SCHOOL OF
ECONOMICS AND
MANAGEMENT

LUND
UNIVERSITY

The Bouquet of Wine Consumption Drivers

Decanting Motivation and Personal Involvement to Predict Wine
Consumption of Gen Z and Millennials in Sweden

by

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May, 2023

Master's Programme in International Marketing and Brand
Management

Word Count: 22 516

Supervisor: Burak Tunca
Examiner: Javier Cenamor

Abstract

Keywords: Wine research, consumer behaviour research, consumer motivation, personal involvement, wine consumption, generational research, Swedish wine market, Gen Z and Millennials

Thesis purpose: The core aim of this research is to confirm the application of the research model established by Taylor et al. (2018), focusing on intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and personal involvement, predicting wine consumption in Sweden. By confirming the applicability of this research model, we intended to contribute to the current lack of literature concerning the combination of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation with personal involvement in predicting wine consumption. The second aim of this research is of an exploratory nature. Here the contribution to literature is focused on generational insights into Gen Z and Millennials concerning differences in their wine consumption in the Swedish market. Here the lack was established in the scarcity of Gen Z research since they are only now entering the Swedish wine market and have therefore rarely been researched and consequently not been compared to the previous generations.

Theoretical Perspective: The study draws to the wine consumption literature focusing on consumer motivation, personal involvement, and generations. Theories of Self-Determination, Involvement theory, and Generational Cohort theory are applied.

Methodology: A web-based survey was conducted, and 281 responses were gathered from social media, wine bars, and Lund University.

Conclusion: The core research found that intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation together with personal involvement with wine have been seen as drivers of wine consumption, making it possible to predict current consumption levels. The exploratory research found that there was a significant difference between Gen Z and Millennials concerning their levels of motivation. Here the levels of both intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation were higher for Millennials. Based on the results of this research, the modified research model originally proposed by Taylor et al. (2018) together with the focus on generational differences, has been shown to generate valuable insights regarding wine consumption in Sweden. These insights are contributing to the knowledge of wine consumption drivers, as well as an increased understanding of the consumption behaviour of Gen Z and Millennials.

Acknowledgments

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List of Acronyms & Abbreviations

1. USD – United States Dollar
2. GCT – Generational Cohort Theory
3. IM – Intrinsic Motivation
4. EM – Extrinsic Motivation
5. PI – Personal Involvement
6. WCon – Wine Consumption
7. GPD – Glasses per Day
8. GPW – Glasses per Week
9. GPM – Glasses per Month
10. BPM – Bottles per Month
11. EPRS – European Parliamentary Research Service
12. SDT – Self-Determination Theory
13. CET – Cognitive Evaluation Theory
14. CIT – Consumer Involvement Theory
15. SEK – Swedish Krona

1   Introduction

Why do we consume wine and is it possible to predict how we consume it? One common way to enable marketers to predict purchasing behaviour is by specifically researching the possible driving factors of wine consumption. By using consumption drivers, shown relevant through previous research, this research will contribute to predicting consumption in the Swedish market. Additionally, this research will be complemented with an exploratory focus on the wine consumption of Gen Z and Millennials in Sweden.

1.1   Background

The world wine market revenue is steadily increasing each year (Statista, 2021). In the year 2021, the market size value was determined at 306 billion USD and is estimated to grow by 7.7% in 2023. When looking at the following years 2024 until 2027 the market is expected to have a steady revenue increase of around 5% according to Statista's market insights (Statista, 2023). Furthermore, when analysing the country ranking of wine consumption, in litres per capita, it is noticeable that the countries which are large producers of wine are also consuming the most wine (BKWineMagazine, 2022). Examples here are Portugal, Italy, and France. However, one can also observe that Sweden belongs to the top ten most wine-consuming countries even though Sweden is not a large producer of wine (BKWineMagazine, 2022). When looking into more detail of the Swedish wine market the statistics show that it has been stable at around 5-6 billion USD during the last eight years. In the next five years (2023-2027), the Swedish wine market is expected to increase in revenue at an average rate of 7.3% (Statista, 2023). These statistics support the Statista (2022) survey results of wine being the most regularly preferred alcoholic beverage in the Swedish beverage industry. To take advantage of the expected overall market increase, wine producers from around the world need to understand the value that can be gained by conducting frequent consumer behaviour research.

