

Organic wine: choice and consumer value perceptions

by

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Abstract

The purchase and consumption of organic wine are generally ascribed to altruistic motivation. However, there is a dearth of research that can comprehensively explain the value perceptions of organic wine consumers and why such consumers may move from conventional to organic wine and vice versa.

This study offers a new theoretical perspective on how organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions. The study poses two research questions to achieve this objective: What dimensions of consumer value perceptions influence consumers to purchase and consume organic wine instead of conventional wine, and how do they relate to each other? Why does a segment of organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine?

The study employs a constructivist grounded theory approach to answer these research questions and presents the findings emerging from 25 interviews with a selection of conventional and organic wine consumers in the United Kingdom.

The study extends existing theory about the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Organic wine consumers develop their perceptions of value through a process that involves an interplay between the emotions generated by organic wine and perceptions of the benefits obtained through organic wine consumption. The motivations of organic wine consumers are personal and selfish rather than altruistic. A cycle of selective information search leads to the development, and constant reinforcement, of an emotional (rather than cognitive) consumption loyalty to organic wine. However, organic wine consumers are not dogmatic in their behaviour and are flexible about the purchase and consumption of conventional wine without feeling dissonance. This flexibility offers an understanding of why organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine. As a result, the study proposes an alternative conceptual model of the consumers' perceptions of the value of organic wine.

The findings suggest that further research intending to offer insights into the enduring involvement of consumers with organic wine, as well as extending the applicability of the proposed conceptualisation to organic products generally, is justified. Marketers of organic wine should focus less on organic wine's sustainability characteristics and concentrate more on the benefits provided for consumers personally.

Key words: consumer value perception, organic wine, UK

Opsomming

Die koop en verbruik van organiese wyn word oor die algemeen toegeskryf aan altruïstiese motiewe. Daar is egter 'n gebrek aan navorsing wat die waardepersepsies van die verbruikers van organiese wyn omvattend kan verklaar, asook hoekom sulke verbruikers moontlik sal beweeg van konvensionele na organiese wyn en omgekeerd.

Hierdie studie bied 'n nuwe, teoretiese perspektief op hoe die verbruikers van organiese wyn hulle waardepersepsies ontwikkel en openbaar. Die studie vra twee navorsingsvrae om hierdie doelwit te bereik: Watter dimensies van verbruikers se waardepersepsies beïnvloed verbruikers om organiese wyn eerder as konvensionele wyn te koop en te verbruik, en hoe hou hulle verband met mekaar? Hoekom is daar 'n segment van verbruikers van organiese wyn wat tussen organiese en konvensionele wyn 'dryf'?

Die studie maak gebruik van 'n konstruktivistiese gegronde teoretiese benadering om hierdie navorsingsvrae te beantwoord. Die bevindinge wat aangebied word kom uit 25 onderhoude met 'n verskeidenheid verbruikers van konvensionele en organiese wyn in die Verenigde Koninkryk (VK).

Die studie brei bestaande teorie oor die waardepersepsies van verbruikers van organiese wyn uit. Verbruikers van organiese wyn ontwikkel hulle waardepersepsies deur 'n proses wat die samespel behels tussen die emosies wat deur organiese wyn gegenereer word en die persepsies van die voordele wat verkry word uit die verbruik van organiese wyn. Die motiverings van verbruikers van organiese wyn is persoonlik en selfsugtig eerder as altruïsties. 'n Siklus van selektiewe soeke na inligting lei tot die ontwikkeling en konstante versterking van 'n emosionele (eerder as kognitiewe) verbruikerslojaliteit aan organiese wyn. Verbruikers van organiese wyn is egter nie dogmaties in hulle gedrag nie en is buigsaam oor die koop en verbruik van konvensionele wyn sonder om dissonansie te ervaar nie. Hierdie buigsaamheid bied 'n begrip vir hoekom verbruikers van organiese wyn kan dryf tussen organiese en konvensionele wyn. Gevolglik stel hierdie studie 'n alternatiewe konseptuele model voor van hierdie verbruikers se persepsies van die waarde van organiese wyn.

Die bevindinge stel voor dat nog navorsing geregtig is om insigte te lewer oor die blywende betrokkenheid van verbruikers by organiese wyn, asook oor die uitbreiding van die toepasbaarheid van die voorgestelde konseptualisasie na organiese produkte oor die algemeen. Die bemarkers van organiese wyn moet minder fokus op die volhoubaarheidskenmerke van die wyn en meer konsentreer op die voordele wat dit aan verbruikers persoonlik sal verskaf.

Sleutelwoorde: verbruikers se waardepersepsie, organiese wyn, VK

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CHAPTER 1

CONTEXTUALISING THE STUDY

The perceived value of a product is a reflection of the subjective importance of the product to consumers rather than an objective importance that is inherent in the product itself (Bloch & Richins, 1983). Perceived value is, therefore, a key concept in understanding how consumers adopt an attitude towards a product and consequently their purchase and consumption behaviour (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sánchez-Fernández, Iniesta-Bonillo, & Holbrook, 2009).

There are numerous studies that investigate the value perceptions of consumers in relation to organic wine. However, earlier organic wine research presents an incomplete understanding of how organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions and of the relationship between value perceptions and consumer purchase and consumption behaviour. This study extends the current knowledge by offering an understanding of the process through which organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions. The study also examines the relationship between the value perceptions of organic wine consumers and their purchase and consumption behaviour. As a result, the study presents a new conceptual model of the development and manifestation of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

This study, therefore, has both theoretical implications for organic wine research as well as practical relevance for marketers of organic wine. The study also contributes to the wider consumer behaviour research by presenting a product-specific conceptual model of the process through which organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions. This conceptual model can have relevance in other contexts.

1.1 Why organic wine?

The study is pertinent as the organic food market has moved from niche to mainstream in recent years (Bauer, Heinrich, & Schäfer, 2013; Hughner, McDonagh, Prothero, Shultz, & Stanton, 2007; Latacz-Lohmann & Foster, 1997). This growth has been prompted primarily by changes in individual and societal values that put greater emphasis on the consumption of healthy food and respect for the environment (Hjelmar, 2011; Ruiz de Maya, López-López, & Munuera, 2011). Consumers are also paying greater attention to the ethics of production (Clarke, Cloke, Barnett, & Malpass, 2008). As a result, sustainable credentials are becoming increasingly important for companies in their branding and marketing campaigns (Heyns, Herbst, & Bruwer, 2014). Consequently, many studies have tried to understand the value perceptions of consumers regarding organic products in order to predict their

behaviour (Buder, Feldmann, & Hamm, 2014; Pearson, Henryks, & Jones, 2011; Pellegrini & Farinello, 2009).

Many European countries, as well as the United States and Australia, have well-established organic markets (Bouzdine-Chameeva & Krzywoszynska, 2011; Mann, Ferjani, Reissig, & Ayala, 2010; Sogari, Mora, & Menozzi, 2013a; Wier & Calverley, 2002). The global organic market was worth \$81 billion in 2017, of which the UK contributed £2.09 billion, an increase of 7.1% compared to 2016 (Soil Association, 2017). However, according to a recent report from (Soil Association, 2021), the organic market in the UK increased the highest in 15 years, and it was worth £2.79 billion in 2021. Organic wine was only a relatively small proportion of overall wine sales in the UK. Nevertheless, sales of organic wines, beers and spirits rose by 14.3% in 2016, reaching almost £6 million (Soil Association, 2017). However, in 2019, the “big winner” in the Soil Association’s UK organic market 2020, it was organic wine with the total organic market growing 4.5% in 2019 to be worth £2.45 billion (Soil Association 2020). Consequently, although sales of organic wine are still small in absolute terms, the UK possesses a growing segment of consumers who purchase and consume organic wine (Loveless, Mueller, Lockshin, & Corsi, 2010). The UK market, therefore, offers an opportunity to investigate the value perceptions of organic wine consumers in a growing market where organic wine is slowly moving from a niche to a more mainstream position (Sharples, 2000). An understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers can therefore extend the theory that predicts how consumers engage with organic wines (and therefore organic products generally), helping marketers and retailers.

Although there is often confusion between the terms such as organic, biodynamic, natural and traditional (Castellini, Mauracher, Procidano, & Sacchi, 2013; Hughner et al., 2007; Olsen, Thach, & Hemphill, 2012; Siderer, Maquet, & Anklam, 2005), this study investigates the value perceptions of consumers regarding organic wine. In practical terms, this means that the study focuses on wine that is certified organic as defined in European Union Regulation 203/2012 of 8 March 2012 or equivalents, such as the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) organic regulations and the Australian Certified Organic Standard. According to the Soil Association, the definition of organic wine is a product that has been certified by low to organic standards. Organic wine product has to do and follow some requirements and cover everything, such as the use of pesticides, land management, preservation and storage (Soil Association, 2021).

1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to contribute to the research into how organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions and how these value perceptions are reflected in their wine purchase and

consumption behaviour. In doing so, the study also aims to enhance understanding of why organic wine consumers float between the purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine. An understanding of the behaviour of floating organic wine consumers will help put into context the relationship between value perceptions and purchase and consumption behaviour.

Research into the value perceptions of organic wine consumers has generally used constructs adapted from consumption-value theory, particularly the concept of multiple dimensions of value (Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991). This study, however, investigates the value perceptions of organic wine consumers as a dynamic process. In doing so, the study examines the relationship between the different value dimensions which influence organic wine consumers. The study also explores the relationship between consumption context and value perceptions. Consequently, the study investigates not only the development of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers but also how consumers manifest their value perceptions in practice.

The study is therefore situated within the framework of consumer behaviour theory in the context of organic wine consumption.

1.3 Significance of the research

The conceptual model proposed in the study is grounded in data obtained through interviews with consumers of both organic and conventional wine. It, therefore, relies on the voices of the study participants and does not impose a priori ideas or concepts on the study. The study, therefore, represents a ‘bottom-up’ approach using rich data from interviews to understand how consumers perceive the value of organic wine. By adopting a qualitative methodology, which is under-used in wine research, the study provides insights into organic wine consumers from a different perspective, based on the realities of the participants and their lives.

The study makes two significant contributions to the current knowledge regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. First, the study addresses a gap in the current theoretical understanding by presenting a new perspective on the process through which organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions of organic wine. In doing so, the study identifies the value dimensions which influence organic wine consumers within their social environments. The study also investigates the relationships between different value dimensions, both hierarchically and sequentially. The study, therefore, extends a number of concepts widely found in the organic wine literature, including the role played by consumers’ values and beliefs in their wine purchase and consumption behaviour. The study also presents a new perspective with regard to why organic wine consumers float between the purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine.

Second, organic wine is a complex product involving multiple consumer value perspectives (Olsen et al., 2012). Through understanding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers, the study develops an alternative conceptual model which is generalisable to research fields outside that of organic wine. The study, therefore, makes a contribution to research into consumer behaviour generally. The findings of the study also have practical relevance for marketers of organic wine and of organic products generally.

1.4 Research methodology and strategy

Quantitative studies impose a priori theories and hypotheses upon research that investigates consumer behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Erasmus, Boshoff, & Rousseau, 2001; Gutman, 1982). Quantitative studies also focus upon the relationship between variables (Xu & Schwarz, 2009). Consequently, the predominant influence of quantitative research methodologies in organic wine studies leads to an incomplete understanding of what is really ‘going on’ with organic wine consumers. This study, on the other hand, uses a constructivist grounded theory research approach to investigate the process through which organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions (Charmaz, 2014). In doing so, the study uses rich data to investigate the realities of organic wine consumers, leading to the emergence of a revised understanding (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser, 1992). Consequently, rather than trying to explain a wider truth that is ‘out there’ from a realist ontological perspective (Glaser, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), this study constructs an interpretive, relativist understanding of the social realities of organic wine consumers based upon the voices of the study participants themselves (Charmaz, 2014). Through an understanding of individuals, the study develops an updated understanding of the wider process through which organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions.

1.5 Outline of the dissertation

Chapter 2 locates the study within existing theories of consumer behaviour and places the study in the context of theoretical models used in organic wine studies. In doing so, Chapter 2 presents a literature review for sensitising purposes only (Charmaz, 2014; Lempert, 2007) rather than as a basis for the development of hypotheses for testing. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology and the research strategy that the study adopted, including the rationale for the selection of a qualitative research methodology. Chapter 4 outlines the reasons for the selection of constructivist grounded theory rather than alternative qualitative methods. Chapters 5 and 6 present the grounded theory of *Manifesting Identity* as an organic wine consumer. Chapter 5 describes the process of *Attaching Significance*, showing how consumers develop their value perceptions in relation to organic wine. Chapter 6 shows how organic wine consumers manifest their value perceptions regarding organic

wine in their purchase and consumption behaviour through the process of *Performing Organics*. Chapter 6 also examines how organic wine consumers reflect their value perceptions of organic wine when interacting with other wine consumers through the process of *Spreading the Word*. Finally, Chapter 7 discusses the study findings and presents a number of conclusions regarding the development and manifestation of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Chapter 7 also addresses issues of credibility and validity in the study.

CHAPTER 2

LOCATING THE STUDY – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a perspective on previous studies of multi-dimensional consumer behaviour models that investigate the value perceptions of organic wine consumers in relation to organic wine. Most organic wine studies have used an altered model based on consumption-value theory. However, this model provides only a limited view of a complex process. There are also some significant gaps in the research into the value dimensions that influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers and how they relate to each other. As a result, earlier studies fail to reveal the total value of organic wine as perceived by organic wine consumers. Consequently, a new theoretical basis needs to be developed to understand how value is perceived by organic wine consumers. In developing a new theoretical basis, existing constructs and concepts can inform the research process (Lempert, 2007), but the researcher needs to organise interviews with organic wine consumers in order to construct the theory itself. This process requires revisiting not only existing models of consumer behaviour but also reviewing the assumptions inherent in the earlier organic wine literature.

This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part reviews the concepts of value and perceived value. The second part proceeds to discuss consumer organic wine studies. The third part of the chapter reviews how prior organic wine literature has portrayed the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. In doing so, the chapter brings out a number of gaps in the current understanding of how organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions. The chapter concludes by proposing two research questions for investigation in the study.

2.2 Role of a literature review in grounded theory

It is required to understand the role played by a literature review in a constructivist grounded theory study before reviewing the consumer behaviour literature and wine studies. In a quantitative research study, the researcher uses prior literature to identify constructs and theories that can assist in the development of hypotheses, which can then be tested (Blaikie, 2009; Creswell, 1994; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2015). However, in constructivist grounded theory study, the aim is to develop fresh insights and theory from the research data itself. Consequently, a constructivist grounded theory study should not allow prior literature to impose a priori theories or hypotheses upon the research (Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Instead, prior literature serves to frame the research (Creswell, 1994) and to sensitise the researcher to previous research, thereby helping to avoid repetition and to focus the scope of the study (Lempert, 2007). This means that the significance

of a constructivist grounded theory study, and the way it relates to prior literature, can only be properly understood during the research and analysis process itself (Glaser, 1998; Charmaz, 2014). Consequently, only once a grounded theory starts to emerge from the data can the researcher specify the relationship between the research and the literature and understand the relevance and importance of the study.

The researcher undertook the literature review in two phases. The first literature review phase highlights the way in which prior organic wine studies focused on a limited number of variables to explain the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. This review raised a number of issues that the researcher think needs further investigation. Consequently, the researcher undertook a short field study designed to seek the opinions of wine producers and retailers with regard to the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The researcher arranged interviews with producers and retailers rather than consumers during the first phase in order to obtain a third-party view of organic wine consumer behaviour. Following this initial field study, the researcher undertook a further review of the literature to inform emerging ideas regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. This led to the identification of two research questions. The researcher then returned to the field for an extended period to find answers to the research questions. This second phase of field research involved interviews with organic and conventional wine consumers in the UK. As a result, there was a continuous interplay between the researcher, the participants in the field studies and the literature, leading to the constant development of ideas. The researcher, therefore, used previous consumer behaviour and wine literature for the following three purposes: first, to identify how prior organic wine studies incorporated theories of consumer behaviour; second, to identify issues that relate to the current understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers; and third, to highlight constructs and theories related to organic wine consumers that could serve as guidelines for an investigation of the research questions.

This section has presented an overview of the role of a literature review in a constructivist grounded theory study and discussed the development of the research questions. The following section proceeds to outline the main concepts relevant to the study before addressing how previous organic wine studies have used existing consumer behaviour models to investigate the question of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The section also reviews how prior organic wine literature portrays the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

2.3 Concepts of value and perceived value

The first part of the literature review outlines how concepts of value and perceived value are portrayed in consumer behavioural studies. There are four main points. First, the definition of value is not

standard. Second, perceived value is a subjective evaluation undertaken by consumers based on multiple criteria. Third, value perceptions are dynamic. Fourth, value is co-created between the consumer and the product.

1. Definition of value: The concept of value originated in the business culture of the 1990s, which discovered that the key to business success is to create value for the customer (Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). As a result, marketing strategists focused on the creation of value (Holbrook, 1996). However, despite the focus on value creation, there is no standard definition of the term value (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). This is perhaps surprising given the wide use of the term in the literature (Khalifa, 2004), and often results in value being confused with other terminology such as values, price or quality (Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). As a result, many different concepts of value appear in consumer behaviour studies. Woodall (2003), for instance, proposes five different ways of perceiving value – net value, marketing value, derived values, sales value and rationale value.
2. Perceived value is subjective: The lack of a standard definition of value is important for this study as it indicates that value is not an objective measure in which a product's characteristics can be evaluated against an external scale. Instead, value for consumers is subjective. Value changes from consumer to consumer based on the assessment of a product's attributes and the benefits that the product brings to them personally (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Conchar, Zinkhan, Peters, & Olavarrieta, 2004; Bray, 2008; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Macdonald, Wilson, & Martinez, 2009). Consumers also consider the risks inherent in purchase and consumption decisions, such as financial loss, social embarrassment or poor product quality, when arriving at their perception of the product value in addition to the benefits brought by a product (Ajzen, 2001; Andrews, Durvasula, & Akhter, 1990; Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991; Kapferer & Laurent, 1993; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Mittal, 1988; Reddy, 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Sweeney, Soutar, & Johnson, 1999). Consumers can be emotional while setting preferences, and those preferences can be determined during the actual decision-making process (Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 2008). This shows that the way that consumers evaluate a product is not necessarily logical or rational (Bettman et al., 2008; Thaler, 1980). Consumers also attach different degrees of importance to specific product purchase decisions (Houston & Rothschild, 1978; Rothschild, 1984). Consequently, the attitude of consumers towards the same product varies, and different consumers perceive the value of a product differently at different times and in different ways (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Woodall,

2003). It is, therefore, not value per se that is important in terms of consumer behavioural studies but the subjective perception of the value of a product to consumers.

3. Value perceptions are dynamic: Perceived value changes with time and according to the situation (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Macdonald, Wilson, Martinez, & Toossi, 2011). Consumer preferences for a particular product are therefore not constant (Fishbach & Dhar, 2008). Consequently, consumer value perceptions at or before purchase (value-at-purchase) and consumer perceptions of value during product use (value-in-use) may differ (Verdú Jover, Lloréns Montes, & Fuentes Fuentes, 2004). In this sense, the perceived value of a product is not only related to the product itself but is created in use: consumers are seeking the product experience, not just the product itself (Holbrook et al., 2006; Macdonald et al., 2009). Value-at-purchase and value-in-use are also two separate and distinct constructs, involving two different perspectives on value (Macdonald et al., 2009; Macdonald et al., 2011). However, many consumer behavioural studies either concentrate on the purchase situation and omit value-in-use or fuse value-at-purchase and value-in-use into one concept (Erasmus et al., 2001). This results in a misleading, or only partial, understanding of the value perceptions of consumers in relation to a specific product, such as wine (Charters & Pettigrew, 2006, 2007). As consumers seek a consumption experience in relation to wine (Mora & Moscarola, 2010), behavioural models need to reflect the dynamic nature of the value perceptions of wine consumers.
4. Value is co-created: Consumers do not act in a vacuum, and value is also created for businesses that provide consumers with products that meet their needs or offer levels of service that are valued by consumers (Bolton & Drew, 1991; Gummesson, Lusch, & Vargo, 2010; Lapierre, 2000; Macdonald et al., 2009; Vargo & Lusch, 2010). Consequently, value is co-created through an interaction between consumers and businesses on the basis of their products (Gummesson et al., 2010; Vargo & Lusch, 2008). This concept is often overlooked in consumer behaviour studies that do not address the importance of the long-term, enduring relationship between consumers and a product in influencing consumer value perceptions (Bloch & Richins, 1983).

The above review of the concepts of value and the perceived value indicates that the value of a product to consumers is subjective and personal (Holbrook, 2006; Holbrook & Corfman, 1985; Woodall, 2003). It is also heavily dependent upon consumers' long-term relationship with a product (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). In addition, value perceptions are dynamic and can change according to the situation and with time (Woodruff & Gardial, 1996). These concepts are important when reviewing how prior organic wine

studies have tried to understand how and why organic wine consumers perceive value in organic wine.

As a result of the highly complex nature of perceived value, behavioural studies have devoted considerable attention to understanding how consumers develop their value perceptions and, consequently, arrive at their purchase and consumption decisions. The following section reviews how prior organic wine studies have used a number of different consumer behaviour models when investigating the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

2.4 Theories of consumer behaviour used in organic wine studies

This section is the second part of the literature review. It outlines several consumer behaviour theories that have been used in prior organic wine studies. The section begins by looking at theories that are marginal to organic wine studies. These include theories that have been used only occasionally or that are cited in organic wine studies but have not been used as a basis for empirical research. The section then reviews consumer behaviour models that have appeared more frequently in organic wine research. This review concludes that most organic wine studies have used an adapted model of consumption-value theory to explain the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

Consumer behaviour models assume that consumers are goal-directed and that consumer behaviour is aimed at achieving those goals (Baumgartner & Pieters, 2008; Bettman et al., 2008). Consumer choice is therefore driven by a number of underlying goals, which can be held simultaneously (Fishbach & Dhar, 2008). To explain how consumers achieve those goals, two main streams of consumer behaviour theory have emerged: uni-dimensional theories and multi-dimensional theories of utility. Both uni-dimensional and multi-dimensional behavioural models have been used in organic wine studies.

2.4.1 Non-core theories used in organic wine studies

Uni-dimensional theories of utility

Uni-dimensional theories are based primarily on economics and a trade-off between what is received and what is given (Thaler, 1980; Zeithaml, 1988). Moreover, uni-dimensional theories of utility are essentially based on economics. Initial studies focused on the relationship between the benefit brought by the product (utility) and the price paid (Dodds & Monroe, 1985; Dodds et al., 1991; Lapierre, 2000). Another form of the utility model is the means-end chain theory (Gutman 1982). This theory links consumer values to their behaviour (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Zeithaml (1988) used it to investigate the relationship between price, perceived quality and perceived value.

She concluded that consumers evaluate the utility of a product based on the relationship between the value of what is received and what is given (Zeithaml, 1988).

However, price-based theories of utility have been criticised for failing to recognise that consumers do not necessarily take decisions based upon maximisation of utility (Ajzen, 2008). Utility theories also treat consumers as essentially rational and cognitive, which is inconsistent with the fact that consumer decisions are often made contrary to economic theory (Thaler, 1980). Consequently, while organic wine studies do recognise the importance of price and quality in consumer decisions, uni-dimensional models have not been used as a theoretical basis through which to investigate the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

Multi dimension theories

Multi-dimensional theories emphasise consumer evaluation of a product's attributes and what the product signifies to them personally on multiple levels (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Kahle & Xie, 2008; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Multi-dimensional theories draw extensively upon behavioural psychology when modelling consumer value perceptions (Schumann, Haugtvedt, & Davidson, 2008). The more straightforward multi-dimensional models combine two value dimensions – utilitarian and hedonic (Babin et al., 1994). These models suggest that consumers search for fun and a hedonic experience as well as quality in a product (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook, 2005; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Hsee & Tsai, 2008). However, more complex multi-dimensional models incorporate a number of different aspects of value, such as product quality and emotions, alongside consumer values and beliefs (Bray, 2008; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). This section discusses three multi-dimensional models that have been used in, or have influenced, organic wine studies.

Customer value hierarchy: Means-end chain theory

Customer value hierarchy is another model used in organic wine studies, in a multi-dimensional manner in customer value hierarchy models to establish a hierarchy of customer values that links attributes, consequences and desired end-status (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996). Value judgements change with situation, time and specific 'trigger' situations (Woodruff & Gardial, 1996).

The multi-dimensional form of means-end chain theory is used in a small number of organic wine studies to investigate how personal values and judgements influence consumer preferences for organic wine (Fotopoulos, Krystallis, & Ness, 2002, 2003). The means-end chain theory has also been used to investigate how consumers assess the quality of organic wine (Rahman, Stumpf, & Reynolds, 2014). However, the means-end chain theory is not widely used in organic wine studies, perhaps due

to its focus upon consumer attitudes and judgements to the exclusion of other influences, such as organic wine's intrinsic attributes, which are recognised as being important to organic wine consumers (Espejel & Fandos, 2009).

Value-belief-norm and attitude-behaviour-context - models

Schäufele and Hamm (2017) proposed a conceptual model to explain the behaviour of organic wine consumers. They reviewed 34 articles published between January 2000 and March 2016 that investigated the perceptions and preferences of organic wine consumers as well as their willingness to pay a premium for organic wine. On the basis of their review, Schäufele and Hamm (2017) proposed a theoretical model based on the value-belief-norm and attitude-behaviour-context models developed by Zepeda and Deal (2009) in relation to organic food.

In essence, the value-belief-norm theory provides a model for the creation of consumers' attitudes, while the attitude-behaviour-context model relates to consumer behaviour. The value-belief-norm theory argues that consumer values, beliefs and moral norms lead to the development of consumer attitudes in relation to environmentally significant behaviour. The purchase of organic products, therefore, reflects the values of organic consumers and leads them to avoid negative consequences for the environment or for their personal health by purchasing non-organic products. Attitude-behaviour-context theory, on the other hand, proposes that attitudes can influence behaviour. Context reflects situational factors, such as advertising, price and availability. These value-belief-norm and attitude-behaviour-context models also propose four factors that moderate consumer behaviour: knowledge, information seeking, consumer habits and socio-demographic characteristics.

Schäufele and Hamm (2017) concluded that values and beliefs related to the environment were the reasons most cited in research to explain the purchase and consumption of organic wine. They also noted that the desire to be seen to be socially consuming organic wine was important for organic wine consumers. Schäufele and Hamm (2017) argued that the personal values and beliefs of organic wine consumers lead to the creation of attitudes. Consumers' attitudes are moderated by factors such as knowledge and socio-demographic characteristics. Depending on the strength of consumers' attitudes, factors such as wine attributes can influence the purchase decision. (Figure 1)

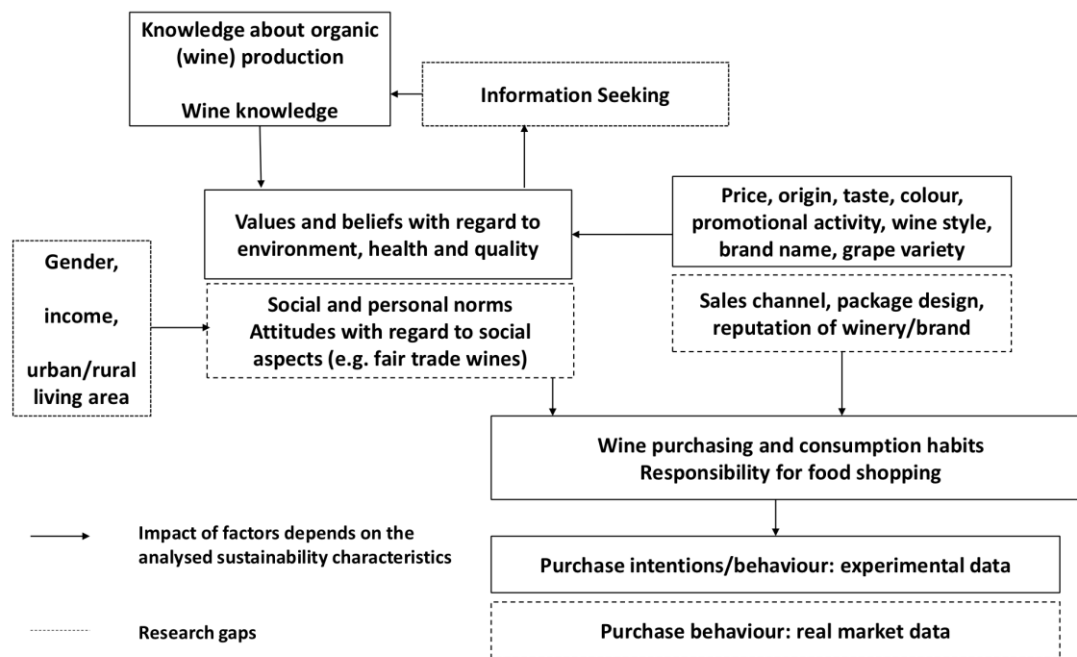


Figure 1. Consumers' purchase behaviour towards organic wine.
Source: Adapted from Schäufele and Hamm, 2017

Schäufele and Hamm's (2017) model is important as it acknowledges the significance of attitudes in influencing consumers' perceptions of organic wine. The model also differentiates between consumers' attitudes and beliefs as well as perceptions of organic wine's intrinsic and extrinsic attributes. However, the model is based upon a review of the literature and has not been tested through empirical research. Another issue is that the model treats each aspect of the decision to purchase organic wine as a variable. For instance, the model considers that the attributes of organic wine influence the values and beliefs of organic wine consumers but does not consider the possibility that consumer attitudes can also influence perceptions of the attributes of organic wine. In addition, the value-belief-norm and attitude-behaviour-context models do not indicate how context and behavioural constraints influence consumer value perceptions. Finally, the model is based upon a theory designed for organic food consumers that has been adapted to organic wine. As there is little understanding of the relationship between consumer attitudes towards organic food and perceptions of organic wine (Mann et al., 2010), this has the potential to lead to a misinterpretation of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Further empirical testing is required to confirm whether the model is valid in relation to organic wine consumers.

Theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) must be discussed before reviewing the consumption-value theory, which is the most widely used conceptual model in organic wine studies. As far as this researcher is aware, the theory of planned behaviour has not been used as a basis for empirical

research in organic wine studies. However, it does incorporate concepts that are important for understanding the dynamic nature of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Consequently, an appreciation of the theory is important for this study.

The theory of planned behaviour offers a model for how attitude influences consumer decision making through three key constructs that are considered to drive consumer behaviour: attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991, 2001; Vallerand, Deahaies, Cuerrier, Pelletier, & Mongeau, 1992). Attitude represents consumers' evaluation of the intended behaviour, positive or negative. Attitude itself comprises two elements: beliefs about the likely outcome of behaviour and values attached to these outcomes (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms reflect the influence of others about the intended behaviour in social settings. Perceived behavioural control is the perceived ability to engage in the behaviour. Perceived behavioural control is important as it represents consumers' confidence in their ability to make the actual purchase, irrespective of their value perceptions of a product. It comprises factors such as past experience, practical elements such as available funds and more ephemeral aspects such as the time spent on a search (Ajzen, 1991). The theory of planned behaviour assumes that consumers undertake a cognitive assessment of all the factors that influence the decision to make a purchase, based upon attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Bray, 2008). This leads to the intention to purchase. Actual behaviour is subject to the constraints identified in perceived behavioural control.

Several criticisms have been raised with regard to the theory of planned behaviour. One criticism is that the theory of planned behaviour does not sufficiently allow for differences between intention and actual behaviour (Bray, 2008). Another criticism is that the theory of planned behaviour assumes that consumers are essentially cognitive and able to make decisions based upon rational assessments (Bray, 2008). This assumption is challenged by studies that reject the concept of the rational consumer (Bell, 2010; Erasmus et al., 2001). Nevertheless, despite such criticisms, the theory of planned behaviour has been widely used in studies into the behaviour of organic food consumers (Aertsens, Verbeke, Mondelaers & Van Huylbroeck, 2009; Arvola et al., 2008; Ruiz de Maya et al., 2011) as well as in a small number of conventional wine studies (Quintal, Thomas, & Phau, 2015; Sparks, 2007). As far as the researcher is aware, however, the theory of planned behaviour has not been used in research into organic wine consumers. Nevertheless, the theory of planned behaviour is often referenced in the organic wine literature as it acknowledges the relationship between consumers' attitudes (based on their personal values) and behavioural intentions (Olsen et al., 2012). The theory of planned behaviour is, therefore, an important theory as it recognises that consumer decision making is sequential, and that attitudes and social norms can influence actual behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour also reflects the concept of constraints on consumer behaviour.

2.4.2 Core theories in organic wine research

Two main models are used in organic wine studies as a theoretical basis for explaining the behaviour of organic wine consumers. Values theories have been used in studies that examine the way in which values and beliefs influence consumer perceptions of organic wine. However, most organic wine studies that investigate consumer value perceptions use a second model – an adapted model of the consumption-value theory. Consumption-value theory suggests that a number of value dimensions, not just values and beliefs, influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers in relation to organic wine. This section discusses values theories and consumption-value theory.

Values theories

Consumers' personal values are linked to their attitudes and behaviour in values theories. No one theoretical approach dominates values theories (Kahle & Xie, 2008), although four main streams of values theory can be identified:

- Rokeach Value List (Rokeach, 1973);
- List of Values (LOV) (Kahle & Kennedy, 1989);
- Values and Lifestyle Segmentation (VALS) model (Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986; Kahle & Kennedy, 1989; Kahle & Xie, 2008); and
- Schwartz's Universal Values (Schwartz, 1992, 2012).

Organic wine studies generally use Schwartz's Universal Values to investigate the personal values of organic wine consumers (Mueller, Sirieix, & Remaud, 2011). Schwartz's Universal Values have been used, for instance, in research that links personal moral norms to preference for organic red wine (Thøgersen, 2002) as well as in studies that investigate the importance of environmental protectionism and hedonistic values on consumer attitudes towards organic wine (Olsen et al., 2012). However, values theories are rarely used in isolation as the basis for research into organic wine and are generally used to establish that there is a relationship between the personal moral values of organic wine consumers and their attitude towards organic wine.

Axiology and consumption-value theory

Although rarely expressed explicitly, most organic wine studies have used an adapted version of the consumption-value theory. Both axiology and consumption-value theories depart from the assumption that consumers perceive the value in a product based on a series of different value size assessments. A product represents symbolic, utilitarian, monetary and/or functional value for consumers while at the same time meeting the personal values of consumers (Hartman, 1967, 1973; Kantamneni & Coulson, 1996). Information processing levels can also affect how consumers perceive

value in a product and social environment (Woodall, 2003). Mattsson (1991) developed this model further and proposed three slightly different dimensions – emotional (consumer feelings), practical (physical and functional aspects of consumption) and logical (rational and abstract characteristics of purchase).

Consumption-value theories are built on axiom models and have expanded the concept of multiple value dimensions. In consumption-value theories, the decision to select a product or service by another or select one brand over another depends on the relationship between multiple value sizes. (Sheth et al., 1991). Sheth et al. (1991) proposed five value dimensions (Figure 2). These consist of functional (whether a product performs its functional or utilitarian purpose); social (consumers' expectations in a social context and the image that consumers wish to portray); emotional (emotions that the experience or consumption generate, both positive, such as confidence or excitement, or negative, such as fear or anger); epistemic (consumers' desire for knowledge, motivated by curiosity or a search for something new); and conditional (purchase and consumption situation). Consumer choice is based upon an interaction between these five dimensions. The weight given by consumers to each value dimension varies according to the situation, the complexity of the decision required, and the type of product being considered (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Sheth et al. (1991) considered that functional value, especially price, was the key influence on consumer choice, although the other dimensions moderated the way in which consumers assessed the functional value of a product (Sheth et al., 1991). Sweeney and Soutar (2001) subsequently adopted three of Sheth et al.'s (1991) five dimensions – functional, social and emotional.

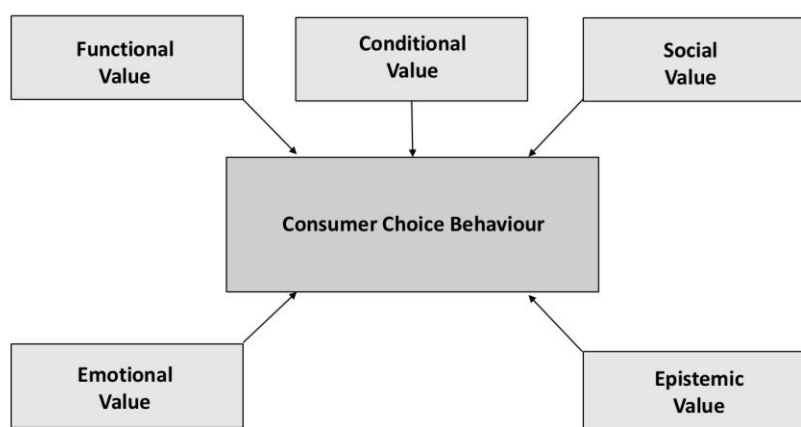


Figure 2: Model of consumption-value theory.

Source: Adapted from Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991)

Developing consumption-value theory further, Holbrook (1996) proposed a typology of consumer value perceptions by combining four extrinsic and four intrinsic values, leading to eight possible value dimensions – (extrinsic) efficiency, excellence, status, esteem, (intrinsic) play, aesthetics, ethics and spirituality. In this model, perceived value involves an interaction between the consumer and the product, in which perceived value is an ‘interactive relativistic preference experience’ (Holbrook, 2005, p. 45). Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) built upon Holbrook’s (1996) model and proposed that consumer value perceptions comprise six dimensions: efficiency (what the consumer receives in exchange, in monetary terms as well as convenience); quality (perception of the ability of the product to achieve its purpose); social (the extent to which consumers can make a favourable impression and achieve prestige through the product); play (having fun); aesthetics (an ephemeral concept reflecting the beauty of a product); and altruistic (ethics and spirituality inherent in the product) (Figure 3).

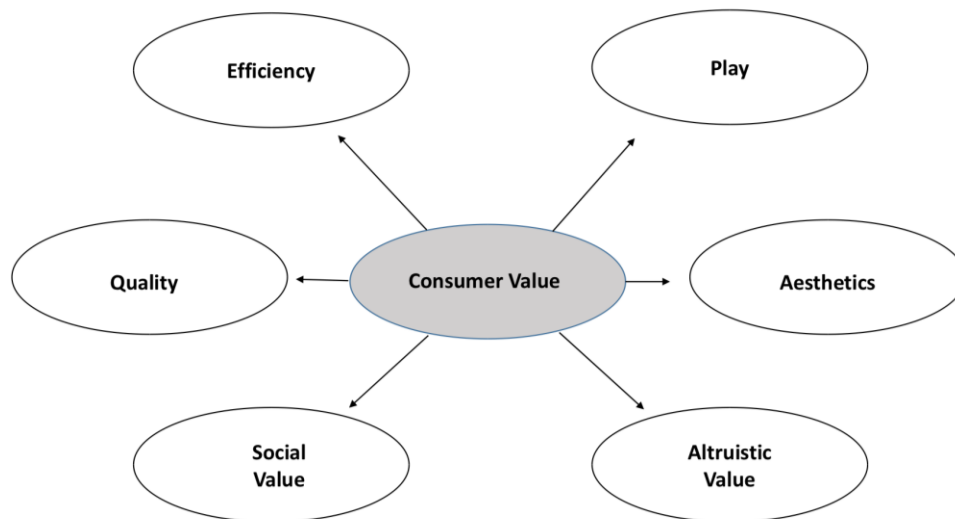


Figure 3: Model for the structure of consumer value.

Source: Adapted from ‘Sánchez-Fernández, Iniesta-Bonillo and Holbrook (2009)

Although Holbrook’s (1996) and Sánchez-Fernández et al.’s (2009) model appear to combine an extensive range of different value dimensions, in essence, it is very similar to Sheth et al.’s (1991) model. Some dimensions, such as beauty or aesthetics, are also difficult to measure. In this regard, Sánchez-Fernández et al.’s (2009) model actually complicates Sheth et al.’s (1991) model without adding any dimensions that are fundamentally new. It also fails to take into account the temporal element of consumer perceived value, which was incorporated in Sheth et al.’s (1991) model. Consequently, organic wine studies have not adopted the range of dimensions suggested by Holbrook (1996) or Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) but have used an adapted version of Sheth et al.’s (1991) model.

Organic wine studies have, however, made a number of adaptations to Sheth et al.'s (1991) model. First, the number of dimensions has been reduced from five to three. Second, epistemic and conditional dimensions are subtracted as value dimensions and included in three moderating factors that affect how consumers evaluate the three main value dimensions. This section continues to discuss adaptations to consumption value theory in organic wine studies.

Adaptation of consumption-value theory as used in organic wine studies

Wine is a complex product, and multiple factors influence consumer value perceptions (Bruwer, Saliba, & Miller, 2011; Hollebeek & Brodie, 2009; Lockshin & Corsi, 2012; Palma, Ortúzar, Rizzi, & Casaubon, 2013; Perrouy, D'Hauteville, & Lockshin, 2006; Schäufole & Hamm, 2017). Consumers purchase and consume wine as part of a search for an overall consumption experience. Consequently, wine has a social aspect as it is viewed as a beverage to be experienced with friends, family and acquaintances (Barrena & Sanchez, 2009; Becker, 2013; Brunner & Siegrist, 2011; Bruwer & Li, 2007; Bruwer, Li, & Reid, 2002; Hirche & Bruwer, 2014; T. Johnson & Bruwer, 2003, 2004; Kolyesnikova, Dodd, & Duhan, 2008; Orth, 2005; Palma, Cornejo, Ortúzar, Rizzi, & Casaubon, 2014). In addition, the consumption of wine serves an emotional purpose (Babin & Krey, 2014; Barber, Taylor, & Strick, 2009; Borra, Viberti, Massaglia, & Vecchio, 2014; Bruwer & Buller, 2013; Neeley, Min, & Kennett-Hensel, 2010) and allows consumers to seek 'pleasure' through its consumption (Charters & Pettigrew, 2003, 2007, 2008). This means that a wine's intrinsic attributes, such as taste, are only part of the purpose served by wine for the consumer (Johnson & Bruwer, 2007; Lockshin & Hall, 2003; Mora & Moscarola, 2010; Olsen et al., 2012).

Given the complexity of the relationship between consumers and wine, organic wine studies have adapted the theory of consumption value in an effort to understand the value dimensions that affect consumers. There are three value dimensions that appear consistently in organic wine studies – emotional, functional and social. Of these, the social dimension receives the most emphasis (Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Loveless et al., 2010; Mueller et al., 2011; Mueller Loose & Lockshin, 2013; Olsen et al., 2012; Schäufole & Hamm, 2017; Sirieix & Remaud, 2010; Thach & Olsen, 2006; Thøgersen, 2002). The functional dimension represents consumer attitudes towards the intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of organic wine (Rahman et al., 2014), while the social dimension encompasses the context in which wine will be consumed (Mann, Ferjani, & Reissig, 2012).

However, wine studies have provided an important adaptation to consumption value models with the concept of moderating factors. It is thought that moderating factors affect how consumers interpret the three main value dimensions. Three moderating factors appear most frequently in wine research: the occasion on which wine is purchased or consumed (Bruwer, Fong, & Saliba, 2013; Hirche &

Bruwer, 2014); the degree of consumer involvement with, and knowledge about, wine (Aurifeille, Quester, Lockshin, & Spawton, 2002; Fountain & Lamb, 2011; Lockshin & Spawton, 2001); and the attitude of consumers towards risk and the use of risk reduction strategies to manage risk (Johnson & Bruwer, 2004; Mitchell & Greatorex, 1989). In addition, the socio-demographic characteristics of consumers are sometimes also included as an additional moderating factor.

The use of the concept of moderating factors in wine studies has the following consequences for the adapted consumption-value model:

1. The conditional dimension has been converted from a value dimension to a moderating factor and is usually considered to be synonymous with consumption occasion. Occasion is, therefore, considered to influence the way consumers interpret the functional, social, and emotional dimensions.
2. The epistemic dimension was absorbed by the moderating participation factor. Together, consumer knowledge and information search are considered a moderating factor that affects the consumer's perceptions of functional, social and emotional dimensions.

Figure 4 shows how wine studies, both conventional and organic, have adapted models of consumption-value theory, reducing the number of value dimensions and incorporating the construct of moderating factors in order to explain consumer value perceptions in relation to wine.

