reported separately for each brand. For example, pooled across situations, the choice of Chateau Mont-Redon is positively influenced by social benefits (.18) and quality (.13), and negatively by price/value-for-money (-.10) and emotional benefits (-.08).

This pattern matrix can be interpreted in two ways. First, for each brand the coefficients (and the non-significant cells) characterize the brand profile (or positioning) from a consumer perspective. For example, Mondavi is positioned as high quality but little value-for-money (high price) brand. This position is quite consistent across situations. Similarly, Columbia Crest is positioned as a good value-for-the-money but with negative social benefits (not classy). There are brands, however, such as Rosemount or Bridgeview not exhibiting a clear profile. While the lack of model explanatory power could be attributed to the small number of choices for Bridgeview, there may be additional factors relevant for Rosemount that are not included in the model.

In addition, we considered the drivers of wine brand choice by running a competing Model B on separate sub-samples for each of the three consumption situations. Again, overall fit statistics were satisfactory: $\chi^2(66) = 318.24, p < .001, GFI = .98, AGFI = .95, RMSEA = .045$. 

### TABLE 2. T-Test Results for Variation in Desired Brand Benefits (“self”–“gift”, Test value = 0)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand benefit</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significance (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>-12.3</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>-1.96</td>
<td>-29.3</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The improved overall fit over Model A further accounts for the significant influence of the consumption situation on desired brand benefits and choice. For example, both Chateau Mont-Redon and Mondavi, brands that were chosen over other brands as a gift, have significant positive loadings on the social benefit dimension (.13 and .11 respectively) and also on the quality dimension. Linking the coefficients to choice frequency would indicate that a social benefit factor of .13 helps Chateau Mont-Redon accomplish a 23% share, while a .11 social benefit in conjunction with a .10 quality factor elevates Mondavi to 33%. Columbia Crest, on the other hand, a brand almost never chosen in this situation, exhibits a significant negative coefficient (-.17) for this dimension. Similarly, Chateau Ste. Michelle, the leading brand in the “host” situation, is characterized by significant positive loadings on the social (.08) and price dimension (.17). Columbia Crest, the brand most often chosen for the “self” situation, shows a strong positive loading (.21) on the value-for-money factor.

Revisiting the question of what makes a brand design more or less robust or sensitive to situational brand switching; it appears that the patterns of desired brand benefits may provide at least an initial answer. Comparing Mondavi and King Estate, two brands where consumer choice varied significantly (Mondavi) and showed little variation (King Estate) across situations, might hint at a solution. Mondavi, the favorite brand for the “gift” situation, clearly has a sharp profile with positive (quality) and negative coefficients (price) very consistent across situations. King Estate, on the other hand, a brand that is chosen by consumers quite consistently, does not have such a sharp profile. Instead, quality (negative for both “host” and “gift”), price (negative for “self” and positive for “gift”), emotional (.12 “host”), and environmental (positive for “self” and “gift”) factors drive consumer choice depending on the situation. The social dimension does not have a significant impact at all. Kendall Jackson and Ecco Domani, the two other brands chosen by consumers at substantial levels across situations, exhibit similarly diffuse profiles, with Kendall Jackson being different in that the social factor coefficients are consistently positive across situations. These patterns can be interpreted as initial evidence that a strong, sharp and clear brand image, such as the one apparently projected by Mondavi, make a brand more sensitive to situational variation in brand choice. Less distinct or more diffuse brand designs, such as the one projected by King Estate (be it on purpose or accidentally), consequently make the brand less vulnerable to situational variation.

Drivers of Variation in Desired Benefits

Hypothesis 4 suggests that the benefits desired by consumers in a brand will be linked to consumer susceptibility to normative influence. Corresponding significant path effects were found for both Model A and B. SNI had a strong positive effect on desired social benefits, and effected the price/ value-for-money dimensions negatively. Hypothesis 4 was accepted. Hypothesis 5 suggests that individual susceptibility to normative influence will be linked to individual values and social identity complexity. Results indicate a significant positive path from external values -> SNI, a significant negative path from internal values -> SNI, and no significant path from fun / excitement values -> SNI. Table 2 further shows a significant negative path from SIC -> SNI across all situations. Hypothesis 5 thus was accepted.

Finally, Hypothesis 6 suggests that social identity complexity will be correlated with individual values. The findings show a positive path from internal values -> SIC, no significant path from external values -> SIC and a negative path from fun / excitement values -> SIC.
Therefore, Hypotheses 6 was accepted.