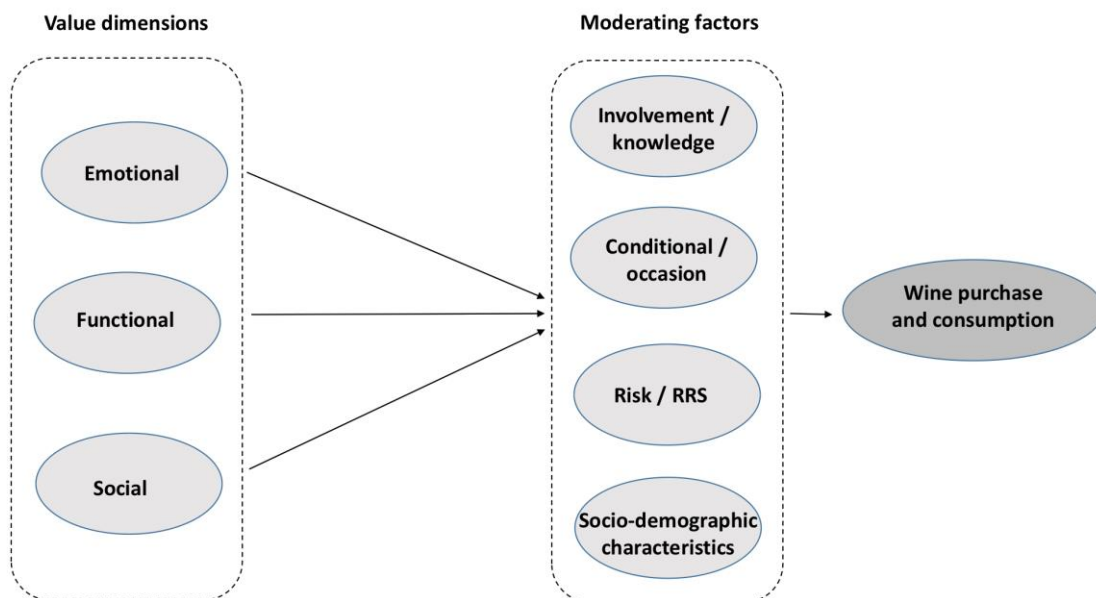


Figure 4: Conceptual model of organic wine consumer value perceptions based on consumption-value theory, as used in organic wine studies.

This section (Table 1) reviewed the main consumer behaviour theories that have been used in organic wine studies to explain the perceptions of organic wine consumers' value, showing that many of these studies use an adapted consumption-value theory model that combines the concept of value dimensions with moderating factors. The following section proceeds to review how organic wine studies have used this adapted model of consumption-value theory to examine the behaviour of organic wine consumers. The section first reviews the role of the three value dimensions (emotional, functional, and social) and then addresses the influence of the four moderating factors (occasion, involvement, risk and socio-demographic characteristics). To put the review of organic wine literature into context, Table 1 sets out an illustrative list of organic wine studies, categorised by their research focus.

Table 1: Illustrative list of organic wine articles, categorised by research focus

Research focus	Illustrative contributions
Consumer perceptions of organic wine (sustainability/environment/health)	Barber et al., 2009; Bonn, Cronin, & Cho, 2016; Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Janssen & Zander, 2014; Janssen, Zander, & Hamm, 2012; Remaud, Mueller, Chvyl, & Lockshin, 2008; Thach & Olsen, 2006, 2010; Tsourgiannis, Loizou, Karasavvoglou, Tsourgiannis, & Florou, 2015; Wiedmann, Hennigs, Behrens, & Klarmann, 2014; Yoo, Saliba, MacDonald, Prenzler, & Ryan, 2013
Consumer perceptions of organic wine (health, environment, price)	Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010; IPSOS, 2011, 2015; Sirieix & Remaud, 2010; Stolz & Schmid, 2008
Consumer perceptions - organic wine attributes	Appleby, Costanigro, Thilmany, & Menke, 2012; Borra et al., 2014; Forbes, Cohen, Cullen, Wratten, & Fountain, 2009; Klarmann, Wiedmann, Hennigs, & Behrens, 2012; Loveless et al., 2010; Mann et al., 2010, 2012; Mueller Loose & Lockshin, 2013; Rahman et al., 2014
Organic wine labelling and certification	Bazoche, Issanchou, Brouard, Maratray, & Ginon, 2015; Delmas, 2010; Delmas, Gergaud, & Lim, 2016; Delmas & Grant, 2008, 2014; Delmas & Lessem, 2014; Loureiro, 2003; Sogari, Corbo, Macconi, Menozzi, & Mora, 2015
Willingness to Pay	Barreiro-Hurlé, Colombo, & Cantos-Villar, 2008; Bazoche, Deola, & Soler, 2008; Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá, Martínez-Carrasco Martínez, Martínez Poveda, & Rico Pérez, 2005; D'Amico, Di Vita, & Monaco, 2016; Ogbeide, 2013, 2015; Remaud, Chabin, & Mueller, 2010; Schmit, Rickard, & Taber, 2013; Sellers, 2016; Sogari, Mora, & Menozzi, 2013b
Market obstacles	Jonis, Soltz, Schmid, Hofmann, & Trioli, 2008; Schmit et al., 2013
Role of personal moral values	Mueller et al., 2011; Remaud et al., 2010; Thøgersen, 2002
Consumer segmentation	Bernabéu, Brugarolas, Martínez-Carrasco, & Díaz, 2008; Klohr, Fleuchaus, & Theuvsen, 2014; Pomarici, Amato, & Vecchio, 2016; Pomarici & Vecchio, 2014; Sogari et al., 2013a
Wine knowledge	Kim & Bonn, 2015

2.5 Value perceptions of organic wine consumers as portrayed in organic wine studies

This section is the third part of the literature review and discusses how organic wine literature uses the concepts of value dimensions (emotional, functional, and social) and moderating factors (opportunity, participation and perceived risk) to describe consumer perceptions. In doing so, the section highlights several issues with the way each value dimension is portrayed in prior organic wine studies. The section then proceeds to outline several issues with the theoretical models of consumer value perceptions in prior organic wine literature. The section also notes several gaps in current knowledge. The chapter concludes with a presentation of the two research questions that emerged from the literature review.

2.5.1 Emotional dimension: Values and beliefs

Prior organic wine studies place significant emphasis upon consumer values and beliefs, manifested in concern for environmental protection and personal health, in influencing consumer preferences for organic wine (Schäufele & Hamm, 2017). In terms of Sheth et al.'s (1991) consumption-value theory, this reflects the emotional dimension of consumer value perceptions. The following section reviews the emotional dimension, after which three significant issues with this stream of research are highlighted.

Many organic food studies suggest that consumers are motivated by personal values and beliefs to purchase organic food (Aertsens et al., 2009; Arvola et al., 2008; S. Baker, Thompson, Engelken, & Huntley, 2004; Chen, 2012; Hughner et al., 2007; Nie & Zepeda, 2011; Paul & Rana, 2012; Pino, Peluso, & Guido, 2012; Ruiz de Maya et al., 2011). The consumption of organic food helps consumers to achieve a feeling of satisfaction in terms of their core personal values (S. Baker et al., 2004; Makatouni, 2002). Organic wine studies also highlight the importance of personal moral norms as a significant motivating factor in organic wine purchase and consumption (Thøgersen, 2002). These values manifest themselves as concern for environmental protection and for personal health (Barber et al., 2009; Bonn et al., 2016; Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Janssen et al., 2012; Tsourgiannis et al., 2015). Higher levels of environmental awareness also lead to a greater willingness to pay a premium for organic wine (Barber et al., 2009) as well as the desire to lead a hedonic life (Olsen et al., 2012).

However, research into the role played by personal attitudes and beliefs in the value perceptions of organic wine consumers is not conclusive. Some studies argue that only a very limited relationship exists between personal values and the value perceptions of organic wine consumers (Bazoche et al., 2008; Crescimanno, Ficani, & Guccione, 2002; Mueller et al., 2011; Sirieix & Remaud, 2010). Even studies that do highlight the importance of consumers' personal values and beliefs disagree about the relative importance of environmental awareness and health concerns. Some studies argue that

environmental awareness is a stronger influence on consumers than health concerns (Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005). Other studies, however, suggest that organic wine consumers show little concern for the environmental aspects of sustainable wine (Borra et al., 2014; Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010; Mann et al., 2010, 2012; Remaud et al., 2008; Sirieix & Remaud, 2010; Sogari et al., 2013b; Stolz & Schmid, 2008). These studies argue that, if anything, egoistical interest in personal health is more important than altruistic concern for the environment (Appleby et al., 2012; Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Mueller et al., 2011).

Consequently, there are several issues with the way in which the emotional dimension is portrayed in organic wine studies:

1. Organic wine studies correlate the emotional value dimension with environmental and personal health concerns and do not research the broader emotions produced by consumers through organic wine consumption. As a result, these studies reveal only a partial and incomplete understanding of the importance of the emotional dimension for organic wine consumers.
2. Extant organic wine studies are trying to create an important hierarchy between different value sizes as consumers examine why they buy and consume organic wine. In doing so, they treat consumers' values and beliefs as a variable that can be measured according to other variables, such as the intrinsic and external properties of organic wine. This approach does not reflect the dynamic and suspicious relationship between consumers' values and beliefs and the perceptions of organic wine's value. Moreover, such studies do not think that the emotional attachment of organic wine consumers to organic wine can affect their perception of the intrinsic properties of organic wine.
3. An important issue with organic wine research on the role of the emotional dimension in the perceptions of organic wine consumers is that the work is based almost entirely on surveys. As a result, the research is based on stated intentions rather than actual consumer behaviour. In addition, the way questions are expressed in surveys has a significant impact on answers (Mays & Pope, 1995). Questions that ask general opinions about values without referring reference to specific purchase or consumption situations and fail to put the study into context are not sufficient. For example, questions linking buying organic wine to the prevention of environmental damage are unlikely to elicit a negative response from most wine consumers, even those who often consume traditional wine. However, such questions need to be contextualised to understand the perceptions of consumer value associated with organic wine. In addition, consumer survey responses are generally more

dependent on what the researchers want to hear rather than how consumers behave (Pearson et al., 2011). Survey methods, particularly online surveys, can also lead to bias in the representativeness of the respondents and, therefore, impact the conclusions reached (Szolnoki & Hoffmann, 2013). Finally, surveys are unable to explore the different meanings that individual consumers hold of concepts such as environmental protection or concern for personal health. This means that survey questions can be interpreted differently by respondents. Consequently, a study can end up reflecting a researcher's a priori orientation rather than the actual views of consumers (Erasmus et al., 2001). This can lead to conclusions being drawn about idealised, hypothetical consumer value perceptions in relation to organic wine rather than actual consumer value perceptions of organic wine (Forbes et al., 2009; Padel & Foster, 2005; Pearson et al., 2011; Remaud et al., 2008; Ruiz de Maya et al., 2011; Schäufole & Hamm, 2017; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006).

2.5.2 Functional dimension: Organic wine attributes

The functional dimension is the second main value dimension seen to have an impact on organic wine consumers in the organic wine literature. The functional dimension reflects how consumers evaluate the internal and external properties of organic wine while improving their perceptions of the value of organic wine (Espejel & Fandos, 2009; Espejel, Fandos, & Flavián, 2011; Goodman, Lockshin, & Cohen, 2007). This section begins by explaining how the functional dimension is reflected in organic wine studies before starting to summarise four topics related to the depiction of the functional dimension in the extant organic wine literature.

Wine studies, in general, suggest that consumers assess a wine's attributes when arriving at their perceptions of the value of a wine. Wine attributes can be intrinsic and extrinsic. Extrinsic attributes can be altered without changing the wine itself. These include label, packaging, price, award(s) and brand name. Intrinsic attributes comprise the characteristics of the wine itself, such as grape variety, taste and aroma (Lockshin & Corsi, 2012; Lockshin & Hall, 2003). However, unless already known by prior experience or recommendation, the quality of a wine cannot be assessed until the wine is consumed, often by more knowledgeable external parties (Barber, Almanza, & Donovan, 2006; Verdú Jover et al., 2004). Consequently, consumers have to use cues to assess the possible attributes of a wine (Babin & Krey, 2014; Cohen, 2009; Perrouty et al., 2006).

Many general wine studies have looked at the relative importance of a range of cues with regard to a wine's intrinsic and extrinsic attributes in different social and cultural settings (Cohen, 2009; Fountain & Lamb, 2011; Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010; Lockshin & Hall, 2003; Neeley et al., 2010;

Schamel & Bosnjak, 2014; Schmid et al., 2009; Sogari et al., 2013a). Cues investigated include brand name, winning an award, wine origin, prior experience with the wine, recommendation, prior research about the wine, matching wine with food, information and promotion in the retail outlet and alcohol level (Espejel & Fandos, 2009; Espejel et al., 2011; Goodman et al., 2005, 2006, 2007; Jaeger, Danaher, & Brodie, 2009). Other cues include the influence of labelling (Babin & Krey, 2014; Mueller, Lockshin, Saltman, & Blanford, 2010); packaging and bottle closure (Barber & Almanza, 2006; Barber et al., 2006); regional brand image (R. Johnson & Bruwer, 2007; McCutcheon, Bruwer, & Li, 2009; Rasmussen & Lockshin, 1999); and relative importance of price, origin and vintage year (Martínez-Carrasco Martínez et al., 2006; Sánchez & Gil, 1997); and grape variety (Palma et al., 2013).

Organic wine studies have also explored the role of intrinsic and external clues in the organic wine consumers' perceptions of value. Some studies suggest that when consumers assess the overall attractiveness of organic wine's intrinsic attributes, primarily taste, are the most important factors when consumers evaluate the overall appeal of organic wine (Appleby et al., 2012; Mann et al., 2012). Rahman et al. (2014) concluded that taste alone motivates consumers in their preference for organic wine, while a number of studies based on tasting experiments also conclude that consumers prefer the taste of organic wine to conventional wine (Klarman et al., 2012; Janssen et al., 2012; Janssen & Zander, 2014). Other studies argue that the price, region of origin and brand of organic wine is more important than its sustainable qualities in terms of consumer value perceptions (Loveless et al., 2010; Mann et al., 2012; Mueller Loose & Lockshin, 2013). Eco-certification can also enhance consumer perceptions of the quality of organic wine and hence influence consumer value perceptions (Delmas, 2010; Delmas & Grant, 2008, 2014; Delmas et al., 2016). Consequently, organic wine consumers are not prepared to compromise on quality just because of the sustainable attributes of organic wine: they still search for a positive consumption experience based upon organic wine's intrinsic attributes (Lockshin & Corsi, 2012; Ogbeide, Ford, & Stringer, 2014).

However, while earlier organic wine studies confirm the importance of the functional dimension in affecting the perceptions of the value of organic wine for consumers, there are four problems in this research stream:

1. Organic wine consumers' emotional attachment to organic wine can influence how they perceive the functional attributes of organic wine, such as taste. Some organic wine studies, however, argue that organic wine's intrinsic attributes are more important than consumers' values and beliefs and fail to allow for this possibility.

2. Extant organic wine studies do not investigate what ‘quality’ means to organic wine consumers. Organic wine studies assume that quality reflects consumer perceptions of organic wine’s intrinsic and extrinsic attributes, including price (Charters & Pettigrew, 2006; Horowitz & Lockshin, 2002; Sáenz-Navajas, Campo, Sutan, Ballester, & Valentin, 2013). This approach also assumes that organic wine consumers evaluate the quality of organic wine in the same way that they evaluate conventional wine (Janssen & Zander, 2014; Schäufele & Hamm, 2017; Sogari et al., 2013b). However, there are no studies that actually investigate what the term ‘quality’ means to organic wine consumers and which attributes are important when assessing the quality of organic wine. Without understanding the meaning of the concept of quality, organic wine studies that investigate the functional dimension through the concept of quality cannot accurately understand the value perceptions of organic wine consumers in relation to organic wine.
3. Studies based upon tasting highlight a methodological concern, particularly when consumers are aware that they are tasting organic wine and are not presented with alternatives (Schäufele & Hamm, 2017). As Priilaid (2006) concludes, consumer perceptions of wine are heavily influenced by prior assumptions and knowledge about wine. Consequently, the knowledge that they are consuming organic wine can influence consumers’ assessment of the wine’s taste (Klarmann et al., 2012). This suggests that studies based upon the tasting of organic and conventional wines may be investigating idealised consumer perceptions rather than their actual views.
4. The fourth issue with how organic wine studies portray the functional dimension relates to the question of willingness to pay a premium for organic wine. The following section discusses the issue of willingness to pay a premium.

The question of price is closely linked to organic wine studies through the construct of willingness to pay a premium. Most conventional wine studies argue that price is related to consumer perceptions of quality, with a higher price being associated with better quality (Bonn et al., 2016; Jonis et al., 2008). However, other wine studies suggest that there is no relationship between price and perceptions of quality (Fotopoluos & Ness, 2002, 2003; Schamel & Bosnjak, 2014). In this regard, organic wine is considered to be more expensive than conventional wine (IPSOS, 2011, 2015; Sogari et al., 2013a; Stolz & Schmid, 2008). Nevertheless, despite the price differential, numerous organic wine studies suggest that there is a segment of wine consumers who are prepared to pay more for organic wine than for a similar bottle of conventional wine (Loureiro, 2003; Ogbeide, 2013; Remaud et al., 2008).

Willingness to pay a premium is generally attributed to organic wine's sustainable characteristics, specifically, concern for environmental protection and personal health (Barreiro-Hurlé et al., 2008; Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005; Forbes et al., 2009; Janssen et al., 2012; Janssen & Zander, 2014; Ogbeide, 2013, 2015; Mueller et al., 2011; Ogbeide et al., 2014; Olsen et al., 2012; Remaud et al., 2008; Sogari et al., 2013b; Vecchio, 2013). Appleby et al. (2012) noted that when the quality of organic wine was considered to be equal to that of conventional wine, most consumers were prepared to pay a premium for wine with no added sulphites (organic wine). Consumers are also considered to exhibit a slight willingness to pay a premium based on the belief that organic wine is healthier and tastes better (Sogari et al., 2013b; Thach & Olsen, 2010; Vecchio, 2013). Few organic wine studies suggest that there is no direct link between willingness to pay a premium and a wine's sustainable qualities (Bazoche et al., 2008).

However, there are some issues with other organic wine literature that investigates the concept of willingness to pay a premium. First, studies on willingness to pay a premium are primarily descriptive. While noting the presence of consumer segments preparing to pay more for organic wine, studies do not investigate how these consumer segments perceive organic wines or why they are prepared to pay an additional amount for organic wine. Second, quantitative willingness to pay premium studies often raises theoretical questions to consumers through surveys about hypothetical purchasing intentions, regardless of real-life concerns, such as contextualisation of questions or budget constraints (Remaud et al., 2008). There is also a lack of studies that investigate willingness to pay a premium in actual purchase situations (Forbes et al., 2009; Lockshin & Corsi, 2012). Third, by not investigating what organic wine really signifies for wine consumers, willingness to pay premium studies do not reflect the complex relationship between the different value dimensions: they focus upon consumer values and beliefs as an a priori concept and assume this is the motivation for willingness to pay a premium. Consequently, earlier organic wine literature does not offer a clear explanation for why consumers display a willingness to pay a premium for organic wine.

2.5.3 Social dimension

The social context in which the wine will be consumed is also thought to affect the decision to buy and consume. Previous research suggests wine selection is strongly influenced by the impression that consumers want to make socially (Garcia, Barrena, & Grande, 2013). Younger wine consumers consume wine for reasons of cultural identity and social status (Barrena & Sanchez, 2009) as well as search for a hedonic lifestyle (Becker, 2013; Bruwer et al., 2002; Hollebeek, Jaeger, Brodie, & Balemi, 2007; Mora & Moscarola, 2010; Olsen et al., 2012; Thach & Olsen, 2004). Wine is also seen as a product that can differentiate those who consume from those who do not consume wine, thereby enhancing their feelings of prestige (Barrena & Sanchez, 2009; Lockshin & Corsi, 2012; Ogbeide &

Bruwer, 2013; Ogbeide & Ele, 2015; Riviezzo, Garofano, & De Nisco, 2011; Thach & Olsen, 2004; Wiedmann, Behrens et al., 2014).

However, in terms of organic wine, few studies have examined the impact of the social dimension on consumer value perceptions. Studies examining the social dimension of organic wine show that organic wine consumers are looking for social prestige because they consume organic wine (Mueller et al., 2011). In Switzerland, the consumption of sustainable wine is considered to be motivated primarily by the search for social status (Mann et al., 2012), and there is one segment of Greek organic wine consumers who are motivated by social prestige and curiosity (Tsourgiannis et al., 2015).

However, very few studies have explored the way in which social occasions influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. There is also a lack of research into how the company with whom wine will be consumed influences the type of wine (conventional or organic) consumed. This is particularly important to understand the influence of the social dimension on floating consumers. As a result, the role of the social dimension in the perceptions of the value of organic wine consumers needs to be better understood.

2.5.4 Moderating factors

The previous section discussed the three value dimensions (functional, emotional and social), which are often used in organic wine studies as affecting the perceptions of organic wine consumers. The following section examines the way organic wine research previously included three moderating factors in the conceptual model of organic wine consumers' perceptions of value. These moderating factors are the occasion of wine consumption, the degree of consumer involvement with wine and the consumer's attitude towards risk. This section also reviews the impact of socio-demographic characteristics.

Occasion of organic wine consumption

A moderating factor that conventional wine studies most frequently investigate is the occasion of consuming wine. This context is thought to have a significant impact on wine purchase and consumption decisions (Aurifeille et al., 2002; Barrena & Sanchez, 2009; Brunner & Siegrist, 2011; Bruwer et al., 2013; Charters & Pettigrew, 2007; Hall, Lockshin, & Mahony, 2001; Hirche & Bruwer, 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2007; Mueller et al., 2010; Somogyi, Li, T. Johnson, Bruwer, & Bastian, 2011; Szolnoki & Hoffmann, 2014). Consumers, for instance, tend to be more price-conscious in restaurants and pay more attention to a wine's origin (Martínez-Carrasco Martínez et al., 2006). The occasion is also closely linked to the social environment in which wine will be consumed (Corduas, Cinquanta, & Ievoli, 2013). For instance, the brand of wine selected for purchase can vary according to whether a wine is a gift, for self-consumption, or consumed with friends (Orth, 2005). Consumers pay more

attention to the quality of a wine and the impact it makes when a wine is consumed in company or given as a gift, while the value for money and the consumption experience are more important when a wine is consumed alone or with family (Orth, 2005).

However, few organic wine studies have gone beyond merely mentioning the possibility that consumption occasion may influence the value perceptions, and hence the behaviour, of organic wine consumers (Ogbeide, 2013). As far as the researcher is aware, there are no studies that look specifically at how consumption occasion influences consumer value perceptions in relation to organic wine. This is a significant gap in prior organic wine research, given that consumption occasion and the company with whom wine is consumed have been shown to be major factors influencing consumer value perceptions in relation to conventional wine. By extrapolation, consumption occasion is likely to play an important role in the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. In particular, it is important to understand whether consumption occasions may influence organic wine consumers to choose between the purchase and consumption of organic or conventional wine. If so, consumption occasion may be highly significant in understanding why organic wine consumers float between the purchase and consumption of conventional and organic wine.

Involvement with organic wine

The second moderating factor that general wine studies consider to be an influence on consumer value perceptions is the degree of consumers' involvement with wine. Involvement reflects the relationship between consumers and a product based upon the consumers' inherent needs, values and interests (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Consumers are involved with a product when the product is perceived to address something that the consumer considers of value or importance in their life (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Involvement is also an emotional feeling that influences how an individual determines the importance of a product (Brennan & Mavondo, 2000). Studies into consumer value perceptions argue that involvement influences consumers by generating demand or affecting perceptions (Mittal & Lee, 1989).

There are three main forms of involvement with a product (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985): enduring involvement, situational involvement and response involvement (Houston & Rothschild, 1978; Rothschild, 1984; Zaichkowsky, 1985). Enduring involvement with a product is a longer-lasting tie and reflects emotional attachment and experience with a product (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Brennan & Mavondo, 2000; Houston & Rothschild, 1978; Rothschild, 1984). Situational involvement is a specific involvement generated by a situation or an event, such as a product discount (Mittal & Lee, 1989; Ogbeide & Bruwer, 2013). Response involvement represents the complexity of the decision making (Rothschild, 1984).

The construct of involvement was first linked to wine by Zaichkowsky (1985) in relation to Champagne. Many wine studies have since noted the significant role played by involvement in how consumers interpret the intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of a wine (Bruwer & Buller, 2013; Dodd, Ismail, & Barber, 2008; Lockshin, Spawton, & Macintosh, 1997; Lockshin & Spawton, 2001). For instance, the importance of a wine's intrinsic and extrinsic attributes such as grape variety, origin or vintage increases amongst consumers with high levels of wine involvement (Hirche & Bruwer, 2014). Involvement also influences the way consumers react to price: less involved consumers tend to pay greater attention to price and award(s) than highly involved consumers, for whom a wine's origin is more important (Goodman et al., 2007; Hollebeek et al., 2007). Enduring involvement is cited as a factor that encourages consumers to search for self-image, enjoyment and prestige and is associated with a lifestyle linked to wine (Ogbeide & Bruwer, 2013).

However, wine studies have extended the concept of involvement to encompass consumers' knowledge, search for information and wine-related lifestyle (WRL) (Barber, 2008; Bruwer & Li, 2007; Ogbeide & Bruwer, 2013; Sánchez & Gil, 1997). The more knowledgeable a consumer is, for instance, the more likely they are to use product cues to assess quality (D'Alessandro & Pecotich, 2013). Involvement is also considered to influence how consumers evaluate and use the information available to them (Charters & Pettigrew, 2006; Lockshin et al., 1997). However, by linking knowledge and involvement together in one moderating factor, wine research has changed the role of involvement. In this sense, the moderating factor of involvement has absorbed Sheth et al.'s (1991) epistemological dimension.

Few organic wine studies have investigated the role of involvement in relation to organic wine consumers. In their study of German wine consumers, Janssen et al. (2012) and Janssen and Zander (2014) suggested that more highly involved wine consumers demonstrated less preference for organic wine. However, the study did not investigate the reasons for the attitude of highly involved wine consumers beyond suggesting that it might be due to the perception that organic wine is of poorer quality than conventional wine. In addition, Janssen et al. (2012) and Janssen and Zander (2014) did not look at other factors that might influence the perceptions of more highly involved consumers, such as established consumption habits. Consequently, the study did not explain the relationship between the degree of involvement and value perceptions in relation to organic wine.

Therefore, in the organic wine literature, there is an important gap in how participation affects perceptions of consumer value of organic wine. It is particularly important that there is no study on the role of permanent participation in the perceptions of value of organic wine consumers, as

permanent participation affects the fundamental importance given to a product by consumers (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Brennan & Mavondo, 2000; Houston & Rothschild, 1978; Rothschild, 1984). Therefore, product participation gives meaning to the product for the consumer and affects long-term perceptions of value by generating feelings of participation or interest in the product (Bloch & Richins, 1983). Enduring product involvement is, therefore, potentially of major significance in understanding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers but has generally been overlooked in previous organic wine studies.

Attitude towards risk

The third moderating factor that appears in wine studies is the degree of risk associated with the purchase and consumption decision. Mitchell and Grottel (1989) suggested that the purchase and consumption of wine are accompanied by four types of risk: functional (taste), social (embarrassment in front of friends and family), financial (price) and physical (hangover). To reduce these risks, consumers employ a combination of six different risk reduction strategies: information gathering, brand loyalty, purchasing from stores with a good image, purchasing well-known brands, selecting wine by price, and seeking reassurance through recommendation or tasting. Seeking information and brand loyalty are the most important risk reduction strategies adopted by consumers (Mitchell & Grottel, 1989). However, risk reduction strategies are not absolute and are themselves influenced by consumers' involvement with wine, knowledge and lifestyle (Bruwer et al., 2013). Johnson and Bruwer (2004), for instance, concluded that different consumer segments use different risk reduction strategies depending on their attitude towards risk interest in taking advice and tasting the wine. Both highly and less involved consumer segments perceived financial risk as their highest risk element, while highly involved consumers were more concerned about social risk than less involved consumers (Bruwer et al., 2013). Consumption occasions can also influence how wine consumers assess the importance of risk and how they try to mitigate that risk (Bruwer et al., 2013; Hall et al., 2001; Johnson & Bruwer, 2004). The risk associated with consumption occasions declines the closer the relationship of the consumer is to those with whom they are going to consume the wine (Bruwer et al., 2013).

Given the poor image of the quality of organic wine (IPSOS, 2015), organic wine consumers also use risk reduction strategies when purchasing or consuming organic wine (Ogbeide et al., 2014; Olsen et al., 2012). However, it seems as if previous organic wine studies have not investigated how attitude to risk affects perceptions or behaviour of consumer value associated with organic wine. This is a significant omission, as the social dimension of the risk (the risk of social embarrassment) and its financial size (financial loss risk) and its functional size (a bad experience or hangover due to poor quality of wine) are shown to affect it. Understanding perceptions of consumer value related to

organic wine should, therefore, demonstrate how attitudes towards risk and risk reduction strategies fit the conceptual model. In particular, it is necessary to understand whether the perceived risks associated with organic wine intake and consumption affect the perceptions of organic wine consumers.

Socio-demographic characteristics

Some organic wine studies consider that the socio-demographic characteristics of consumers are a factor that influences value perceptions. Socio-demographic characteristics appear specifically in the value-belief-norm and attitude-behaviour-context models but are not included in consumption-value theories. As a result, the influence of socio-demographic characteristics on the value perceptions of organic wine consumers is not well understood.

Several studies into organic food have described the typical organic food consumer as better educated (Byrne, Toensmeyer, German, & Muller, 1991; Gracia & De Magistris, 2007; Nie & Zepeda, 2011; Sangkumchaliang & Huang, 2012), female, middle-aged, live with a partner, have children under 18 years old and live in urban areas (S. Baker et al., 2004; Bellows, Alcaraz, & Hallman, 2010; Byrne et al., 1991). However, few organic wine studies have suggested a profile for a typical organic wine consumer. According to market research company IPSOS (2015), organic wine consumers in the UK are roughly equally represented between males and females, while 55% are aged between 35 and 64, 23% are under 35, and 22% are over 65. In Switzerland, urban and female consumers are most likely to consume organic wine as well as consumers who perceive organic wine to be healthy (Mann et al., 2012). Organic wine consumption in Italy is associated with consumers with higher levels of income (Crescimanno et al., 2002), while in Spain, Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al. (2005) identified a consumer segment that displays environmental awareness and is generally better educated than average, with high purchasing power. However, most organic wine studies conclude that socio-demographic characteristics do not play a significant role in influencing the value perceptions of consumers (Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010; Janssen et al., 2012; Ogbeide, 2013). The role played by socio-demographic characteristics in the value perceptions of organic wine consumers is, therefore, an element that needs to be investigated further in this study.

This section reviewed how organic wine studies have used a consumption-value model tailored to describe the perceptions of the value of organic wine consumers. The adapted model contains three value dimensions and three moderating factors. This section also reviewed the role of socio-demographic characteristics in influencing perceptions of consumer value related to organic wine. In doing so, a number of problems with current values and controller factors, as well as gaps in the current understanding, were identified. The following section continues to discuss eight issues raised

by conceptual models used in previous organic wine studies. This chapter ends by proposing two research questions designed to understand how organic wine consumers develop and reveal perceptions of value.

2.5.5 Issues with theoretical models of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers

This section combines a review of the above literature and outlines the following eight main topics in the way that theoretical models presented in the organic wine literature depict the perceptions of organic wine consumers:

1. Wine researchers appear to have identified the main value dimensions and moderating factors that influence wine consumers (Lockshin & Hall, 2003; Lockshin & Corsi, 2012). However, consumption-value models of the value perceptions of consumers treat each value dimension and their properties as variables to be measured and balanced against each other (Xu & Schwarz, 2009). This approach assumes that consumers are rational and are able to assign weighted values to different dimensions. As a result, organic wine studies based on consumption-value models do not capture the dynamic relationship between dimensions (Erasmus et al., 2001) and the possibility of one value dimension affecting another in a hierarchical or sequential way. For example, organic wine studies do not explain how the emotional dimension can affect the consumer perception of the intrinsic and external qualities of organic wine. Considering that the emotional dimension plays an important role in the development of value perceptions of organic wine consumers, this neglect is important (Consoli, 2010; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Hsee & Tsai, 2008). This sequential approach is present in the value-belief-norm and attitude-behaviour-context model and the theory of planned behaviour but is absent from consumption-value models.
2. Organic wine research assumes that consumers choose between organic and conventional wine at each purchase and consumption occasion. This does not address the possibility of spontaneous purchases (Schäufele & Hamm, 2017) or purchases made on the basis of consumers' enduring relationship with a product (Bloch & Richins, 1983). Regular purchase may involve consumers following established purchase and consumption habits based upon enduring involvement rather than making fresh assessments on each purchase occasion (Bloch & Richins, 1983; Erasmus et al., 2001). Indeed, consumers often devise strategies to simplify choice decisions over time, particularly with food (Furst, Connors, Bisogni, Sobal, & Falk, 1996). This suggests that consumers can develop value perceptions on the basis of emotion and habit and obtain a 'script' from memory without

going through an evaluation at each purchase or consumption occasion (Erasmus et al., 2001).

3. Consumption-value models such as Sheth et al.'s (1991) represent the situational aspects of consumer value perceptions by stating that the weight of the different value dimensions varies according to time and situation (Woodall, 2003). However, this fails to address the possibility that the relationship between the different value dimensions and their properties changes in different situational and temporal surroundings. In addition, when using consumption-value theory to model the value perceptions of consumers, most organic wine studies focus on the purchase situation. Consequently, such studies are not flexible enough to understand the relationship between consumer value perceptions and factors such as consumption occasion.
4. Earlier organic wine studies cannot explain the differences between consumer values and actual behaviour. In part, this is because few organic wine studies have investigated the role of occasion and the social aspects of organic wine consumption on the behaviour of organic wine consumers. Another issue is that the relationship between the emotional value dimension and the functional value dimension is not well understood. As a result, organic wine studies have only partially understood the relationship between real behaviour and consumer values and beliefs and therefore do not explain why organic wine consumers swim between the purchase and consumption of traditional and organic wine.
5. The consumption-value models used in organic wine studies assume that consumers can act according to their personal preferences and that their behaviour is governed by their perceptions of the value of organic wine. However, as adherents of the theory of planned behaviour point out, consumers can be restricted by factors other than controls, or even factors that contradict basic attitudes and beliefs, which affect their ability to act as they wish (Ajzen, 1991, 2001, 2008). Examples of perceived behaviour control include the availability of a product or the budget of the consumer (Ajzen, 1991). This means that the preferred behaviour of organic wine consumers may differ from actual behaviour due to the influence of perceived behaviour controlling these factors. The way in which constraints influence the behaviour of organic wine consumers has not been addressed in previous organic wine studies.
6. Consumption-value models, as well as models such as the theory of planned behaviour, treat consumers as rational and cognitive (Ajzen, 2008). However, consumers generally do not process much information (Mittal, 1988; Mittal & Lee, 1989), and decision

making is usually a more holistic and faster process than consumer behaviour models suggest. This means that consumption-value theories tend to investigate idealised behaviour rather than what happens in practice (Erasmus et al., 2001). This dichotomy between idealised and actual behaviour is particularly noticeable in studies that investigate the environmental concerns of organic consumers where stated levels of environmental awareness do not necessarily dominate actual purchase behaviour (Forbes et al., 2009; Pearson et al., 2011).

7. Consumption-value theories do not reflect the intricacies of the characteristics of individual value dimensions and, therefore, cannot accurately model how consumers evaluate different dimensions. Perceived quality, for instance, can resemble a high-level abstract relationship with a product (Zeithaml, 1988), along the lines of product involvement (Bloch & Richins, 1983). In this sense, perceived quality includes elements of an emotional bond that can affect the evaluation of the product characteristics of functional characteristics. In addition, many consumer behaviour studies note the relationship between price, perceived quality and perception of value (Lapierre, 2000; Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009; Snoj et al., 2007; Tellis & Gaeth, 1990). Vargo and Lusch (2008) termed this relationship “value-in-exchange”. However, by addressing the concept of change in completely economic terms, such studies ignore the fact that consumers' assessment of the benefit obtained through a product can reflect the emotional commitment to that product. As a result, consumption value models, and the theory of planned behaviour, ignore the possibility that the exchange value is affected by other dimensions of perceived value, such as emotional or social dimensions.
8. Organic wine consumers have a lack of organic wine studies exploring the role of opportunity, participation and risk in perceptions of value. These factors have been shown to have a significant impact on perceptions of consumer value regarding traditional wine (Lockshin & Corsi, 2012; Lockshin & Hall, 2003). By extrapolation, therefore, additional studies into the role of such factors in relation to organic wine are needed to understand their role in influencing the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

There are also two specific and wider issues with models of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers: the question of floating organic wine consumers and the methodologies used to investigate the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The following sections discuss these two issues.

The issue of floating organic wine consumers

Earlier organic wine studies have not been able to explain why a segment of organic wine consumers also consumes conventional wine (Janssen & Zander, 2014; Janssen et al., 2012). It is unlikely that the fundamental values and beliefs of organic wine consumers change in different purchase and consumption situations. This suggests that organic wine consumers are influenced by factors other than just their fundamental value perceptions when purchasing and consuming wine. However, few prior organic wine studies have investigated the relationship between the value perceptions of organic wine consumers and the fact that many consumers continue to purchase and consume conventional wine.

In terms of floating consumers, the organic food literature notes that conventional food consumers also consume organic products and that many organic food consumers also purchase conventional products (Buder et al., 2014; Krömker & Matthies, 2014; Padel, Röcklinsberg, & Schmid, 2009; Pearson et al., 2011; Pino et al., 2012). However, few organic wine studies specifically acknowledge that a segment of organic wine consumers also consumes conventional wine (Janssen et al., 2012; Ogbeide, 2013). As a result, organic wine research generally categorises wine consumers as either 'organic wine consumers' or 'conventional wine consumers'. Organic wine studies, therefore, search for differences in attitudes and motivations between two distinct groups of consumers (Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Mueller Loose & Lockshin, 2013). Consequently, by treating organic and conventional wine consumption in absolute terms, prior organic wine research fails to reflect the subtleties of consumer value perceptions and the role played by the different value dimensions and moderating factors.

The problem of floating organic wine consumers also raises a methodological issue. While trying to explain the scope of choice among wine consumers for organic wine, many studies use consumer segmentation techniques based on various variables. Some segmentation studies use consumer values as variables and associate consumer preference for organic wine with lifestyle. The segmentation of organic wine consumers has also been undertaken based upon generational attitudes towards organic wine (Thach & Olsen, 2006; Sogari et al., 2013a) as well as personal values and beliefs (Loveless et al., 2010; Mueller et al., 2011; Remaud et al., 2008). Other studies segment wine consumers according to the interaction between product involvement, personality and lifestyle (Klohr et al., 2014; Olsen et al., 2012); organic wine shopping patterns (Bernabéu et al., 2008); or retail outlets used (Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010).

However, most of this research, based on segmentation, is more descriptive than analytical, and the generated consumer segments vary depending on the segmentation variables adopted. Therefore, such

studies do not define the process in which consumers develop perceptions of value in organic wine. For instance, some studies argue that interest in sustainability is important to one segment of consumers (Pomarici & Vecchio, 2014) but do not investigate the relationship between consumer attitudes and their actual behaviour. Segmentation studies of organic wine consumers also generally fail to investigate the overlap between segments or movement between segments. In addition, many segmentation studies are based upon surveys and consumer-stated intentions (Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Forbes et al., 2009), which are not reliable in terms of understanding actual behaviour (Remaud et al., 2008). Consequently, segmentation studies of organic wine consumers have been unable to explain why organic wine consumers float between the purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine.

Methodological issues

One final issue with organic wine studies is the dominating reliance on quantitative methodologies. In terms of consumer behaviour models generally, the dominance of quantitative studies and a realist approach to theory development has led to the creation of models that do not properly account for consumer behaviour (Erasmus et al., 2001). Although consumer behaviour theories should be based upon individuals (Gutman, 1982), the voice of the consumer is not heard in consumer behaviour theories, which generally reflect the orientations of the theory developers (Erasmus et al., 2001). Consequently, to understand the subtleties of consumer behaviour, more qualitative studies are required to elicit responses from consumers themselves about their attitudes and beliefs (Ajzen, 2008; Erasmus et al., 2001). Such studies will help researchers to understand consumer attitudes and emotions that are not accessible to research undertaken through surveys and multi-attribute statistical modelling (Holbrook et al., 2006).

There are very few qualitative studies on the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The limited amount of qualitative research that has been undertaken includes a study that investigates the image of organic wine in Italy, Germany, France and Switzerland (Stolz & Schmid, 2008; Hauck & Szolnoki 2020). Another study used means-end chain-theory to investigate the factors that influence consumers to purchase organic wine in Greece (Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003). There is also one study focusing on the attitude of young millennials in Germany and Italy (Sogari et al., 2013a) and one in the US (Thach & Olsen, 2006). However, few organic wine studies are actually based upon in-depth contact with organic wine consumers themselves. The result is that the voices of organic wine consumers have been neglected. This has led to difficulty in understanding how organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions of organic wine.

This review of the literature describes a number of topics related to the current understanding of how organic wine consumers develop and show perceptions of value. As a result, organic wine studies have contributed to the understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers by determining the range of value sizes included, but they do not capture the complexity of the relationships between value sizes. As a result, while existing theories and structures can form a basis for research, a new model is needed to understand the perceptions of value for organic wine consumers. The following section, therefore, highlights two research questions put forward for this study.

2.6 Research questions

The researcher concluded that the previous organic wine literature did not capture the complexity or integrity of the perceptions of organic wine consumers. Previous literature also offers conflicting conclusions about the relationship between different value sizes that affect organic wine consumers. In addition, the literature review highlighted several research gaps with regard to the relationship between factors such as consumption occasion and the social context in which wine is consumed and the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Finally, much prior organic wine research is based upon idealised views obtained from consumers through surveys rather than upon actual consumer behaviour or extended contact with organic wine consumers. As a result, the researcher noted that generalised consumption-value theories, even those adapted for organic wine, were not able to explain the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Consequently, there is a requirement to develop a model of consumer behaviour specifically for organic wine. Such a model needs to be based on the voices of wine consumers and should seek to understand the relationship between the different elements of consumer value perceptions without imposing a priori concepts on the research. The model also needs to avoid treating the different dimensions of consumer value as though they are variables to be compared to each other.

Consequently, two research questions emerged from the literature review:

- What dimensions of consumer value perceptions influence consumers to purchase and consume organic wine instead of conventional wine, and how do they relate to each other?
- Why does a segment of organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine?

In addressing these two fundamental questions, any emergent theory must be able to understand the process through which organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value dimensions in relation to organic wine. The emergent theory must also be able to understand why a segment of

organic wine consumers floats between the purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine.

In arriving at the research questions, the researcher engaged in an iterative relationship with previous research. This involved interspersing a study of the literature with short field visits designed to enhance the understanding of consumer value perceptions in relation to organic wine. The two research questions that emerged were therefore based upon the literature and interpreted through the lens of understanding derived from the field. Consequently, the researcher used the prior literature in a sensitising way to help develop the research questions and as a guide for the research method selected but did not allow previous research to dominate the study by imposing hypotheses or theories.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the values and perceived value concepts, as well as current models of value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The review of the literature has shown that previous organic wine studies use a generally adapted consumption-value theory model to explore the perceptions of organic wine consumers. However, previous research has not addressed the dynamic nature of the perceptions of value for organic wine consumers. A review of the literature also showed that there are significant gaps in understanding how organic wine consumers reveal perceptions of value in real purchasing and consumption behaviours. As a result, two research questions were posed for the study. When answering research questions, the study needs to develop a new theoretical perspective on the perceptions of value for organic wine consumers based on the voices of organic wine consumers.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodological considerations which influenced the study design and discuss the rationale for the selection of the research methodology and research strategy based upon the research questions. Chapter 4 then proceeds to outline how the study was operationalised.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIVIST GROUNDED THEORY

3.1 Introduction

This is the first of two chapters that describe the methodological considerations which influenced the research design used in this study. Chapter 3 outlines the rationale for the selection of the research methodology and research strategy, based upon the research questions, as well as ontological and epistemological considerations. The chapter then proceeds to describe the research method adopted to implement the study, explaining the selection of constructivist grounded theory as being most appropriate to answer the research questions. Finally, the chapter addresses issues of credibility and validity in the study.

Chapter 4 proceeds to discuss the methodological considerations that the researcher addressed during the implementation of the study. The chapter shows how constructivist grounded theory procedures for data collection and data transformation were operationalised in the study. However, as constructivist grounded theory necessitates a high degree of researcher involvement in both data analysis and theory development, Appendix A provides a more detailed account of the way in which the researcher implemented the study and how constructivist grounded theory procedures for data collection and transformation were used ‘in action’. Consequently, Appendix A is important for the reader as it provides details of the steps taken to ensure the credibility and validity of the conclusions that emerged from the data.

However, before describing the research methodology, strategy and method, it is important to define the terms used in this study. There is a multiplicity of terms used to describe the different elements of a research project (Blaikie, 2009). Consequently, authors use the same terminology in different ways and with different meanings. This can cause confusion in a research study. In a research study, Bryman (2016) uses the term research strategy to refer to the qualitative or quantitative forms of data collection and transformation. For Blaikie (2009), on the other hand, a research strategy is a set of procedures (inductive, deductive, abductive or reproductive) for answering the research question. Bryman (2016) terms research procedures research design, while Bazeley (2013) uses the phrase research method. To confuse even further, Blaikie (2009) considers a research design to be the whole process of the selection of research paradigm, research strategy and research methods in order to provide a framework for the research.

Consequently, for the sake of clarity, this study uses the following four terms:

- *Research design*: high-level framework incorporating all the elements that will guide the study – research methodology, research strategy and research methods;
- *Research methodology*: how the research is to be conducted, based upon the research questions and the researcher's ontological and epistemological position;
- *Research strategy*: the manner in which the research questions will be investigated within the tradition of the chosen research methodology;
- *Research method*: specific procedures and processes that are associated with the research strategy and which will be used for data collection and analysis (Blaikie, 2009).

3.2 Philosophical perspective

The following three sections outline the way in which the research questions, the researcher's ontological and epistemological position and issues of methodological fit influenced the research design. The remaining sections of the chapter proceed to outline the research methodology and research strategy selected and explain why the constructivist grounded theory was considered to be the most suitable research method to answer the research questions.

3.2.1 Nature of the research questions

The selection of research methodology, research strategy and research method is linked to their ability to answer the research questions (Blaikie, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). Consequently, the nature of the research questions not only defines the scope and nature of the study (Blaikie, 2009) but also influences the form of the data to be collected and the method of data transformation (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006).

The two research questions posed for this study reflected gaps that were identified during the literature review and the initial field studies undertaken by the researcher. Both questions are open-ended and seek to investigate the value perceptions of organic wine consumers without the influence of a priori hypotheses or theories. In addition, the research questions called for the discovery and understanding of processes rather than the investigation of variables (Charmaz, 2014). Consequently, the research questions necessitated an investigative research strategy that focused on an in-depth understanding of the views of consumers (Langley, 1999). These methodological considerations suggested that the study required a qualitative rather than a quantitative research methodology (Bazeley, 2013; Blaikie, 2009; Bryman, 2016; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015).

3.2.2 Ontological and epistemological assumptions

A researcher's worldview reflects their ontological and epistemological orientations. Ontological orientation is concerned with social reality and reflects philosophical assumptions regarding the nature of reality and how the world works. Epistemological orientation is related to assumptions about how human beings understand and perceive the world and the way in which it works (Bazeley, 2013; Blaikie, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). A researcher's epistemological assumptions are derived from their ontological position (Blaikie, 2009). Epistemological orientation also reflects a researcher's position on the relationship between the researcher and the participants and how social reality is understood (Bhattacharjee, 2012; El Hussein, Hirst, Salyers, & Osuji, 2014). A researcher's ontological and epistemological orientation will therefore influence the research strategy selected (Blaikie, 2009) as well as the form and phraseology of the research questions themselves (Hathaway, 1995).

The influence of different ontological and epistemological philosophies has evolved with time and can be seen as a reflection of society. Realist and positivist philosophies no longer dominate research, and the number of adherents of philosophies such as post-modernism and post-positivism is growing (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). Social science methodologies such as grounded theory have also evolved and reflect the society in which they exist (Hallberg, 2006). This is visible in the evolution from a positivist and realist classic grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to the more modern and constructivist form of grounded theory expounded by Charmaz (2000, 2006, 2014).

In terms of ontology and epistemology, a review of the wine literature indicated that there are multiple ways to interpret the value dimensions that influence wine consumers, both within one country and internationally (Sánchez & Gil, 1997). Multi-country best-worst scaling studies show that consumers' evaluation of the attributes of wines varies from country to country (Cohen, 2009; Goodman, 2009). In addition, segmentation studies indicate that the attitude of consumers towards wine varies considerably between segments and that a change in segment variables used in studies can lead to different perspectives on the behaviour of wine consumers (T. Johnson & Bruwer, 2003; Kolyesnikova et al., 2008). Consequently, this researcher does not ascribe to the realist position, which argues that there is a single reality waiting to be discovered (Lincoln et al., 2011), that the world is concrete and external, and that discovery relies upon observation (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). Instead, this researcher considers that consumer value perceptions reflect multiple varied realities, which need to be understood by reference to social processes rather than variables.

Critical realism possesses a slightly softer ontological position than the realistic approach, arguing that there is a reality that exists outside human knowledge or understanding of it (Bazeley, 2013) but

that this reality can be understood and gradually made visible (Mir & Watson, 2001). However, this researcher considers that critical realism does not incorporate the possibility that truth changes with time and context and that there are no eternal truths (Carr, 2006). As stated by Mir and Watson (2001, p. 1172), 'The notion that reality is apprehensible, inferable and authoritatively describable by theorists is perhaps inflected with intellectual hubris'.

Consequently, this researcher ascribes to the relativist position, which considers that there are multiple truths and that reality depends upon the observer's position (Lincoln et al., 2011). The relativist position places people in the centre of social reality. Relativists, for instance, believe that scientific laws are out there but are created by people: the truth of a particular theory depends upon discussion and agreement (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015).

In terms of epistemological position, this researcher does not accept the positivist view of an observable reality that ignores the involvement of people in the construction of social reality (Lomborg & Kirkevold, 2003). It is difficult to accept that the search for truth inherent in positivism could encapsulate the fact that there are clear differences between individual consumers and that each consumer has a different perception of reality. Instead, this researcher ascribes to a constructivist epistemology, suggesting that there are multiple realities and that realities are socially constructed (Charmaz, 2000, 2006) and expressed by individuals in their daily lives (Charmaz, 2014; Lincoln et al., 2011; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004, 2006). Knowledge is therefore constructed rather than discovered (Bazeley, 2013). Consequently, there are as many social constructions as there are individuals (Lincoln et al., 2011). Truth also varies from place to place and from time to time (Blaikie, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). Concepts such as truth, reality and social norms reflect specific societies and cultures as well as a multitude of different truths, norms, and realities (Lincoln et al., 2011; Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006).

In terms of epistemology, critical realism shares some elements with constructivism as it acknowledges that human beings are constantly trying to understand the world and that the understanding is continually changing (Bhaskar, 1975, 1979). However, this researcher does not accept the critical realist's position that reality is stratified and that structures have causal power (Peters, Pressey, Vanharanta, & Johnston, 2013). This researcher adheres to the constructivist view of causality, which argues that only individuals have causal powers and that practices are real only because individuals experience them, not because of any inherent causal effect (Mir & Watson, 2001). Social structures themselves do not have causal power but may constrain individuals if those individuals believe in the power of those social structures (Peters et al., 2013). The influence of social structure on social practices, therefore, comes about as a result of the actions of individuals within

social contexts (Mir & Watson, 2001). Consequently, the constructivist worldview appears most suited to the research questions, which call for an understanding of individuals within social contexts.

Another reason for the selection of a constructivist rather than positivist epistemological approach was the issue of the role of the researcher. In the positivist worldview, the researcher is an observer who tests hypotheses and tries to understand reality with detachment (Lincoln et al., 2011). However, constructivists view the researcher as an integral part of the social process and consider that participants and the researcher interact while co-creating reality (El Hussein et al., 2014). Indeed, in transformational grounded theory, researchers and participants work actively together in the development of theory and the testing of findings (Redman-MacLaren & Mills, 2015).

3.2.3 Methodological fit

In determining the most appropriate research design to answer the research questions, the researcher also needs to take into consideration the issue of methodological fit. Methodological fit reflects the degree of internal consistency between the research questions, the prior literature, the research strategy and the contribution of the study to theory (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Edmondson and McManus (2007) suggest three types of methodological fit, depending upon the state of prior research and existing theory: mature theory incorporates research that aims to provide greater precision within existing theories and constructs; intermediate theory builds upon existing theories to present new constructs and often suggests provisional relationships between new and established constructs; and nascent theory, which typically proposes new constructs and tentative explanations that often indicate the need for further work on the phenomenon being studied.

In terms of this study, the research questions suggested that there are still significant gaps in the understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers despite the existence of a considerable body of literature. This suggested that an exploratory, open-ended research approach was required to offer a new perspective and lead to an updated understanding. However, the literature review did indicate that there were a number of constructs already identified in both the consumer behaviour and wine literature that could be used as a springboard to assist the researcher in developing fresh ideas. Consequently, the researcher was able to draw upon existing constructs and concepts for sensitising purposes. This led to the conclusion that although there were elements of both intermediate and nascent theory in the research questions, the study sat closer to nascent theory than to intermediate theory.

As the research focus lay within the nascent and intermediate theory, the researcher did not consider that a quantitative research methodology, which generally uses surveys to test hypotheses, was appropriate for the study. The researcher did give some consideration to using a mixed methods

research approach, which is appropriate for an intermediate theory (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). The strength of a mixed-methods study lies in its ability to offer a triangulation of the findings (Johnson, McGowan, & Turner, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004, 2006). An exploratory sequential mixed method design, therefore, appeared to be a possible option, in which an initial qualitative phase informs a subsequent quantitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This research design has been used previously in wine research (Verdú Jover et al., 2004). However, such an approach was not considered appropriate for this study for two reasons. First, the research questions called for a highly detailed exploratory understanding of the views of organic wine consumers, which the researcher considered could only be achieved through an in-depth qualitative study. Given the time constraints and the need to undertake a detailed study, the researcher felt that it would not be possible to implement two separate if linked, research approaches within one study. Second, the researcher considered that source triangulation rather than methodological triangulation was suitable to provide confirmation of the findings. This meant that the findings of the initial interviews with producers and retailers were used to check the results of subsequent interviews with consumers and that comparisons were made to identify points of similarity and difference. The researcher also paid close attention to the issues of credibility and validity in the findings during the study.

Consequently, the nature of the research questions, as well as considerations of ontological and epistemological orientation and methodological fit, suggested that the study required a qualitative rather than quantitative research methodology. Although a qualitative methodology required the researcher to tolerate ambiguity during the research process (Oliver, 2012; Saldaña, 2016; Tracy, 2010), it offered significant advantages in terms of answering the research questions posed in the study. Primarily, it kept the researcher close to the participants and dealt with words rather than numbers, allowing the researcher to maintain focus on the opinions of consumers without the influence of a priori ideas (Blaikie, 2009). In addition, a qualitative methodology allowed the researcher to focus on understanding actions and processes rather than variables (Bazeley, 2013). Finally, a qualitative study offered flexibility during the implementation of the study, allowing for changes in ways of data gathering and data analysis (Bazeley, 2013; Blaikie, 2009; Kenny & Fourie, 2015). Given that the research questions did not start out with any a priori ideas or theories, this flexibility was a major advantage during study implementation as it enabled the researcher to pursue emergent ideas and theories. In addition, as the study identifies processes rather than variables, the emergent theory can be generalised to other contexts and environments (Bazeley, 2013).

This section outlined the rationale for the qualitative research methodology adopted in the study, based on the nature of the research questions, issues of ontological and epistemological orientation

and methodological fit. The following section describes the rationale for the choice of research strategy and the decision to use constructivist grounded theory as the research method most appropriate to answer the research questions.

3.3 Research strategy

A research strategy is defined by the research questions, the researcher's ontological and epistemological position and where the research sits in relation to prior research. The intended contribution of the study is also an important consideration. Although there is no strict requirement for specific research methodologies and research strategies to be connected, different methods of data collection and data analysis are traditionally linked by convention (Blaikie, 2009). For instance, a realist researcher is likely to separate data collection from data analysis, while a constructivist researcher is likely to prefer an iterative process of data collection and analysis (Hesse-Biber, 2007). This study adopted an inductive and abductive research strategy to answer the research questions. The following section discusses the rationale for this decision.

3.3.1 Methods of discovery

There are four main research strategies – deductive, inductive, abductive and retroductive (Blaikie, 2009; Bazeley, 2013). Each type of research question is suited to one (or more) of these research strategies. An inductive approach produces generalisations from the data, using inductive logic; a deductive strategy explores the validity of a theory by testing hypotheses and is concerned with discovery rather than understanding; an abductive approach aims to understand social actions through the words of the social actors themselves; while a retroductive strategy starts with an observed phenomenon and then tries to establish causal relationships in a specific context (Blaikie, 2009). Inductive and abductive research strategies are the only approaches that can answer *what* questions (Blaikie, 2009) and can be used for exploration and description. Deductive and retroductive research strategies can be used to answer *why* questions and can assist with an explanation. An abductive research strategy can answer what and why questions and can facilitate understanding rather than just explanation (Blaikie, 2009).

The nature of the research questions, ontological and epistemological orientations and issues of methodological fit suggested that a deductive approach was not a suitable research strategy for this study. As the aim of the research was to identify processes in the value perceptions of organic wine consumers through an understanding of the social realities of the consumers themselves, the researcher considered that an inductive research strategy was most appropriate. In inductive research strategies, a model can be introduced at any stage once patterns are identified. In addition, the research process is generally iterative (Hesse-Biber, 2007). However, the research questions also contained

elements indicative of an abductive strategy. An abductive approach is based on inferring from data and developing a new understanding or interpretation of the phenomenon under investigation (Reichertz, 2007). This is achieved through constructing reality and giving meaning to the world of the social actors themselves (Blaikie, 2009). The researcher also gave some consideration to the possibility of a retroductive strategy, in which a study works backwards from an observed phenomenon to provide an explanation (Blaikie, 2009). However, as the research questions required understanding rather than explanation, and the researcher was not working backwards from any observed patterns, the use of a retroductive strategy was rejected. The researcher, therefore, considered that the most suitable research strategy was a combination of inductive and abductive, reflecting a relativist ontological position and a constructivist epistemological orientation.

3.3.2 Research methods

Choice of research strategy influences the options available to the researcher for the implementation of the study – the research methods. In terms of this study, the research strategy called for an understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. As organic wine consumers range from individuals who consume exclusively organic wine to individuals who rarely consume organic wine, the researcher considered that a comparative approach, rather than a single case study or cross-sectional design, was most suitable. Such an approach allowed the researcher to identify points of similarity and difference between individuals as well as between contexts (Bryman, 2016), enabling the emergent theory to be tested as it developed (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In addition, comparisons enabled the researcher to identify new relationships and shed fresh light on the research questions from the perspectives of the study participants (Bazeley, 2013; Bryman, 2016). The researcher also considered that a comparative research method, rather than an individual case study, would help to address issues of credibility and validity in the study as well as enhance the generalisability of the findings (Bryman, 2016).

The research strategy also called for contact with participants in a subjective rather than objective manner to gain an in-depth understanding of their perceptions of their social realities (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In addition, the researcher concurred with the view that it is not possible for researchers to be neutral data gatherers, given that they are responsible for attributing meaning to the data (Bazeley, 2013; Braun & Clarke, 2006). This view was reinforced by the researcher's experience with producer and retailer interviews during the initial field study. Consequently, it was important that the research method selected enabled the researcher to bring active reflexivity about her role in the study to the interpretation of data and to the processes of interviewing study participants (Blaikie, 2009; Charmaz, 2014; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Glaser, 2002b; Mason, 2010; Oliver, 2012).

3.3.3 Theory development

Another factor that influences the research strategy and research methods adopted in a study is the nature of the outcome that is sought from the research. In terms of this study, the researcher did not set out to test hypotheses but to produce a revised local theory about the value perceptions of organic wine consumers, which could then be generalised to other contexts and settings. Consequently, the research strategy and research method selected had to be suitable for theory development.

A theory deals with the relationships between concepts and explains how or why something happens (Blaikie, 2009). Positivist definitions of theory treat concepts like variables and set out to explain and predict the relationships between concepts (Charmaz, 2014). On the other hand, interpretive definitions of theory emphasise interpretation and understanding rather than explanation. An interpretive theory does not seek to identify causality but rather to understand and make sense of the phenomenon in abstract terms (Charmaz, 2014). Consequently, the theory that this study aimed to produce needed to make sense of, and provide meaning for, the social realities of organic wine consumers in terms of their value perceptions of organic wine.

Theories can exist at various levels (Bazeley, 2013). A local theory establishes relationships between concepts, initially at the local level. A substantive theory integrates a number of local theories related to a phenomenon. At a wider level, a theory can become more abstract and can produce a formal or general theory (grand theory). Due to the limited time available, this study set out to develop a local theory that presented an understanding of the realities of organic wine consumers in a local context. However, a local theory can also be generalisable beyond the specific context (Bazeley, 2013). The researcher, therefore, considered it important that the theory which emerged was applicable not only to organic wine consumers in the specific context of the study but also had to possess wider applicability to other contexts. Consequently, particular attention was paid to ensuring that comparisons were undertaken with individuals who did not consume organic wine and with a wide range of participants with different socio-demographic characteristics and wine consumption profiles, thereby testing the applicability of the theory in negative as well as positive cases.

To develop a local theory, the research method used in the study had to make sense of the data (Langley, 1999). Langley (1999) identified seven 'sense making' strategies for analysing data. These range from a *narrative strategy*, which aims to construct a story from the data, to an *alternative template strategy*, in which various different interpretations are proposed and assessed. However, the researcher considered that grounded theory was the most appropriate of Langley's (1999) seven strategies for answering the research questions. Grounded theory fulfilled the requirement for a comparative research method by comparing small units of data to develop concepts. Grounded theory

researchers also stay close to the data during analysis while developing a theory that is derived from the data. Grounded theory also focuses on the individual rather than the context. Grounded theory It does, however, require a relatively large number of cases with detailed descriptions to allow for comparisons (Langley, 1999). Nevertheless, the researcher considered that this was achievable in the time available. In addition, although grounded theory can be complicated to implement (El Hussein et al., 2014; Langley, 1999; Nagel, Francis, Burns, Aubin, & Tilley, 2015), its procedures for data collection and transformation can strengthen the credibility and validity of the emergent theory.

The following section describes the rationale for the selection of grounded theory rather than an alternative method of conducting qualitative research. This is followed by an outline of the different grounded theory camps, focusing on their ontological and epistemological orientations. The chapter then proceeds to explain why the researcher considered constructivist grounded theory to be the most suitable grounded theory method to answer the research questions while also corresponding with the researcher's ontological and epistemological position. The chapter ends with a discussion on issues of credibility and validity in qualitative research studies and in grounded theory in particular.

3.3.4 The grounded theory approach to research methodology

A researcher can choose between various research methods to implement a qualitative research methodology (Charmaz & McMullen, 2011). This researcher considered four possible qualitative research methods: thematic analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2011; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012), phenomenology (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Creswell & Miller, 2000), discourse analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2014). Although phenomenology can be used for theory generation, the researcher did not consider phenomenology suitable to answer the research questions as it is more concerned with a description of the phenomenon under consideration (Goulding, 2005; Starks & Brown Trinidad, 2007; Wertz et al., 2011). Discourse analysis was also rejected due to its emphasis upon the language used by participants to create identities rather than theory development (Starks & Brown Trinidad, 2007). The researcher had experience using thematic analysis for the initial interviews with producers and retailers but did not consider it suitable for analysis of the main interviews with wine consumers. While thematic analysis - can be used for theory development, enabling themes to emerge from the data (Saldaña, 2016) and also offering flexibility in implementation (Braun & Clarke, 2006), thematic analysis is primarily intended to break up text to identify patterns and themes. It is, therefore, more suitable for explanation than the development of a theoretical model (Attride-Stirling, 2011; Braun & Clarke, 2006). In this sense, thematic analysis is akin to phenomenology (Guest et al., 2012). In addition, thematic analysis lacks established procedures and processes for data analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Indeed, where procedures are

suggested by thematic analysis authors (Guest et al., 2012), they draw heavily on grounded theory. Consequently, the researcher considered that the existence of clear procedures was one of the major advantages of grounded theory.

Consequently, after reviewing a number of alternative qualitative research methods, the researcher decided that grounded theory was the most suitable for answering the research questions based on two main criteria. First, the focus of the research questions was the development of a theory. In this respect, the researcher considered grounded theory to be most suitable as it is specifically designed to break open data and lead to the emergence of a theory grounded in the data (Glaser, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1965, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2014). This allowed for the construction of new theory rather than just the identification of themes or application of existing theory to the data (Charmaz, 2014).

Second, data collection and transformation procedures in grounded theory, although potentially complex (El Hussein et al., 2014), are systematic yet flexible (Charmaz, 2014). In this sense, they can be used by researchers as they see fit and do not have to be followed rigorously (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2014). The researcher considered that the existence of a defined set of procedures would help to avoid arbitrary and ad hoc decisions, even when only one researcher was involved in the coding and analysis (Dey, 1993). In addition, the existence of procedures provided a research framework to follow, which helped to ensure the credibility and validity of the emergent theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2014; El Hussein et al., 2014; Nagel et al., 2015). This rigour helped to ensure that the emergent theory, while being capable of telling the story of organic wine consumers, was also robust (Lomborg & Kirkevold, 2003; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

3.3.5 Why constructivist grounded theory?

With their book *Discovering Grounded Theory*, Glaser and Strauss (1967) put forward what is now termed 'classic grounded theory' as a method for generating theory inductively rather than deductively. As part of the process, Glaser and Strauss (1967) stressed the constant comparison of data and memo writing (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; El Hussein et al., 2014; Kenny & Fourie, 2015). Classic grounded theory was essentially a response to the social science orthodoxies prevalent in America in the 1960s. However, differences in interpretations of grounded theory started to appear between Glaser and Strauss, resulting in Strauss, with one of his students, Corbin, repositioning grounded theory and developing what has been termed 'Straussian grounded theory' (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). A third major development in grounded theory was the emergence of constructivist grounded theory championed by Charmaz, who adopted a more interpretive view of theory development (Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2014). Consequently, the three main

camps represented different philosophical positions and, as a result, advocated different research methods (Kenny & Fourie, 2015). Other grounded theory interpretations, such as feminist or transformational grounded theory, were not considered for this study.

In constructivist grounded theory, Glaser stressed the objective position of the researcher and the emergence of explanation from the data (Evans, 2013; Evans & Edward, 2015; Glaser, 1992, 1998, 2002a, 2011). Charmaz (2014), on the other hand, proposed the co-construction of reality with participants, the recognition of researcher participation in theory development and an interpretative stance with regard to data analysis. Ontologically and epistemologically, Straussian grounded theory moved from an essentially positivist and realist orientation to a post-positivist, critical realist position, particularly once Corbin became its leading proponent after the death of Strauss in 1996 (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998; Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Glaser (1992, 2002) argued that both Straussian grounded theory and constructivist grounded theory were not modifications of classic grounded theory but completely new approaches. However, they can also be viewed as part of an evolutionary process, reflecting changes in society and methodological evolution since the 1960s rather than a complete revision of grounded theory itself (Evans, 2013; Hallberg, 2006; Redman-MacLaren & Mills, 2015). This is the view of Charmaz (2014), who considers constructivist grounded theory to be a contemporary version of grounded theory.

These divergences between the different grounded theory camps have generated considerable debate, sometimes acrimonious, with proponents trying to clarify positions as well as highlighting similarities and differences between the camps (Evans, 2013). This has led to a significant degree of confusion for researchers, especially novice researchers (Evans, 2013; Nagel et al., 2015). However, although there are significant differences, there are also many common elements shared by all camps. The similarities include simultaneous data collection and analysis, the construction of a theory grounded in the data, the use of codes and the development of categories inductively, memo writing, constant comparison between data and theoretical sampling (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Charmaz, 2014).

This researcher considered that the decision regarding the form of grounded theory to use in the study was essentially between classical grounded theory and constructivist grounded theory. The Straussian grounded theory variant was rejected for two main reasons. First, ontologically and epistemologically, it seemed to have moved close to constructivist grounded theory with the acceptance that concepts and theories are constructed by researchers in conjunction with the participants (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The second reason is related to the complexity of the analytical processes in the Straussian variant, including axial coding and conditional matrices, despite the later relaxation of their strict

coding principles (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Mills et al., 2006). Consequently, the Straussian grounded theory seemed to offer few advantages over constructivist grounded theory. The decision, therefore, came down to a choice between classical and constructivist grounded theory.

The decision to select constructivist grounded theory rather than the classical variant was based upon four considerations: first, the ontological and epistemological orientation of each camp; second, the role of the researcher and method of theory generation; third, the role of the literature review; and fourth, practical considerations of data transformation. The following section discusses these four points.

In terms of ontology and epistemology, classical grounded theory reflects a realist and positivist orientation in which the ‘world is out there’ (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1992, 1998, 2002a). Constructivist grounded theory, on the other hand, rejects the idea of a pre-existing reality that can be discovered (Annells, 1996; Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2014; Evans, 2013; Hallberg, 2006). The constructivist grounded theory offers an interpretive understanding of the phenomenon being studied rather than an exact picture of it (Charmaz, 2014). Consequently, while classical grounded theory aims to discover and explain patterns of behaviour (Breckenridge & Elliott, 2012; Glaser & Holton, 2004), constructivist grounded theory sets out to interpret how participants construct their realities and therefore accepts the existence of multiple perspectives (Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2014). This approach suited the ontological and epistemological orientations that the research questions demanded as well as the researcher’s own worldview.

The second rationale for the selection of constructivist grounded theory was the way each camp perceives the role of the researcher and the process of theory generation. The classical grounded theory views the researcher as an objective observer (Glaser, 2002b). Constructivist grounded theory, on the other hand, considers the researcher to be a participant in the co-creation of reality (Breckenridge & Elliott, 2012; El Hussein et al., 2014; Lomborg & Kirkevold, 2003; Charmaz, 2008, 2014). Constructivist grounded theory researchers, therefore, take a reflexive position with regard to the data and acknowledge that social actions are interpreted not only by the study participants but also by the researcher (Charmaz, 2014). This helps researchers to provide an interpretive rendering of the data they are studying (Charmaz, 2014). Consequently, constructivist grounded theory considers that theory generated by a study is an interpretation in which researchers construct grounded theories using their past experience and their social interactions with people and their own perspectives (Charmaz, 2014). This perspective on the researcher’s role suited the research questions and reflected the experience of the researcher during initial interviews with producers and retailers.

The third reason for the selection of constructivist grounded theory was related to the use of the literature and the role played by a researcher's prior knowledge. Glaser (1992) advocated reviewing the literature after analysis to avoid researcher bias. He suggested that researchers should approach the data with as few preconceived views as possible, including delaying the literature review, thereby allowing a theory to develop from the data without the influence of prior research (Evans, 2013; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). However, constructivist grounded theory considers that familiarity with the literature is important for sensitising purposes and acknowledges that it is impossible for a researcher to be a complete 'blank sheet' (Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2014; Urquhart & Fernández, 2006). Consequently, instead of considering awareness of prior literature to be a hindrance to theory generation, constructivist grounded theory encourages the use of reflection by the researcher, including the consideration of prior literature, during the research process (Charmaz, 2006). This theoretical sensitivity enables a researcher to develop an understanding of the processes which emerge from the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), provided that prior research is used to sensitise the researcher and not push the study in specific directions (Mills et al., 2006).

The fourth reason for the selection of constructivist grounded theory was related to data transformation processes. The classical grounded theory proposes a list of 18 coding 'families', whose aim is to sensitise researchers to the possibilities contained in the data (Glaser, 1978). The Classical grounded theory also proposes a two-stage coding process: substantive coding (open and selective) followed by theoretical coding. This is intended to lead to the discovery of a theory (Kenny & Fourie, 2015). Constructivist grounded theory, on the other hand, advocates a flexible and simple two-stage coding process: initial open coding followed by focused coding, leading to the construction of a grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006, 2014). Constructivist grounded theory's coding process is therefore highly flexible and, although similar to the coding process in classical grounded theory, is more interpretative and intuitive (Kenny & Fourie, 2015). This also suited the research questions by allowing a theory to emerge from the data.

3.4 Issues of credibility and validity

Unlike quantitative methodologies, which stress the reliability and repeatability of the data through statistical analysis, qualitative research relies heavily upon researcher interpretation, meaning that data can be interpreted in many different ways (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In constructivist grounded theory, the role of the researcher is even more pronounced. Consequently, not only must constructivist grounded theory researchers be aware of their personal bias (Evans, 2013), but they must also pay particular attention to issues of credibility and validity (Charmaz, 2014).

As the popularity of qualitative research methodologies has grown, the question of credibility in qualitative research has been the subject of a growing number of studies. This has led to a proliferation of criteria for assessing the credibility and validity of a qualitative study (Creswell & Miller, 2000). In addition, an array of different terminology has been proposed to express the concept of credibility. Terms used include validity, adequacy and validation (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) suggested four measurements of the *trustworthiness* of a qualitative study – credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Tracy (2010) proposed eight measurements of quality in qualitative research, while Creswell and Miller (2000) suggested nine criteria. Nevertheless, despite the lack of agreed standards, there is general agreement amongst qualitative researchers that they must convince readers of the strength of their conclusions and the validity of their arguments (Bazeley, 2013; Creswell & Miller, 2000). Bazeley (2013) suggested that a researcher can determine the credibility of a study by considering the appropriateness and adequacy of the methods used and whether the conclusions are supported by the evidence.

In relation to grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (1967) proposed four criteria for assessing validity – fit, work, relevance and modifiability. A study needs to display usefulness, conceptual density, durability over time, modifiability and explanatory power (Glaser, 1978, 1992, 1998). These criteria were developed further by Charmaz (2014), who also proposed four criteria as a measure of the value of a research study: credibility (whether the claims are supported by the evidence), originality (whether the study provides new insights), *resonance* (whether the study makes sense and the categories represent the voices of participants) and usefulness (whether the study contributes to knowledge and proposes any generic processes). The researcher considered these criteria to be close to those of other authors, such as Denzin and Lincoln (2005), as well as being straightforward. Consequently, as the study was based on constructivist grounded theory principles, the researcher adopted Charmaz's (2014) four criteria to measure the quality and validity of the findings.

While the first three of Charmaz's (2014) criteria deal with issues of internal credibility and validity, the fourth point addresses the value of the study outside its specific context. The researcher considered that this was a key issue when determining the value of this study. Some authors argue that qualitative data cannot, by their very nature, be generalised (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) and that they are subjective and context-specific (Whittemore & Chase, 2001). However, this researcher believes that constructivist grounded theories do offer the possibility of transferability as their focus is upon understanding processes based upon the social realities of participants, not variables. The extent to which a study presents an understanding of processes outside the specific context of the study can, therefore, be used as a measure of the value of the study (Bazeley, 2013).

In this regard, no theory can account for all contexts and situations: any theory must be adjusted and then tested again in specific contexts (Glaser & Strauss, 1965). It is therefore extremely important that the researcher provides detailed information about the way in which the fieldwork and analysis were conducted so that future researchers have a basis on which to develop or re-evaluate the theory in other contexts. Appendix A, therefore, includes details of how the researcher operationalised constructivist grounded theory research procedures for the study as well as discusses the ‘ups and downs’ during the data gathering and analysis process. In addition, Chapters 5 and 6, which outline the findings of the study, contain quotes from participants. The purpose of these quotes is to illustrate the points being made and provide examples of the way in which participants view their own social realities (Bazeley, 2013). The inclusion of quotes also allows readers to form their own judgements in relation to the arguments advanced by the researcher. Quotes from participants can also engage readers and establish points of recognition with their personal experience, thereby facilitating understanding of the theory and, consequently, helping to establish the credibility of a research project (Glaser & Strauss, 1965). Real names have been replaced by pseudonyms rather than reference numbers to maintain the ‘voice’ of the participants while ensuring confidentiality. The gender of each participant (‘M’ for male and ‘F’ for female) is indicated each time they are quoted to enhance the interpretation of the research results and the understanding by the reader.

3.5 Summary

This chapter explained the rationale for the selection of a qualitative research methodology and a comparative research method to answer the research questions. The chapter outlined the considerations which the researcher took into account when deciding that constructivist grounded theory was the most suitable research method to answer the research questions. These included issues of ontological and epistemological perspective as well as methodological fit. The chapter also discussed the criteria for establishing credibility and validity in the study. The following chapter describes how the constructivist grounded theory research method was operationalised and outlines the procedures used during data collection and transformation.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY – TRANSFORMATION OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 outlined methodological issues that inform the research design and explain the logic for the selection of a qualitative approach and the use of constructivist grounded theory. Chapter 3 also discussed reliability and validity issues in the study. This chapter describes how the researcher handles the recurrence process of data collection and analysis found in constructivist grounded theory, showing how the researcher uses continuous comparison and analysis of negative situations, as well as coding, notching, and diagramming data to interpret data. The chapter continues to explain how the researcher develops conceptual categories and defines the basic category and shows how the study uses theoretical sampling to achieve theoretical saturation (Bazeley, 2013; Charmaz, 2014). Chapter 5 and 6 continue to reveal the findings from the data, while Chapter 7 discusses the results of the study.

4.2 Unit of analysis

The research questions posed in the study relate to the value perceptions of organic wine consumers in relation to organic wine. The study did not try to determine the causality between variables but focused on understanding the processes that affect perceptions of consumer value, especially the realities of individual consumers, and how these realities work in a social environment. As a result, the research design required a comparative study that would compare individual cases to develop new structures and ultimately a theory based on data (Bryman, 2016; Langley, 1999). The researcher considered several units of analysis for comparison purposes before deciding to focus upon the individual as the unit of analysis in the study.

Since the study is comparative, the researcher took the option to focus on consumer perceptions about organic wine on different occasions of acquisition and consumption, as management researchers use different analytical units (Bazeley, 2013; Bryman, 2016; Langley, 1999). However, although this approach would have allowed for comparison between occasions and for the development of fresh constructs, it risked generating a highly focused local theory based on specific contexts. Such a theory might not have been generalisable to other occasions or other contexts. In addition, concentrating on specific occasions meant taking a decision in advance with regard to the selection of occasions. Given that there was no prior organic wine research that could guide such a decision, there was a risk that this approach would not lead to a credible understanding of the wider processes involved in the development of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

Consequently, the researcher decided to focus upon the individual as the unit of analysis. Since the adopted constructivist grounded theory research method is designed to identify iterative processes, focusing on the individual has allowed the researcher to follow the ideas when they start to emerge from the data. The researcher also decided that it was important that participants reflected consumers with a wide range of opinions with regard to organic wine. This included individuals who consumed exclusively organic wine, individuals who consumed both organic and conventional wine and individuals who consumed only, or mostly, conventional wine. The participants also included individuals who had a negative opinion of organic wine. A comparison between the perceptions of such a range of different consumers and groups of consumers was intended to enable the researcher to obtain a deeper understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers by using comparisons as a springboard for developing revised theoretical constructs (Bryman, 2016; Langley, 1999). It also served to spark updated lines of enquiry that could be pursued as they emerged (Charmaz, 2014).

The researcher did consider the possibility of conducting research in a number of different locations. However, as a constructivist grounded theory study aims to understand processes (Hood, 2007) and, therefore, does not need to be representative of a population (Charmaz, 2014), the researcher decided to implement an in-depth study in one location rather than a less detailed study in multiple locations. Nevertheless, within these constraints, the researcher did speak to a range of individuals who resided and worked in a relatively wide geographical area (London and several counties near London). As a result, the study involved a number of different locations, although within a delineated geographical area.

4.3 Research approach

The researcher adopted an iterative approach within the overall research framework as well as with regard to data collection and analysis. The initial literature study showed that organic wine consumers have a potentially significant gap in their current understanding of perceptions of organic wine. As a result, the researcher decided to adopt a research design that included the process of two-step data collection and analysis. The first step was to explore the structures described in the previous organic wine literature by producers and retailers about organic wine consumers. The goal was also to see if the interviews produced any new ideas that the researcher could watch in the second phase of the study, which consisted of in-depth interviews with wine consumers.

As a result, during the first step, the researcher interviewed 25 Italian and German winemakers and retailers in mid-2015. The participants were selected on the basis of ease of communication, accessibility and ease of language. Since these interviews were only used to identify themes and

manufacturers and retailers are not the focus of research work, the researcher did not think the lack of representation was a problem. The talks were semi-structured and focused on getting the views on the attitudes of wine consumers according to producers and retailers who work with organic wine. Organic wine consumers come from a range of countries, including the UK. The interviews lasted between 30 and 60 minutes each and were recorded and transcribed. They were then analysed for themes using Thematic Analysis to identify patterns (Attride-Stirling, 2011; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Guest et al., 2012).

The results of these initial interviews challenged some ideas found in the earlier literature regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The initial interviews also provided ideas that the researcher subsequently included in the interview guide used with organic wine consumers. For example, comments from manufacturers and retailers suggested that consumers pay little attention to environmental protection and pay more attention to the health aspects of organic wine. Consumers were also thought to attach great importance to the taste and quality of organic wine. Producers and retailers also noted that most organic wine consumers buy both organic and traditional wine, and there are very few people who consume only organic wine. Rather than its sustainable features, willingness to pay a premium is often associated with the manufacturer and manufacturing method, as well as its confidence in the quality of organic wine. Producers and retailers also noted that organic wine consumers do not have any particular socio-demographic characteristics and come from all genders, income levels and education levels. Considering these reviews from manufacturers and retailers, the researcher re-evaluated the organic and traditional wine literature, as well as the consumer behaviour literature. The researcher also investigated specific additional literature for the review of floating organic wine consumers. As a result, the researcher has adopted a repetitive approach not only to data collection and analysis but also to the development of research questions.

The researcher incorporated comments from producers and retailers when planning for the main focus of the study – interviews with wine consumers – in three ways. First, the comments from the producers and retailers suggested that previous organic wine research had not fully encompassed the way in which organic wine consumers form their value perceptions of organic wine. Second, the producers and retailers noted that most organic wine consumers also consumed conventional wine, although the participants could not suggest why this might be the case. These two points contributed to the development of the research questions. Third, the producer and retailer comments were included in the development of the initial interview guide. Finally, there was a methodological benefit in the approach taken. The researcher was already sensitised to the process of interviewing with regard to the value perceptions of organic wine consumers, having undertaken 25 field interviews, when the main phase of interviews with the wine consumers themselves commenced. In addition, having used

Thematic Analysis for purposes of analysis, the researcher was confident about using constructivist grounded theory for the main process of data collection and analysis despite its more complex and structured procedures (El Hussein et al., 2014).

Following phase one of the study and the emergence of the research questions posed in the study, the researcher undertook an extended period of planning for the operationalisation of the study, including the criteria for sampling. This period of planning involved extensive reading with regard to qualitative research methodologies and grounded theory in particular. Phase two of the study started in mid-2016.

4.4 Sampling

4.4.1 Sampling levels

The sampling method selected for a study determines sampling levels as well as inclusion and exclusion criteria for those who participated in the study (Mays & Pope, 1995). Generally, qualitative research uses purposive sampling, selected according to criteria designed to answer participants' research questions (Guba, 1981; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Selection criteria may be determined at the beginning of the study or may develop or change as the study progresses (Bryman, 2016). In addition to being consistent with constructivist grounded theory, which uses theoretical sampling, the researcher adopted the second approach because it allows flexibility in the selection of study participants. In theoretical sampling, participants are selected based on their ability to contribute to the characteristics of emerging categories and their understanding of the development of a theory (Charmaz, 2014).

Sampling can be performed based on contexts, such as a location or site, or alternatively through the sampling of individuals, such as inhabitants or employees. Many qualitative studies select a place for work and then select individuals from the site or location (Bryman, 2016). In addition to research questions, the level of requirement for comparison will provide an indication of the level of sampling that is usually required (Bryman, 2016). However, in terms of this study, research questions required a focus on the individual rather than context to understand broader processes. This suggests that focusing on a specific location or situational context may not capture all relevant processes. As a result, the researcher decided to emphasise the individual by addressing the role of context during the interview process. In this way, both sampling levels - context and individual - are discussed but are mainly focused on the individual. The researcher, therefore, determined that sampling would be used to obtain several wine consumers.

4.4.2 Sampling participants

Two additional issues are central to operationalising a qualitative research study – first, the number of participants to be interviewed and, second, the criteria for the selection of participants.

In considering the question of how many interviews are enough, some authors propose an absolute number. For instance, Mason (2010) analysed 560 qualitative PhDs and concluded that the average number of interviews was 31. Other authors suggest that the research questions and the depth of analysis required will dictate the number of interviews needed (S. E. Baker & Edwards, 2012). However, as this study adopted a constructivist grounded theory research method, the researcher decided not to determine a set number of interviews at the start of the data gathering process. Instead, the researcher used theoretical sampling to select participants purposively once the core category started to emerge. The iterative process of interviewing and analysis continued until theoretical saturation was reached (Charmaz, 2014). Theoretical saturation itself was determined when the relationships between categories had been thoroughly explored, and no new properties were observed (Charmaz, 2014). At this point, data collection stopped.

The use of an incremental process of participant selection also ensured that the selection criteria were amended in line with the direction of the research analysis. Initially, the study set out to ensure as wide a range as possible of participants, based upon a priori criteria (Bryman, 2016) derived from the literature review and the interviews with producers and retailers. Participants were selected to ensure a range of different socio-demographic characteristics (such as gender, age, income and education level) as well as the proportion of organic wine consumed within their overall wine consumption. The initial participants, therefore, included individuals who consumed exclusively organic wine and individuals who never, or rarely, consumed organic wine, as well as individuals who consumed both organic and conventional wine. Within this last group, care was taken to ensure that there were individuals who consumed high proportions of organic wine within their overall wine consumption as well as individuals who consumed lower proportions.

The findings of the study were therefore based upon interviews with 25 participants (excluding two pilot interviews designed to test the interview guide) organised in three phases. Phase one consisted of 10 interviews: seven in London and in the counties close to London in early September 2016, plus three interviews in late September 2016. Following initial coding and analysis, phase two consisted of a further 11 interviews during October 2016. Phase three consisted of four interviews in December 2016.

During the first phase of data collection, the researcher recruited all 10 participants personally. For the second phase, 10 participants were recruited by an agency and one participant by the researcher. Participant recruitment in the first phase was based upon securing participants who reflected a range of socio-demographic characteristics and proportions of organic wine consumed within their overall wine consumption. Phase one also included a number of participants who consumed mostly conventional wine. Gaps in socio-demographic characteristics and the proportion of organic wine consumed were addressed during phase two. However, as the researcher considered that the views of conventional wine consumers had been explored sufficiently during phase one, no participants who consumed only, or mostly, conventional wine were recruited in phase two or phase three. Phase one and phase two were therefore complementary. For phase three, the same agency used in phase two provided all four participants. By the third phase, the researcher had identified the core category and three sub-core categories. Consequently, the selection criteria were amended to recruit only individuals who could shed light upon the emerging categories; thus, socio-demographic criteria were omitted, and emphasis was given to participants' interest in organic wine.

4.4.3 Sampling types

Table 2 sets out a list of wine consumers who participated in the study (in order of interviews), indicating how they were recruited and their age and gender, as well as the proportion of organic wine consumed within their overall wine consumption. Appendix F outlines how the participants reflected different socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education level, employment status, marital status, and household income.

Table 2: List of participants in the study

Participant	Organic wine proportion	How recruited	Gender	Age
Tim	Rare	Researcher	Male	65-69
Bruce	5%	Researcher	Male	65-69
Rachael	5%	Researcher	Female	60-64
Henry	Rare	Researcher	Male	70
Beryl	Rare	Researcher	Female	65-69
Harold	Rare	Researcher	Male	70
Kim	Rare	Researcher	Female	65-69
Becky	100%	Researcher	Female	65-69
Adam	50%	Researcher	Male	18-24
Philp	Rare	Researcher	Male	65-69
Martin	60%	Agency	Male	45-49
Nikki	75%	Agency	Female	35-39
John	25%	Agency	Male	35-39
Nicole	75%	Agency	Female	55-59
Mary	50%	Agency	Female	18-24
Paul	10%	Agency	Male	60-64

Participant	Organic wine proportion	How recruited	Gender	Age
Nina	100%	Researcher	Female	25-29
Jennifer	30%	Agency	Female	40-44
Odette	40%	Agency	Female	18-24
Dean	25%	Agency	Male	45-49
Noel	50%	Agency	Male	35-39
Lauren	80%	Agency	Female	25-29
Dylan	75%	Agency	Male	35-39
Jo	80%	Agency	Female	55-59
Samantha	2%	Agency	Female	45-19

Note: In all tables, organic wine refers to the proportion of organic wine consumed within a participant's overall wine consumption.

4.5 Data collection

4.5.1 Ethics

The University of Malta Ethics Committee approved the data gathering strategy used in the study. The risk to participants was deemed to be low as no questions related to political or religious views or medical history were posed. Personal opinions were sought only in relation to conventional and organic wine.