**DISCUSSION**

While past research demonstrated variation in individual behavior and specifically in consumer brand preferences across situations, little is known in terms of what the drivers are of corresponding effects, specifically for wine. This research attempts to close this gap in order to assist brand managers in designing and managing wine brands that are either robust across consumption occasions or tailored towards a particular situation. Building upon and extending past studies suggesting desired benefits (Orth, McGary Wolf & Dodd, 2005), consumer susceptibility to normative influence (Batra, Homer & Kahle, 2001), social identity (Roccas & Brewer, 2002) and individual values (Kahle, 1996) as drivers of situational variation; and integrating research identifying relevant consumption occasions (Quester & Smart, 1998), reference groups (Quester & Smart, 1998), and brand benefits (Orth, McGary Wolf & Dodd, 2005) for wine, data was collected from a consumer sample in one general session and three typical consumption scenarios typical for wine. The findings of this study confirm that individual choice of wine brands varies across occasions. This variation can be attributed to the variation in brand benefits that consumers desire which in turn are related to personality.

These findings are important for several reasons. First, they provide a new explanation to supplement earlier accounts of variation in individual behavior across situations, specifically brand choice. Our results demonstrate that when consumers know what group of others will observe their behavior, their choice will adjust accordingly. Because the perceived norms of behaviorally relevant reference groups influence brand choice, more attention needs to be given to the social context in which future studies will be conducted. By confirming that the salience of different reference groups induces variation in impression-management concerns, leading individuals to alter their choices, this study is in line with past suggestions (Aaker, 1999).

Second, this research identifies drivers of differential wine brand choice. Initially, the benefits consumers desire in a brand were found to be a useful concept for explaining their choice. Using pooled data across situations as well as for each situation separately, the six benefits dimensions included in the model were found to be useful predictors of brand choice. More robust brand designs emerged showing benefits patterns consistent across situations while other brands were more susceptible to situational variation as indicated by differential benefits patterns. More importantly, consumers were found to seek different benefits across situations. Particularly, greater quality and more social benefits were desired in situations where reference groups were present. In the “self” consumption situation, individuals sought more value-for-money and emotional benefits, and – contrasted with the “gift” situation – more environmental and health benefits. Accordingly, variation in desired benefits was identified as a primary driver of differential brand choice.

Third, consumer personality factors were examined in order to determine their relation to desired brand benefits. The findings indicate significant effects for consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence, social identity complexity and the values an individual holds. This is important because it allows brand managers to tailor brand designs to consumer groups whose
demographic characteristics have been tied to those personality construct by past research (Kamakura and Novak, 1992). With information on who the individuals are that vary more or less in their desire for specific brand benefits brand designs can be developed that are either robust across situations or are specifically tailored to better meet a given situation.

The conclusions regarding brands extend past evidence of consumer differential choice of products. Generally, focusing on the benefits desired by consumers in a brand outperforms the insights gained from examining the importance of product attributes. While the benefits derived from a wine brand clearly are rooted in product attributes (e.g., price contributes to the value-for-money dimension) findings of differential consumer desire are superior to past reports on product attribute importance in that the motivational drivers become more clear with more actionable implications for managers. For example, past findings (Orth, McGary Wolf & Dodd, 2005) of a higher importance of wine origins in situations when consumers did not consume the wine by themselves do not allow the identification of product or communication alternatives beyond the limited number of options included in the experimental setup. In addition, the underlying reasons why consumers prefer a specific wine origin, varietal or even price remain unclear. In contrast, our findings on the benefits desired in a brand provide a more complete explanation of consumer choice. Linking benefits to attributes may then be useful in explaining why consumers prefer one origin over another or why some varietals are perceived as more or less classy. In addition, insight into the motivational underpinnings of consumer choice opens a wide field for marketers developing persuasive brand designs and creating innovative designs that convey brand essences to target audiences. The benefits dimensions included in this research are still highly aggregate, and, considering the large number of more than 200 different emotions identified by psychologists as drivers of human behavior (Holbrook & Batra, 1989) brand managers are left with a broad range of options for creating e.g. emotional attachments for brand designs targeting “self” consumption.

With only a single market examined in this research, it cannot be excluded that our descriptive findings may be limited to this culture. Nonetheless, this study significantly extends currently available research on wine consumer – situation – brand interactions. By analyzing a number of variables that have been examined in other contexts, knowledge of their interactions in a wine marketing context provides a far more comprehensive understanding of consumer behavior. Future studies could apply and extend the findings to include additional cultures, personality traits, situational and brand characteristics (e.g. altruistic motivations) to provide an even more accurate understanding of consumer differential wine brand choice.

REFERENCES


### TABLE 2. Observed Effects (all effects significant with p < .05)

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