At the beginning of each interview, the researcher verbally informed the participants about the purposes of the study. The researcher also provided participants with a short written information form explaining the purpose of the study and the reason for the interviews (Appendix B) and a participant consent form (Appendix C) confirming the contract of participation in the study. Participants were informed that they could withdraw without discussion verbally or through the participant consent form at any time without justification.

Participants were also asked to complete a short personal information survey before starting the interview (Appendix D). Information about the personal data survey could only be accessed by the researcher, and participants were identified only by a reference number. A file was created that contains data uploaded to NVivo to help analyse participant comments provided in the personal information survey and guided to participants only by their names.

The researcher also paid careful attention to anonymity and privacy protection. At no point during the recorded interview did participants identify themselves by name, and appropriate steps were taken to ensure that the information provided during the interviews remained anonymous. As a result, although interviews were copied by a professional transcriber, the confidentiality of the participants was preserved. The files were sent to the transcriber via a secure file transfer connection by sending them saved to a CD.

In terms of data storage, records and transcripts of interviews with participants, personal information surveys and participant approval forms are stored separately on the researcher's personal computer. The participant's approval form, which contains the full name and signature of the participants, cannot be associated with private interviews or a personal information survey.

In terms of data storage, the recordings and transcripts of the interviews held with participants, personal information questionnaires and participant consent forms were all stored in separate locations on the researcher's personal computer. The participant consent form, which did contain the full name and signature of participants, could not be associated with specific interviews nor with the personal information questionnaire.

4.5.2 Qualitative interview protocols

The research questions are open-ended because participants prefer unstructured conversations where they are allowed to speak freely (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). As a result, semi-structured questions where participants were allowed to speak freely also allowed the researcher to maintain control of the general aspect of the discussion (Charmaz, 2014). A semi-structured interview method also ensured that the sensitising concepts derived from the literature review and initial field study were not overlooked while also enabling fresh processes and consumer views to emerge (Charmaz, 2014).

The researcher developed a conversation guide for use with participants based on the sensitizing concepts in the literature and comments from manufacturers and retailers. The use of an interview manual by the researcher helped maintain the balance between managing the direction of interviews and allowing participants to speak freely (Charmaz, 2014). In this sense, the interview guide was just a starting point for the interview (Charmaz, 2014). The interview guide was tested in two pilot interviews. These pilot interviews indicated the need for some changes in the structure of the interviews and in the phraseology of some of the questions. However, the pilot interviews indicated that the questions themselves were sound and enabled the researcher to explore the initial constructs that had been identified while allowing the participants to speak freely. The interview guide was amended twice during the field research – at the end of phase one and again at the end of phase two. In addition, the researcher made notes on the hard copy of the interview guide regarding points of enquiry to pursue or to drop during each phase of the study. As the interviews were semi-structured and the researcher allowed participants to follow their own train of thought, the discussions did not always reflect the order in the interview guide. Consequently, the interview guide often served as a 'memory jogger' for the researcher. The interviews lasted between 45 and 90 minutes and ranged between 15 and 25 pages of transcribed text (Times New Roman 12, with 1.5 spacing). In total, the interviews comprised 25 hours of recordings and 423 pages of transcribed text.

Appendix E contains the final form of the interview guide. By phase three, the questions focused on seven main areas:

- Organic wine attributes and quality;
- Relationship between organic wine and organic food consumption;
- Emotions connected with organic wine consumption;
- Consumer attitudes towards health and the environment (justifications for organic wine);
- Influence of occasion;
- Role of the social dimension; and
- Wine and organic wine knowledge, interest and involvement.

4.5.3 Validation of data

To verify data when collecting and to help analyse the data, the researcher continued to visit wine industry fairs and talk to manufacturers and retailers in general about the findings. The researcher also spoke about the first findings, which emerged at a German wine industry conference in Stuttgart in November 2016, taking a series of questions from academics and industry professionals. Although the findings are only the beginning, the researcher was encouraged because questions from academics showed a high level of interest in the results. The researcher also reviewed interviews with manufacturers and retailers, which, despite being excluded from the analysis, served to verify the findings from the consumer study. In particular, he noted the similarities and differences between the comments of retailers and manufacturers and the views of organic wine consumers. The differences noted by the researcher were later investigated during discussions with the study participants.

4.5.4 Other aspects of participant selection and interviewing

The researcher decided to use a mixed-method to maximize the recruitment pool and select participants to reduce the likelihood of bias by meeting participants derived from only one source. As a result, eight participants came from wine clubs, two were introduced through the contact of the researcher, 14 were provided by an agency, and one was held with a participant at a wine fair. The agency which provided most of the participants was chosen on the basis of its ability to provide a wide range of organic wine consumers. The researcher provided criteria for recruitment to the agency, which proposed a number of potential participants. The researcher then accepted or rejected the participants until the required number of participants who met the criteria was reached. The ability to select participants was important during the theoretical sampling phase, in which the researcher tried to explore the emerging categories.

No payment was made to the participants whom the researcher recruited directly. However, each of the 14 participants provided by the agency received £40 in recognition of their time. At the request

of the panel provider, the researcher handed this amount to the participant personally at the end of each interview. The agency also received a fee for each participant they provided.

Interviews with eight wine club members were held in private houses. Interviews with people who met the researcher's contacts were held at home, while a quiet interview was held at a London hotel in the case of the participant recruited at the wine fair. Interviews with participants sourced from the agent were held in an interview room at an office complex in central London. All interviews were conducted in quiet conditions, and refreshments were made available. Participants were asked to turn off their mobile phones and ensure that the conversations were uninterrupted.

The participants were informed by the agency or the researcher of the purpose of the interview. Participants also knew that the talks were expected to last 60 to 90 minutes and would include their views on organic wine. However, before each discussion began, the researcher gave the participant more detailed information about the purpose of the study and took care not to start the actual interview until the personal information survey had been completed.

All interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants. The recordings were transferred to the researcher's computer immediately after each interview and checked for quality. The personal information survey was transferred from a hard copy to an Excel spreadsheet after each interview and uploaded to NVivo 11. Recorded interviews, a professional transcript, and Word documents were also uploaded to NVivo.

The previous two sections outlined the sampling procedures that the researcher adopted in the study. More details are provided in Appendix A about the way participant recruitment progressed and the “bumps along the way” (Charmaz, 2014). The following section describes the way in which the researcher used constructivist grounded theory processes to transform the data and to develop a theory regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

4.6 Data analysis

This section describes the constructivist grounded theory processes that the researcher adopted to analyse data and define the main categories. Additionally, Appendix A contains a more detailed description of how these processes were implemented and how the iterative process of data collection and analysis was carried out. Appendix A also shows how the researcher paid attention to reliability and validity during data analysis.

4.6.1 Data analysis: Overview

A qualitative researcher faces a significant amount of data that needs to be converted into a consistent whole (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). As a result, for a researcher who wants to develop a theory from

the data, there is a risk of drowning by data (El Hussein et al., 2014; Evans, 2013; Saldaña, 2016). Therefore, in the early stages of analysis, it is necessary to maintain focus and tolerate uncertainty while avoiding loss in the data (Charmaz, 2014).

The researcher used NVivo 11 to assist data analysis. All transcripts were imported into NVivo 11, and information from the personal information questionnaire was used to populate the attributes table in NVivo. NVivo's search and query tools were used (as required) to make comparisons.

However, although NVivo was used to encode and query data, during the data conversion process, the researcher connected with the research as a whole by stepping back from the coding and notation detail to read and reread its printed copies (transcripts). The analytical process, therefore, began by reading all copies in print and drawing attention to salient information. During the recurring process of data collection and analysis, the researcher regularly stopped to read all transcripts or transcript sections for their general content. This ensured that the researcher was not lost in detail and that new ideas appeared at a higher level. As each transcript was read and reread, the researcher wrote notes containing ideas produced by commending all research data instead of detailed coding minutiae. Research questions were also sent to the wall of the room where the analysis was conducted to ensure that the researcher focused on the purpose of the analytical process.

To transform the data, the researcher used three main tools to break down the data (coding, memoing and diagramming) as well as two main analytical processes (constant comparison and examination of negative cases). The following section outlines these main tools.

4.6.2 Data analysis: Tools

Coding

The researcher adopted a two-stage coding process - first coding and then focused or theoretical coding (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser and Holton, 2004; Saldaña, 2016). The first coding was used to divide data into smaller sections for analysis (Charmaz, 2014) and was based on the themes defined during the literature scan and the first stage of fieldwork. As a result, the researcher developed two types of thematic codes. First was a series of thematic codes derived from previous literature that reflected factors that could affect consumers' perceptions of organic wine. High-level thematic codes included factors such as health, environment and taste. The second was a series of specific codes designed to capture participant opinions related to concepts such as organic wine quality, floating between organic and conventional wine and consumer emotions. Initially, the researcher used line-by-line in vivo coding, but this soon proved to be ineffective as it was time-consuming and was not making sense out of the data. Consequently, the researcher decided to code larger groups of data on a thematic basis (Saldaña, 2016). The researcher, therefore, broke down participant comments regarding the

attributes of organic wine as well as the benefits obtained through organic wine consumption into sub-codes within larger themes. This form of thematic coding was adopted to detect patterns in the data and to enable initial ideas regarding categories to be generated through comparisons between the participants.

However, once the researcher began to notice that the participants spoke about organic wine in emotional terms, coding evolved from in vivo and thematic coding towards process coding as a way of understanding the participants' views. The researcher selected gerunds based upon the specific words used by the participants, a process assisted by the use of word searches. This generated a large number of codes, in verbal gerund form, such as seeking an experience, avoiding negative effects and feeling better. The importance attached to gerunds reflected the focus of the analysis upon actions and processes, allowing the researcher to become closer to the participants and the identification of the feelings generated by organic wine (Charmaz, 2014; Saldaña, 2016).

The use of thematic and process coding led to the proliferation of codes and sub-codes. This stood out especially in the case of transaction codes. As a result, during the second phase of the interview process, the researcher reviewed the codes, deleted a few and merged many. The researcher also created a code hierarchy that elevated some to a higher level and lowered others to a lower level. As a result, the researcher moved to the theoretical sampling stage with fewer codes. Focused or theoretical coding focuses on specific expressions and concepts and uses the most important first codes to sort, synthesize and edit data (Charmaz, 2014). Theoretical coding is also focused on core and sub-core categories that emerge from the analysis (Saldaña, 2016). As a result, during theoretical coding, the researcher did not fully encode the transcripts but used fewer theoretical codes to identify specific data in the transcripts. In addition, the researcher returned and recoded some transcripts in the first and second stages using theoretical codes. This led to a very clearly defined set of codes that the researcher used to define the properties and sizes of the quorum and sub-core categories.

Memoing

The researcher made extensive use of memoing as a tool for data analysis. At the end of each interview, the researcher wrote field notes that contained immediate thoughts on the discussions, points to follow up and questions to pursue. These memos were initially high-level but became more focused as the number of interviews increased, serving to clarify the ideas of the researcher (Douglas, 2003).

Memoing was also used to organise researchers' thoughts on specific aspects of participatory interpretations and impressions generated by the data. Early notes were used to summarise the data and suggest forward-looking ideas and outline initial thoughts about concepts that would be examined

more deeply in later interviews (Bazeley, 2013). The first notes were written in a free-flowing style immediately after the interviews and included the researcher's initial feelings about possible similarities and points of difference between participants (Charmaz, 2014). However, as the data collection and analysis process evolved in the second and third stages, notes became increasingly analytical and were used to develop ideas about categories and features and identify relationships between categories (Charmaz, 2014).

The researcher also used theoretical sorting to structure the analysis. Memos were printed and sorted by hand and compared with each other. Reviewing memos in hard copy was sometimes conducive to sparking an idea, leading to the writing of another memo (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser & Holton, 2004; Kenny & Fourie, 2015).

Diagramming

Diagramming was a third tool used for analysing data. When using diagrams, the researcher tried to show the structures and concepts that emerged from data analysis. The researcher also tried to visualise the relationship between categories and identify a basic category that connects all categories. The diagram was also useful to see if the resulting theory could explain negative cases. At the micro-level, diagramming was particularly useful when coding became complex and encodings became difficult to decipher. Diagramming provided a visual method for identifying patterns and concepts that could be noticed in data. The diagrams were also useful as an experimental tool and allowed the researcher to draw possible explanations for consumer perceptions of organic wine as a way to test ideas, often in the form of a flow diagram. The process was useful because it clearly demonstrates the strengths and weaknesses of certain ideas.

Other methods of data transformation

In addition to basic coding, notation, and diagramming tools, the researcher used a series of processes designed to help identify the meaning of the data. For example, the researcher questioned the data using phrases such as emotion, better, benefits, health, or the environment. Such word calls helped the continuous comparison process by highlighting transcripts of words and context. The researcher also used to count words to develop ideas (Dey, 1993; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006; Saldaña, 2016). Although word count echoes a quantitative research methodology, it did not focus on the actual numbers produced by NVivo. Instead, the researcher used the number of words to produce ideas about repeated concepts in consumers' comments and identify transcripts where words appear most often. The researcher then examined how certain words were used by participants. This allowed the researcher to get an idea of the power of consumers' emotional commitment to organic wine.

The researcher also noted down random thoughts and drew ‘doodles’ of initial ideas that were then developed into proper memos. In addition, the researcher wrote a number of snapshots, or stories, regarding specific participants, both conventional and organic wine consumers. While doing so, the researcher tried to imagine the emotions and justifications that such participants might advance for their perceptions regarding organic wine.

4.6.3 Data analysis: Processes

Constant comparisons

While coding was the main tool used during the analysis of grading and diagramming data, the main focus of the analysis process was the use of comparisons. The researcher used comparisons to describe the similarities and points of difference between individuals and groups and revived thoughts about the causes of these similarities and differences (Bazeley, 2013; Kolb, 2012). This helped the theory-making process. Comparisons are also valuable in provoking thoughts about the extent to which the views of specific participants reflect local conditions or what the outcome of broader processes is. These comparisons contributed to the identification of concepts that can be generalised in other contexts (Bazeley, 2013; Glaser & Strauss, 1965). This led to identifying points that were common among participants individually or as a group and provoked ideas on how the context could explain variation in cases where there were differences. As a result, comparisons played a central role in the development of core and sub-core categories. In addition, the comparison was a useful process for predicting where similarities or points of difference could be expected among participants and therefore provided an indication of the areas that the researcher should explore more deeply (Glaser and Strauss, 1965). This approach was particularly useful in the theoretical sampling process.

The attributes table in NVivo helped significantly to make a series of participatory socio-demographic feature-based comparisons to detect patterns. The researcher made comparisons between the individual participants and the groups of participants (Fernández, 2004; Hallberg, 2006; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In the second case, the researcher compared consumer groups according to their consumption preferences - wine consumers who rarely or never consume at first, wine consumers who only consume organic wine, and individuals who consume organic and traditional wine mix. Among the participants who consumed both organic and conventional wine, the researcher also compared the comments of individuals who consume organic wine in different proportions in general wine consumption. Initially, the researcher used socio-demographic features as the basis for comparison but soon expanded comparisons to include other factors. These factors include general wine consumption and the proportion of organic wine consumed on occasions of purchase and consumption, and comments on specific themes, such as wine quality or taste. As the importance of

specific factors such as the health benefits of organic wine began to emerge from the analysis, the researcher made comparisons between individuals and groups based on these concepts. As a result, as the analysis progressed, comparisons developed more analytical depth with the emergence of categories. The researcher then started using factors such as organic wine feelings for comparisons. As a result, comparisons influenced the direction of data collection during fieldwork. Comparisons also helped identify categories and added to the reliability of the resulting theory by showing context-specific structures as well as structures that can be generalised to other contexts (Glaser & Strauss, 1965).

Negative cases and outliers

While negative cases or outliers can be disruptive for quantitative studies and can threaten the validity of a study (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Winter, 2000), they can be very useful for qualitative studies. Qualitative researchers generally try to understand all cases in a study, and by understanding a negative case or an outlier, a researcher can better understand a positive case (Bazeley, 2013). In addition, accounting for negative cases or outliers is important if a theory is to explain processes as it compels the researcher to consider alternative explanations (Charmaz, 2014).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher used two definitions of a negative case – first, individuals who consumed entirely, or mostly, conventional wine; second, individuals who provided justifications for the consumption of organic wine and expressed an emotional attachment to organic wine but who consumed a low proportion of organic wine within their overall wine consumption. The researcher used NVivo to interrogate the statements of such consumers to identify where they differed from the participants who consumed a higher proportion of organic wine. The researcher also reviewed how this difference was reflected in the language the participants used as well as the justifications and opinions they advanced. In addition, the researcher interrogated consumers' past relationship with organic food and their reasons for starting to consume organic wine. As a result, the researcher was able to identify the processes that influenced both committed organic wine consumers as well as the participants who consumed smaller proportions of organic wine. Consequently, an examination of negative cases provided important insights into how the processes identified in the core and sub-core categories influenced the value perceptions of the participants. Comparisons also allowed the researcher to identify where a process had a positive effect on some organic wine consumers but was less noticeable amongst other organic wine consumers and then interrogate the data to highlight reasons for the difference.

The emergence of core and sub-core categories: Theoretical saturation

As the iterative process of data collection and analysis progressed, the researcher moved from initial coding to focused or theoretical coding, in which only data relevant to the emerging categories were coded. After 21 interviews, as the major categories had emerged, the study entered the phase of theoretical sampling with the interviewing of four more participants. Socio-demographic characteristics were no longer used for participant selection, and participants were chosen based on their ability to shed light on the processes identified in the core and sub-core categories. The data analysis also began to focus upon the core and sub-core categories, and comparisons became more specific in order to explore the dimensions of the core and sub-core categories. This process was accompanied by the delineation of the properties of the core category and the three sub-core categories until the point where the researcher was no longer able to identify any new properties (Charmaz, 2014). Consequently, at the end of the four interviews, the researcher considered that theoretical saturation had been reached and interviewing ceased.

However, although interviewing ceased, the analytic process continued for a further four months as the researcher worked and re-worked the data to elicit the properties of the core and sub-core categories. Analysis ceased in April 2017, and the process of writing up the study began.

4.7 Summary

This section outlined the way in which data were collected and transformed, using the tools and processes inherent in constructivist grounded theory. The chapter showed how the researcher used coding, memoing and diagramming to interrogate the data in an iterative process of data collection and transformation and how comparisons and the analysis of negative cases assisted data analysis and the emergence of the core and sub-core categories. This iterative process continued until theoretical saturation was reached. The following two chapters outline the findings of the study through the core category of **Manifesting Identity** and the three sub-core categories – **Attaching Significance**, **Performing Organics** and **Spreading the Word**.

CHAPTER 5

MANIFESTING IDENTITY AS AN ORGANIC WINE CONSUMER

5.1 Introduction

This is the first of two chapters that support the fundamental theory presented in this thesis. Together the two chapters describe the process of *Manifesting Identity*¹ as an organic wine consumer. *Manifesting Identity* conceptualises how organic wine consumers attach value to organic wine and manifest these value perceptions in their purchase and consumption behaviours. *Manifesting Identity* is the core process and comprises one value sub-core process, *Attaching Significance*, and two related behavioural sub-core processes, *Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word*.

This chapter begins with an overview of the process of *Manifesting Identity*. The second part of the chapter then describes the value process of Attaching Significance. Chapter 6 presents the behavioural processes of Performing Organics and Spreading the Word.

5.2 Overview of the emergent theory of *Manifesting Identity*

5.2.1 Manifesting Identity: Summary of the theory

Manifesting Identity conceptualises how organic wine consumers develop a specific identity in relation to organic wine. That identity is based upon their value perceptions about organic wine and is manifested in their purchase and consumption behaviour.

The development of value perceptions in relation to organic wine is a process that, for most study participants², begins when they are introduced to organic wine. For most participants, therefore, value perceptions develop after they start to consume organic wine rather than being a reason why they initially begin to consume organic wine.

Value perceptions develop through an interaction between participants' emotional attachment to organic wine and a belief that they obtain benefits through the consumption of organic wine. These benefits are primarily personal rather than altruistic and comprise both tangible benefits, such as preference for the taste of organic wine, and intangible attributes, such as perceived long-term health benefits. As the emotional attachment to organic wine grows, the participants begin to develop feelings of superiority in relation to conventional wine consumers and to consume organic wine for the emotions generated. Emotional attachment to organic wine also influences how the participants

¹ The four abstract processes (core category and three sub-core categories) are designated by capitals and italics, and highlighted in bold – for example, ***Attaching Significance***. Sub-processes are capitalised and in italics but are not in bold – for example, *Becoming Aware*.

² The term 'participants' refers to participants who consume organic wine, unless indicated otherwise. Participants who rarely, or never, consume organic wine are identified specifically whenever they are referenced.

perceive the benefits obtained, leading to a strongly subjective perception of the attributes of organic wine. For instance, the participants acknowledge that they cannot see the long-term health benefits of organic wine consumption but must accept them ‘on faith’. This interaction between emotional attachment and perceived benefits leads to the creation of an identity as an organic wine consumer based upon a set of *fundamental* value perceptions. In this sense, **Manifesting Identity** as an organic wine consumer possesses aspects reminiscent of a religious or political belief.

Based on the strength of this identity, the participants develop varying degrees of consumption loyalty to organic wine. However, the participants are not always free to exercise their consumption loyalty as they might wish and even committed organic wine consumers may consume conventional wine when in company or when the consumption occasion requires it. The participants also display caution when speaking to others about their value perceptions of organic wine and so choose the occasion carefully and generally only speak about a limited range of perceived benefits. The participants do not speak to others about their emotional attachment to organic wine.

Consequently, the identity as an organic wine consumer that the participants develop is personal but flexible and enables the participants to consume conventional wine without feeling that they are compromising their fundamental value perceptions in relation to organic wine.

5.2.2 Manifesting Identity: The processes

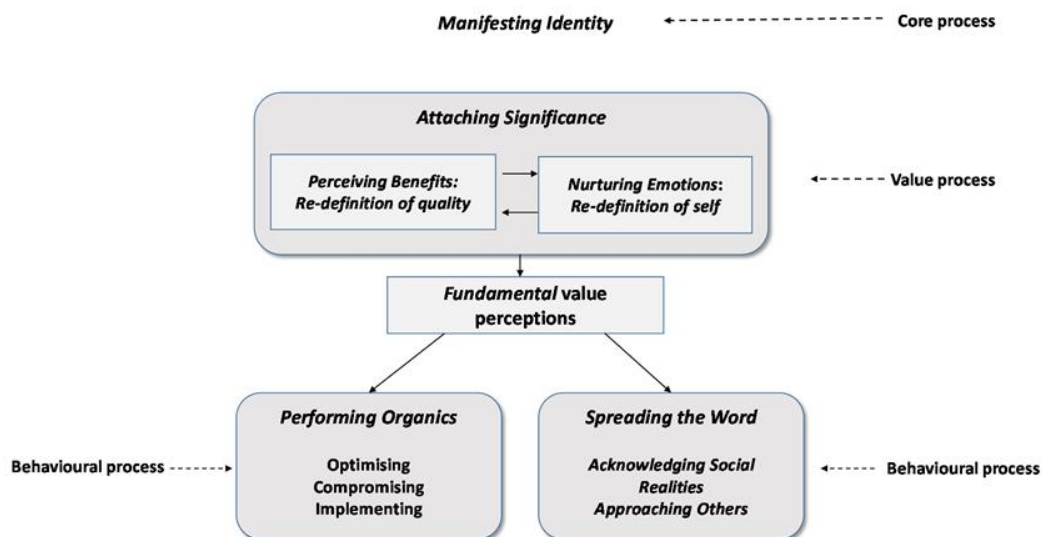


Figure 5: Conceptual model of the sub-core processes that comprise *Manifesting Identity*

The emergent theory of **Manifesting Identity** was developed by applying constructivist grounded theory procedures for data transformation and analysis. The data analysis focused on identifying a number of sub-core categories and a core category that encapsulated the properties of the sub-core categories.

Manifesting Identity is the core category (Figure 5). The principal sub-core category of **Manifesting Identity** is the value process of **Attaching Significance**. **Attaching Significance** describes how the participants develop their fundamental value perceptions about organic wine. **Attaching Significance** consists of three sub-processes: Becoming Aware, Perceiving Benefits and Nurturing Emotions. The second sub-core category of **Manifesting Identity** is the behavioural process of **Performing Organics**. **Performing Organics** conceptualises how the participants manifest their fundamental value perceptions in their purchase and consumption behaviour. **Performing Organics** consists of three sub-processes: Optimising, Compromising, and Implementing. The third sub-core category of **Manifesting Identity** is the behavioural process of **Spreading the Word**. **Spreading the Word** conceptualises how the participants manifest their value perceptions when speaking to others. **Spreading the Word** comprises two sub-processes: Acknowledging Social Realities and Approaching Others. Figure 6 presents a conceptual model of the three sub-core processes which comprise **Manifesting Identity**, identifying the key properties of each.

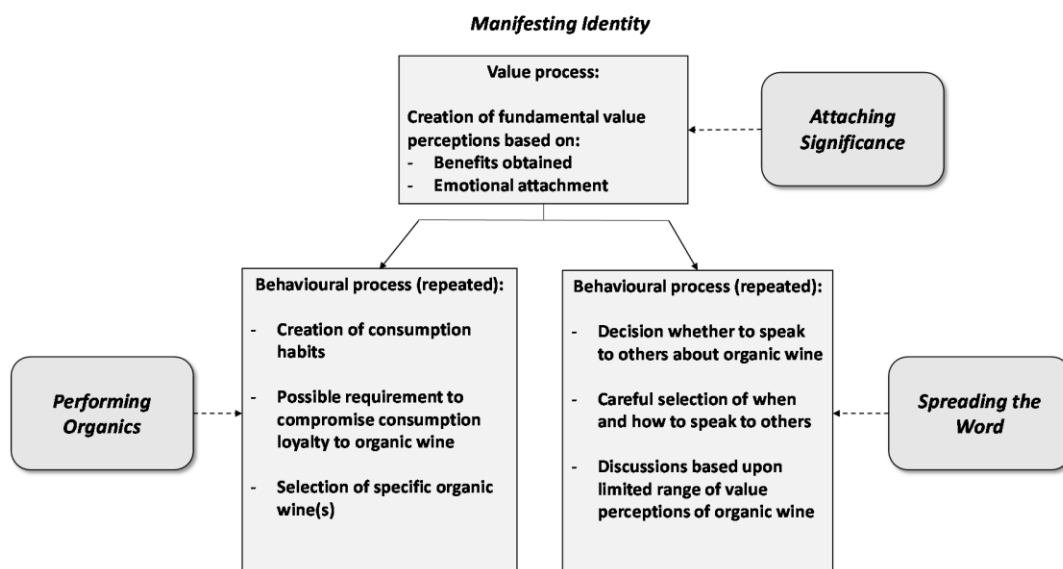


Figure 6: Conceptual model of the properties of the sub-core processes of Manifesting Identity

Section 5.2 provides an overview of the theory of **Manifesting Identity** as an organic wine consumer and shows how the three processes of **Attaching Significance**, **Performing Organics** and **Spreading the Word** relate to each other. The following section describes the process of **Attaching Significance**, while Chapter 6 proceeds to outline the processes of **Performing Organics** and **Spreading the Word**.

5.3 Attaching Significance

This section starts with an overview of the process of *Attaching Significance*. The section then proceeds to describe the three sub-processes that comprise *Attaching Significance*: Becoming Aware, Perceiving Benefits and Nurturing Emotions.

Attaching Significance conceptualises how the participants develop their fundamental value perceptions about organic wine. These fundamental value perceptions are based on the benefits that the participants believe they obtain through organic wine consumption as well as the emotional attachment that organic wine consumers develop towards organic wine.

The first sub-process of *Attaching Significance* is Becoming Aware. Becoming Aware conceptualises that most study participants have little awareness of organic wine until they are introduced to it. Having become aware of organic wine, the participants start to develop deeper value perceptions. The development of these deeper value perceptions is represented by the linked pair of sub-processes, Perceiving Benefits and Nurturing Emotions. Perceiving Benefits and Nurturing Emotions operate concurrently and influence each other. Perceiving Benefits represents the tangible and intangible benefits that the participants believe they obtain through consumption of organic wine and results in a re-definition of what organic wine quality signifies for organic wine consumers. Nurturing Emotions represents the emotional significance that the participants attach to organic wine and the way in which they re-define themselves as organic wine consumers. Consequently, the process of *Attaching Significance* is strongly personal and leads to the development of an identity as an organic wine consumer.

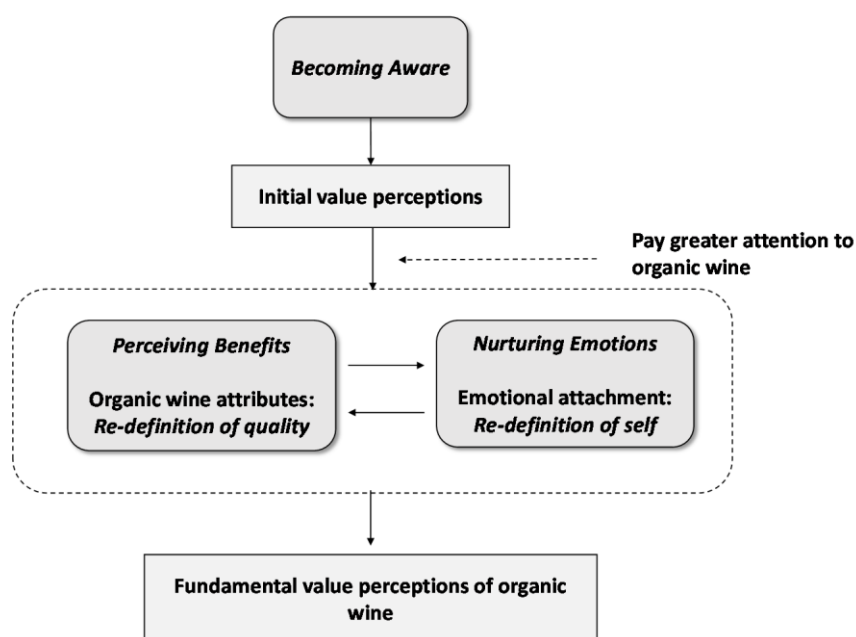


Figure 7: Conceptual model of the sub-core process of Attaching Significance

This section provided an overview of the process of *Attaching Significance*. The following section outlines the three sub-processes that comprise *Attaching Significance*. Section 5.3.1 describes Becoming Aware. Section 5.3.2 then outlines Perceiving Benefits, and section 5.3.3 presents Nurturing Emotions.

5.3.1 Becoming Aware: Initial value perceptions

Becoming Aware describes how the participants become aware of organic wine and develop an initially limited range of value perceptions. Few participants in the study began consuming organic wine as a result of prior consumption of organic food. Most participants, including many organic food consumers, were unaware or possessed only a limited awareness of organic wine prior to an introduction at a defining moment. A defining moment is a specific occasion or moment at which participants were introduced to organic wine that led to a ‘conversion’ to organic wine. Consequently, these participants acquired their initial value perceptions at, or as a result of, a defining moment. These initial value perceptions are based upon a limited range of perceived benefits. This section describes the importance of a defining moment for the participants and identifies the initial value perceptions which result.

Developing awareness

Only three study participants attribute their initial interest in organic wine to prior consumption of organic food. Rachael, for instance, commented that she developed her interest in organic wine through organic food. ‘I know a fair bit about organic food, or at least I like to think I do, so I’m sort of transferring that knowledge to the wine rather than knowing about the wine as an independent commodity’ (Rachael, F). Martin also recognises the link between his perceptions of organic food and organic wine. ‘I suppose my reasons for eating organic food are much the same as drinking organic wine.... It was more to do with organic food first’ (Martin, M). Adam belongs to a family that consumes a high proportion of organic food and organic wine. ‘Wine is wine, food is food, you can combine together, but what is inside is the idea, you know, it’s organic, it’s natural, it’s some kind of philosophy if you want, philosophy or just healthy attitude’ (Adam, M).

However, as Table 3 demonstrates, for most participants, there is no connection between prior consumption of organic food and awareness of organic wine. Dylan, Lauren, Mary and Jo, for instance, possessed little awareness of organic wine prior to a defining moment, even though they were organic food consumers. Table 3 also indicates that most participants who became organic wine consumers only became aware of organic wine because of a specific defining moment. Even participants such as Paul and John, who consume high quantities of wine, had little awareness of

organic wine prior to a defining moment. Table 3 excludes participants who rarely, or never, consume organic wine.

Table 3: Participants' prior awareness of organic wine and consumption of organic food

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Prior awareness of organic wine	Experienced defining moment	Prior organic food consumer
Becky	100%	Unaware/low	Yes	No
Nina	100%	Aware	Yes	Entirely organic
Jo	80%	Unaware/low	Yes	Regular, all products
Lauren	80%	Unaware/low	Yes	Occasional, fruit and vegetables
Dylan	75%	Unaware/low	Yes	Regular, all products
Nicole	75%	Unaware/low	Yes	Occasional, fruit and vegetables
Nikki	75%	Unaware/low	Yes	No
Martin	60%	Aware	No	Regular, all products
Adam	50%	Aware	No	Regular, all products
Mary	50%	Unaware/low	Yes	Regular, all products
Noel	50%	Unaware/low	Yes	Due to wife, entirely organic
Odette	40%	Unaware/low	Yes	Occasional, vegetables
Jennifer	30%	Unaware/low	Yes	Occasional, fruit & vegetables
John	25%	Unaware/low	Yes	No
Dean	25%	Unaware/low	Yes	Due to partner, as much as possible
Paul	10%	Unaware/low	Yes	No, very occasional meat and potatoes
Bruce	5%	Aware	No	No
Rachael	5%	Aware	No	Vegetarian, occasional organic products
Samantha	2%	Unaware/low	Yes	Occasional, milk and vegetables

The lack of awareness of organic wine, even amongst participants who were organic food consumers, indicates that most participants did not seek out organic wine initially based on their value perceptions of organic food. Consequently, most participants in this study developed their value perceptions of organic wine after *Becoming Aware*.

The following section outlines the role played by a defining moment in creating awareness of organic wine for the participants. The section then proceeds to describe the initial value perceptions that the participants developed in relation to organic wine, following a defining moment.

Defining moment

This section describes the two forms of defining moments for the participants. First, an introduction by a third party. Second, a personal decision to try organic wine is based on curiosity. These two forms of a defining moment as experienced by the participants are summarised in Table 4. Table 4 excludes participants who did not pass through a defining moment as well as participants who rarely, or never, consume organic wine.

Table 4: Form of defining moment for participants

Participant	Organic wine Proportion	Prior awareness of organic wine	Manner of introduction to organic wine
Becky	100%	Unaware/Low	Friend suggestion
Nina	100%	Aware	Personal decision
Jo	80%	Unaware/Low	Friend's house
Lauren	80%	Unaware/Low	Friend's house
Dylan	75%	Unaware/Low	On holiday in Poland
Nicole	75%	Unaware/Low	Friend's house
Nikki	75%	Unaware/Low	Restaurant - Curiosity
Mary	50%	Unaware/Low	On holiday in Italy
Noel	50%	Unaware/Low	Wife
Odette	40%	Unaware/Low	Tasting at shop
Jennifer	30%	Unaware/Low	Ex-partner
John	25%	Unaware/Low	Curiosity
Dean	25%	Unaware/Low	Introduced by partner
Paul	10%	Unaware/Low	Friend's house
Samantha	2%	Unaware/Low	Mother of ex-partner

The first form of a defining moment is an introduction through a third party. For instance, Mary, Noel, Jennifer, Dean and Samantha were introduced to organic wine by family members, while Jo, Nicole, Lauren, and Paul were first offered organic wine at a friend's house. Dylan was introduced to organic wine at an organic farm while on holiday.

A friend suggested that Becky try organic wine.

"I stopped drinking wine because it was making me feel so ill and I really did miss it. I probably stopped for about two years but [a friend] suggested trying organic wine because they said it was the sulphites that was probably giving me the headaches."
(Becky, F).

Odette was introduced to organic wine at a retail outlet.

"I went for a trip...and they had a tasting, it kind of sucked me in. It was literally just a guy was standing by the cheese counter and he was like 'Do you want to try this'?, and I was like 'Okay', so I tried it, it was nice, 'I'll take one'...that's how I first got into it."
(Odette, F).

Lauren was introduced at a friend's house. The friend had just one bottle of wine:

"That was all she had at her house, there was one bottle of wine and I wanted a drink and she said try this organic wine, it's a red wine, it's nice and I had it, and ever since then I've continued to buy it." (Lauren, F)

The second form of a defining moment is a personal decision to try organic wine, often taken out of curiosity.

Nikki was also attracted by curiosity:

“My first consumption was in a restaurant...I didn’t know too much about it, I wanted to just experience it for myself...I went to the restaurant for the first time and they didn’t have a huge wine selection, so I noticed it, it stood out to me, and the waiter let me try and taste, because I’d never experienced it. So I tried it and liked it.” (Nikki, F).

Nina also decided to start her consumption of organic wine essentially out of curiosity. She was a highly committed organic food consumer but did not drink wine at all. When she decided to start consuming wine, it was natural that she would only consume organic wine. Hence her defining moment was the decision to start consuming wine.

Of the seven participants who consume the highest proportion of organic wine in their overall wine consumption³ -Becky (100%), Nina (100%), Jo (80%), Lauren (80%), Dylan (75%), Nicole (75%) and Nikki (75%) – only Nina was aware of organic wine prior to a defining moment. However, each of the seven participants recalls their defining moment as a significant and memorable occasion. Consequently, a defining moment plays a central role in the development of the strong value perceptions that these participants display in relation to organic wine.

Initial value perceptions at a defining moment

The participants highlight five benefits that they believe they obtain from consuming organic wine – immediate health benefits, long-term health benefits, superior taste, protecting the environment and consuming an authentic product. However, the participants associated only three of these five benefits with organic wine when they were first introduced to it – immediate health benefits, long-term health benefits and enjoyment of the taste. The other perceived benefits develop later, once the participants acquire a deeper relationship with organic wine. Section 5.3.2 discusses the properties of each of the five perceived benefits in detail. This section references three perceived benefits to highlight the distinction between initial value perceptions and the deeper value perceptions acquired subsequently.

The three participants who began consuming organic wine as an extension of organic food consumption attribute their initial interest in organic wine to the search for long-term health benefits. They note that long-term health benefits are also their primary motivation for consuming organic food. The participants who developed an awareness of organic wine through a defining moment, on

³ The proportion of organic wine that participants consume within their overall wine consumption is placed in brackets after the participant’s name whenever such information helps readers to contextualise their comments. This enables readers to arrive at their own conclusions regarding the significance of the comments of participants.

the other hand, mention two different benefits which they perceived in organic wine at a defining moment – immediate health benefits, manifested through the absence of hangovers, and enjoyment of the taste. Odette, for instance, notes that ‘the after-effects the next day is...better’ (Odette, F). With regards to the taste, John notes, ‘I liked the [organic wine] that I tried, I enjoyed it...it tasted good, it tasted very clean, it tasted unique. So I enjoyed it and I enjoyed it because it was different’ (John, M). Nikki comments, ‘I really liked the taste...so I tried it and I liked it...’ (Nikki, F). Nicole was introduced to organic wine at a friend's house. An element of surprise that she liked organic wine can be detected in her comment. ‘I thought I'll try a small amount and actually liked the taste of it’ (Nicole, F).

The participants who passed through a defining moment do not mention any other initial value perceptions. No participant, for instance, mentions that they started to consume organic wine as a result of perceived long-term health benefits. The participants also expressed no emotional attachment to organic wine at the defining moment. The properties of the benefits that the participants note in relation to organic wine are discussed in detail in section 5.3.2.

Acquisition of information

Once the participants become aware, they start to pay greater attention to information about organic wine. However, none of the study participants indicated that they undertook much detailed research into organic wine. This includes the participants who claim to possess a high level of interest in wine, such as Nikki.

“I think I’ve had my fair share of different wines, so I kind of tune in to ‘I like this’ and ‘I don’t like that’....After I’d experienced [organic wine] myself, I then just tuned into it; if I was flicking through the paper and there was an article, I didn’t go hunting for it straight away, I just found that my awareness, it was kind of here instead of here. So, I was aware, maybe all those things were there before, but I didn’t tune into them because I wasn’t drinking it, but as soon as I tuned into drinking it, I became aware, small pieces of information that have just built over time.” (Nikki, F)

Dylan claims to possess a good knowledge of wine generally but also confirms that he has not undertaken much additional research into organic wine:

“The only research I’ve done is more to do with the good organic wine and the differentiation between the organic wines...all that is good for me. I haven’t really done that much in terms of the benefits, I think the benefits have been ancillary to the research done in terms of which one is good, and then you have anecdotal evidence to say actually this is better for you because this is the way it’s been developed, so not much at all and certainly not very scientific anyway.” (Dylan, M)

For most participants, increasing knowledge of organic wine after *Becoming Aware* does not extend beyond paying greater attention to labels. Jo, for instance, started to pay more attention to labelling, while Odette notes that she began to read organic wine labels and information on bottles.

“When I go for...organic wine, I’ll have a look at how it’s made on the back; I start paying more attention to what it actually says on the label...I do pay more attention to the packaging with organic because it usually gives you more information about the region and things, so that’s quite important.” (Odette, F)

The participants acknowledge the lack of in-depth research into organic wine, including those who consider themselves to be interested in wine. Jennifer, for instance, feels the following:

“I should be more interested...I do drink it... But, it depends how deep you want to go into it really.... I know they don’t add the sulphites – or they tend not to unless it’s not 100% certified. I just know that through reading about wine.” (Jennifer, F)

Noel considers that organic food and wine is not properly understood by consumers and recognises that he has not undertaken much research personally:

“I think I wouldn’t fully say that I understand the real difference and what it fully means for me. If somebody wanted me to explain exactly what the real benefit of organic wine was over normal wine, then I’d have a couple of things I can use, but I have no science behind it. I have no full understanding of the difference.”
(Noel, M)

Section 5.3.1 described the importance of a defining moment in creating awareness of organic wine for most participants in the study. Following a defining moment, participants start to pay greater attention to organic wine and begin to perceive wider benefits obtained through organic wine consumption. The participants also develop an emotional attachment to organic wine. Section 5.3.2 discusses the development of deeper fundamental value perceptions through the sub-process of Perceiving Benefits, while section 5.3.3 outlines the sub-process of Nurturing Emotions.

5.3.2 Perceiving Benefits: Re-definition of organic wine quality

Perceiving Benefits conceptualises the first sub-process through which the participants attribute value to organic wine based upon the perceived benefits obtained from the consumption of organic wine.

The participants identify five benefits that they believe they obtain through the consumption of organic wine:

- immediate health benefits,
- perceived long-term health benefits,
- appreciation of the taste,
- perceived benefit for the environment, and
- authenticity in organic wine production.

The participants attribute most value to the immediate and long-term health benefits and the authenticity of organic wine, while they attach less importance to taste and the perceived environmental benefits. Martin summarises the range of perceived benefits obtained through organic wine consumption: ‘Organic wine has got a really great variety. It’s good quality. It’s got great flavours, and it’s got health benefits and environmental benefits and all of those kinds of messages’ (Martin, M).

In addition to attaching value to organic wine based on each of the five perceived benefits individually, the participants also developed a new perception of organic wine’s overall quality. This re-definition of quality incorporates the five perceived benefits of organic wine and leads the participants to attribute value to organic wine based on the conviction that it is better quality overall than conventional wine.

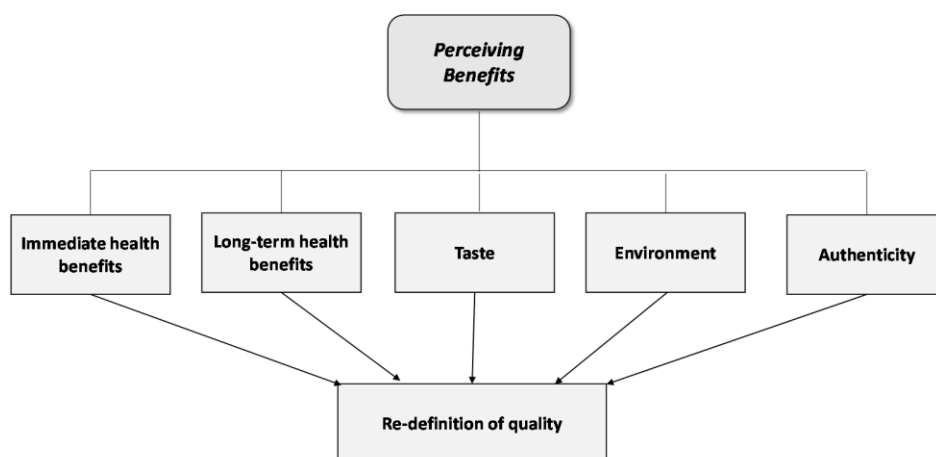


Figure 8: Conceptual model of the sub-process of Perceiving Benefits

This section discusses each of the five perceived benefits individually before reviewing the concept of overall organic wine quality.

Immediate health benefits

The participants distinguish between the immediate health benefits and the long-term health benefits obtained through organic wine consumption. Immediate health benefits manifest themselves in the absence of hangovers and the avoidance of ‘feeling bad’, which is associated with the consumption of conventional wine. Long-term health benefits represent the participants' well-being by avoiding the ingestion of added chemicals and pesticides. Immediate health benefits are therefore tangible and visible, whereas long-term health benefits are intangible and cannot be determined. The participants who pass through a defining moment, in particular, attach significant value to the immediate health benefits that they obtain from the consumption of organic wine.

Table 5: Illustrative importance of immediate health benefits to participants

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Value perception – immediate health benefits
Becky	100%	Not feel bad after consumption
Jo	80%	Lack hangovers
Lauren	80%	Lack hangovers
Dylan	75%	No adverse effects
Nikki	75%	Lack hangovers
Noel	50%	Less of a hangover
Odette	40%	Feel better the next day
Jennifer	30%	Lack hangovers

As demonstrated in Table 5, the immediate health benefits manifested through the absence of hangovers are important for the participants. Becky, for instance, had ceased consuming wine altogether due to feeling ill after drinking conventional wine. A friend suggested that she try organic wine as an alternative to conventional wine. ‘I tried some wine from this organic shop...and I was absolutely fine, and I was so pleased that I had got wine back in my life...It is the next day...I don’t wake up feeling really ill’ (Becky, F). Therefore, Becky’s first experience consuming organic wine was a significant moment, restoring her relationship with wine.

The strength of feeling generated by the discovery that organic wine consumption helps avoid hangovers is stressed by other participants who passed through a defining moment. Jo notes, ‘...you’d try [organic wine], and you’d think, “Well, is it any different?” But you’d only notice after, probably, two bottles, the next day; you wouldn’t suffer. You just wouldn’t’ (Jo, F). Nikki

also notes the following:

“If I drink anything more than one glass [of conventional wine], I generally get quite a bad headache in the day, and I didn’t experience that, and I thought that was really interesting...It was noticeable that I didn’t have a headache and I didn’t feel groggy, and I didn’t feel heady.” (Nikki, F)

Avoidance of the negative effects associated with the consumption of conventional wine is also stressed by Lauren:

“I don’t feel as rotten in the morning as...I do with conventional wine...I’d wake up with a hangover, and you feel rough, and you feel tired, and you don’t want to go to work. With organic wine, it doesn’t make you feel as horrible in the morning, you still feel like you can get up and you can communicate, and you can do your day-to-day activities.” (Lauren, F)

By contrast, the participants who never, or rarely, consume organic wine do not mention suffering from hangovers due to consumption of conventional wine. Consequently, they do not attach any value to organic wine in this regard. Harold, for instance, considers that ‘it is very rare that you get a headache or any ill effects from the wines....We went to a wine tasting last night, and...were absolutely fine this morning’.

Long-term health benefits

The main benefit that the participants associate with organic wine consumption lies in the absence of pesticides and added chemicals, which they believe leads to long-term health benefits. All participants who consume organic wine refer to the importance of long-term health benefits, as demonstrated in Table 6.

Table 6: Participants’ views on the long-term health benefits of organic wine

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Comments regarding the health benefits obtained through organic wine consumption
Becky	100%	'When I think of organic wine, I think of it not having chemicals, many chemicals...there are less chemicals and less sulphites in it...So the main reason is health reasons.'
Nina	100%	'Very good for the prevention of cancer...full of flavonoids, rich in antioxidants and good for vitamins and prevention of cancer.'
Jo	80%	'For health reasons, because of the way that the organic wine is produced without additives, sprays, it’s less toxic, and I consider it’s become a continuation of food, it’s like the next step.'
Lauren	80%	'Health, to know that the ingredients were sourced and grown differently, no pesticides on the fruits, that it’s been made with things like that like it’s not been sprayed with aerosols and bad things.'

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Comments regarding the health benefits obtained through organic wine consumption
Dylan	75%	'Something that helps with the antioxidants and helps keep your body in a very good shape to fight diseases, something that helps the level of blood cholesterol in your body, something that helps to fight diseases of the mouth and the throat, cancer for instance, and there is nothing that's more all-round nice to have because it's not dangerous for me.' 'The conventional way... [is] not very good for you because of the additives and the chemicals inside...conventional wine, unfortunately, seems to me to be self-induced intoxication and very bad chemicals into my body.'
Nicole	75%	'My own health and about the health of grapevine and the health of the land, and in turn that affects the health of the workers, also workers wouldn't be exposed to harmful chemicals and sprays.' 'I want to look after myself more because I think I don't want anything harmful affecting me, and I don't want to create any allergic reactions in the way that my friend has health problems.'
Nikki	75%	'My first initial experience and my first reason for...organic wine was...lack of headaches...but then when I found out about what goes into other wine the chemical side of it was actually probably the most shocking part of it, and then I realised, oh that's why I don't have headaches, so they kind of go hand-in-hand.' 'There's so much illness and so much tragedy out there, the very least we can do is be aware of what we're consuming and putting into our body... I think...there is a massive element in the chemicals in it; obviously, a hangover is going to be bad, but it makes it so much worse when you've got that combined with chemicals and bad production and what not.' 'You can't actually see such a noticeable difference when I eat something organic straight away, I don't feel better, or I don't feel bad, but I know from the ingredients and the way it's been produced and made that it's better for me, but with this product, I actually noticed a change in a behaviour that I usually have when I drink wine, so it was something that was very noticeable.'
Martin	60%	'I think health is the main thing for me, and I think I was always quite keen on organic. A friend of mine had cancer a few times, and that was what kind of influenced me.'
Adam	50%	'I think something healthy and something more respectful of nature...health factors are important, so less chemicals is better, and also environmental, I think that is better for everyone.'
Mary	50%	'I'm not putting chemicals into my daughter's body; I wouldn't put it into my own.'
Noel	50%	'Consciously drinking and consuming product that is free of harmful chemicals and pesticides and anything that I'm becoming more aware is detrimental to my body.'
Odette	40%	'They didn't spray it with nasty chemicals; they actually put effort into growing it.'
Jennifer	30%	'You're not giving your children or yourself any additives or anything that you don't want inside your body. So you'd have to do the same with wine...when you have organic, you know it will be better for you.'
John	25%	'In terms of health, yes, organic products have health benefits over non-organic products because they are less exposed to chemicals basically, so that is the same for wine too.'
Dean	25%	'The perception is it's healthier because of the way it's produced, without the...pesticides, fertilisers, herbicides, fungicides...If that's not in there, then it's got to be better for you. It's like a natural drink or a processed drink: just have the key ingredients in there – not like natural preservatives or whatever. You want the best of the grape, but you don't want to add.'
Paul	10%	'There are not so many toxins in it.'
Bruce	5%	'If you were that concerned about the health aspect, you wouldn't be drinking wine at all unless you could buy wine that didn't have any alcohol in it.'
Rachael	5%	'For me because of the health benefits.'

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Comments regarding the health benefits obtained through organic wine consumption
Samantha	2%	'I don't want to consume anything that is going to give me cancer...or make me unwell or whatever....I mean, we don't know what's in [conventional] wine...we don't know how much sulphite products are in there, we don't know, and that can have a really big impact. I know that organic wines are made without the use of pesticides and fertilisers and all this type of stuff; if you are then consuming less of those, it has to be better for you. I mean...I don't notice an impact in my health, but it's like when you consume anything, if it has less of the bad stuff, it has to be better for you in ways that you don't see.' 'I don't have any problems with conventional wine, but because I know that organic wines are made without the use of pesticides and fertilisers and all this type of stuff, if you are then consuming less of those, it has to be better for you.'
Henry	Rare	
Beryl	Rare	'It is a laudable principle to make things by traditional methods without using artificial pesticides and fertilisers, but the important thing for me is the end product, not the actual process necessarily.'
Harold	Rare	'There's nothing added, all pure, no pesticides or preservatives.'
Kim	Rare	'It is done without spraying with pesticides which we have seen once...there is no added preservatives, it is a pure wine manufactured without any help, not like other wines where they use these things.'
Tim	Rare	
Philip	Rare	'I would not buy a sulphite-free wine...because sulphites protect the wine from spoilage, and I don't have a problem with sulphites.' 'Better for the wine drinker, I'm not sure that it is; I'm not sure that these residues are in the wine.'

Table 6 indicates that the participants perceive that organic wine does not contain pesticides and added chemicals. As a result, they consider claims about the long-term health benefits of organic wine consumption to be credible, arguing that the absence of pesticides must be better for their body. At the same time, however, the participants acknowledge that they do not research the validity of claims relating to the health benefits of organic wine. Consequently, they recognise that their value perceptions about the long-term health benefits of organic wine are, indeed, based on perceptions and assumptions rather than on informed research. Nevertheless, even knowing that credibility in the long-term health benefits is only a perception does not deter the participants from attributing value to organic wine on that basis. Dean, for instance, recognises that the long-term health benefits of organic wine are not proven, yet is prepared to accept the argument:

“Without really knowing all the facts and figures, your general perception is organic is better for you: it's healthier; it's better for the environment, and it's also better for you as a consumer. But you might not have gone to the trouble of someone who's a vegetarian or lives an organic lifestyle, and they're very keen to find out the facts, and they can quote you the facts on why it's healthier. I can't do that, but my perception is that it is healthier because it's more natural.” (Dean, M)

Mary echoes Dean's comments regarding the perception that organic wine consumption offers

long-term health benefits. ‘I’ve always been led to believe organic is better, so yes, maybe it’s healthier’ (Mary, F). Samantha’s comments also reflect the credibility given to the long-term health benefits:

“Hopefully, you will have some health benefit...I mean...I don’t notice an impact in my health, but it’s like when you consume anything, if it has less of the bad stuff, it has to be better for you in ways that you don’t see.” (Samantha, F)

By contrast, consumers who never, or rarely, consume organic wine, such as Harold, Kim and Beryl, while noting the absence of pesticides, do not believe there are any resulting long-term health benefits. Consequently, they do not perceive any value in the health attributes of organic wine. Tim, for instance, acknowledges the merits of the production method used for organic wine. ‘Away from chemical concoctions...has got to be good’ (Tim, M). However, Tim selects a bottle of wine primarily based on taste, so he does not perceive any significant value in organic wine based on long-term health benefits. Philip is particularly sceptical about any long-term health benefits arising from the consumption of organic wine. He challenges the argument that there is value in organic wine based on the absence of pesticides, noting that chemical pesticides can be used in organic wine production. He also argues that scientific knowledge is insufficient to determine which chemicals are ‘good’ and ‘bad’ for consumers. Bruce, who consumes organic wine on an occasional basis to accompany his wife, is also personally sceptical. He echoes Philip’s comments in arguing that there is no scientific basis for believing organic wine results in long-term health benefits.

“I would challenge the value of it...I...would be really influenced if we read an article that said the scientists had proven that certain content of conventional wines has a long term bad effect on your health or there’s strong indications that that’s the case, then I think that would have an effect on buying decisions...I think that would be the initial impact...and there’s more research carried out and that indicated certain benefits or dis-benefits in not going the organic route, then I think that would have a bigger impact on me”. (Bruce, M)

Such comments indicate scepticism amongst the participants, who are primarily conventional wine consumers that organic wine consumers do not display. Conventional wine consumers doubt the credibility of claims that organic wine is healthier than conventional wine and do not consider such claims to be supported by evidence. On the other hand, organic wine consumers find claims that organic wine consumption brings long-term health benefits to be credible. Consequently, the long-term health benefits of organic wine are a significant element in their value perceptions of organic wine. In this respect, a major difference between the organic wine consumers and the

participants who primarily consume conventional wine is the degree of credibility in intangible and unproven aspects of organic wine consumption. A second difference is that the participants, who are primarily conventional wine consumers, attribute value to a wine primarily based on its taste. In contrast, the participants who are primarily organic wine consumers also perceive value in a range of intangible benefits.

Taste

A third perceived benefit obtained from organic wine consumption is related to the taste of organic wine. There is, however, a considerable difference of opinion amongst participants about the importance of taste. Three groups of participants can be identified regarding taste.

The first group comprises participants who are convinced that organic wine tastes better than conventional wine. Mary, for instance, is convinced that organic wine tastes better: 'More fruity...what's removed is that metallic taste' (Mary, F). Paul also argues that 'they've stepped up the actual benchmark for taste now. It does taste better' (Paul, M). For Noel, organic wine has 'a cleaner taste: a more authentic, cleaner taste...you immediately knows that it's cleaner; it makes such a difference. It just makes a real difference' (Noel, M). Nina also believes the taste of organic wine is better: 'It's much better quality, and the taste is better...most people try organic things, and they can see the difference with non-organic' (Nina, F). Nicole's description of the taste of organic wine is that it has 'a kind of smoothness on the palate and not...drying...it's smooth, it's got a mix of flavours, you're getting some undertones almost, not just one taste, there's a few things going on' (Nicole, F).

The second group of participants comprises organic wine consumers but those who are unconvinced that organic wine tastes better than conventional wine or cannot note any significant difference. Jo, for example, considers that 'the taste [isn't] any better or any worse...whether it's organic or not, it's going to taste very similar to normal wine' (Jo, F). Nevertheless, Jo still consumes high proportions (80%) of organic wine in her overall wine consumption. Dean and Odette also 'don't think there's a lot in it' (Odette, F) even though Odette consumes 40% organic wine and Dean 25% within their overall wine consumption.

The third group consists of wine consumers who are not convinced that organic wine tastes better than conventional wine or those who believe that organic wine cannot match the taste of conventional wine. This group includes all participants who never, or rarely, consume organic wine but none of the organic wine consumers. These participants argue that, while individual organic wines may taste good, generally organic wine does not taste better than conventional wine. Tim and Philip, for instance, argue that both conventional and organic wines can taste good

or bad. Both participants will try a bottle of organic wine if they find a wine they like but otherwise will not seek out organic wine. Bruce, who primarily consumes conventional wine and drinks organic wine to accompany his wife, considers organic wine as a marketing gimmick. “Can I taste the difference between the conventional styles? Is there a proper difference between the conventional style of wine and organic? I would challenge the value of it.” (Bruce, M). Harold further notes that “organic wine...in general can’t quite get up to the standards of some of the other wines” (Harold, M). Philip considers that sulphite-free organic wines:

“...taste dirty, they taste dirty and foul. It may be because they’ve not had sulphites in them and they’ve started to go off or that they’re murky, that they’ve not been filtered, it may be that they’re just not very good at winemaking, maybe they can produce good grapes, but they can’t make good wine, but they have to prove themselves to me.”
(Philip, M)

Consequently, the study’s findings with regard to consumer perceptions of the taste of organic wine indicate that, while some organic wine consumers believe that organic wine tastes better than conventional wine, most participants are not convinced. For such organic wine consumers, it is important that they like the taste of organic wine. Still, they do not consume organic wine based on its taste: other value perceptions, such as the long-term health benefits, have greater significance.

Benefits for the environment

The participants display widely differing attitudes about the perceived environmental benefits associated with organic wine consumption. Few participants attach much value to organic wine based on its environmental benefits, while many participants who do mention the environment do so as an adjunct to the personal health benefits. Four groups of participants can be identified in relation to the perceived environmental benefits of organic wine.

The first group consists of only three participants who prioritise the perceived environmental benefits over personal health benefits. Samantha, for instance, feels that ‘environmental factors are very important to me because I think it’s not only the quality of the food it’s the impact to the environment’ (Samantha, F). Mary considers that concern for the environment is her primary motivation to consume organic wine:

“I think environmental to me is more important than...health. I think with...health there is the positive impact on the environment...If I’m not putting chemicals into my daughter’s body, I wouldn’t put it into my own; why would you do that? I think environmentally is still very important; I think it has to be the most important, because

not only does that affect me, it affects everybody.” (Mary, F)

Nikki focuses on the lack of added chemicals and the environmental aspects of organic wine consumption and makes a strong statement about those who do not pay attention to the benefits for the soil:

“Being conscious of our environment... isn’t just about the food that we eat; it’s about the drinks that we consume. To not be aware of the chemicals that go into the soil, which is where the grapes are grown, is ignorant and naïve” (Nikki, F)

The second group of participants considers that personal health benefits are the most important aspects obtained through organic wine consumption. They attribute little value to the environmental aspects. Noel, for instance, states, ‘I don’t think it’s ever environmental: its health factors’ (Noel, M). Becky also stresses the personal health benefits. ‘I don’t want to feel ill, so that’s why I choose organic wine. It is not for the environment’ (Becky, F). Dylan sums up the emphasis upon personal benefits. ‘It’s me first...then other people’ (Dylan, M).

The third group of participants’ attributes and importance to personal health and environmental benefits was more or less equal. Martin, while prioritising his personal health, feels that the environment is also important. ‘I appreciate the countryside and nature...I’d pay attention to the kind of stuff when you see the situation about the bees being threatened and how that’s going to end in disaster’ (Martin, M). Adam considers that ‘health factors are important, so less [added] chemicals is better, and also environmental, I think that is better for everyone’ (Adam, M). Nicole and Odette also attribute equal importance to the environmental and health benefits. Nicole feels that personal health and the health of the land are linked.

“Equal [health and environment] actually and I mentioned before about my own health and about the health of grapevine and the health of the land, and in turn that affects the health of the workers, also workers wouldn’t be exposed to harmful chemicals and sprays” (Nicole, F)

Nina focuses on the personal health benefits but also shows concern for the environment.

“I really care about the environment and the fact they do not use chemicals on the planet, so I really love it, and I don’t want any chemicals into my body, and that’s why I want to buy organic wine for myself.” (Nina, F)

The fourth group consists of wine consumers who rarely, or never, consume organic wine. Such participants are sceptical about the environmental benefits of organic wine. Bruce, for instance, is clear: ‘I’m not sure what environmental advantage there is with organic wines’. Philip feels that maybe ‘organic wine [is] better...for the environment’ (Philip, M) but does not attribute any

significance to environmental protection as he selects specific wines for consumption based primarily upon taste.

Consequently, few participants perceive value in organic wine based upon the environmental benefits of organic wine. For most participants, the wider environmental benefits are an adjunct to the personal benefits obtained through the consumption of organic wine.

Organic wine authenticity

The participants who are organic wine consumers consider the production method of organic wine itself to be an attribute in which they perceive value. This reflects the significant value that organic wine consumers place on the authenticity of organic wine. As with the long-term health benefits associated with organic wine, attaching value to authenticity reflects credibility in the perceived but intangible benefits of organic wine.

The participants speak about the advantages of the production method in strong terms. Organic wine is ‘natural’ (Martin, M), resulting from farming techniques that are healthy for the soil and respectful of nature. Words used by the participants include ‘pure’ (John, M), ‘clean’ (Noel, M) and ‘better made’ (Paul, M). Rachael feels that organic wine is more natural. ‘I have this perception that it’s going to be more natural and that appeals to me, and possibly less manufactured’ (Rachael, F).

The most significant aspect of authenticity is that organic wine is not mass-produced. The participants associate mass-production with being bad for the consumer: ‘Generally things that are mass-produced...are not ordinarily very good for you’ (Dylan, M). Mary also places value on the fact that organic wine is ‘not...mass-produced...generally maybe smaller farms’ (Mary, F), while Nicole associates the avoidance of mass-production with quality and authenticity:

“Where somebody is proud of what they’ve made or produced, that they haven’t just turned it out or produced it, they love their produce, they’re not just making thousands of bottles of it because they can sell it cheap and to mass market and make a bit profit.”

(Nicole, F)

Consequently, the participants argue that organic wine producers pay greater attention to their vines and to the quality of their wine than producers of conventional wine. The fact that organic wine is not mass-produced is also linked to a more ‘ethical way’ (Jennifer, F), more concern with ‘quality’ (Martin, M) and being a more ‘natural’ product (Dean, M). Avoiding mass-production means that organic wine is also ‘fresher’ (Paul, M). For Noel, organic wine makes him feel ‘less consumerist...because I feel like I’m consuming something that doesn’t feel mass-produced...there’s something about organic wine that feels more authentic’ (Noel, M).

The participants also express the perception that producers of organic wine are mostly ‘small farmers, not the large, commercial vineyards’ (Dylan, M). Small producers result in a wine that is made with care, ‘delivering a good wine and there’s that pride associated with it’ (Nicole, F). Authenticity is also linked to local production by some participants, such as Paul. Lauren considers that the ingredients are sourced locally, while Mary feels that organic wine ‘encourages people to buy from more locally sourced vineyards’ (Mary, F). For Martin, organic wine means ‘wines produced by individual farmers, local farmers and food co-operatives, which is better for society because it allows you to buy produce, which is locally sourced, rather than flown in’ (Martin, M). Even Kim, who is not an organic wine consumer, refers to organic wines as being ‘English’, while Mary prefers English organic wine as she distrusts the standards of ‘foreign’ wines. Rachael echoes this statement. ‘I would like to think that an English organic wine would guarantee quality; would you necessarily get that from foreign organic wines? Do they have the same standards?’ (Rachael, F).

The participants also link organic wine authenticity to a search for a story associated with the wine and direct contact with the producers. As Martin states:

“I quite like it if you can go to a local market and you can meet the people who actually produced the produce and buy it directly from them, rather than buying it from some huge supermarket which is kind of faceless.” (Martin, M)

Authenticity based upon trust in the producers is also important for Nikki:

“I...want a little bit of a more particular story about it...having the name of the person, even if I don’t know the winemaker, it kind of gives a personality because each wine has its own personality as such with regard to flavour and smell and colour etc. So perhaps I’m looking more for the personality and almost really to know that it’s an organic wine, that somebody is caring a lot more about the wine that they’re producing, but also that they’re caring more about how it’s produced and how the grapes are grown. I tend to think it’s more caring and even caring about the people that work in the vineyard.” (Nikki, F)

On the other hand, consumers who rarely, or never, consume organic wine, while noting the care taken in the production method, do not attach value to organic wine’s authenticity. Philip, for instance, notes the care taken by producers of organic wine but does not believe this adds any value to organic wine as he chooses wine solely based upon his appreciation of the taste:

“Producers do it probably because they own the land and they care about the land for themselves and for future generations, and they don’t want to spray things on the land which they live on and which are not good for human health maybe...They’re living

there, so it's their land, they're close to it, but I'm living far away from it...Is it better than wine that's not made from organically grown grapes, who knows? Some are, some aren't....I buy wine if I think I'm going to like it; I don't buy a wine just because it says it's organically grown. Some of the wine that I buy is grown, I think, organically, although it's not certified, but I buy it because it's nice wine, and that's it." (Philip, M)

Beryl also notes that organic wine is made 'using traditional methods that would probably pre-date modern technology' (Beryl, F). However, she attaches no value to this attribute of organic wine, while Henry considers that the use of traditional methods makes '[organic] wine production unnecessarily complicated' (Henry, M).

Consequently, the participants who are organic wine consumers attach significant value to the authenticity of organic wine. However, comments made by many participants regarding the authenticity of organic wine suggest that they make assumptions, such as organic wine being made locally or not being mass-produced, which they have not researched or investigated. In addition, perceptions such as the belief that organic wines follow traditional production methods and are locally produced could be equally applied to many conventional wines. Nevertheless, many participants associate these aspects of authenticity specifically with organic wine and cite them as reasons why organic wine is better than conventional wine. However, as authenticity is subjective, this mirrors the value that the participants attach to the long-term health benefits of organic wine, which is another intangible attribute.

Re-definition of organic wine quality

Although organic wine consumers identify five separate benefits which are obtained through the consumption of organic wine, they also combine the five individual benefits into a re-definition of overall organic wine quality. This results in an all-encompassing value perception that organic wine is of higher quality than conventional wine.

When referring to the quality of wine in general, the participants speak about sensory aspects such as flavour, taste, and aroma. However, when discussing organic wine specifically, the participants extend the concept of wine quality beyond taste to incorporate attributes such as the health benefits, the production method and the care taken in the production of the wine. Becky feels that 'because of how it is produced because there are less chemicals and less sulphites in it...it's obviously higher quality in the production' (Becky, F). Even Jennifer, who is not convinced that organic wine tastes better than conventional wine, considers that organic wine is of better quality:

"You'd expect organic wine to be better quality because of the way it's been processed. You'd want to feel it: you'd want to feel that it is better quality. Whether it is in reality, I

don't know. But I would sense I would feel that it was better quality because it's organic." (Jennifer, F)

Odette expresses a similar opinion in relation to organic wine quality:

"I always knew organic wine was better quality...In terms of quality and how it's made, it's better because more effort has been put into making it rather than trying to do a quick mass-produced idea, and more effort has been put into it". (Odette, F)

Quality also reflects the prevention of damage to the environment and does not cause harm to personal health through the absence of pesticides and added chemicals. Odette, for instance, makes a direct link between the quality of organic wine and the benefits that consumption brings to personal health and to the environment. 'There's not really pesticides and things like this, so...you know that you've had...better quality, the wine has been produced from the start point' (Odette, F). Mary also associates the health and environmental benefits of organic wine with quality:

"I feel that health and environment adds to the quality of the wine because I feel like quality is not only just the taste, but it's how well it's been made by someone, and if it's been made well, it's probably got a better impact on the environment." (Mary, F)

Samantha, who consumes a low proportion (2%) of organic wine in her overall wine consumption, also links quality to health, the environment, and the authenticity of organic wine:

"Quality is, with wine, where you have healthy ground, you have healthy plants, you have the right environment, and there is some integrity about the way that its grown and the way that it's made, and obviously the winemakers then do their things, and they taste it and do all of that...I would be more likely to trust the taste and quality of an organic wine than I would of a normal bottle of wine." (Samantha, F)

Consequently, the participants perceive value in an overall concept of quality, which combines each of the five individual benefits the participants consider can be obtained through the consumption of organic wine. In this regard, the participants arrive at a re-definition of quality based on a series of perceptions regarding the attributes of organic wine, which they find credible.

5.3.3 Nurturing Emotions: Re-definition of self as an organic wine consumer

In addition to perceiving value in organic wine based on the perceived benefits obtained through consumption, the participants also developed an emotional relationship with organic wine. This emotional relationship with organic wine leads the participants to identify as organic wine consumers and to consider themselves to be different from conventional wine consumers. The emotional attachment of the participants to organic wine also influences how they perceive the

intrinsic attributes of organic wine. Indeed, John considers that the ‘emotional health’ benefits brought by organic wine to be important as the ‘physical aspects’ (John, M). The participants who consume higher proportions of organic wine within their overall wine consumption make comments which indicate a stronger emotional attachment to organic wine than participants who consume smaller proportions of organic wine. (Figure 9).

The participants identified five emotional aspects of their relationship with organic wine:

- matter of conscience
- expression of individuality
- being in control
- search for adventure
- feeling superior

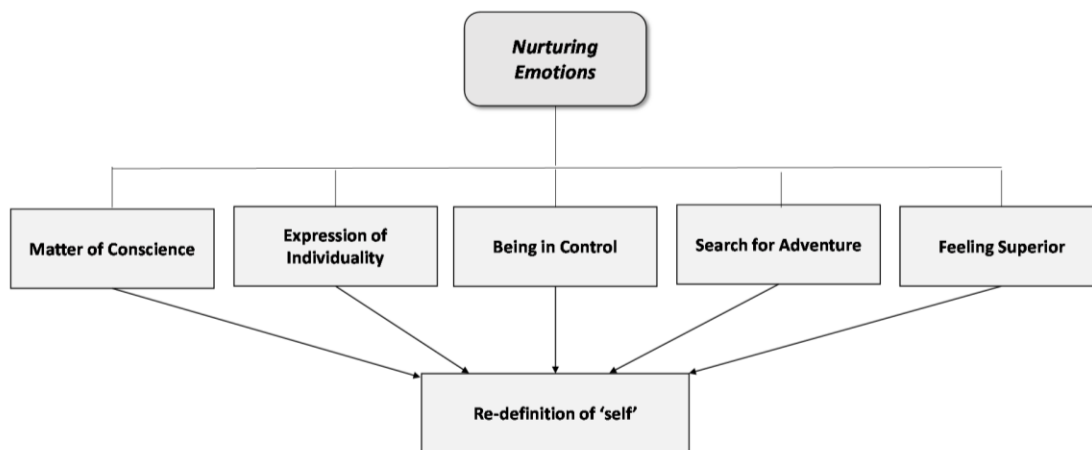


Figure 9. Conceptual model of the sub-process of Nurturing Emotions

The following section examines how each of these five emotional elements contributes to the value perceptions of the participants concerning organic wine.

Matter of conscience

As demonstrated in Table 7, one of the most significant emotions displayed by the participants is the feeling that they are ‘responsible’ (Mary, F) by consuming organic wine.

Table 7: Value perceptions of participants based on a matter of conscience

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Comments of participants - question of conscience
Lauren	80%	'It makes me feel happy; it makes me feel satisfied. I feel like I've done something good...it makes me feel warm, so happy when I purchase it and when I drink it.'

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Comments of participants - question of conscience
Mary	50%	'There are so many things going on in the world, and organic farming doesn't use the pesticides. I just think it's important it all combines to a personal responsibility, to take the steps you can take to reduce the footprint you leave.'
Noel	50%	'I consume it with a slightly happier heart if I know that it's ethically sourced produce and it's organically made produce. I feel better about it. And it's taking away the guilt; I suppose removing the guilt from the situation.'
Odette	40%	'When you have an organic product, you feel better about yourself; you instantly feel like I'm a good person.'
Jennifer	30%	'I don't think the taste is that much different really, but you feel good about it, and you tell yourself 'Yes, it tastes better' because you feel so good about the decision you've just made then instantly it translates to 'This tastes better.'
Bruce	5%	'I feel better for having bought [organic wine], but that is a psychological thing, it's not that I think it's a better wine, but it's purely a psychological level.'
Rachael	5%	'I might feel better if I've got an organic wine in my glass, and would I enjoy it more, possibly.'

Jennifer's comment is significant as it shows how 'feeling good' (Jennifer, F) leads to a positive perception regarding the taste of organic wine even though she does not consider objectively that the taste of organic wine is better than conventional wine. Jennifer's comment, therefore, shows how the participants' emotional attachment to organic wine can influence their perceptions of organic wine's intrinsic attributes.

The words used by the participants to describe their feelings when consuming organic wine reflect positive emotions, such as 'happy' (Lauren, F), 'better' (Noel, M) and 'responsible' (Mary, F). Dylan sums up this feeling of happiness, stating that he feels 'less tipsy and it tastes better in a way, I'm not sure it's actually a psychological thing, but I feel less tipsy and happier' (Dylan, M). Even Bruce, who rarely consumes organic wine and does so primarily to accompany his wife, reflects the emotional feeling engendered by the consumption of organic wine: he does not prefer organic wine to conventional wine but feels 'better' (Bruce, M) when he consumes organic wine. None of the participants who never, or rarely, consume organic wine note such positive emotions in relation to organic wine.

Expression of individuality

The consumption of organic wine is also an expression of individuality. This individuality is clearly expressed by Dylan (75%), who mentions a feeling of self-respect and sense of individuality with which organic wine consumers regard themselves as having:

"I feel like Jesus did when he drank wine when he was on earth; I feel if there is a concept of religion banning wine, religion wouldn't be referring to organic wine, they would be

referring more to the other wine, so I feel more natural, I feel healthy, I feel better for myself for drinking it, and I feel I want to drink more because it's good for me." (Dylan, M)

Jennifer (30%) makes an equally strong statement regarding the emotions generated by the consumption of organic wine, noting that organic wine is 'special and you don't feel like you're an alcoholic or anything....You think, "Okay, this is civilisation"' (Jennifer, F).

Individuality is also reflected in searching for 'personality' (Nicole, F) in a wine. Indeed, although 'some people think [organic wine] is airy-fairy' (Nikki, F), the participants display a sense of pride in the fact that organic wine is a bit 'alternative' (Mary, F) and 'hippy' (Paul, M). Supporting a niche industry also provides the participants with a 'sense of pride' (Samantha, F). Consequently, being non-mainstream and 'less consumerist' (Noel, M) gives the participants a reason to be proud that they are organic wine consumers.

Expressing individuality is also linked to a lifestyle that many organic wine consumers wish to achieve. John, for instance, associates organic wine with 'healthy living, healthy lifestyles, things like yoga and exercise, that kind of lifestyle' (John, M), while Dean's partner, who introduced him to organic wine, 'follows a bit of an organic lifestyle...a bit of a...free-range [lifestyle] and all that kind of thing' (Dean, M). Martin notes that organic wine consumption fits with 'the rest of my lifestyle, where I do quite a lot of exercise and sport and cycle' (Martin, M). For Dylan, organic wine suits him 'perfectly in terms of my outlook on life...and my quest to become healthier' (Dylan, M).

Being in control

A third aspect of the participants' emotional attachment to organic wine is the feeling of being 'in control' (Nikki, F) of their lives. Being in control is explicitly referenced by Nikki:

"I feel more in control of what I'm consuming...it makes me feel like I'm in control more than I am when I just buy any old stuff...there's so much illness and so much tragedy out there, the very least we can do is be aware of what we're consuming and putting into our body." (Nikki, F)

For participants such as Jennifer, Lauren and Noel, organic wine is an indication of maturity in wine drinking, through which they control what enters their bodies. Noel describes the consumption of organic wine as 'consciously drinking' (Noel, M). The participants with children, such as Nicole, Mary and Nina, believe being in control is extremely important: just as they would not give their children food containing pesticides, they will not consume wine with pesticides. Indeed, for Nikki, somebody who is not aware of what they put into their body is 'ignorant and naïve' (Nikki,

F).

Search for adventure

The consumption of organic wine also generates feelings of being adventurous in the participants. Organic wine is seen as a fun product. ‘More of a sense of what it was like to drink wine when wine was freely as consumable as something like this when it was something that people drank as we drink water’ (Noel, M).

John began the consumption of organic wine because he was curious and wanted to try something new. He now feels an emotional excitement when he consumes organic wine. ‘I feel quite excited about trying...organic wine, I feel very positive about it, very interested in the product, interested, excited, it’s a very positive type of feeling’ (John, M). That sense of excitement continues to be his main motivation for consuming organic wine:

“The main factor is that it’s something quite new to me, so I like to try it because it’s new and I’m interested to see developments with new types of organic wines. So if...I see something new which is organic; I’m curious about that and would like to try it.” (John, M)

Feeling superior

The fifth element of the emotional attachment to organic wine relates to a sense of feeling superior to conventional wine consumers. Consumption of organic wine enables the participants to feel that they are part of something bigger and better than themselves. Nikki expresses this feeling of superiority: ‘[Organic wine consumption] is a status thing, and it makes me stand aside from everyone else’ (Nikki, F), while Nina feels that organic wine consumption ‘makes me feel posh, healthy, it makes me feel good, plus it’s organic, it’s environmentally friendly, so everything is good. No negative points’ (Nina, F).

Consequently, the participants view organic wine as having a special status. As a result, they feel that organic wine should be reserved for those who understand it and should not be wasted on those who do not appreciate it. The concept of not wasting organic wine on those who do not appreciate it is very marked in the comments made by the participants who consume a high proportion of organic wine within their overall wine consumption. Lauren (80%) makes this point clearly. ‘I’d probably get non-organic wine for my guests because...[if they are] not used to drinking [organic wine]...I wouldn’t want them to waste my wine’ (Lauren, F). Nikki (75%) feels that ‘if someone doesn’t appreciate it and doesn’t want it then...I wouldn’t want to waste it’ (Nikki, F), while Noel (50%) also offers conventional wine to friends if he considers that they ‘don’t care’ (Noel, M). Even Samantha (2%), although not a major consumer of organic wine, prefers not to waste

organic wine on those who do not appreciate it: ‘I don’t say [to friends who are conventional wine drinkers] do you want a glass...because it’s mine’ (Samantha, F).

Re-definition of self as an organic wine consumer

The degree of emotional attachment to organic wine displayed by the participants significantly influences the strength of their fundamental value perceptions about organic wine. It also influences how the participants perceive the intrinsic attributes of organic wine. Such emotional attachment leads participants, such as Dylan (75%), Noel (50%) and Dean (25%), to attach credibility to claims about the benefits which can be obtained through organic wine consumption without having researched whether such claims are, in fact, substantiated. Consequently, what distinguishes committed organic wine consumers, such as Nina (100%), Jo (80%) or Martin (60%), from less committed and more occasional organic wine consumers, such as Dean (25%), Paul (10%) or Samantha (2%), is the degree of emotional commitment they display: the justifications they advance about the perceived benefits obtained through organic wine consumption are similar, but the strength of emotional attachment differs. Participants who rarely or never consume organic wine do not display any emotional attachment to organic wine. Therefore, nurturing emotions *is* a key element in the strength of value that consumers attach to organic wine.

5.4 Influence of socio-demographic characteristics on value perceptions

The study's findings suggest that the process of *Attaching Significance* is independent of the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants. Table 8, which places the participants in order based upon the proportion of organic wine consumed within their overall wine consumption, demonstrates no correlation between the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants and their identity as organic wine consumers. In particular, Table 8 shows no pattern detectable between the proportion of organic wine consumed and socio-demographic characteristics such as education, age and gender.

Table 8: Influence of socio-demographic characteristics on participants ‘value perceptions

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Gender	Age	Marital status	Employment status	Highest level of education	Household monthly income (after tax), pounds sterling
Becky	100%	F	60–64	Married/partner	Self employed	Graduate	3,601–4,200
Nina	100%	F	25–29	Married/partner	Not working	High school	1,801–2,400
Jo	80%	F	55–59	Married/partner	Part-time	High school	1,801–2,400
Lauren	80%	F	25–29	Married/partner	Part-time	Graduate	4,201–4,800
Dylan	75%	M	35–39	Single	Full-time	Masters	4,201–4,800
Nicole	75%	F	55–59	Single	Self employed	Graduate	3,001–3,600
Nikki	75%	F	35–39	Married/partner	Full-time	Graduate	4,201–4,800
Martin	60%	M	45–49	Married/partner	Full-time	Masters	2,401–3,000
Adam	50%	M	18–24	Single	Full-time	Graduate	1,801–2,400
Mary	50%	F	18–24	Married/partner	Part-time	Student	1,801–2,400

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Gender	Age	Marital status	Employment status	Highest level of education	Household monthly income (after tax), pounds sterling
Noel	50%	M	35–39	Married/partner	Full-time	Graduate	3,801–4,200
Odette	40%	F	18–24	Single	Full-time	Graduate	1,201–1,800
Jennifer	30%	F	40–44	Married/partner	Full-time	Graduate	1,801–2,400
John	25%	M	35–39	Single	Full-time	Graduate	3,001–3,600
Dean	25%	M	45–49	Married/partner	Full-time	Graduate	4,201–4,800
Paul	10%	M	60–64	Divorced	Retired	High school	2,401–3,000
Rachael	5%	F	60–64	Married/partner	Retired	Graduate	4,801+
Bruce	5%	M	65–70	Married/partner	Retired	Masters	4,801+
Samantha	2%	F	45–49	Married/partner	Full-time	High school	4,801+

Earlier wine research has also suggested that consumers' degree of knowledge of and interest in wine influences their wine purchase and consumption behaviour. However, the findings of this study suggest that the participants' level of wine knowledge does not have any influence on their attitude towards organic wine: similar comments with regard to the benefits of organic wine consumption as well as emotional attachment to organic wine are made by participants with a wide range of interest in, and knowledge about, wine. Becky (100%), Jo (80%), Nicole (75%) and Nikki (75%), for instance, are all committed, organic wine consumers. However, Becky and Nicole have little knowledge about wine, while Nikki and Jo consider themselves very interested in and knowledgeable about wine. Consequently, this study suggests that the process of *Attaching Significance* applies to participants with varying levels of wine knowledge and interest in wine.

5.5 Summary

This chapter is the first of two chapters that conceptualise the process of *Manifesting Identity* as an organic wine consumer. The chapter began by providing an overview of the core process of *Manifesting Identity* and proceeded to review the sub-core process of *Attaching Significance*. The chapter showed how the participants base their value perceptions of organic wine on five perceived benefits they consider to be obtained through organic wine consumption as well as on an emotional attachment to organic wine. The chapter also showed that the values attached to organic wine are very personal and often represent the participants' perceptions and assumptions rather than assessments based upon research or investigation.

Chapter 6 proceeds to describe the two sub-core behavioural processes, Performing Organics and Spreading the Word. These two processes show how the participants manifest their fundamental value perceptions about organic wine in their purchase and consumption behaviour and in the way how they speak to others about organic wine.

CHAPTER 6

PERFORMING ORGANICS AND SPREADING THE WORD

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 presented *Attaching Significance*, the first sub-core category of *Manifesting Identity*. This chapter explains *Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word*, the two associated behavioural processes. *Performing Organics* shows how the participants manifest their fundamental or basic value perceptions in their purchase and consumption behaviour, and *Spreading the Word* describes how the participants display their value perceptions when they speak to others about organic wine.

6.2 Performing Organics

This section begins with an overview of the process of *Performing Organics*. The following sections then proceed to describe the three sub-processes that comprise *Performing Organics*: Optimising, Compromising and Implementing.

Performing Organics conceptualises the relationship between participants' fundamental value perceptions towards organic wine and their purchase and consumption behaviour. *Performing Organics* shows that the participants develop differing degrees of consumption loyalty to organic wine. However, the participants can be flexible in their actual wine purchase and consumption behaviour without compromising their fundamental value perceptions towards organic wine.

The first sub-process of *Performing Organics* is optimising. Optimising describes the relationship between purchase and consumption loyalty and the strength of the participants' fundamental value perceptions. Each purchase or consumption occasion is then subject to the sub-process of compromising. Compromising shows that external factors, such as the social context of wine consumption, can influence whether the participants choose to purchase and consume organic or conventional wine, irrespective of their fundamental value perceptions. The sub-processes of optimising and compromising, therefore, present an understanding of the reasons why organic wine consumers float between the purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine. The sub-process of implementing conceptualises that the participants apply a confirmatory check upon the value of a specific bottle of organic wine at the time of purchase. Implementing also shows that the value perceptions of the participants lead to a willingness to pay a premium for organic wine (Figure 10).

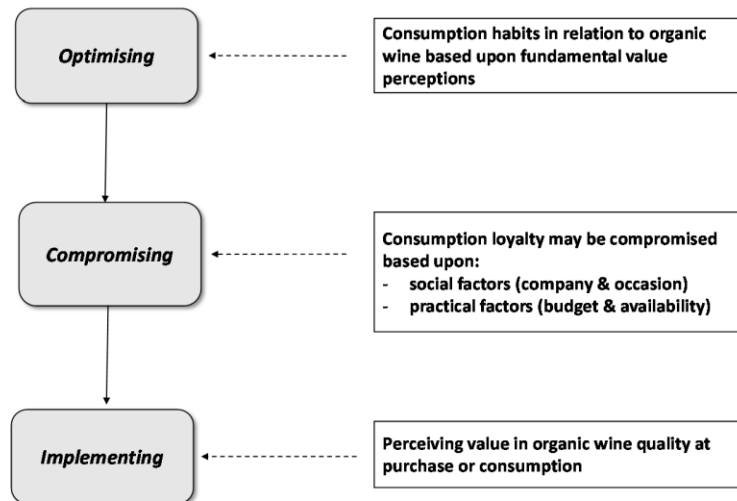


Figure 10: Conceptual model of the sub-core process of Performing Organics

6.2.1 Optimising

Optimising describes that the participants develop purchase and consumption loyalty towards organic wine and establish consumption habits based upon their fundamental value perceptions. Moreover, while the participants in the study refer to the same five benefits obtained through organic wine consumption, the degree of emotional attachment to organic wine differs significantly between participants. The degree of emotional attachment to organic wine, therefore, has a significant influence on the participants' consumption loyalty to organic wine. Consequently, the participants can be divided into four main groups based upon consumption loyalty.

The first group consists of two participants who consume exclusively organic wine. Becky, for instance, consumes exclusively organic wine on account of the health benefits and will not drink conventional wine. Nina possesses a strong emotional attachment to organic wine, stating that she 'will not take non-organic wine....I'm really into everything organic and environmentally friendly as well, so I really care about the environment and the fact they do not use chemicals on the planet, so I really love it' (Nina, F).

The second group consists of participants who try to consume a high proportion of organic wine within their overall wine consumption but are also prepared to consume conventional wine. As Lauren (80%) states, 'I don't tend to drink [conventional wine] unless the organic one runs out and then I will' (Lauren, F). In terms of the proportion of organic wine that he consumes, Martin (60%) would 'prefer it was 100%, but I feel reasonably good at [60%], combined with the rest of

my lifestyle' (Martin, M). Jennifer (30%) tries to consume as much organic wine as possible. '[If] it's within my budget', I will always go for...organic wine' (Jennifer, F). Lauren, Martin and Jennifer all express strong emotional attachment to organic wine, but recognise that practical considerations limit their ability to follow their consumption loyalty on all occasions. Dylan (75%) notes that 'I drink conventional wine as well, a very low quantity in terms of the percentage of wine that I drink, purely because of peers', while Noel (50%) comments the following:

"If I picture my life as I would like it to be – I open my fridge, and my fridge is full of the best produce that I can have, that will make me feel healthy and live longer. And organic wine would be in that." (Noel, M)

The third group consists of participants who consume organic wine on an occasional basis. Such participants speak about the benefits of organic wine consumption but lack a strong emotional attachment to organic wine. This low emotional attachment to organic wine results in low consumption loyalty. Dean (25%), for instance, consumes a relatively high proportion of organic wine within his overall wine consumption but does so primarily to accompany his partner. 'We don't buy organic all the time, but we do buy it because [my partner] likes it. She wants to drink it' (Dean, M). Personally, although he considers that organic wine consumption brings some benefits, he does not have an emotional relationship with organic wine '[my partner] will choose it for those reasons – the health for her and for the planet – but, to me...it's not that important' (Dean, M). For other participants, such as Samantha (2%), organic wine represents just another option in addition to conventional wine. '[Organic wine is] another sort of wine to me, even though you have organic wine that has lots of different grape varieties and things like that, but, you know...to me wine is wine' (Samantha, F). John (25%) feels constrained by the lack of variety in organic wine. He is therefore content to consume conventional as well as organic wine:

"I enjoy drinking conventional wines, and there is such a big range, so it doesn't have to be organic, it's not like you're having a party and somebody is diabetic or has some health condition, and so it has to be something, but with wines, it's not." (John, M)

The fourth group of participants consists of wine consumers who rarely, or never, consume organic wine. Such conventional wine consumers do not perceive value in organic wine per se. They will, however, consume organic wine on a case-by-case basis if they consider that a specific bottle is a good wine. Bruce, for instance, selects a wine to purchase or consume on the 'basis of the grape that I'm currently interested in' (Bruce, M), while Philip will buy organic wine only if he thinks he is going to like it. 'I don't buy a wine just because it says it's organically grown' (Philip, M). Henry, Beryl and Harold also feel uncommitted to organic wine.

Therefore, participants with a stronger emotional attachment to organic wine prefer to consume higher proportions of organic wine in their overall wine consumption, while those participants who attach less significance to organic wine display lower consumption loyalty to organic wine.

6.2.2 Compromising

The previous section showed how the participants established their level of consumption loyalty to organic wine based upon the strength of their fundamental value perceptions. Compromising describes how external factors can influence the actual purchase and consumption behaviour of the participants and may cause even committed organic wine consumers to purchase or consume conventional wine instead of organic wine. Compromising, therefore, offers an explanation for the second research question posed in this study – why organic wine consumers float between purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine.

The study recognised two forms of external constraints on organic wine consumers. The first is the social aspect of wine consumption. The social aspects comprise the company with whom the participants are going to consume wine as well as the consumption occasion. The second is practical constraints, such as the price and availability of organic wine. The social aspects of wine consumption influence the decision whether to purchase and consume organic or conventional wine, while the practical factors impact the ability of the participants to actually purchase organic wine (Figure 11).

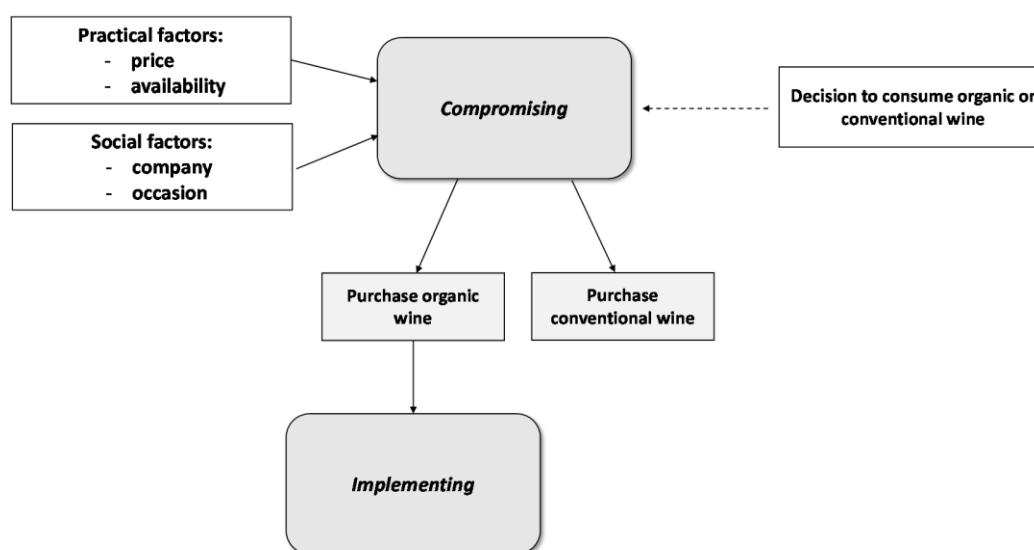


Figure 11: Conceptual model of the sub-process of Compromising

Sections 6.2.2.1 describes the influence of social factors on the participants, while section 6.2.2.2 outlines the impact of practical factors.

6.2.2.1 Social factors

There are two elements of the social aspects of wine consumption that may influence the participants to compromise in regard to their purchase and consumption loyalty to organic wine: the company with whom wine is to be consumed and the consumption occasion

Company

The participants may take a conscious decision to purchase and consume conventional rather than organic wine on the basis of the company with whom they are going to consume wine. The participants view organic wine as being special and, as a result, do not want to waste it on those who do not appreciate it. They are therefore careful about when to offer organic wine and even exclude family members who do not appreciate organic wine. Martin, for instance, does not offer organic wine to his sister as she does not follow a healthy lifestyle. Consequently, although he believes it ‘sounds a bit mean’ (Martin, M), he cannot see any reason to give her organic wine. Similarly, Nikki does not see any reason to serve organic wine to her father as he is ‘stuck in his ways’ (Nikki, F). Adam also selects the type of wine to serve on the basis of company. ‘It depends which friends. If they are a vegetarian or something like that, they’d like something natural; for sure, they would prefer something organic. If not...some wine with good brands, not organic, for other friends’ (Adam, M). Therefore, the key element governing whether the participants offer organic wine to others is not the relationship with the participant but whether that person appreciates organic wine. This may result in the participants purchasing and consuming conventional rather than organic wine when with company.

Furthermore, the participants expressed concern that their guests might not actually enjoy organic wine. So, offering organic wine might not only be a waste of money but could also cause a social embarrassment by appearing to force one’s personal preferences on others. In such cases, the participants prefer to serve conventional rather than organic wine or offer a mixture of conventional and organic wine. Noel, for instance, usually serves a mixture of organic wine and conventional wine if he is in the company of friends who might not like or appreciate organic wine. Nikki echoes this sentiment:

“I’d probably mix it up. Well, for me, not to be rude, but if someone doesn’t appreciate it and doesn’t want it, then I’ll have it..., it’s a bit more expensive so I wouldn’t want to waste it on someone, and also some people...would go... ‘I don’t like it, I want to have something that I’m familiar with...’.” (Nikki, F)

Occasion

The participants also pay consideration to the occasion on which wine will be consumed when deciding whether to offer organic or conventional wine. In Jennifer's case, for instance, the choice of organic wine 'depends on the situation and who I'm with and what is my evening. So it depends on the purpose of that wine' (Jennifer, F). This section reviews the selection of organic wine on four different consumption occasions: during a party or dinner party at home, when in restaurants and bars, when offering wine as a gift, and when consuming wine alone.

When there is a party at home, the participants prefer to offer a mixture of conventional and organic wine in order to cater for all guests. The organic wine that is provided is intended for the participants themselves as well as any other guests who appreciate it. Where the guests at a social function are predominantly conventional wine consumers, the participants reduce the proportion of organic wine to a minimum as 'people are going to get drunk anyway' (Dean, M), and the wine would be wasted. As Dean says, 'after two to three glasses of wine, if you put anything in the glass, people will drink it. You put water in a glass, they'll drink it...because they just want to keep drinking and keep chatting' (Dean, M).

In restaurants and bars, the participants often consume conventional wine due to the limited availability of organic wines. As Nikki states, 'I do drink non-organic wine because I go out, a lot of bars don't really have a very big selection or don't do it at all, I find restaurants tune into it more than bars' (Nikki, F). Odette also notes that 'if you go out to a bar and you just order some wine with friends and organic isn't really available, that's when I take [conventional wine]' (Odette, F). In a bar or club, Jo also adapts her wine consumption according to 'what they [can] offer as regards organic wine' (Jo, F), while Nicole also remarks on the limitations imposed in bars and restaurants. 'Generally, I don't think we notice organic wine on the menu' (Nicole, F). In addition, although they might occasionally request organic wine, more often, the participants follow the preferences of other guests as a mark of respect for the host of the dinner.

When offering wine as a gift or taking wine to somebody's house, the participants generally take the type of wine that they feel is most suitable (organic or conventional). The participants note that they are doubtful to offer organic wine specifically as a gift, stating that it does not matter whether the wine is organic or not as long as it suits the purpose and 'you've shown respect for the host' (Dean, M).

John notes:

"If I'm taking a bottle of wine to a party so I want to impress the guests or the hosts with the wine, it doesn't really make a difference to me if that wine is organic or conventional..."

because both types of wine can be impressive definitely, so it's not important that it is organic. "(John, M)

Dean 'would buy conventional wine because I would assume that's what most people are used to drinking' (Dean, M). The preference for offering conventional wine when going to somebody's house is also echoed by Lauren.

"If I'm going to a friend's house, I'm going to bring conventional wine because I think it's more well established; I don't think a lot of people know about organic wine, it's not very well advertised, they might say to me 'what's this, we don't drink this'. So if I'm going to, say, a birthday, then I'll bring the normal wine." (Lauren, F)

The choice between organic and conventional wine can also be linked to consumption occasions even when the participants are alone. Nicole, for instance, considers that '[organic wine] adds something a bit more to a meal or an occasion....If I've got friends coming, then I'll have [conventional wine], but if friends are not coming...then I'll...have organic' (Nicole, F). Odette saves organic wine for when she is making an effort in her cooking:

When I drink normal wine, usually I don't usually have it with healthy food; I usually have it if we're sitting on the sofa and you've got the pizza going on...it kind of fits more into that scenario. But if I'm making an effort, especially if I was in the kitchen cooking a really nice meal, all healthy, then I want to get something decent with it. (Odette, F)

6.2.2.2 Practical limitations

Section 6.2.2.1 showed how social factors influence the participants when deciding if to purchase and consume organic or conventional wine. The participants can also be challenged with practical limitations which impact their ability to purchase organic wine. The two main practical limiting factors are budgetary constraints and the availability of organic wine. Due to these factors, the participants may have to make purchase or consumption decisions that are contrary to their consumption loyalty to organic wine. The following section examines the issue of practical constraints.

Available budget

The main factor that limits the ability of the participants to follow their preferred consumption loyalty in relation to organic wine is financial. Nicole (75%), Dean (25%) and Nikki (75%) all state that they have to remain within their budgets and therefore have to purchase conventional wine instead of organic, on occasion, due to the higher price of organic wine. Lauren (80%) notes that

she has more flexibility to purchase organic wine ‘if it’s the end of pay-day...[and] I’ve just been paid’ (Lauren, F). Martin (60%) summarises the importance of budget, stating that ‘if the price of organic produce was the same or nearer to standard, then I’d be 100% organic’ (Martin, M). Jennifer (30%) notes that she is limited by her budget and will buy organic wine if she can afford it at the time. However, if she does not have the funds, she will not purchase organic wine:

“For me, that’s my budget, and I’ll stick to that. If I can’t afford it, I just won’t buy it. It’s as simple as that. It’s like anything: food or...you go for the cheaper option, basically, but you still try to do your best.” (Jennifer, F)

Becky and Nina, wish to consume exclusively organic wine. Therefore, they would prefer not to purchase wine at all rather than consider compromising based on their available budgets. Nina will find the money to pay extra for organic products, while Becky will not buy any conventional wine as she feels ill the following day.

Availability of organic wine

A second factor that limits the ability of the participants to follow their consumption loyalty is the availability of organic wine. The availability of organic wine manifests itself in two ways – first, the ability to find organic wine per se and second, the ability to find an organic wine of the specific grape variety that the participants wish to consume.

The participants note that, on occasion, they cannot find organic wine and therefore consume conventional wine instead. Nikki (75%), for instance, feels that:

“[for organic wine] to be my main wine drinking, it would be nice for me to be able to have the range and accessibility, for me to always drink whatever wine I want because there’s always an organic version of that grape I would like it all to be organic...I find sometimes it’s frustrating if I can’t get organic wine, because then I think about the wine that I’m drinking more that isn’t organic, and sometimes I think you can give yourself a headache thinking about it.” (Nikki, F)

However, it seems that the participants generally believe they can always find organic wine if they wish to do so. Consequently, the inability to find organic wine is more often a result of a lack of time to visit retail outlets which sell organic wine rather than the unavailability of organic wine per se. As such, the unavailability of organic wine is only a temporary constraint that the participants do not consider to be significant. Despite purchasing 60% organic wine within his overall wine consumption, Martin states that sometimes he does not make an effort to find organic wine:

“It would depend how much time I had and what my route was and what I was doing. So if I was in my flat and I just wanted to go to the corner shop because I don’t want to

go far because, maybe it's the evening and I've finished work, then I'd just buy the wine that's in the corner shop. But if I know I'm going to dinner at somebody's house and I know that [his route passes a specialist organic shop] then I'd walk down to stop there on the way." (Martin, M)

A second reason for the incapability to find organic wine is the fact that the participants in the study generally purchase small quantities of wine in local shops and supermarkets while doing other shopping. Nikki, for instance, notes that she makes her 'food shop from [a major supermarket] anyway, so I'm not going somewhere specifically for [wine], I'm getting it with my shop for the month at the same time, so it's very convenient (Nikki, F). Jo states, 'if I can, I would buy [wine] together [with her normal shop], which is quite handy' (Jo, F). Occasionally, this can impose constraints. Odette, for instance, notes that she sometimes cannot find organic wine when she goes to 'cheaper places like the discount supermarkets'.

Moreover, while the participants note the lack of choice imposed by the limited range of retail outlets in the area where they live, they are generally aware of where they can find organic wine within their shopping habits. In fact, when Dean could not find organic wine in a major retail outlet, he stated that he 'was shocked' (Dean, M). In this regard, only one participant, Jo (80%), makes a significant proportion (30%) of her purchase of organic wine online. Dean purchases 15% of his organic wine online. None of the other participants believes lack of availability warrants greater use of online purchasing, particularly as they generally buy only small quantities of wine for immediate consumption. In part, the limited range of retail outlets used may be due to the fact that the majority of the participants live in London, and transporting large quantities of wine is challenging. This challenge imposes constraints on their purchase options, and the participants opt to buy smaller quantities of wine for immediate use rather than store wine to consume later.

The participants do note; a greater constraint can be the lack of availability of organic wine of the specific grape variety that they wish to consume rather than the lack of availability of organic wine per se. Therefore, if they cannot find the specific grape variety they seek, they may purchase an alternative conventional wine instead. Nikki, for instance, always tries to buy organic wine. However, she will purchase conventional when she cannot find the specific type of organic wine that she wishes to drink:

"I try really hard...to have organic bottles....[But] I think sometimes accessibility and range...might get in the way is, because sometimes I might want a certain type of flavoured wine, floral, oaky, there isn't that much variety...so that's my only negative about it." (Nikki, F)

John notes that he likes to experiment with wine varieties, which makes it difficult to consume organic wine regularly:

“I don’t always drink the same wine; I like to try different ones, so again it’s down to that limited availability and the lack of choice. It’s not preference; it’s just there’s not enough organic wine there for me to find some more that I like. That’s really all it is.” (John, M)

Samantha (2%) consumes a low proportion of organic wine in her overall wine consumption. She considers that the lack of availability of different grape varieties in organic wine is a major reason why she does not consume more organic wine:

“I’m buying a lot more conventional wine than organic wine, purely because...the choice of conventional wine is vast, so you have things that you know you like or you have producers that you know you like....If there was more organic wine...it gives you the opportunity to taste things.” (Samantha, F)

Therefore, if a wider range of grape varieties were available in the form of organic wine, many participants stated that they would consume greater quantities. John sums up the constraints imposed by lack of grape variety, stating the following:

“When I’m buying the wine, when I’m at the supermarket, is there an organic wine that would accompany the food particularly well? Sometimes there is, but because there is a much smaller range of organic, it can be more difficult; if you’re determined to only buy organic, it can be more difficult to find one that will go with the occasion, with the food, for example.” (John, M)

6.2.2.3 Floating organic wine consumers

The study findings suggest that organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine under the influence of two processes that were identified in *Performing Organics*. First, *Optimising* shows how participants develop levels of consumption loyalty to organic wine based upon their fundamental value perceptions. In this regard, the strength of emotional attachment to organic wine is the most important factor as the perceptions of the benefits obtained is generally shared by all participants. Samantha (2%), Paul (10%) and John (25%), for instance, do not attach significant emotional value to organic wine and so are content to consume conventional as well as organic wine.

Second, *Compromising* explains that the participants may not be able to act according to their consumption loyalty. The participants may therefore purchase and consume conventional rather than organic wine on a case-by-case basis under the influence of external factors. This does not impact their fundamental value perceptions or overall consumption loyalty with regard to

organic wine. Participants such as Jo (80%) and Martin (60%) also purchase conventional wine, when necessary, without feeling that they are disloyal to their preference for organic wine. These findings are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 7.

6.2.3 Implementing

The previous section showed how the participants might compromise in regard to their consumption loyalty to organic wine under the influence of external factors, such as occasion or lack of funds. Implementing shows that even when the participants perceive value in organic wine per se, they still need to be convinced of the value of the specific organic wines they are considering for purchase or consumption. Implementing indicates that the participants look to labelling and certification as a guarantee of organic wine quality. In addition, to secure the benefits that they associate with organic wine consumption, the participants accept the need to pay a premium for organic wine. Consequently, the participants display a willingness to pay a premium for organic wine. Section 6.2.3.1 discusses the importance of certification and trust in the quality of the organic wine at purchase, while section 6.2.3.2 examines the willingness to pay a premium of the participants in the study.

6.2.3.1 Trust in the quality of organic wine

Even with strong value perceptions in relation to organic wine, some participants noted the risk associated with purchasing unknown organic wines, including participants with a high consumption loyalty to organic wine. Nicole (75%), for instance, acknowledges the risk of purchasing an unknown organic wine and ‘not knowing whether you’re going to enjoy it’ (Nicole, F). John (25%) actually feels that he might prefer to buy a known conventional wine rather than an unknown organic wine because

“if it’s an organic wine that I haven’t tried it before, there’s always the risk that it might not be that great, it could be disappointing, and if you’ve bought all organic, you might have to go back to a supermarket and get some different wine.” (John, M)

Nevertheless, the participants generally display high levels of trust in organic wine even when they do not know the brand. Nicole, for instance, although noting the risk of purchasing a poor organic quality wine, states that ‘I don’t have any concerns, I feel I’ve got much more trust with organic wine’ (Nicole, F), while Noel (50%) feels that ‘overall, I would be more likely to trust the taste and quality of an organic wine than I would of a normal bottle of wine’ (Noel, M).

The participants highlight two reasons why they are confident that the quality of organic wine is likely to be acceptable and therefore consider the purchase risk to below – first, organic

certification and second, trust in the retailer.

Organic certification heightens confidence. Most of the participants state that when they do not know a particular organic wine, they search for information about certification from the label and then make a judgement in relation to the quality of the wine. Certification is seen as a guarantee of the organic origin of a wine. Dylan (75%), for instance, considers that ‘[certification is]...crucially important, it’s the number one sales factor...it plays a very big role in me deciding to go for a wine’ (Dylan, M). Certification is also important for Becky (100%): ‘If it says it’s organic, I believe it’s organic’ (Becky, F). Rachael (5%), although not a committed consumer of organic wine, is also concerned about certification. ‘Organic certification has got to be a pretty top one with enough information on the label’ (Rachael, F). For Noel (50%), ‘certification is the big one. It makes a real difference. People just go, ‘That’s okay. I believe that. I trust that’ (Noel, M). Martin (60%) also expresses trust in organic certification: ‘You have to trust the regulator...I can trust it, knowing that there’s an organisation regulating that...would somehow be recognised by the government or something like that’ (Martin, M). Certification also serves to make ‘organic wines...easy to identify because they make it very clear on the bottle that it’s organic’ (John, M). Certification is important even for participants such as Samantha (2%), who acknowledges that she does not understand the certification system:

“For it to be certified organic is really important to me, and again, whenever I see these certifications, I like to look them up, because sometimes they don’t mean what you think they mean, and it depends who is actually offering the certification. So for me, if they’re saying it is organic wine, then I actually want to make sure that it is organic wine.” (Samantha, F)

Certification takes on increased importance as most participants like to experiment with organic wine brands which they do not know. Dean (25%) recognises that he tends to purchase mostly known brands, but most participants are prepared to experiment. Nikki (75%), for instance, notes that her ‘local shop doesn’t have a massive selection of organic wine but does have organic wine, it’s varied, I can’t choose the brand so I just...look for it and if I can see one I buy it, try it’ (Nikki, F). Noel (50%) states that ‘when I drink outside [home] I’m open to just trying because usually there’s only one, maybe one option or maybe two, in restaurants there’s not always a big list’ (Noel, M). Odette (40%) considers that ‘I do like to do things quite different...I don’t really buy brands when it comes to clothes, and it’s the same when it comes to wine’ (Odette, F). For Nicole (75%), ‘it’s nice to try something different’ (Nicole, F). Martin is also tempted by the smaller, lesser-known brands. ‘I’m quite open to buying different brands...I don’t know the names [in

specialist organic retail outlets] because they're too small to really get much publicity' (Martin, M).

Dylan (75%) reflects considers that consuming only known organic wine brands are unappealing.

"I've tried brands I've never heard of, so for me, it's not so much the brand; in fact, the more unknown a brand is, the more appealing it is to me. If I know a brand, then I start thinking about the commercial elements to it, are they very big? How organic is this organic product because simply sticking a label saying organic does not necessarily mean it's organic according to my description?" (Dylan, M)

Some other participants also highlight a second aspect to trusting in organic wine – confidence in the retail outlet. John (25%) states, 'I do trust the supermarket that this is a genuine organic product' (John, M), while Odette (40%) feels that 'you trust that shop, then you trust that they're going to put nice organic wines on the tap and not rubbish' (Odette, F).

Consequently, organic certification and trust in the retailers serve as a guarantee of quality for the participants in the study, even when they consume unknown organic wines. This enables the participants to attribute value at the time of purchase to the specific wines on sale.

6.2.3.2 Willingness to pay a premium for organic wine

The participants accept that they have to pay a slightly higher price for a bottle of organic wine than for a bottle of 'similar' conventional wine in order to secure the superior quality they perceive in organic wine. Willingness to pay a premium, therefore, represents a means to secure the benefits that the participants seek through organic wine consumption and also to satisfy their emotional attachment to organic wine. This section outlines how the participants reflect their value perceptions in their willingness to pay a premium for organic wine.

Table 9 indicates the price which the participants generally spend on a bottle of conventional wine for everyday consumption at home (excluding special occasions, parties and gifts), along with the participants' indicative willingness to pay a premium for a bottle of organic wine. Table 9 excludes consumers who rarely, or never, consume organic wine. Table 9 also includes socio-demographic factors such as gender, age and net household income.

Table 9: Willingness to pay a premium of participants

Participant	Organic Wine proportion	Price range for conventional wine, everyday consumption (pounds sterling)	Price prepared to pay for a similar bottle of organic wine (pounds sterling)	Gender	Age	Household income (after tax), pounds sterling
Becky	100%		9–15	F	60–64	3,601–4,200
Nina	100%		Around 30	F	25–29	1,801–2,400
Jo	80%	6–7	Up to 10	F	55–59	1,801–2,400
Lauren	80%	6–8	9–13	F	25–29	4,201–4,800
Dylan	75%	8–16	8–16	M	35–29	4,201–4,800
Nicole	75%	Less than 10	Around 15	F	55–59	3,001–3,600
Nikki	75%	8–10	10–12	F	35–39	4,201–4,800
Martin	60%	About 7	Around 12, maximum 15	M	45–49	2,401–3,000
Adam	50%	14–23	No limit	M	18–24	1,801–2,400
Mary	50%	8–12	8–15	F	18–24	1,801–2,400
Noel	50%	Under 10	Less than 10, maybe a bit more	M	35–39	3,801–4,200
Odette	40%	5–15	10–15	F	18–24	1,201–1,800
Jennifer	30%	6–7	7–9	F	40–44	1,801–2,400
John	25%	7–12	12–14	M	35–39	3,001–3,600
Dean	25%	7–12	7–12	M	45–49	4,201–4,800
Paul	10%	6–15	Up to 15	M	60–64	2,401–3,000
Bruce	5%	10	A couple of pounds more	F	60–64	4,801+
Rachael	5%	Around 10		M	65–70	4,801+
Samantha	2%	10–15	10–15	F	45–49	4,801+

Some participants, such as Dean (25%) and Samantha (2%), do not display any willingness to pay a premium. Dean feels that he can find organic wine within the same price range as conventional wine: ‘I don’t see a problem because [organic wine] isn’t a premium. It’s the same [price]’ (Dean, M). Samantha also feels that she can find organic wine in a similar price range to conventional wine.

However, as Table 9 demonstrates, most participants are prepared to pay ‘a couple of pounds’ (Bruce, M) more for organic wine and speak about the premium in absolute terms rather than a percentage of the price. Participants who possess greater consumption loyalty to organic wine, such as Jo (80%), generally indicate that they are prepared to pay a slightly higher premium for organic wine than participants who display lower consumption loyalty, such as John (25%) and Paul (10%). Table 9 also shows that the absolute amount of willingness to pay a premium that participants are prepared to pay seems unrelated to socio-demographic characteristics, such as free income, gender, or age.

Paying a premium for organic wine reflects the perceived benefits, such as the long-term health benefits or environmental benefits that the participants seek through the consumption of organic wine. Martin, for instance, notes that he does not really want to pay more for organic wine but that

he must do so in order to obtain the health benefits. ‘I don’t know that I want to pay more for organic wine, but I’m prepared to pay more for it. It really is just to do with health’ (Martin, M). Mary (50%) indicates that the environmental benefits of organic wine are the main reason for her willingness to pay a premium. She notes that she

“would pay more...because it’s more environmentally conscious and more positive, perhaps it doesn’t have those chemicals in, and so I’d go a bit higher....I know I can afford to pay a bit more for...the organic so we’re not releasing chemicals into the atmosphere.” (Mary, F)

Dylan (75%) considers that he would

“Be happy to pay a premium price, definitely, if it’s a good wine, if it’s from a good farm, a good region and given I’m happy with the certification of the organic wine itself and the way it’s been processed, then I would go for it....The price is usually indicative of the quality of the wine, so there would have to be a reason.” (Dylan, M)

Most of the participants in the study also equate the need to pay a premium for organic wine with the extra care and attention put into its production. Willingness to pay a premium, therefore, represents the perceived values of authenticity and the redefinition of organic wine quality identified in *Attaching Significance*. Jo, for instance, states, ‘I just feel that organic wine is more natural and it’s worth paying a little bit more for it’ (Jo, F). However, she adds that ‘I would like there to be special offers’ (Jo, F), a reflection of the issue of budgetary constraints also noted by Martin. Indeed, Nikki notes that a slight premium for organic wine actually makes her feel ‘comfortable’ (Nikki, F) as she would not trust cheap organic wine. Bruce, who consumes organic wine on account of his wife, accepts a small additional premium, provided the organic wine is of good quality:

“I’m prepared to pay more, but not because it’s organic. If it goes with other qualities (taste, smell, quality, price...) and it is organic, then yes, if they charge a couple of pounds more for it, because it was organic, because that’s their marketing strategy, I’d pay that. But so long as it also goes together with all those.” (Bruce, M)

Table 10 demonstrates how the participants view willingness to pay a premium as a means of securing quality in organic wine.

Table 10: Relationship between willingness to pay a premium and guarantee of quality

Participant	Organic wine proportion	Comments on willingness to pay a premium
Dylan	75%	'I'd be happy to pay a premium price, definitely, if it's a good wine, if it's from a good farm, a good region and given I'm happy with the certification of the organic wine itself and the way it's been processed, then I would go for it.'
Nikki	75%	'With organic wine, the price is something, because of my understanding of what goes into it, if it wasn't more expensive, I would question whether it was really organic, because it has to be more because the process is harder, the accessibility is less, so until it becomes everywhere, in every shop, there is always, in my mind, a logical price, whether it's this or this is the difference, but there always is a logical price height because of the way that it is made, and also the accessibility.' 'If it was organic and cheap, I know it is harder to produce an organic wine, so if it was the same price as a commercial wine in my little shop, where it's always full price because it's just a little shop, I probably wouldn't want to buy it because I'd feel like it was cheap.'
Nicole	75%	'I am much more careful now about trying to have natural products that are grown ethically and grown well and without additives and without any unpleasant things in the whole production process.'
Adam	50%	'I know that it is more expensive to make organic wine, because when you work with organic you have not to put pesticides, any type of chemicals, then the cost is more for producing for people, so of course, the cost is higher.'
Noel	50%	'It's been more stringent...made with better produce and in a healthier way.'
Dean	25%	'You can say the costs of production are more and that's why it costs more. And you could say that's a transparent, honest way: it shows the company's integrity....I don't mind paying 15% more because of the quality of wine.'
Paul	10%	'Anyone will pay more for the wine if it's good quality. Quality is not cheap.'
Rachael	5%	'I would be prepared to pay more because I probably am influenced by the whole marketing thing of organic because in my mind that implies better, so yes, I would be prepared to pay more'

The willingness to pay a premium displayed by the participants who are organic wine consumers contrasts with the attitude of the participants who never, or rarely, consume organic wine. The latter consider the organic production method to be a marketing gimmick and show no interest in paying a premium for organic wine. Participants such as Harold, Philip and Tim are prepared to pay more for a good bottle of wine, organic or conventional, but will not pay a premium for a wine just because it is organic. Indeed, Philip notes that whether a wine is organic is the 'least important thing' (Philip, M).

This section described the process of *Performing Organics*. The section noted that the value perceptions of the participants influence their consumption loyalty to organic wine. However, the participants may then be influenced by external factors, such as occasion and budget, when making actual wine purchases and consumption decisions. This may cause the participants to compromise regarding their consumption loyalty but without compromising their value perceptions per se. The section also showed that the participants display a willingness to pay a premium based upon the perceived overall quality of organic wine. The following section proceeds to describe *Spreading the Word*, the second behavioural sub-core process of *Manifesting Identity*.

6.3 Spreading the Word

This section begins with an overview of the sub-core process of *Spreading the Word*. The following sections then proceed to describe the two sub-processes that comprise *Spreading the Word*: *Acknowledging Social Realities* and *Approaching Others*.

Spreading the Word conceptualises the relationship between participants' fundamental value perceptions and how they approach others and speak about organic wine. Most participants remain alert for opportunities to speak to others about organic wine but establish boundaries for themselves, both in terms of those whom they approach and the way in which they speak about organic wine.

The first sub-process of *Spreading the Word* is *Acknowledging Social Realities*. This conceptualises that the participants treat organic wine consumption as a personal matter and are therefore cautious regarding speaking to others about it. The second sub-process, *Approaching Others*, indicates that the participants draw upon a limited range of organic wine attributes when speaking to others about the benefits of organic wine consumption (Figure 12).

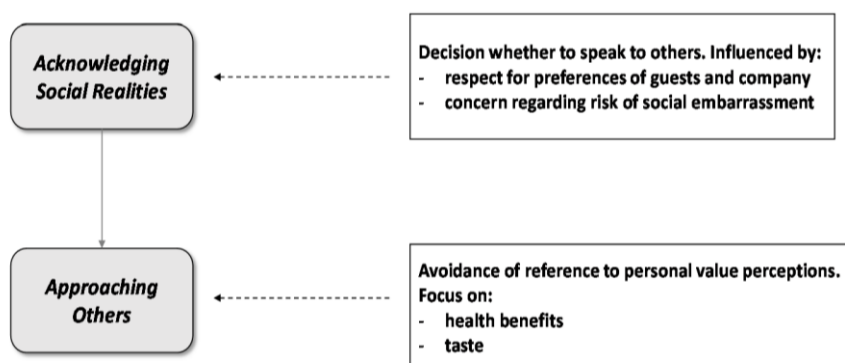


Figure 12: Conceptual model of the sub-core process of Spreading the Word

This section provided an overview of the process of *Spreading the Word*. The following sections examine the two sub-processes that comprise *Spreading the Word*. Section 6.3.1 describes Acknowledging Social Realities, while section 6.3.2 outlines Approaching Others.

6.3.1 Acknowledging Social Realities

Most participants expressed the desire to speak to others about organic wine. Paul, for instance, notes that ‘there’s a small band of people who will drink [organic wine] and try and convert people to drink it’ (Paul, M). Martin also wishes to speak to others about the benefits of organic wine consumption. In particular, he has a work colleague whom he wishes to encourage ‘to give up the cigarettes and drink some organic wine and live a slightly healthier lifestyle’ (Martin, M). Nina also speaks about wanting to show others ‘the difference and maybe convert them to organic wine’ (Nina, F). Nikki’s motivation in speaking to others is based upon reasons of status as she considers that ‘[the consumption of organic wine] makes me stand aside from everyone else’ (Nikki, F).

On the other hand, many participants are reluctant to speak to others about organic wine for two reasons. First, the participants respect the opinions of others and consider wine choice to be a personal matter which should be left to individuals. Dylan, for instance, refers to himself as a convert to organic wine but believes that individuals should be allowed to decide for themselves. Consequently, he is not going ‘to go out and preach, to convert people to drink organic wine’ (Dylan, M). Dylan makes the association between organic wine and religion, noting that ‘there is a stage where you have to leave a topic of conversation before it becomes something like getting someone to convert into a different religion, so I stick to that and they stick to theirs’ (Dylan, M).

Lauren also respects the opinions of others, noting the following:

“I’ve not tried to introduce it to my friends....When I go to their houses, they’ve got conventional wine, and they come to my house, and I’ve got organic wine, and they don’t ask me for a glass, and I don’t say to them do you want a glass because it’s mine. But if they said to me can I have a glass, I would give them a glass.” (Lauren, F)

Respect for the opinions of others and recognize that opinions about both organic wine and politics are personal are summed up by Mary:

“I think people should have a choice for themselves, so I have the choice to buy organic wine; they have the choice to not have organic wine. I wouldn’t want my friends to feel maybe pressured into only having organic wine because they may think I’m pushing my ideas onto them, because you could almost say it’s political ideas if you think about the environment and health, it’s almost from a political perspective....I wouldn’t want [my

friends] to feel uncomfortable, that they were being kind of pressured into a certain thing. “(Mary, F)

Second, while the participants take a certain pride in the fact that organic wine is considered to be ‘alternative’ (Mary, F) and feel superior to conventional wine consumers, the participants are also concerned about being seen as ‘hung up’ (Noel, M). Paul, for instance, notes that ‘[organic wine] is still looked upon as a cottage industry in this country...Organic wine is still thought of as like a hippy industry...people won’t try it. It’s a bit like real ale, the same sort of thing’ (Paul, M). Samantha also refers to the ‘alternative’ image of organic wine, stating, ‘I’m not going to say I’m going to become a hippy and only drink organic wine’ (Samantha, F). Mary notes that there is a ‘prejudice against the word ‘organic’ for wine...some people maybe think it’s a bit too alternative’ (Mary, F). Dylan thinks his friends will consider organic wine to be a ‘fad’ (Dylan, M) and will tease him about it.

Therefore, the participants select carefully the acquaintances with whom they speak about organic wine. Mary, for instance, will only speak to friends whom she considers to be environmentally conscious and is cautious about speaking to those whom she thinks might not react well. Other participants, such as Odette, speak to friends who are more health-conscious and therefore more ‘coercible’ (Odette, F).

Once participants decide to speak to others, they then devise ways through which they can raise the subject of organic wine. Some participants organise wine tastings as a way to approach others. Mary, for instance, ensures that her friends taste, and like, a wine before she informs them that it is organic:

“So we had drinks, and we brought out this red wine that I like, and, you know, we had discussions, ‘Oh, what wine is that?’ ‘Actually, it’s this wine, and it also happens to be organic’, but I think it’s better to tell them about the wine first and then say it’s organic, rather than pushing it as an organic wine, because...if you tell them about a wine, they like it, and then you say it’s organic, they see that organic as a positive thing, whereas perhaps it’s more negative if they don’t know that it’s good, yes, I think they’d see it as negative.” (Mary, F)

Dylan also uses tastings when speaking to acquaintances:

“They may look at the bottle and say ‘oh this looks nice, why are you drinking this?’ and sometimes people don’t even know it’s organic wine even when I pour it for them, so it’s a case of ‘I’ve got organic wine, what do you want?’, and it’s a question of ‘what is organic wine?’ and then I start going into it.” (Dylan, M)

Some other participants, such as Odette, introduce an element of fun when recommending organic wine. She removes the labels from bottles of wine and asks friends to guess which wine is organic. Nikki is often the person who orders the wine for her friends when she is out, so she takes advantage of the opportunity to order an organic wine, thereby allowing others to try it. Noel does not specifically recommend organic wine but speaks to friends who consume organic wine and compares notes in order to stimulate their interest. John also likes exchanging notes:

I've served a [wine] which was organic...I really like it...and I think I just mentioned, 'look, this is an organic wine, have you tried it before?' It's interesting to find out if your friends have tried it or what their opinion is, so it's a good topic of discussion which is nice and it's interesting to see if your friends like it, just to get their opinion...it can be interesting to talk about the qualities of the wine because it is organic. (Noel, M)

6.3.2 Approaching Others

If the participants decide to speak to others, they avoid speaking about their emotional attachment to organic wine or concepts such as organic wine authenticity. Instead, they focus on two specific attributes of organic wine – the health benefits and taste. Consequently, the participants opt to share a reasoned argument with their friends and colleagues about organic wine consumption and avoid discussing personal value perceptions or concepts which might be difficult to convey to others.

6.3.2.1 Immediate and long-term health benefits

The main criteria that the participants highlighted when speaking to others are the immediate and long-term health benefits of organic wine consumption. This is consistent with the fact that the health benefits represent the main value that the participants perceive in relation to organic wine.

“Immediate health benefits, namely the absence of hangovers, is the main benefit that Jennifer and Becky perceive in organic wine consumption and which they highlight when speaking to others. ‘I’d talk about the benefits of not having a hangover. People are impressed. I would promote that: “Ah, this organic wine: honestly, I had a bottle last night, and I didn’t get a hangover”” (Jennifer, F).

Dylan, on the other hand, concentrates on the long-term health benefits as this is the only aspect of organic wine consumption that he considers he can ‘sell to his friends’ (Dylan, M).

Martin wishes others to enjoy a healthy life, similar to his own. ‘I would...emphasise the health first because...I know that [my colleagues] like wine anyway...so I suppose I would just be recommending that they try organic. I think I would emphasise the health because I think about

health' (Martin, M).

6.3.2.2 Taste

The participants also mentioned that they would highlight the taste of organic wine. Nina, for instance, recommends organic wine to her friends based on taste: she expects that her friends will perceive the difference for themselves and understand the benefits of organic wine consumption. Lauren also emphasises the taste of organic wine:

"I'd say it tasted so much better, it tastes nicer, it tastes smoother, and it's not a lot more expensive than the [conventional wine] that you're drinking, and I'd say I think that the ingredients are obviously organic, they're using organic fruits to make this wine."

(Lauren, F)

Samantha does not speak directly about the taste of organic wine but uses a specific wine that she has tasted as a basis on which to recommend organic wine. Paul and Adam both comment that they only recommend organic wines that they have tasted. 'I just tell [my friends] the taste is totally different. It is different: there is a slight difference in the taste. It's a bit smoother, not so sharp....I've said, "Oh, try this. This is nice"' (Paul, M).

For conventional wine consumers, such as Philip, Tim, Bruce and Harold, who rarely consume organic wine, the taste is the only criteria they would use to recommend an organic wine to others. However, they would only recommend a specific organic wine that they liked. For such participants, the organic quality of wine plays no role in their recommendations. As Bruce states:

"If I found one that was good...if I found a wine that I thought was worth recommending, for whatever reason, one of those reasons probably wouldn't be that it's organic, but if it was organic, then I would recommend it." (Bruce, M)

For Philip, the taste is also the main element on which he could base a recommendation:

"I would recommend a wine for the same reasons as I would buy it. If it was organic, I would recommend it because it was a good wine; why would I recommend a wine I didn't like, just because it was organic? Here, have this wine, it's organic, I don't like it, but you might, I can't see that." (Philip, M)

None of the participants highlights the environmental benefits of organic wine consumption when speaking to others. This reflects the fact that few participants themselves attach value to organic wine on account of its benefits for the environment. The focus on perceived benefits such as personal health and taste can perhaps be attributed to the fact that these are straightforward concepts to discuss rather than more complicated concepts such as organic wine quality. In

addition, as the participants treat organic wine consumption as a personal matter and do not wish to risk being considered ‘hung up’, none of the participants speak about their emotional attachment to organic wine when talking to others.

6.4 Summary

This chapter is the second of two chapters describing the process of *Manifesting Identity* as an organic wine consumer. The chapter reviewed the sub-core processes of *Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word*. *Performing Organics* showed how the fundamental value perceptions of the participants are reflected in their purchase and consumption behaviour. In addition, *Performing Organics* presents an understanding of why the participants float between the purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine. The chapter also described the sub-core process of *Spreading the Word*, showing that the participants are cautious about speaking to others and refer to only a small range of values when they do speak about organic wine. Chapter 7 proceeds to outline the conclusions drawn from the study and places the study within the context of prior literature. Chapter 7 also examines issues of credibility and validity.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Introduction

A grounded theory should challenge, extend or refine existing theories and concepts (Charmaz, 2014). Some of the findings of this study into the value perceptions of organic wine consumers are consistent with previous literature but nevertheless refine current understanding. Moreover, the study also extends current understanding by identifying the process through which the participants develop a specific identity as an organic wine consumer on the basis of their value perceptions. This identity distinguishes organic wine consumers from conventional wine consumers and is manifested in their purchase and consumption behaviour. The study overcomes several limitations noted in previous studies and offers a rich understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

Section 7.2 provides an overview of the emergent theory of *Manifesting Identity* as an organic wine consumer. Section 7.3 then proceeds to examine the constituent processes of *Manifesting Identity – Attaching Significance, Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word*. The remaining parts of the chapter then discuss the main contributions and significance of the study (section 7.4) before assessing the validity and credibility of the study (section 7.5) against the criteria proposed by Charmaz (2014). This is followed by a discussion on the limitations of the study (section 7.6) and recommendations for future research (section 7.7). The chapter concludes with some reflections on the research process (section 7.8).

7.2 Overview of the study findings

This section briefly recapitulates the intentions of this study as well as its main conclusions to put the discussion of the substantive findings into context.

The literature review and initial field research led to the identification of two research questions for investigation in the study:

- What dimensions of consumer value perceptions influence consumers to purchase and consume organic wine instead of conventional wine, and how do they relate to each other?
- Why does a segment of organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine?

In answering these questions, this study shows that organic wine consumers develop a specific identity that is distinct from that of conventional wine consumers. That identity is based upon a series of value perceptions about organic wine, which influence the purchase and consumption behaviour of organic wine consumers. As organic wine consumers become more involved with organic wine, their value perceptions about organic wine also evolve through a process of selective information gathering, the development of an emotional attachment to organic wine and greater exposure to the consumption of organic wine. Speaking to others about organic wine also reinforces the sense of identity of organic wine consumers. Hence organic wine consumers enter a cycle in which their practical exposure to organic wine reinforces their value perceptions selectively. However, organic wine consumers are also flexible in their behaviour and will continue to consume conventional as well as organic wine without feeling that they are compromising their fundamental value perceptions. The identity manifested by organic wine consumers is, therefore, both pervasive, like a political or religious belief, as well as flexible. Figure 13 below illustrates the conceptual model of the emergent theory of *Manifesting Identity*.

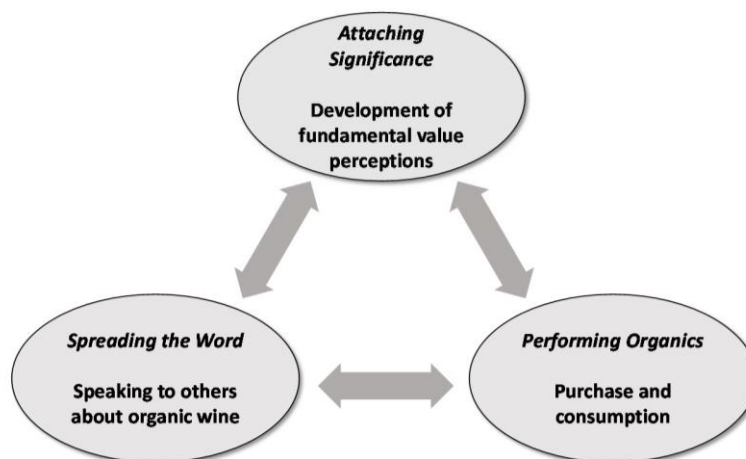


Figure 13: Conceptual model of the emergent theory of Manifesting Identity as an organic wine consumer

This study identified *Manifesting Identity* as the core category. And also, the study identified three sub-core processes which constitute *Manifesting Identity*: *Attaching Significance*, *Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word* (see Figure 13). *Attaching Significance* encapsulates the process through which organic wine consumers develop their fundamental value perceptions and, therefore, their identity as organic wine consumers. That identity is based upon an emotional attachment to organic wine as well as a perception that organic wine consumption brings a series of benefits. However, this study shows that these benefits are primarily personal rather than altruistic and involve credibility in intangible as well as tangible aspects of organic wine consumption. The study also shows that organic wine consumers are selective in the information they process, leading to a focus upon what organic wine consumers wish to believe,

interpreted through an emotional lens.

The value perceptions developed by organic wine consumers are reflected in their behaviour through two sub-core processes, *Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word*. *Performing Organics* shows that, despite developing a consumption loyalty to organic wine based on their value perceptions, organic wine consumers are flexible in their actual purchase and consumption behaviour. On the other hand, organic wine consumers purchase conventional as well as organic wine without feeling that they are compromising the integrity of their fundamental value perceptions. The study also shows that organic wine consumers are prepared to pay a premium (a few Pounds) for organic wine to secure the benefits they believe they obtain through organic wine consumption.

Spreading the Word shows that organic wine consumers consider the consumption of organic wine to be a personal experience along the lines of politics or religion. They are therefore reluctant to ‘force’ their ideas on others and are concerned about being ‘hung up’ on organic wine. As a result, organic wine consumers carefully select the acquaintances with whom they speak about organic wine, primarily choosing those whom they think are open to ‘conversion’. To simplify the discussion, when they do speak about organic wine, organic wine consumers avoid speaking about their emotional attachment and focus upon intrinsic attributes such as taste and health benefits, which are easier to explain.

Attaching Significance is the main sub-core category of *Manifesting Identity*. The value perceptions of organic wine consumers are not static and constantly develop through information search, greater exposure to organic wine and developing awareness of their specific identity as an organic wine consumer. Hence there is a cyclical aspect to the relationship between *Attaching Significance*, *Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word*.

The study, therefore, answers the research questions by identifying how organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions of organic wine as well as presenting an explanation for why organic wine consumers float between conventional and organic wine.

Section 7.2 provided an overview of the main findings of the study. Section 7.3 proceeds to discuss the conclusions of the study in detail, while section 7.4 highlights the main contributions and significance of the study.

7.3 *Manifesting Identity as an organic wine consumer: An overview*

The study findings show that the participants combine attribute-based value perceptions (Parasuraman, 1997; Woodruff, 1997) with attitude-based value perceptions (Gregory-Smith,

Smith, & Winklhofer, 2013; Gutman, 1982). Attribute-based value perceptions reflect the benefits that organic wine consumers believe they obtain from the attributes (tangible and intangible) of organic wine. Attitude-based value perceptions encompass the emotions generated by organic wine consumption (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013). However, this study shows that attitude-based value perceptions predominate and influence the attribute-based value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Moreover, organic wine consumers do not make an objective assessment of organic wine's intrinsic and extrinsic qualities but base their value perceptions upon a subjective and strongly emotional interpretation of the benefits they believe they obtain from organic wine consumption. These two forms of value perceptions (attitude- and attribute-based) lead to an enduring attachment to organic wine (Bloch & Richins, 1983). However, the value perceptions of the participants focus upon value-in-use rather than the value which is embedded in the product (Macdonald et al., 2009; Macdonald et al., 2011).

Sections 7.3.1 and 7.3.2 discuss how the relationship between the attitude-based and attribute-based value perceptions of organic wine consumers lead to the development of fundamental value perceptions about organic wine. The discussion is divided into two parts. Section 7.3.1 describes the development of fundamental value perceptions as a process, while section 7.3.2 outlines the value dimensions which influence organic wine consumers.

7.3.1 Development of fundamental value perceptions: The process

Previous organic wine studies have generally treated the choice between conventional and organic wine as a decision made at the time of purchase and view organic wine's sustainable qualities as another variable in the decision process (Forbes et al., 2009; Fotopoulos et al., 2003; Ogbeide, 2013). As a result, prior studies try to place the different attributes of organic wine in order of importance for organic wine consumers rather than identify how they interrelate when influencing organic wine consumers (Schäufele & Hamm, 2017). In addition, by focusing on purchase occasion rather than the process of perceiving value (Erasmus et al., 2001), previous studies do not explain the inconsistency between the (declared) values of consumers of organic wine and their actual behaviour (Hidalgo-Baz, Martos-Partal, & González-Benito, 2017).

This study, on the other hand, shows that the development of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers is a process that leads to an enduring loyalty to organic wine (Bloch & Richins, 1983) and to the creation of a specific identity as an organic wine consumer. As most participants in the study had no awareness of organic wine or possessed only a limited awareness prior to their first exposure, the process of developing an identity as an organic wine consumer begins with an initial introduction to organic wine. Once introduced to organic wine, the process continues through the

acquisition of information about organic wine coupled with experimentation with organic wine consumption. This leads to a growing emotional attachment to organic wine and perception of value in a series of benefits that organic wine consumers believe they can obtain through organic wine consumption.

For most participants, information acquisition is limited to paying greater attention to labels on organic wine bottles in retail outlets and does not extend to detailed research into organic wine. Consequently, the participants in the study do not attempt to reinforce their identity as organic wine consumers through a process of information gathering, preferring to acquire information gradually. In part, this reflects time constraints.

However, the lack of interest in acquiring information about organic wine also reflects the fact that the participants do not feel that an in-depth understanding of organic wine is necessary to be an organic wine consumer: they feel confident in their identity even without detailed knowledge or understanding of organic wine. Nevertheless, through gradual assimilation of information and growing awareness of organic wine, the participants begin to develop an enduring loyalty to organic wine (Bloch & Richins, 1983).

According to their information acquisition, the study shows that the participants use selective attention when developing their value perceptions (Janiszewski, Kuo, & Tavassoli, 2013). Consequently, the participants focus on information that relates to organic wine and tends to ignore information about conventional wine. For instance, the participants speak about perceiving value in organic wine because it is not mass-produced and comes from small vineyards, but they omit (or ignore) the possibility that many conventional wines also meet the same criteria. Selective attention also leads the participants to perceive value in assumed benefits, such as long-term health benefits, even when such claims are not proven scientifically (Hidalgo-Baz et al., 2017). Consequently, the study shows that preference formation in relation to organic wine, and the development of value perceptions, relies upon organic wine consumers choosing what they wish to believe without objective analysis (Janiszewski et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the study shows that the range of perceived benefits to which the participants attach value grows as the participants develop their relationship with organic wine. The participants' initial value perceptions are limited to three intrinsic attributes of organic wine – immediate and long-term health benefits and taste. However, as they develop a relationship with organic wine, the participants begin to attach value to other attributes of organic wine, such as authenticity and quality. The emphasis of the participants also changes from tangible benefits, such as taste, to intangible benefits, such as authenticity, as they acquire more familiarity with organic wine.

In addition, the emotional attachment of the participants to organic wine, which is not present at the start of their relationship with organic wine, deepens with greater exposure. The consumption of organic wine generates positive emotions, which serves to focus greater attention on the perceived benefits of organic wine. Consequently, the relationship between selective attention to organic wine and the emotions generated by organic wine consumption is reciprocal (Raymond, Fenske, & Tavassoli, 2003), with positive emotions encouraging future purchases (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013; Raymond et al., 2003). The enduring loyalty of organic wine consumers to organic wine, therefore, becomes increasingly emotional rather than rational as they become more familiar with organic wine (Bettman et al., 2008).

Section 7.3.1 discussed the development of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers as a process. Section 7.3.2 proceeds to discuss the value dimensions which influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

7.3.2 Development of fundamental value perceptions: The value dimensions

Previous organic wine studies identified three value dimensions that researchers consider to influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers – emotional, functional and social. Prior organic wine studies generally interpret the emotional dimension as encompassing concern for environmental protection and for personal health (Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Schäufole & Hamm, 2017). The functional dimension incorporates a preference for the taste of organic wine over conventional wine (Klarmann et al., 2012; Janssen et al., 2012; Rahman et al., 2014), while the social dimension reflects a search for social prestige through the consumption of organic wine (Mann et al., 2012; Mueller et al., 2011).

The present study presents an alternative understanding of the value dimensions which influence organic wine consumption. The study shows that only the functional and the emotional value dimensions influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The findings also show that the participants do not attach value to organic wine based on perceived social prestige. On the contrary, the participants in the study view organic wine consumption as a personal matter and attach no value to being seen by others to consume organic wine. Indeed, the social aspects of wine consumption act as a constraint on the purchase and consumption behaviour of organic wine consumers. In addition, the findings of this study show that prior research presents an incomplete understanding of the properties of the functional and emotional dimensions and what they mean to organic wine consumers.

Sections 7.3.2.1 and 7.3.2.2 discuss the roles played by the functional and emotional dimensions in the value perceptions of organic wine consumers and the properties of each value dimension. The

influence of the social aspects of organic wine consumption is discussed in sections 7.3.3 and 7.3.4.

7.3.2.1 Perceived benefits of organic wine consumption

The findings of this study show that the participants perceive value in five benefits obtained through the consumption of organic wine. These can be divided into two benefits which are tangible and three intangible benefits. Tangible benefits comprise the immediate health benefits and preference for taste, while perceived intangible benefits reflect long-term health benefits, concern for environmental protection and the search for organic wine authenticity. Furthermore, the study shows that the participants perceive value in one additional intangible benefit – a revised perception of organic wine quality, which comprises all five perceived benefits.

Tangible benefits of organic wine consumption

This study shows that the participants perceive value in the immediate health benefits obtained through organic wine consumption, notably the absence of hangovers. The participants who passed through a defining moment, in particular, attach a high level of significance to the immediate health benefits obtained by the consumption of organic wine and speak in strong terms about how they avoid hangovers by consuming organic wine. This is significant in two respects. First, the study shows that the avoidance of hangovers is one of the key-value perceptions held by the participants. This refines prior organic research, which generally focuses upon the long-term health benefits of organic wine (Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003). In addition, prior research argues that organic wine consumers link the absence of hangovers to the low levels of sulphites in organic wine (Appleby et al., 2012; Borra et al., 2014; Mann et al., 2010). However, this study shows that organic wine consumers generally are unaware of the lower level of sulphites in organic wine. Indeed, the participants associate the avoidance of hangovers with the absence of pesticides and added chemicals rather than low levels of sulphites. The participants, therefore, attribute the absence of hangovers to the consumption of organic wine generally rather than to low levels of sulphites.

A second tangible attribute of organic wine highlighted in prior literature is a preference for the taste of organic wine (Klarmann et al., 2012; Rahman et al., 2014). However, while this study confirms that many participants do prefer the taste of organic wine, the taste is not a primary benefit to which they attribute value: greater value is attached to other attributes such as organic wine's overall quality and authenticity. Indeed, many participants are unconvinced that organic wine tastes better than conventional wine: it is sufficient that they like it. Consequently, the study suggests that preference for the taste of organic wine is not a major attribute to which organic wine

consumers attach value. However, the participants will not purchase or consume organic wine if they do not like the taste, whatever benefits they obtain as a result. Consequently, enjoyment of the taste of organic wine is a requirement for organic wine consumption but is not significant in terms of value perceptions.

Intangible benefits of organic wine consumption

This study shows that the participants also perceive value in three intangible benefits of organic wine consumption – environmental protection, long-term health benefits and organic wine authenticity. The participants also argue that organic wine is of better quality overall because of the other five benefits they identify.

Many prior organic wine studies argue that organic wine consumers place significant value in the altruistic aspects of organic wine consumption and believe organic wine is less harmful to the environment (Bazoche et al., 2008; Forbes et al., 2009; Loureiro, 2003; Schäufele & Hamm, 2017; Sogari et al., 2015; Wiedmann, Hennigs et al., 2014). However, this study shows that the participants generally do not highlight a concern for environmental protection as a motivation to consume organic wine. On the contrary, the participants generally stress that their primary motivations are self-interested. Even when the participants do mention environmental protection, this is generally done in conjunction with other perceived benefits, such as the long-term health benefits. Consequently, the findings of this study suggest that concern for the environment is not a significant element in the value perceptions of organic wine consumers: the participants place the most value in the attributes of organic wine which provide personal benefits, such as immediate and long-term health benefits, taste, authenticity, and superior quality.

The study also shows that the participants acknowledge that their motivation to consume organic wine is personal. The participants generally did not try to attribute an altruistic motive to their value perceptions nor to justify their consumption of organic wine on environmental grounds. They were, therefore, at ease with their attribution of value to organic wine based on personal rather than altruistic benefits. These conclusions are consistent with organic food studies suggesting that organic consumers are self-interested and primarily consume organic products out of personal rather than altruistic concerns (McEachern & McClean, 2002). However, despite the fact that the participants did not try to ascribe altruistic motivation to their interest in organic wine, they did consider themselves to hold the ‘moral high ground’ in relation to conventional wine consumers. Consequently, the study shows that the participants do not suffer from dissonance in their relationship with organic wine.

These findings run counter to research suggesting that organic wine consumers seek to behave ethically and altruistically and feel dissonance when there is a gap between their altruistic values and their actual behaviour (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013; Hidalgo-Baz et al., 2017; McEachern & McClean, 2002; Thøgersen, 2004).

The study is consistent with prior research suggesting that organic wine consumers perceive considerable value in the long-term health benefits of organic wine consumption (Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Mueller et al., 2011). Indeed, all participants in the study who are organic wine consumers state that they perceive value in the long-term health benefits obtained through organic wine consumption. This value attribution derives from the perception that organic wine does not contain pesticides and added chemicals. In this regard, both the immediate and long-term health benefits associated with organic wine consumption reflect the avoidance of the negative effects of conventional wine consumption rather than obtaining tangible positive benefits from the consumption of organic wine. The attribution of value to organic wine based on its perceived long-term health benefits also reflects the willingness of organic wine consumers to place credibility in aspects of organic products which remain to be proven scientifically (Brandt & Mølgaard, 2001; Siderer et al., 2005). Consequently, the participants accept such claims without investigation or scientific evidence (Brandt & Mølgaard, 2001; Hughner et al., 2007; Siderer et al., 2005). The fact that the long-term health benefits of organic wine are only a perception that is unproven scientifically is acknowledged by the participants. Nevertheless, they argue that, logically, the absence of pesticides in organic food must be better for their health. This reflects a selective argumentation in favour of organic wine based upon selective information gathering and selective attention (Janiszewski et al., 2013; Raymond et al., 2003).

Selective attention is also a key construct in the third intangible benefit that organic wine consumers believe they obtain from organic wine consumption – the search for authenticity. Authenticity comprises a range of intangible attributes which organic wine consumers believe are associated with organic wine. For instance, the participants perceive that organic wine comes from smaller producers, is not mass-produced and is produced with greater care and attention. In this regard, the authenticity of organic wine reflects elements associated with luxury products generally, such as a heritage and pedigree, consistency of style, commitment to quality, association with a specific place or location, superior production method, and reduced emphasis on commercial motivation (Beverland, 2006). However, the participants in the study associate these qualities with organic wine while ignoring the possibility that they can also be applied to conventional wines.

The participants also use selective attention when arguing that organic wine is of better quality

on the basis of its authenticity, care taken in production method and the absence of pesticides (Janiszewski et al., 2013; Szmigin, Carrigan, & McEachern, 2009). This reflects Beverland's (2006) comment that, in terms of authenticity, there exist 'real and stylised versions of the truth', through which consumers can develop their own version of reality.

Therefore, this study shows that a significant difference between organic wine consumers and consumers who rarely, or never, consume organic wine is the credibility that organic wine consumers place in intangible benefits. While organic wine consumers place value in the long-term health benefits and authenticity of organic wine, conventional wine consumers consider such claims to be a marketing gimmick. The study also shows that the participants do not feel the need to investigate the basis of claims about the intangible benefits of organic wine consumption. This suggests that knowledge is not a means through which organic wine consumers try to reduce the dissonance between attitudes and purchase behaviour, an argument advanced by Hidalgo-Baz et al. (2017).

Emotional value perceptions

Conventional wine research suggests that wine generates a positive emotional response in consumers, who seek an overall consumption experience (Babin & Krey, 2014; Barber et al., 2009; Borra et al., 2014; Bruwer & Buller, 2013; Neeley et al., 2010). However, prior organic wine studies generally interpret the emotional value dimension as referring to values and beliefs which organic wine consumers hold in relation to organic wine, particularly concern for the environment (Barber et al., 2009; Forbes et al., 2009; Klohr et al., 2014; Sogari et al., 2015, 2013a). However, by doing so, such studies confuse the attitudes and beliefs of organic wine consumers in relation to environmental protection with their wider emotional attachment to organic wine.

Moreover, this study finds that the identity which the participants develop as organic wine consumers is personal and emotional. That emotional identity influences how organic wine consumers perceive and place trust in the benefits that they believe are obtained through the consumption of organic wine. The emotions generated by organic consumption include a feeling that the participants are in control of what they are consuming when they drink organic wine. The participants can also ease their conscience regarding environmentally responsible behaviour through the consumption of organic wine and, consequently, 'feel better'.

The consumption of organic wine also reflects an expression of individuality as well as satisfies a search for adventure. These emotions lead organic wine consumers to feel that they are part of something important, which represents more than just wine consumption. Organic wine

consumers, therefore, feel that they possess a special identity that differentiates them from conventional wine consumers. This sense of being different from conventional wine consumers often finds expression in the sense of superiority, which can manifest itself in the desire to convert others to organic wine consumption. It can also lead to a feeling of pity for those who lack an understanding of organic wine. In this sense, the study shows that organic wine consumers display elements of a religious or political belief, which is private but considered to be superior to the beliefs held by others.

The positive emotions generated by organic wine consumption encourage the participants to increase their involvement with organic wine. Consequently, emotional attachment to organic wine is both a generator, as well as a result, of organic wine consumption (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013). Indeed, the participants were candid about the fact that they actively seek positive emotions through organic wine consumption and acknowledged that the emotions generated by organic wine lead them to attribute value to the perceived benefits of organic wine. Hence, the participants enter a cycle of value generation in which positive emotions lead to selective attention, which generates credibility in intangible – and unproven – benefits of organic wine consumption. This cycle of selective attention leads the participants to focus on information that reinforces their perception of the superiority of organic wine (Janiszewski et al., 2013). The participants are aware of this selective attention but allow the emotional attachment to organic wine to overcome even their own doubts about the subjective nature of their appreciation of organic wine attributes, such as taste. In this sense, the study is consistent with research indicating that positive emotions encourage ‘repeat ethical behaviour’ (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013, p. 1210).

The cycle of selective attention, consumption of organic wine, credibility in the benefits of organic wine and growth of emotional attachment to organic wine is represented in Figure 14.

This study also observes a relationship between the degree of emotional attachment to organic wine and the proportion of organic wine consumed. Indeed, observations suggest that the participants who consume lower proportions of organic wine display less emotional attachment to organic wine. These observations indicate that the highest levels of enduring involvement (Bloch & Richins, 1983) prevail amongst consumers with the strongest emotional attachment.

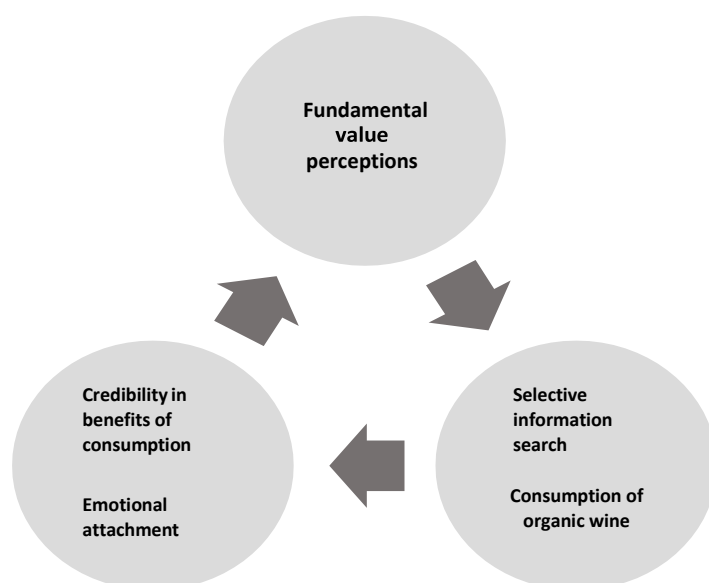


Figure 14: Selective attention in the value perceptions of organic wine consumers

This study, therefore, suggests that the emotional value dimension plays a dual role in terms of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. First, the emotional dimension acts as an independent value dimension in determining the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Second, the emotional dimension influences how organic wine consumers perceive value in the benefits that they believe can be obtained from the consumption of organic wine. As such, the study suggests that the emotional relationship of organic wine consumers with organic wine is a significant determinant in their value perceptions.

Socio-demographic characteristics and involvement

Some studies have suggested that consumers' socio-demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, income and marital status, influence preference for organic wine (Crescimanno et al., 2002; Mann et al., 2012). Other studies suggest that organic wine consumers are generally better educated than conventional wine consumers (Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005). However, this study supports the research indicating that the development of the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers is independent of consumers' socio-demographic characteristics (Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010; Janssen et al., 2012; Ogbeide, 2013). The study also finds no association between the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants and their consumption loyalty to organic wine. The only exception is that the age of the participants who are primarily conventional wine consumers is higher as a group than that of the organic wine consumers. However, one explanation for these observations is that the study employed purposive sampling in the selection of a relatively small number of organic and conventional wine consumers. Similar value perceptions were held by participants who professed little knowledge of wine and organic wine, as well as participants who claimed to be knowledgeable about both types

of wine.

7.3.3 Value perceptions of organic wine consumers at purchase and consumption

Section 7.3.2 reviewed the development of the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers. This section discusses this study's findings in relation to how organic wine consumers manifest their fundamental value perceptions in their purchase and consumption behaviours. In doing so, the section highlights several contributions to our current understanding.

It is important to understand the behaviour of the participants at the time of purchase and consumption of organic wine as it sheds light on two aspects of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. First, consumer behaviour at purchase and consumption shows how organic wine consumers' value perceptions operate in practice rather than in the abstract. Second, understanding the relationship between value perceptions and actual behaviour offers an understanding of why many organic wine consumers float between the purchase and consumption of organic and conventional wine. The study also contributes to understanding the willingness to pay a premium of organic wine consumers, a topic which has been the subject of a considerable body of consumption research (Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005; Ogbeide, 2013; Remaud et al., 2008).

This section comprises four parts. Section 7.3.3.1 shows how the strength of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers is reflected in their consumption loyalty to organic wine. Section 7.3.3.2 discusses how external factors influence the behaviour of organic wine consumers. The section also explains why organic wine consumers may choose to purchase and consume conventional rather than organic wine. In the process, the section discusses the issue of dissonance in relation to the behaviour of organic wine consumers. Section 7.3.3.3 proceeds to discuss the question of organic wine consumers who also purchase and consume conventional wine. Section 7.3.3.4 concludes by examining why organic wine consumers display a willingness to pay a premium for organic wine.

7.3.3.1 Consumption loyalty

Previous organic wine studies tend to merge investigation into the attitudes and beliefs of organic wine consumers with explanations for their behaviour at the time of purchase and consumption. These studies also approach research with the assumption that consumers make a choice between conventional and organic wine at the time of purchase based upon a cognitive assessment of alternatives (Sogari et al., 2015; Sogari, Mora, & Menozzi, 2016; Tsourgiannis et al., 2015). Consequently, such studies provide only a limited understanding of why the professed (positive) attitudes of a segment of consumers towards organic wine often do not lead to actual purchase

(Janssen et al., 2012).

Most earlier wine literature treats consumers as either conventional or organic wine consumers and ascribes a different motivation to each group (Olsen et al., 2012). This study, on the other hand, shows that the fundamental value perceptions of the participants lead to the development of consumption loyalty to organic wine based upon their emotional attachment to organic wine. Organic wine consumers, therefore, sit on a continuum ranging from those who consume exclusively organic wine to those who consume small proportions of organic wine within their overall wine consumption. Consequently, this study's findings are consistent with earlier research suggesting that most organic consumers consume both organic and conventional products (Buder et al., 2014; Gregory-Smith et al., 2013; Janssen et al., 2012).

This study also shows that the degree of consumption loyalty displayed by the participants is unrelated to their perception of the benefits they believe they obtain from the consumption of organic wine. However, there are clear differences in the comments of the participants in relation to their emotional attachment to organic wine.

This study shows that the degree of enduring loyalty of the participants to organic wine leads to various levels of consumption loyalty. This, in turn, determines the proportion of organic wine that the participants consume within their overall wine consumption. However, organic wine consumers face several constraints that influence their ability to behave according to their preferred consumption loyalty. This is examined in the following section.

7.3.3.2 Behavioural constraints

This study shows that there are two main constraints on the ability of the participants to act in accordance with their consumption loyalty to organic wine. The first is the social aspects of wine consumption, notably the company in which the participants consume wine and the consumption occasion. The second entails practical constraints, such as organic wine availability or shortage of funds. The study extends the current knowledge by showing that organic wine consumers do not feel discomfort when they are unable to follow their preferred consumption loyalty to organic wine due to constraints and display considerable flexibility with regard to their actual purchase and consumption behaviour (Szmigin et al., 2009).

The study shows that organic wine consumers make a conscious decision to purchase and consume organic or conventional wine according to the consumption occasion and the company with whom they are consuming wine. Consequently, even participants who are committed organic wine consumers purchase conventional as well as organic wine when they are in the company of wine consumers who do not appreciate organic wine. They do so out of respect for the

preferences of their guests. A secondary motive is the feeling that organic wine is special and should be reserved for those who appreciate it. Serving organic wine to those who do not appreciate it is, therefore, a waste.

In terms of practical constraints, this study is consistent with previous research that establishes the factors which might prevent organic wine consumers from purchasing organic wine (IPSOS, 2011, 2014, 2015; Stolz & Schmid, 2008). Such constraints include the limited availability of organic wine and higher prices. However, this study finds that organic wine consumers are aware of the retail outlets where they can purchase organic wine and rarely find themselves unable to source organic wine. Consequently, the study shows that the lack of availability of a specific grape variety that a participant wishes to purchase or consume is a greater constraint than lack of organic wine per se. A more significant practical constraint is the lack of funds, given the comparatively higher price of organic wine. Both limited availability and shortage of funds can lead the participants to purchase conventional wine instead of organic wine on occasions.

Earlier studies have argued that organic consumers need to reconcile conflicting priorities when purchasing organic products. Conflicting priorities include family requirements, convenience, and price (Szmigin et al., 2009). These constraints lead organic consumers to purchase non-organic products, contrary to their attitudes and beliefs. The findings of this study are consistent with such literature in that they show organic wine consumers are constrained in their ability to follow their consumption loyalty. However, the findings of this study are contrary to the earlier literature, which argues that organic consumers feel guilt when they engage in non-altruistic behaviour by purchasing conventional products (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013). This feeling of guilt reflects dissonant behaviour (McEachern & McClean, 2002; Szmigin et al., 2009). Such studies argue that dissonant behaviour leads organic consumers to feel discomfort, which inclines them to compensate for non-altruistic acts by performing altruistic acts on future occasions to achieve consistency in behaviour (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013; Thøgersen, 2004). This study, however, indicates that the participants do not perceive any conflict between their fundamental value perceptions and the need to purchase and consume conventional wine on specific occasions or when in company. Even participants who exclusively consume organic wine personally purchase conventional wine for their guests. Organic wine consumers, therefore, make a rational and cognitive decision to accommodate the requirements of company or occasion as well as practical issues such as shortage of funds.

One reason for the lack of discomfort when purchasing and consuming conventional wine is that the participants recognise that the requirement to purchase (and consume) conventional wine is temporary and do not attach any major significance to it. The study participants do not feel the

need to justify to themselves any temporary inconsistencies between their values and their behaviour. They also do not feel that their values are compromised in any way by purchasing or consuming conventional wine. Consequently, the purchase and consumption of conventional wine do not cause either cognitive or post-purchase dissonance (Hidalgo-Baz et al., 2017). Consequently, they do not need to reconcile their behaviour internally. In fact, the comments of the participants suggest an element of pity for conventional wine consumers when they have to purchase conventional wine to accommodate the tastes of their guests. Hence, in some respects, purchasing conventional wine on occasion serves to reinforce the values of organic wine consumers by reminding them why they consume organic wine in the first place. Consequently, the findings emerging from this study are consistent with those of Szmigin et al. (2009), who argue that organic consumers are flexible in relation to their actual purchases and that the purchase of conventional rather than organic products does not compromise the integrity of their values.

As would be expected, however, the study did indicate that the participants with lower levels of consumption loyalty to organic wine are more likely to purchase conventional wine. However, even participants with high organic wine consumption loyalty do not display dissonant behaviour when purchasing conventional wine. Such participants accept that they cannot purchase organic wine on every occasion. In this regard, the participants display highly flexible and practical behaviour.

Consequently, this study extends the current understanding by showing how organic wine consumers are prepared to reconcile their consumption loyalty to organic wine with conflicting priorities when faced with constraints on their behaviour. However, the participants show flexibility when making such decisions and do so cognitively, without compromising the integrity of their fundamental values.

7.3.3.3 Floating organic wine consumers

The findings of this study also answer the second research question posed in the study: why does a segment of organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine?

Prior research into the purchase of organic products generally notes that many organic consumers also consume conventional products (Buder et al., 2014; Gregory-Smith et al., 2013; Krömker & Matthies, 2014). However, only a small number of studies investigate this phenomenon in relation to organic wine (Janssen et al., 2012). Such studies also provide an incomplete explanation for why organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine. The findings of this study extend the understanding of the phenomenon of floating consumers by showing that there are three main reasons why organic wine consumers also purchase and

consume conventional wine.

First, the participants sit on a continuum in relation to their consumption loyalty to organic wine. Some participants possess a strong consumption loyalty to organic wine, while for other participants, organic wine represents just another consumption option in addition to conventional wine. Consumption loyalty to organic wine is based upon consumers' fundamental value perceptions of organic wine and is primarily influenced by the emotional attachment of organic wine consumers to organic wine. Consequently, a proportion of the participants who do not display a strong emotional attachment to organic wine also purchase and consume conventional wine. Second, organic wine consumers can be constrained in their ability to purchase and consume organic wine by the occasion and social company. As a result, even heavily committed organic wine consumers also purchase (and may consume) conventional wine. Third, practical constraints such as the unavailability of the grape variety sought, shortage of funds or shopping convenience also cause the participants to purchase and consume conventional wine on occasion.

This study extends current understanding by explaining why organic wine consumers float between the consumption and purchase of organic and conventional wine. As noted in section 7.3.3.2, the participants do not feel any dissonance in moving from organic to conventional wine and do not feel that floating between organic and conventional wine compromises their integrity as organic wine consumers (Szmigin et al., 2009). Floating is required to reconcile competing priorities, is temporary and is not considered to be significant.

7.3.3.4 Confirmation of value at the time of purchase and willingness to pay a premium

The research questions posed in this study did not require an investigation into the preferences of organic wine consumers in terms of selection between diverse types or varieties of organic wine. However, the study does indicate that when the participants decide to purchase organic wine, they seek additional confirmation of the quality of the organic wines that are on sale. This additional confirmation reflects the need to confirm that the organic wines on sale will provide the benefits which the participants seek through organic wine consumption. In this sense, the search for confirmation of quality in the organic wine on sale represents a risk reduction strategy, especially as the participants experiment with unknown organic wines.

The additional confirmation of quality sought by the participants at the time of purchase is achieved through organic certification on organic wine bottles as a guarantee of the organic origin of a wine. Even participants who are unsure of the meaning of particular certifications, or doubt the reliability of certification, consider certification to be an important guarantee of origin. Consequently, this study confirms prior research indicating the importance of organic

certification for organic wine consumers (Delmas, 2010; Delmas et al., 2016; Delmas & Grant, 2008, 2014; Delmas & Lessem, 2014).

The findings of this study also show that most participants acknowledge that organic wine costs more than similar conventional wine. However, this study extends the current understanding by showing that willingness to pay a premium reflects the perception of organic wine consumers that organic wine is of better quality than conventional wine and the consequent need to pay a premium to secure that superior quality. In addition, willingness to pay a premium also represents a risk reduction strategy, which reduces the possibility of purchasing a poor quality wine. In addition, the participants consider willingness to pay a premium to be a mechanism through which they can reward producers for the extra care and attention in the production process. This represents the search for authenticity and quality in organic wine. These findings contradict the previous studies arguing that organic wine consumers are prepared to pay a premium because of organic wine's sustainable qualities (Barreiro-Hurlé et al., 2008; Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005; Ogbeide, 2013; Remaud et al., 2008).

Furthermore, this study also shows that participants do not display a willingness to pay a premium at each purchase occasion and may be prepared to purchase conventional wine if they cannot find an organic wine of the grape variety which they seek or if they do not have sufficient funds to afford organic wine on a particular occasion. They will purchase conventional wine under such circumstances without compromising their fundamental value perceptions or their enduring relationship with organic wine.

Finally, the study finds that the participants generally assess the amount of willingness to pay a premium in absolute terms – ‘a couple of pounds more’ (Bruce, M) – rather than a percentage, which is the usual method of assessing willingness to pay a premium in organic wine studies (Bazoche et al., 2008). This suggests that the absolute amount of extra premium is limited by the participants' budget and that if the difference between the price of organic wine and a similar conventional wine is too great, the participants may purchase the conventional wine.

7.3.4 Value perceptions of organic wine consumers when speaking to others

Earlier literature suggests that organic wine consumers seek social prestige through their organic wine consumption (Mann et al., 2012, 2010; Ogbeide, 2013). However, this study contradicts previous research by showing that although many study participants feel superior to conventional wine consumers, they do not consume organic wine because they wish to be seen to be doing so. Indeed, on the contrary, organic wine consumers do not wish to display their consumption of organic wine in front of acquaintances. The study findings show that the participants are cautious

regarding speaking to others about organic wine as they respect their views and are concerned not to be viewed as being alternative, hippy or different by speaking about a subject – organic wine – which others may not understand. The participants also showed some concerns about becoming the object of ridicule.

In addition, the participants consider the consumption of organic wine to be a private matter, like politics or religion. The term convert was used on several occasions by the participants when speaking about how they discuss organic wine with others. The use of this term is indicative of the perception that organic wine consumption is akin to a semi-religious experience. However, as with a religion, the participants show concern not to cause social embarrassment by being considered to be forcing their ideas on others. Consequently, the findings of this study run contrary to prior research by suggesting that organic wine consumers do not wish to speak about organic wine, which they consider to be a private matter. This means that organic wine consumers carefully select the person with whom they speak about organic wine, as well as the occasion, to minimise the risk of social embarrassment or rejection.

This study also shows that organic wine consumers possess value perceptions about which they will speak publicly as well as more personal value perceptions about which they do not speak. In particular, the participants do not speak about their private value perceptions in relation to organic wine and avoid discussion of their emotional attachment to organic wine.

Consequently, when speaking to others, the participants focus upon a limited range of intrinsic attributes of organic wine, primarily better taste and the immediate and long-term health benefits, which are less complex and easier to convey to others. In this regard, the study findings also run counter to prior research suggesting that organic wine consumers seek social prestige by speaking about and being seen to consume organic wine (Mueller et al., 2011).

7.3.5 Revised conceptual model of value perceptions of organic wine consumers

This study extends the current knowledge by redefining the role of each of the value dimensions identified in the adapted consumption-value model used in the previous literature, as well as identifying the relationship between the dimensions. The result is a new conceptual model of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers (see Figure 15).

In the revised conceptual model, only the functional and the emotional value dimensions influence the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The social aspects of wine consumption (company and occasion) influence the decision of the participants regarding whether to purchase and consume organic or conventional wine but do not play a role in the development of value perceptions per se. The revised conceptual model also treats risk reduction

strategy, wine knowledge and socio-demographic as factors that play a role in the selection between different organic wines at the time of actual purchase but do not influence the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers. However, it was beyond the scope of this study to investigate how organic wine consumers choose between different organic wines.

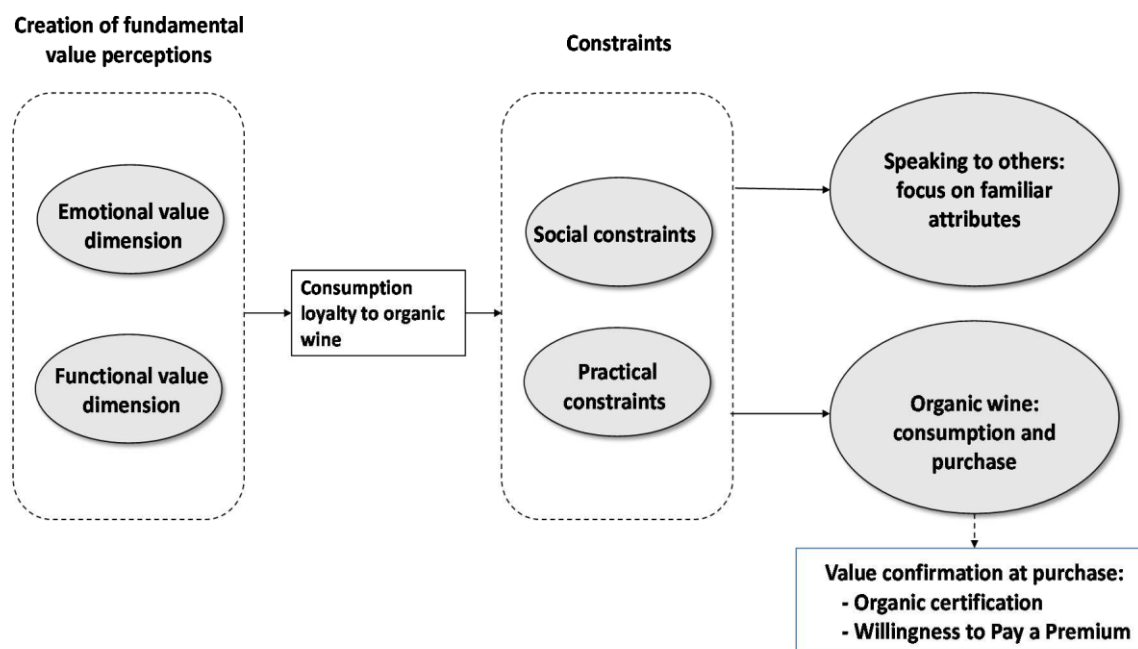


Figure 15: A revised conceptual model of development and manifestation of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers

Moreover, this study suggests that the construct of perceived behaviour control from the theory of planned behaviour can assist in understanding why organic wine consumers do not always behave according to their purchase intentions. Perceived behaviour control is the perceived ability to engage in behaviour, irrespective of the value that the consumer attributes to a product (Ajzen, 1991). The construct of perceived behaviour can be used to explain the variance between the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers and their actual behaviour. This study shows that the participants recognise they do not have control over their behaviour due to a number of constraints but are flexible in their response to such constraints. The introduction of the construct of constraints, or controls, into the consumption-value model, therefore, treats the social aspects of wine consumption, as well as practical constraints, as perceived behaviour control rather than as value dimensions or as moderating factors.

The construct of perceived behaviour control can be used to explain the variance between the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers and their actual behaviour. This study shows that the participants recognise they do not have control over their behaviour due to a number

of constraints but are flexible in their response to such constraints.

The introduction of the construct of constraints, or controls, into the consumption-value model, therefore, treats the social aspects of wine consumption, as well as practical constraints, as perceived behaviour control rather than as value dimensions in their own right or as moderating factors. Figure 15 illustrates a revised conceptual model of development and manifestation of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

7.4 Contribution and significance of the study findings

A grounded theory study needs to present conceptual ideas which identify patterns in an event so that readers can understand what is going on (Glaser, 2016). In addition, grounded theory concepts need to have an ‘enduring grab’ (Glaser, 2002a, p. 24). This section assesses the significance and enduring grab of this thesis.

Studies need to be context- and product-specific To understand a complex subject such as consumer decision making (Erasmus et al., 2001). In addition, the research needs to reflect the fact that consumer decisions are not always rational and that the world has to be interpreted from the perspective of individuals (Erasmus et al., 2001). This research is, therefore, significant as it is a product-specific study that presents fresh insights regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers based on the voices of organic wine consumers themselves.

This study makes five major contributions regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. These contributions extend or refine existing theories and concepts (Charmaz, 2014) about how organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions.

7.4.1 Development of organic wine value perceptions as a process

The first contribution that this study makes is the value perceptions of organic wine consumers develop as a process. Consequently, the value perceptions of organic wine consumers are not fixed and evolve over time through the interplay between the emotions generated by organic wine and the benefits that organic wine consumers believe they obtain through the consumption of organic wine. Through this process, organic wine consumers develop a specific identity as organic wine consumers. This identity is based upon an enduring involvement (Bloch & Richins, 1983) with organic wine. These findings are significant as prior organic wine studies have assumed that consumers choose between organic and conventional wine based upon an assessment of different variables (Loveless et al., 2010; Mann et al., 2012; Mueller Loose & Lockshin, 2013). Prior organic wine studies have also generally been based upon a ‘snap shot’ of professed consumer values at the purchase point (Barreiro-Hurlé et al., 2008; Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005; Forbes et al.,

2009) rather than on an understanding of the overall process of creating an identity as an organic wine consumer.

This study is also significant as it shows that organic wine consumers use selective attention when gathering information about organic wine (Janiszewski et al., 2013; Szmigin et al., 2009). This process of selective attention means that organic wine consumers enter a cycle in which restricted information gathering reinforces the (selective) perceptions that they hold regarding organic wine, leading to a greater focus on the consumption of organic wine.

In addition, earlier organic wine studies have argued that personal moral values (Thøgersen, 2002) and the sustainable nature of organic wine (Schäufele & Hamm, 2017) are the main motivation for organic wine consumers to consume organic wine. This study, on the other hand, shows that the value perceptions of organic wine consumers are predominantly selfish and personal. The study, therefore, runs counter to prior organic wine research, which argues that organic wine consumers are fundamentally altruistic (Barber et al., 2009; Bonn et al., 2016; Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Janssen et al., 2012; Tsourgiannis et al., 2015). In doing so, this study contributes, from the perspective of organic wine to a small but growing strand of research into the selfish motivation of organic consumers generally (McEachern & McClean, 2002).

This study also notes that the participants who are organic wine consumers use language reminiscent of a religious or political belief. In particular, the identity which organic wine consumers develop reinforces feelings of superiority in relation to conventional wine consumers. As a result, like a religion, organic wine consumers attribute credibility to the intangible benefits of organic wine consumption even in the absence of scientific proof (Brandt & Mølgaard, 2001; Hughner et al., 2007; Siderer et al., 2005). This process is reinforced by the use of selective attention when gathering information about organic wine. Consequently, this study refines the existing understanding by showing how the emotions generated by organic wine influence the perception of the benefits obtained through organic wine consumption.

The study also indicates that socio-demographic characteristics, such as income, education and age, as well as consumer knowledge and involvement, do not always influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. This runs counter to studies that suggest that socio-demographic characteristics have an influence on the behaviour of organic wine consumers (Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005; Crescimanno et al., 2002). However, these findings are consistent with other research, which suggests that socio-demographic characteristics do not play a significant role in influencing the value perceptions of organic wine consumers (Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010; Janssen et al., 2012; Ogbeide, 2013).

7.4.2 Role of emotional and functional value dimensions

The contribution of the study is significant as it shows the functional and emotional value dimensions influence the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. The study also shows that the value perceptions of organic wine consumers develop through an interplay between the functional and emotional dimensions.

These findings refine prior organic wine studies that have assigned levels of importance to the different value dimensions (Cohen, 2009; Fountain & Lamb, 2011; Hoffmann & Szolnoki, 2010; Lockshin & Hall, 2003; Neeley et al., 2010; Schamel & Bosnjak, 2014; Schäufole & Hamm, 2017; Schmid et al., 2009; Sogari et al., 2013a). This study also makes a contribution to the current understanding by showing that factors such as consumption occasion, the social aspects of wine consumption and attitude towards risk do not play a role in the development of the fundamental value perceptions of organic wine consumers in regard to organic wine. Such factors do, however, influence actual purchase behaviour. This runs contrary to prior organic wine research arguing that the social aspects of organic wine consumption are important for consumers (Mann et al., 2012; Mueller et al., 2011; Tsourgiannis et al., 2015).

This study also offers a revised understanding of the properties of the functional and emotional dimensions and what they mean to organic wine consumers. In particular, this study refines the understanding of the perception of consumers regarding organic wine attributes, such as taste or health benefits, and extends the current knowledge by developing an understanding of how organic wine consumers perceive organic wine quality. The study also shows that the emotional dimension is not related to the moral values or altruism of organic wine consumers but instead comprises wider and deeper value perceptions related to the emotions generated through the consumption of organic wine.

7.4.3 Revised conceptual model of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers

This study also proposes a revised conceptual model of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers based upon the development of an identity as an organic wine consumer. This model differs from the conceptual models used in previous organic wine research, such as the Value belief norm and attitude behaviour context model (Schäufole & Hamm, 2017) or the adapted model of consumption-values theory (Sheth et al., 1991). Primarily, the conceptual model proposed in this study re-orders the value dimensions that influence organic wine consumers and proposes a new definition of the emotional and social dimensions. The revised conceptual model also distinguishes between fundamental value dimensions and purchase and consumption occasions. In doing so, the model treats consumption occasion and social context as constraints on

consumer behaviour rather than value dimensions. Consequently, the conceptual model proposed (re)introduces the concept of constraints on behaviour from the theory planned of behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) to understand how the value perceptions of organic wine consumers are manifested in purchase and consumption behaviour.

7.4.4 Why do organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine?

This study is significant as it extends the current understanding of why organic wine consumers also consume conventional wine. Few prior studies have investigated floating organic wine consumers, although Janssen et al. (2012) suggest that most organic wine consumers also purchase and consume conventional wine. Indeed, most prior research treats organic and conventional wine consumers as separate groups and seeks to identify differences in motivation between the two groups (Bernabéu et al., 2008; Fotopoulos et al., 2002, 2003; Loveless et al., 2010; Mueller et al., 2011; Remaud et al., 2008; Thach & Olsen, 2006). However, this study shows that organic wine consumers lie on a continuum between individuals who consume exclusively organic wine and those for whom organic wine is just an alternative. These differences are based upon the level of consumption loyalty to organic wine, which itself reflects the strength of emotional attachment to organic wine. In addition, this study is significant as it shows that most organic wine consumers are constrained in their actual purchase and consumption behaviour by social as well as practical factors. Consequently, organic wine consumers display flexibility in their actual purchase habits. However, when organic wine consumers purchase conventional wine, they do not feel they are compromising the integrity of their fundamental value perceptions and do not feel discomfort when doing so. This flexibility avoids dissonance problems. These findings support the position of Szmigin et al. (2009), who identifies the importance of flexibility in the behaviour of organic consumers. These findings run contrary to research that argues that organic consumers feel discomfort when they cannot purchase organic products (Gregory-Smith et al., 2013; Thøgersen, 2004).

7.4.5 Willingness of organic wine consumers to pay a premium for organic wine

Finally, the study is significant as it presents a new understanding of the willingness to pay a premium of organic wine consumers. Prior studies argue that the willingness to pay a premium of organic wine consumers is due to organic wine's sustainable characteristics, specifically a concern for environmental protection and personal health (Barreiro-Hurlé et al., 2008; Brugarolas Mollá-Bauzá et al., 2005; Ogbeide, 2013, 2015; Mueller et al., 2011; Olsen et al., 2012; Remaud et al., 2008; Vecchio, 2013). However, this study shows that organic wine consumers view organic wine as a luxury product, which brings emotional and physical benefits. They, therefore, accept that

organic wine is going to be more expensive than conventional wine and that they must pay a premium to secure the superior quality of organic wine. Consequently, the findings of this study run contrary to prior research, which stresses the importance of organic wine's sustainable qualities to the willingness to pay a premium.

7.5 Validity and credibility of the study

The section evaluates the validity and credibility of this grounded theory study against the four criteria proposed by Charmaz (2014) – credibility, originality, resonance and usefulness.

7.5.1 Credibility

Credibility reflects whether the claims made in a study are merited by the evidence. The researcher gathered rich data from multiple sources and stayed close to the data through initial and process coding, thereby ensuring that the emerging categories reflected the realities of the participants. The researcher also explored emerging categories with different participants on multiple occasions, generating sensitivity to developing concepts. This approach led to familiarity with the value perceptions of the participants in relation to organic wine and with the participants themselves.

The use of theoretical sampling up to the point of theoretical saturation also enhanced the credibility of the study by enabling the researcher to check initial ideas with later participants, thereby ensuring that the emerging categories stayed close to the views of the participants. This approach helped to reduce the risk of researcher bias. Theoretical sampling also enabled the researcher to ascertain that sufficient data had been collected to support the emergent theory.

Procedural credibility was achieved through the rigorous application of constructivist grounded theory procedures to the data. The iterative process of data collection and constant comparison allowed the researcher to pursue fresh avenues of analysis that were engendered by the comparisons. An examination of outliers and negative cases, as well as comparisons between participants, ensured that sufficient systematic comparisons had been undertaken to identify categories. In addition, the categories identified covered a wide range of observations from both conventional and organic wine consumers and were allowed to develop as the interview process progressed. As a result, the emergent theory is grounded in the data gathered through the discussions.

The study also contains quotes from the participants. These quotes provide support for the discussion of the study findings and are included to allow the reader to arrive at their own assessment of the credibility of the study. The inclusion of quotes also allows the reader to assess the degree to which the study is grounded in the data and identify any researcher bias in the

analysis. The provision of the names of the participants in the form of pseudonyms enables the reader to identify with the participants, therefore providing context and a personal connection with the findings.

Although the researcher undertook the coding and analysis alone, without the assistance of a second coder, the emergent ideas were discussed with the supervisory panel participating in this study to help mitigate researcher bias. In addition, the researcher spoke to other academic researchers familiar with qualitative methods as well as to fellow wine researchers. The researcher also sought the opinions of organic wine consumers outside the study and spoke to wine traders familiar with organic wine consumers. Consequently, the emergent categories were developed with comments from multiple sources familiar with organic wine to confirm their credibility.

7.5.2 Originality

Originality reflects whether a study offers new insights. This study adds to the considerable body of prior research on the attitudes of organic wine consumers by showing that value perceptions develop as a process. In doing so, this study develops new concepts regarding the emotional attachment of consumers to organic wine and offers fresh insights into the relationship between the values of organic wine consumers and their actual behaviour. This approach offers an alternative understanding of the concept of cognitive and behavioural dissonance, which is generally found in the research on organic products. Consequently, the study adds to the understanding of why organic wine consumers float between organic and conventional wine. The study also addresses topics that have not been investigated in previous organic wine research, such as the relationship between fundamental value perceptions and the actual purchase and consumption behaviour of organic wine consumers. The result is a refined conceptual model regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers.

In addition to the theoretical significance of the findings, this study also has practical implications. By identifying how organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions, the study highlights the need to refocus the marketing of organic wine onto the personal benefits obtained by the consumer and away from altruistic aspects, such as environmental protection. In this respect, the implications of the study for the organic industry are significant.

7.5.3 Resonance

Resonance reflects whether a study makes sense and the categories convey the detail and depth of the voices of the participants. The researcher took care to allow the participants to speak freely and not lead them in the discussions. As a result, the study reflects the fullness of the experience

of organic wine consumers. The researcher also explored what various concepts, such as *health benefits*, *environment protection* and *organic wine quality*, mean for the participants rather than making assumptions about the meanings of these terms. Therefore, the study identifies new facets in meanings, which are taken for granted in prior organic wine studies. This enabled the researcher to understand the experience of organic wine consumers more ‘in-depth’.

In addition, using constant comparisons, an examination of outliers and an analysis of negative cases, the researcher developed an understanding of how the participants who are primarily organic wine consumers and the participants who are primarily conventional wine consumers differ in their value perceptions of organic wine. This process of comparison enabled the researcher to contextualise the comments of organic wine consumers, leading to the identification of the process of *Manifesting Identity* as an organic wine consumer.

Finally, due to the iterative process of data collection and analysis, the researcher was able to pursue emerging categories in discussions with the participants as the study progressed. As a result, the participants interviewed later in the study had the opportunity to comment upon the researcher’s emerging conclusions. This provided an opportunity to test the emergent theory with the participants and resulted in participant reflection about their personal relationship with organic wine, adding to the depth of the study.

7.5.4 Usefulness

Usefulness reflects whether a study contributes to knowledge and whether any generic processes can be identified in the findings. In this regard, this study makes a theoretical contribution to the current knowledge by enhancing understanding of the process through which organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions. The findings of the study can also serve as a basis for further research into organic products generally, thereby contributing to a more generalisable theory in relation to organic products.

In addition, the study contributes to understanding consumer behaviour in relation to sustainable products such as organic wine, thereby contributing to models of consumer behaviour that have wider applications beyond organic wine. Consequently, the study serves as a launching pad for ideas that can enhance the generalisability of the study to theory.

This study also makes a practical contribution. Through understanding how organic wine consumers develop and manifest their value perceptions, the study offers insights that wine marketers can use in their marketing strategies of organic products, thereby leading to greater market penetration.

7.6 Study limitations

Constructivist grounded theory procedures provide the researcher with powerful tools to understand the processes from the point of view of the study participants without relying upon a priori hypotheses or theories. With these procedures, the researcher was able to develop an understanding of the processes that drive the development and manifestation of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. However, the study was based on only 25 interviews carried out in London. Whilst care was taken to include a range of participants in terms of both socio-demographic characteristics and attitude towards organic wine, the study could only cover a small range of possible combinations. In addition, the use of theoretical sampling meant that the researcher selected specific participants to explore more deeply the emerging categories. Nevertheless, through strict adherence to constructivist grounded theory procedures, the study presents an understanding of the process through which organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions about organic wine.

Any qualitative research method depends upon the ability of the researcher to use the tools at their disposal (Bazeley, 2013). Although one of the strengths of qualitative research is the ability to derive understanding and meaning from large quantities of data, this can also be considered a limitation as it allows for the possibility of researcher bias (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). The possibility of researcher bias is particularly high in interpretive qualitative methods such as constructivist grounded theory (El Hussein et al., 2014). Researchers may fail to recognise their own bias and interpret the data through their own worldview (Whittemore & Chase, 2001). The researcher may also become lost in the data and develop a descriptive theory rather than move to the interpretive level (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Nevertheless, by paying careful attention to the issues of validity and credibility in the research process, including discussions of the findings with the supervisory panel, fellow researchers and organic wine consumers themselves, the researcher took steps to limit these investigative risks.

Finally, the theory presented in the study does not assume generalisability to other settings and contexts. However, when comparing the findings of this study with research into organic products generally, the researcher identified aspects that suggested transferability to other contexts beyond organic wine. However, the potential generalisability of this study requires further investigation to confirm the relevance of the findings to other substantive areas of academic interest.

7.7 Suggestions for future research

Whilst this study has identified the processes through which organic wine consumers develop and

manifest their value perceptions about organic wine, several of the findings would benefit from further research to determine their applicability in other contexts.

First, the contextual generalisability of the study can be investigated through additional studies in other regions of the UK or in other countries. This would involve similar qualitative research being conducted in additional locations to investigate the applicability of the processes identified in this study in other contexts.

Second, the research could investigate in greater detail specific dimensions of the processes identified in this study. For instance, this study showed that selective attention plays a significant role in the development of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. A study into the way in which organic wine consumers acquire information about organic wine and their acceptance of benefits that are intangible would shed light on how selective attention influences, or leads to, a cycle of self-reinforcing argumentation about the value of organic wine. A second research area that would benefit from a deeper study is an examination into the relationship between the development of the emotions generated by organic wine and the creation of consumption habits. Such a study would not only have academic relevance but would also be of significant value to marketers of organic wine.

Third, the researcher could develop hypotheses based upon the results of this study and then use a quantitative methodology to test the extent to which the results can be generalised to wider populations, either in the UK or internationally. Such an approach would also allow for a segmentation study of organic wine consumers. A significant difference from prior quantitative studies into organic wine consumers, however, would be that the research based on the findings of this study would be able to shed light on the reasons behind the behaviour of different segments of organic wine consumers rather than remain descriptive.

Finally, this study identified processes that are applicable to organic wine. It would be of major significance, both academically and practically, to investigate the generalisability of the processes identified in this study to the consumption of organic food. An understanding of the value dimensions which influence consumers of organic products generally, and the role of the emotions, would identify points of similarity and difference between organic food consumers and organic wine consumers. This would be important where individuals consume both organic food as well as organic wine. Such a study would be significant not only for academic research into the motivations of organic consumers but also for marketers of organic products as it could indicate ways to enhance the market penetration of organic products by targeting organic consumers based upon an understanding of their value drivers.

7.8 Researcher reflections

In terms of the research process itself, the researcher was initially concerned about using computers to assist the coding process. Given that this study was the researcher's first research project using NVivo, the researcher was concerned about the risk of focusing too heavily on detailed coding and losing sight of the overall picture as a result. However, by stepping back and reading whole transcripts on a regular basis as well as regularly reviewing the codes, themes and emerging categories, the researcher felt that she was able to maintain distance from the codes. In addition, she was able to ensure that the level and degree of coding was sufficient to meet the requirements of analysis while maintaining an understanding of the whole picture.

The researcher was also concerned initially that a constructivist grounded theory study might not be suitable for research into the value perceptions of organic wine consumers and that she might not be able to identify the processes at work. An additional concern was that the iterative process of interviews and analysis would be time-consuming and might not result in an updated understanding. However, while testing hypotheses drawn from prior literature through a quantitative study would almost certainly have been a less onerous and time-consuming process, the use of constructivist grounded theory led to the emergence of a new theory regarding the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. Such an understanding would not have been possible through the testing of hypotheses drawn from previous studies. Consequently, the researcher feels that the extra effort was worthwhile.

The researcher also feels that the study raised a considerable number of suggestions for future research, including extending the findings of the study into research regarding organic products generally. As such, the theoretical contribution goes beyond the findings of this study and offers a number of ideas for more general investigation. If the researcher had set out to test hypotheses drawn from the prior literature rather than develop an updated understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers, it is unlikely that the findings of the study would have had such potential for wider significance.

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APPENDIX A

DEVELOPMENT OF THE THEORY

The purpose of Appendix A is to provide details about the way in which I collected and analysed the data. Appendix A, therefore, complements Chapters 3 and 4, which outlined the research strategy and research method. It also provides support to the findings outlined in Chapters 5 and 6. Appendix A is important as it shows the extent to which care was taken to ensure the credibility of the study by ensuring that the claims in the findings are supported by the evidence. Appendix A also outlines the background to the study and shows how that journey influenced the literature review and research methodology. As the journey was very personal, Appendix A is written using the first person singular.

Development of the research questions

The two research questions that shaped the research methodology and research strategy emerged from an iterative process of interaction between myself, as a researcher, the literature, organic wine producers and retailers and wine consumers.

During 2014, I undertook a wide-ranging review of the literature concerning organic food, conventional and organic wine consumers and consumer behaviour. I also attended a number of wine industry trade fairs, primarily in Germany, Italy and the UK, where I interacted with producers, retailers and consumers, including organic wine consumers. I also started to discuss the motivation of wine consumers in relation to the purchase and consumption of organic wine informally. My intention was to compare the views of industry practitioners and consumers with the findings in academic studies. I noted that organic wine studies placed considerable emphasis on the values and beliefs of consumers, such as concern for environmental protection when investigating how organic wine consumers develop their value perceptions of organic wine. In addition, there is a considerable body of research into consumers' willingness to pay a premium for organic wine. Most studies attributed willingness to pay a premium to a wine's sustainable qualities. I also noted that there was extensive research into the role of factors such as occasion in the wine literature generally but that there was little research on the influence of these factors in the case of organic wine. Discussions with industry practitioners and with consumers at trade fairs also suggested to me that many organic wine studies investigated idealised intentions rather than actual purchase or consumption behaviour. In addition, while organic wine studies stressed consumers' values and beliefs, comments from industry practitioners and wine consumers suggested to me that the relationship between attitudes and a wine's quality was more complicated than the organic wine research suggested. In addition, as I looked at samples of questions in surveys, I felt that they were perhaps leading respondents in their answers

due to their reliance on a priori theories. Consequently, I began to have doubts about some of the fundamental arguments contained in the organic wine literature.

Therefore, I spoke to three small producers in Malta who follow organic production methods but are not certified to obtain their views on the motivation of organic wine consumers. I also spoke to one of the main producers of biodynamic and organic wine in the UK. As these initial interviews suggested that there were differences between the organic wine literature and the behaviour of consumers in practice, I decided to undertake a short field study in mid-2015 to investigate the views of producers and retailers regarding the motivation of organic wine consumers. During this fieldwork, I ended up speaking to 25 Italian and German producers and retailers. Participants were selected on a convenience basis. My aim was to identify themes that might help me with my review of the literature and focus more clearly on the gaps in the current understanding of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. These discussions suggested that the interplay between organic wine's intrinsic attributes and consumers' personal beliefs was complex. They also indicated that the distinction between organic and conventional wine consumers was not absolute and that a significant number of organic wine consumers also purchased conventional wine because they liked both. The comments also threw doubt on the importance of environmental factors as a motivation for organic wine consumers. Willingness to pay a premium was attributed to consumers' confidence in the producer and the quality of the wine rather than an organic wine's sustainable characteristics.

These interviews led me to re-visit the literature as well as seek new research that might inform my study of the value perceptions of organic wine consumers. While undertaking this second review of the literature, I held informal discussions with a small number of organic wine consumers whom I knew personally. As a result, I was able to develop the two research questions posed for this study based upon my appreciation of the gaps in the current knowledge on the value perceptions of organic wine consumers and problems with existing theoretical models of consumer behaviour.

Participant selection

In determining the criteria used for participant selection, in the early stages of the study, I wanted to obtain as wide a range of participants as possible. In doing so, I had to bear in mind that generalisation in qualitative data is not about telling the stories of a small number of people but identifying the processes which make sense of behaviour through comparison of a number of cases (Bazeley, 2013). That said, in terms of credibility and validity, I felt that it was necessary to compare a range of socio-demographic characteristics to see whether I could detect any patterns in the data and suggest where points of similarity or difference might emerge. I considered this to be important when evaluating the potential generalisability of the theory that was going to emerge. Therefore, I started by establishing

criteria for participant selection based upon socio-demographic factors as well as the proportion of organic wine consumed.

Having determined my criteria, I considered various ways to recruit suitable participants. My interviews with producers and retailers had used convenience and snowball sampling. However, for the study of consumers, I used purposive sampling based upon careful selection criteria. My initial intention was, therefore, to contact a number of organic wine organisations, vineyards and retailers to see if they could put me in contact with consumers of organic wine. These included organic vineyards in the UK, organic wine retailers (both physical outlets and online) and wine retailers who sold both conventional and organic wine (also physical and online). I also considered that wine clubs and organisations connected to the organic movement would be good sources of participants. Such a mixture would, I felt, also provide access to participants with different levels of wine involvement and knowledge. Having undertaken field research in 2015, I had a number of personal contacts in the UK wine world whom I approached. In addition, while I wanted to avoid interviewing personal friends, I considered that ‘friends of friends’ would be sufficiently distant to be acceptable. I also made contact with several agencies to understand the extent to which they could provide participants with different characteristics.

I selected London and the counties surrounding London as the locations for the interviews. As I did not aim for participant representativeness but rather the understanding of processes, I did not consider it necessary to repeat the study in different locations in the UK.

Consequently, to recruit participants, I contacted 15 UK vineyards, two organic retailers with physical shops, nine organic retailers with online sales outlets only, eight retailers who sold both organic and conventional wine through retail outlets and six online retailers selling both conventional and organic wine. I was careful not to ask for their mailing lists, which would have involved data protection issues but did request assistance in meeting customers whom they considered might be willing to meet. The response rate to my emails was very poor, and none of those who replied said they were able to assist. I also visited two retail outlets personally, but they also felt unable to assist.

In terms of wine clubs, of the four I contacted, two responded and were very interested in meeting. Consequently, wine clubs provided eight participants with varying socio-demographic characteristics and attitudes towards organic wine, although the majority of participants were sceptical about the benefits of organic wine consumption. A contact I had met at a wine fair also agreed to participate, providing a different profile, as well as two participants who were recommended by personal contacts. This provided the 11 participants for phase one of the study.

For phase two, I decided to use an agency to arrange participants who met the criteria I had determined. The criteria I provided to the agency was intended to find participants who filled gaps in socio-demographic characteristics and the proportion of organic wine consumption missing in phase one. The agency provided an initial six participants and then a further four participants. I also arranged one contact personally for phase two. The agency again provided four participants for theoretical sampling in phase three.

I continued interviewing until I considered that theoretical saturation had been achieved. Theoretical saturation was determined when I felt I was not able to add to the properties or dimensions of the categories I had developed (Charmaz, 2014). I also concluded that a sufficiently wide range of participants had been obtained to allow processes and categories to emerge and their dimensions and properties to be fully described. In addition, a sufficient number of participants with different views had been obtained to enable comparisons to be made, including negative cases.

Initial coding: Thematic and *in vivo* coding

I undertook data analysis alongside data collection in an iterative process. This ensured that the progress in the analysis was reflected in the criteria used for the selection of participants. In addition, it helped me determine when I needed to recruit participants with particular attitudes towards organic wine, thereby allowing me to make specific comparisons for the purpose of developing categories.

Prior to starting the analysis, I considered whether to use qualitative data analysis software (QDAS) for coding. Although it takes time and effort to become familiar with a QDAS programme, which could distract attention from the data (Saldaña, 2016), I felt that QDAS offered distinct advantages in terms of data management, especially the ability to undertake comparisons based on different criteria. I, therefore, undertook a number of online tutorials in NVivo 11 to become familiar with the programme prior to commencing data collection and analysis.

In terms of coding methods, I had used thematic coding previously (Guest et al., 2012; Saldaña, 2016) while analysing the results of the interviews with producers and retailers in mid-2015. I had found thematic analysis a useful technique to break down the data and sort the views of the participants. However, for the interviews with consumers, I did not consider that thematic analysis would be sufficient as it focused on identifying patterns in the data. I, therefore, spent a considerable amount of time investigating possible data transformation methods. As a result, I focused on grounded theory and, specifically constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014) and decided to read widely on the constructivist grounded theory prior to starting data collection and analysis. Consequently, the field research was planned carefully in advance on the basis of the research method I had selected.

Prior to starting coding, I wanted to become familiar with the participants and their comments. Consequently, after my first eight interviews, I read all the transcripts several times in hard copy. I used pencils to mark up passages of interest, highlighting participants' comments and wrote a number of free-flowing, high-level memos containing my initial impressions. These early memos were unpolished and were written at speed to capture my ideas. Nevertheless, they contained raw ideas and impressions recorded immediately after my interviews, some of which developed into properties of categories as analysis progressed.

In terms of comparisons, I was aware that the participants from wine clubs were mostly sceptical about organic wine. However, two participants whom I had recruited personally were committed organic wine consumers and did not consume conventional wine. This gave me the opportunity early on to make some initial comparisons between conventional and organic wine consumers and record my impressions regarding points of similarity and difference in memos. I also started making field notes in which I collected ideas to follow up on. These included changes to questions as well as the way in which I conducted interviews. My field notes were restricted to comments and notes for myself about the interview process and about participants, while I kept memos for analytical and more theoretical ideas to be used to develop categories.

In the first stage of initial coding, I, therefore, used thematic coding to break down the data into themes, following my interview guide. I had started with the intention of doing line-by-line *in vivo* coding but very quickly came to the conclusion that this was not generating the ideas and level of understanding needed and was time-consuming. After coding two interviews using *in vivo* coding, therefore, I started 'lumping' text into themes (Saldaña, 2016). Although coding became faster as the number of interviews increased, I continued to spend time coding transcripts in detail, even when I came to the phase of theoretical coding. I had two purposes in spending time on coding. First, even though coding is not analysis, I wished to capture the essence of participants' comments, which I might lose if I coded too quickly, especially as English is not my first language. In addition, spending time on coding served to familiarise myself with the participants so that they ceased to be just a name and became a person. Over time, this enabled me to gain an understanding of the participants as individuals, independent from their role as interviewees. This process of familiarisation was of major value during analysis as I was able to recall what individuals had said and make connections in my head, which I then followed up on in more detail in NVivo. Hence, independent of the codes generated, the process of coding itself served to generate ideas and analysis. I felt I was starting to understand each participant as an individual and could understand not only what they said but also why. Consequently, as time went on, I found I needed to refer less and less to the coding for my

analysis and started to use NVivo more like a searchable database to find what I already knew was there.

Initial coding: Process coding and comparisons

During the early stages of using thematic and *in vivo* coding, I began to notice how participants spoke about organic wine. I noticed that participants often recalled a specific moment at which they started to consume organic wine and how they used emotional terms when speaking about organic wine. As a result, I started to adopt process coding, in which gerunds are used to capture the feelings of participants (Charmaz, 2014; Fernández, 2004; Kenny & Fourie, 2015; Saldaña, 2016). I also used NVivo's query tools to search for specific words and phrases to test hunches. These included words such as feeling, believing, valuing and special. I then re-coded parts of transcripts using process codes and started to undertake comparisons of the way in which participants had used these words in their interviews. Consequently, as I started the second round of interviews, each new interview was coded using process codes as well as thematic codes.

I also started to write increasingly analytical memos. These memos focused upon comparisons between individuals who consumed a significant amount of organic wine and who appeared to have some form of attachment to organic wine and individuals who were more sceptical. In a number of cases, individuals were committed to organic wine but were sceptical about some aspects (for instance, that organic wine tastes better than conventional wine or is of better quality). As a result, my analysis relied heavily upon comparisons between individuals and between groups of individuals. I also started a process of 'far out' comparisons (Dey, 1993; Mills et al., 2006) to see if I could generate ideas about the similarities and differences between participants at the opposite ends of the organic wine consumption continuum.

In the early days of analysis, comparisons focused on socio-demographic characteristics. However, it soon became clear that socio-demographics had little influence on consumer attitudes towards organic wine. I, therefore, started to focus on how individuals spoke about organic wine and how they had begun to consume organic wine. I also looked for any relationship between organic food and organic wine, particularly in relation to the words which they used about each. In my analysis, I allocated scales of involvement, interest and knowledge about organic and conventional wine to each participant and used those for comparisons. As I allocated these values myself based upon my discussions with participants, this was a subjective evaluation. However, I felt this was more reliable and consistent than allowing the participants to determine their own levels of involvement, knowledge and interest against a scale. I also used word counts (or frequencies) to generate new ideas and to suggest particular passages of text for closer scrutiny (Bazeley, 2013; Dey, 1993; Teddlie &

Tashakkori, 2006). While this involves overtones of quantitative research methods, I found it a very useful tool to search transcripts quickly and highlight passages for more detailed review. The process also served to generate process codes that subsequently found their way into the analysis.

During this process, I began using diagrams to capture my thoughts about the way in which individuals might have developed their value perceptions of organic wine and how this was reflected in their behaviour (Bazeley, 2013; Charmaz, 2014; Dey, 1993; Douglas, 2003; Glaser & Holton, 2004; Hesse-Biber, 2007; Kenny & Fourie, 2015; Mills et al., 2006; Saldaña, 2016). I found these diagrams to be useful in capturing my thoughts and, by using examples and far out cases through flow diagrams, testing my emerging categories (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

As grounded theory data collection and analysis is an iterative process in which data collection and analysis follow and precede each other, I allowed a gap between each round of interviews to undertake coding and write memos. After the first eight interviews, I conducted another three interviews with individuals to whom I was introduced and with 10 participants provided by a panel provider. These interviews were held over a period of a month, allowing sufficient time to review and revise my thinking between interviews. During this process, I continued to revise the interview guide and focused increasingly on pursuing my emerging categories in interviews with participants. I also noted that, despite my best efforts, I had a multiplication of codes, particularly process codes, and started to reduce these codes through a process of elimination, amalgamation and establishing hierarchies (Kenny & Fourie, 2015; Saldaña, 2016).

Theoretical sampling and theoretical coding

With each additional interview, I asked myself what new insights I was gaining from the comments of participants and what the interview was telling me with regard to the processes involved. I aimed to identify the properties of different categories in the comments of participants and asked myself whether the interview added to my understanding of the properties of categories. I started to code specifically for the properties which interested me and did not code parts of the transcripts, which did not enhance my understanding. It was at this point, after 21 interviews, when my categories had emerged, that I felt I had crossed the line between initial coding and theoretical coding.

By this stage, my three categories had emerged (*Attaching Significance*, *Performing Organics* and *Spreading the Word*), and I was moving closer to my core category that eventually emerged as *Manifesting Identity*. During theoretical sampling, my discussions with participants focused on these three categories and their associated properties. I listened to participants' comments about other topics and allowed them to speak (relatively) freely in case they said something that could shed light on the properties of the categories which interested me. However, my focus in the interviews was on the

properties of the categories I had identified. At this stage, I intensified my comparisons to see if I could define the categories further. I also reduced my memo writing and spent more time thinking and theorising. I put more effort into diagramming as a way of clarifying the relationship between the categories and the properties of the categories. I also undertook a number of examinations of negative cases to account for the perceptions of all participants, including conventional wine consumers.

Once all interviews had been completed, and I was confident I had identified the core and sub-core categories, I re-read all the interview transcripts again in hard copy. I drew diagrams of my categories, the relationship between them, and their properties and interrogated the diagrams to see if I could generate any new ideas. I also compared the categories I had identified in relation to organic wine with a theoretical situation outside wine research, in which individuals develop beliefs, expound justifications for those beliefs and then select opportunities to speak to others about their views. The example of religion immediately came to mind. I, therefore, started to think about how a comparison with religion might provide ideas for my wine studies. I went back through the transcripts and noted that a number of participants used the term ‘convert’, while one individual even stated that talking to others was ‘something like getting someone to convert into a different religion’ (Dylan, M). I used this fresh idea to define more closely some of the properties of *Attaching Significance* and *Spreading the Word*.

Theoretical saturation

Theoretical saturation is reached when nothing new is being heard or when the same stories are being repeated but when the categories are sufficiently well developed in terms of their properties, dimensions and variations (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). At that point, if the researcher is sure they have done everything they can to define the categories, then theoretical saturation can be considered to have been reached (Charmaz, 2014).

After undertaking four interviews in December 2016 during theoretical sampling, I took an extended period without further interviews to review and develop the categories. As I interrogated my categories for a period of three months, I came to the conclusion that I had reached theoretical saturation and decided not to undertake any further interviews.

Writing up the study

I followed the procedure of sorting memos and using these as a basis to write up the theory (Charmaz, 2014). I, therefore, printed my memos and, as each memo contained many ideas and concepts, cut them physically into parts. However, as I started sorting them, I began to notice that the memos had developed significantly in terms of style and content: the early memos had been overtaken and were just stepping stones to later memos. Hence, while I sorted memos, I also put aside many early memos

whose ideas were developed in later memos. In addition to physically sorting memos, I also combined the sorted memos by category in soft copy and ‘cut and pasted’ them into groups on my computer. The result was a number of memos sorted under each category.

I had expected the sorted memos to serve as a base for writing up the study. However, as I re-read them, I concluded that, while being useful in terms of defining the properties of categories, it was better to start writing from scratch.

I also started writing up the study while still developing the final form of my categories rather than waiting until I considered that the categories were completely defined and the properties clear. This method of writing up was useful as the process of writing itself generated further questions. For instance, when writing up the properties of *Performing Organics*, I noted that I needed to explore further the extent to which individuals with some limited awareness of organic wine revised their value perceptions once they started regular consumption. I also wished to explore the extent to which their justifications about the consumption of organic wine were related to their emotional attachment to organic wine. Consequently, the last four interviews were staggered to allow for new ideas to develop.

Issues of credibility and validity

A number of strategies have been proposed for determining credibility and validity in qualitative studies (Bazeley, 2013; Charmaz, 2014; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Onwuegbuzie & R. B. Johnson, 2006). Many of these suggestions were followed in this study by including triangulation (comparing information from consumers with the views of producers, retailers and wine industry professionals), the examination of negative cases (individuals who never, or rarely, consume organic wine), researcher reflexivity (how my involvement influenced the study), prolonged engagement in the field (iterative field research and analysis over one year), collaboration with participants (meeting with some wine consumers informally outside the main research process while interviewing the main participants) and discussions with colleagues and industry professionals (presentations at conferences and wine industry exhibitions). I also closely followed the guidelines in GT studies with regard to ensuring credibility in the emerging GT (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

In terms of determining the credibility of the study, I bore in mind Charmaz’s (2014) four measures (*credibility, originality, resonance* and *usefulness*) while developing the theory. I believe my study is unique in terms of the revised theoretical model it generated as well as the insights that it offers into the value perceptions of organic consumers. It also explains why many organic wine consumers consume both conventional and organic wine. The theory, therefore, appears to make sense of the

participant's statements and to be believable. It, therefore, makes a significant contribution to the existing knowledge.

Although the theory is local, it can be generalisable to other areas of consumer research, including organic food. The conclusions drawn with regard to the development of value perceptions, to the relationship between value perceptions and the behaviour of organic wine consumers and to passing on knowledge about organic wine are all relevant to other areas of consumer behaviour. Indeed, the suggestion that consumers are less cognitive and more emotional than much research into value perceptions suggests appears to be a very generalisable element of the theory.

Conclusion

Appendix A has presented the way in which the researcher applied grounded theory processes and procedures in the study, thereby enhancing the study's credibility. Appendix A has shown how I adopted a process of iterative data collection and analysis and how I used memoing, constant comparison and diagramming to define categories and their properties. The appendix has also illustrated an evolution from initial coding using thematic, *in vivo* and process coding and memoing to theoretical coding focused on specific aspects of emergent categories which I wished to pursue. However, by allowing time for reflection, as well as a continuous review of whole transcripts and individual codes, I managed to avoid becoming lost in the data and soon started to understand the participants as individuals as well as cases. Adopting a reflexive attitude with regard to my role in the analysis – as the data collector, coder and analyst – I regularly discussed the study's progress with colleagues, consumers and industry professionals to maintain sight of my influence on the research.

APPENDIX B

PROJECT INFORMATION LETTER

Department of Health Sciences
University of Malta
Msida
MSD 2080
Malta

Dear Consumer,

My name is Atousa Ghezelbash. I am a PhD student at the University of Malta researching consumer perceptions of organic products and attitudes towards the authenticity of organic food. I will complete my PhD thesis in 2017.

The research study deals with aspects of consumer preference, specifically looking at why some consumers purchase organic products and some do not, focusing on organic wine.

The aim of the study is to look at the motivation and attitudes of consumers and to identify the factors which influence decision making related to wine purchases. The emphasis of this study will be on the investigation of aspects such as lifestyle choices and consumers' views on the benefits and negative aspects of organic products.

The research will be beneficial to producers and retailers of organic products, especially organic wine, to help them assess how consumers view their products and therefore provide insights into ways to improve the sales of organic wine and organic produce generally.

For this reason, I would like to interview you, the consumer(s) of conventional and organic wine, regarding your opinion.

Best regards,

Atousa Ghezelbash

atousa.ghezelbash.13@um.edu.mt

Dr A. McElhatton

anna.mcelhatton@um.edu.mt

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Research into: Consumer perceptions of organic wine

- I have read and understood the information sheet provided to me, outlining Ms Ghezelbash's research into consumer perceptions of organic wine.

- I have had the opportunity to read the information provided and ask questions and am satisfied with the answers.

- I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in this study and can withdraw at any time without giving any reason.

- I agree to participate in this study.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Contact details of researcher and Academic Supervisor:

Researcher

Atousa Ghezelbash
atousa.ghezelbash.13@um.edu.mt

Supervisor

Dr A. McElhatton
anna.mcelhatton@um.edu.mt

APPENDIX D

PERSONAL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Section A: Information about yourself

To begin with, I have a few questions about yourself to enable me to understand our discussion better. Please answer as fully as you can. All your answers will be confidential and will not be connected to your name.

1. Please state your gender:

Male	
Female	

2. Please indicate your age group:

18–24	
25–29	
30–34	
35–39	
40–44	
45–49	
50–54	
55–59	
60–64	
65–69	
70+ years	

3. Please indicate the highest education level you have achieved (to date):

Primary school	
High school or secondary school	
University – graduate	
University – masters	
University – doctorate	
Technical apprenticeship	
Other, please specify:	

4. Please indicate your current employment status:

Studying	
Not working	
Working part-time	
Working full-time	
Self-employed	
Retired	
Other, please specify:	

5. Please indicate the post code of your **permanent** residence in the UK:

6. What is your current marital status?

Married / De Facto partner	
Single	
Widowed	
Divorced	
Separated	

7a. How many people are continuously living in your household?

7b. How many are **under 18 years old**?

7c. How many are **over 18 years old** (including yourself)?

7d. How many who are **over 18 years old** (including yourself) **consume wine**?

8. Please indicate **your household's** approximate **total monthly income (pounds sterling), after tax**, including revenue from all sources – salary, pension, child allowance, etc.

Less than 600	
601–1200	
1201–1800	
1801–2400	
2401–3000	
3001–3600	
3601–4200	
4201–4800	
More than 4801	

Section B: Wine purchasing habits

I would now like to ask you some questions with regard to your wine purchases, both conventional and organic wine.

1. Approximately how much does **YOUR HOUSEHOLD** spend on wine in total in a typical month?

£	
---	--

2a. Roughly how many bottles of wine does **YOUR HOUSEHOLD** consume in a typical month?

Bottles of 75cl	
-----------------	--

2b. Roughly how many bottles of wine do **YOU PERSONALLY** consume in a typical month?

Bottles of 75cl	
-----------------	--

3a. Of the total wine consumption by **YOUR HOUSEHOLD** in a typical month, approximately what is the percentage of organic wine consumed?

%	
---	--

3b. Of the total wine consumption by **YOU PERSONALLY** in a typical month, approximately what is the percentage of organic wine consumed?

%	
---	--

4. How often do **you** drink wine? (Tick the one answer applicable to you)?

More than once a week	
Weekly	
2 to 3 times per month	
Once a month	
Once every 2 to 3 months	
Less often than once every 3 months	
Other, please specify:	

5. Please divide **YOUR HOUSEHOLD's** purchases of wine (organic and conventional) over the last 12 months between the following retail outlets (to add up to 100%):

Local stores – bakeries, small local shops, fruit shops	
Health food shops	
Supermarkets	
Discount stores	
Restaurants	
Bars or clubs	
Speciality wine shops	
Markets and farm shops	
Organic shops	
Vineyards	
Internet direct	
Mail order	
Other, please specify:	
Total	100%

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW GUIDE

SECTION A: WINE FACTORS

- To start with, could you please speak about what comes to mind when I mention organic wine?

A.1 Functional – Wine attributes

- What goes on in your mind when you are considering wine purchases, conventional or organic? How do you go about it?
- What factors are important when you purchase a wine, conventional or organic?
- What is important to you when you assess the quality of a bottle of wine?
- How do you define the ‘quality’ of a wine?
- Do you take advice from anybody before/when buying wine?

A.2 Financial (price)

- What role does price play in your decision to purchase a bottle of wine?
- How important do you think price is as an indication of quality?
- How is the price you are prepared to pay for a bottle of wine influenced by the occasion on which it will be consumed?
- When you are considering purchasing a bottle of organic wine specifically, how important is price in your decision compared to other factors (e.g. the fact that it is organic)?
- How willing would you be to pay more for an organic wine? If so, why? What would it depend on?
- Would you purchase a bottle of organic wine, even if you doubted its quality, because it was organic?

A.3 Organic wine: Purchase factors

- Please describe where you buy your organic wine and why you select those particular retailers.
- Do you buy your organic wine from the same retailers where you purchase your conventional wine?
- Is (lack of) availability of organic wine an issue for you? If so, please explain how this relates to where you buy your organic wine.
- What role does organic certification on the bottle play in your purchase decisions?

- What role does the label play in your purchase of a bottle of organic wine? How does this differ from conventional wine?
- To what extent are you interested in knowing about the producers of organic wine and how they produce their organic wine?

SECTION B: ORGANIC FOOD

- Are you an organic food consumer?
 - If so, to what do you attribute this?
 - If not, why not, given that you consume organic wine?
- Were you an organic food consumer before or after becoming an organic wine consumer?
- What link is there between the purchase and consumption of organic food and of organic wine?

SECTION C: ORGANIC WINE

C.1 Emotions

- What do you feel when you purchase or consume organic wine?
- Please describe some of the things which go through your head when you consume organic wine.
- Why do you think you purchase and consume organic wine?
- Why do you not purchase and consume more organic wine?
- When and why did you start to buy organic wine? Please describe the circumstances under which you started to drink organic wine.
- In your opinion, does organic wine bring positive emotional or psychological benefits and, if so, in what way? Please describe some instances.
- When you purchase and/or consume organic wine do you think it would be fair to say that you are seeking a positive emotional outcome? If so, how would you describe it?
- Do you feel different when drinking organic wine as opposed to conventional wine?

C.2 Health & environment

- How important are the following when you purchase or consume organic wine:
 - environmental factors?
 - health factors?

- Please describe the importance of these factors in more detail.
- Which is more important for you?
- Is health or the environment more important to you than the quality or price of an organic wine?
- In your opinion, does organic wine bring positive physical benefits to you and, if so, in what way?
 - Please describe some instances.
 - Please describe how you know that.
- In your opinion, does organic wine bring positive benefits to the environment and, if so, in what way?
 - Please describe some examples.
 - Please describe how you know that.
- How much research have you done into the positive benefits of organic wine?
- Are there any negative effects of consuming conventional wine? If so, how would you describe them?
- When you purchase and/or consume organic wine, do you think it would be fair to say that you are avoiding some of the negative effects of conventional wine? If so, which?
- When you purchase and/or consume organic wine do you think it would be fair to say that you are seeking a positive physical outcome? If so, how would you describe it?

C.3 Occasion

- On what occasions do you consume organic wine?
- With whom do you consume organic wine? Please describe how this affects what you drink, if at all.
- How would the occasion or the person/people with whom you are drinking wine affect whether you drink conventional or organic wine? What would you put this down to?

SECTION D: SOCIAL

- Would you recommend organic wine to others? If so, who would you recommend it to and why?
- How important is it to you that you make the effort to recommend organic wine to others? To what do you attribute this?
- How do you think you would react if they are not interested in organic wine when you mention it or are dismissive of what you say?

- If you do recommend organic wine, which factors associated with organic wine would you want to emphasise?
- Is it important to you what other people think about your wine choice, including organic wine?
- Is it important to you what other people think of your wine knowledge, including organic wine?
- Do you like telling people that you drink organic wine? How do you feel when you are telling them?

SECTION E: INVOLVEMENT / KNOWLEDGE

E.1 Interest/involvement & knowledge of wine generally

- How interested are you in wine?
- Does wine play an important part in your life?
- Do you consider yourself knowledgeable about wine?
- How interested are you in increasing your knowledge about wine?
- Where do you get your information about wine?

E.2 Interest/involvement & knowledge of organic wine

- How interested are you in organic wine?
- Does organic wine play an important part in your life?
- Do you consider yourself knowledgeable about organic wine?
- How interested are you in increasing your knowledge about organic wine?
- Where do you get your information about organic wine?

APPENDIX F

PARTICIPANT CHARACTERISTICS

Gender:

Male	13
Female	12

Age:

18–24	3
25–29	2
30–34	0
35–39	4
40–44	1
45–49	3
50–54	0
55–59	2
60–64	3
65–69	5
70+ years	2

Education level:

Primary school	
High school or secondary school	10
University – graduate	11
University – masters	3
University – doctorate	
Technical apprenticeship	
Other, please specify: Student	1

Working status:

Studying	
Not working	1
Working part-time	3
Working full-time	10

Self-employed	2
Retired	9
Other, please specify:	

Marital status:

Married / De Facto partner	19
Single	5
Widowed	
Divorced	1
Separated	

Household free income per month (pounds sterling):

Less than 600	0
601–1200	0
1201–1800	1
1801–2400	5
2401–3000	3
3001–3600	2
3601–4200	2
4201–4800	4
More than 4801	8