Wine research has been trying to understand wine consumer purchase behaviour and consumption for many years (Barber, Taylor & Strick, 2009; Gustavsen & Rickertsen, 2020). Nevertheless, not many researchers have focused on predicting wine consumption and resultantly understanding the drivers of consumption. There are several studies in the wine research field focusing on marketing literature examining the external purchasing features such as price, packaging, and labelling (Capanna Piscè et al., 2022; Poças, Couto & Hogg, 2022). However, according to the research on wine consumer behaviour, solely seeing external purchasing features as wine consumption drivers, is not elaborate enough since this research field is considered so multifaceted (Barber, Taylor & Strick, 2009). According to this research field being multifaceted it is important to not only consider external purchasing features but to rather focus on consumer purchasing motivations. The research field of consumer purchasing motivations can be based on the *Self-Determination Theory* and can be divided into *intrinsic* (IM) and *extrinsic* (EM) *consumer motivation.* Intrinsic motivation is defined as personal attributes/attitudes, whereas extrinsic motivation can be defined as situational

attributes/attitudes (Taylor et al., 2018). Therefore, intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation are seen and used in wine research as drivers of wine consumption (Oyinseye et al., 2022; Taylor et al., 2018). Besides the consumer motivation, it has also been determined as valuable to focus on *personal involvement* (PI) when looking at wine consumption (Taylor et al., 2018). The factor of personal involvement concentrates on consumer characteristics such as lifestyle, knowledge, and product involvement (Taylor et al., 2018). Wine research has used these drivers to predict consumption in different ways. It has been hypothesised that both intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation together can interact to predict wine consumption but also that PI individually can be used to predict wine consumption (Cox, 2009; Gustavsen & Rickertsen, 2020). Combining intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation with personal involvement in order to predict wine consumption has to our knowledge rarely been researched before.

Besides these driving factors, previous research has determined, that various demographic characteristics such as age or gender can also serve as explaining factors driving the consumption of wine (Taylor et al., 2018). Therefore, this research will factor in the demographic characteristic of *generational cohorts* since it has often been used in the field of wine research to understand the ever-evolving market. However, to our knowledge, it has never been used in combination with the *Self-Determination Theory* and the *Consumer Involvement Theory* (Wolf et al., 2018). Through this study, the generational cohort focus will be of an exploratory nature. More specifically, to our knowledge the exact combination of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation with personal involvement to predict wine consumption with the demographic factor of generational cohorts has never been studied before. This novel addition of generational cohorts to this research's core focus will stay explorative throughout the whole research process and will be seen as an additional distinctive perspective besides the main research focus.

Generational cohorts are defined by the European Parliamentary Research Service (EPRS) (2022) in terms of birth years as Baby Boomers born between 1946 - 1964, Gen X born between 1965 - 1980, Millennials born between 1981 - 1995, and the latest Gen Z starting at 1996. The ending birth year of Gen Z is not yet defined by the EPRS, however, other relevant literature estimates the ending year to be between 2009 and 2012 (Gomes, Lopes & Nogueira, 2023; Pencarelli et al., 2020; Vieira et al., 2020).

Every generation is influenced by its surrounding environment during their early adulthood. Because of so-called formative events, we develop unique characteristics that define us and at the same time differentiate us from other generations (Fernández-Durán, 2016). This is what the *generational cohort theory* (GCT) developed by Karl Mannheim (1952) states. This theory is frequently used by marketers to segment the market and analyse consumers' behaviours, beliefs, and attitudes. When looking into more detail of the research areas where GCT has been used, one can observe that it has been applied in wine research (Kruger & Viljoen, 2022; Thach, Riewe & Camillo, 2021; Wolf et al., 2018). However, GCT research in combination with wine research on the Swedish market is to our knowledge rather scarce.

The generations currently relevant to the Swedish market are Millennials and Gen Z, where the latest mentioned is constantly growing in importance (Barkley, 2018). Gen Z is only now on its way to reaching its full wine-purchasing power, due to Sweden's age restrictions on alcohol. While at the same time, based on expectations, their purchasing power is already now

considered to be important to study (Forbes, 2021; Thangavel, Pathak & Chandra, 2022). Furthermore, their motivations and preferences differ notably from the previous generation (Forbes, 2021, 2022; Pew Research Center, 2019). Given these insights, there seems to be a need to understand Gen Z's wine consumption. At the same time, when the generation of Millennials occurred to be the newest cohort to research, they were also often perceived as being significantly different wine consumers, considering their preferences and motivations, compared to the previous generation (Pew Research Center, 2010). Hereby we established that the preconceptions of these two generational cohorts were both considered to be different from the other generations (Barrels Ahead, 2022). However, wine preferences amongst Gen Z are already now in some cases found to be similar to those of the Millennials (Thach, Riewe & Camillo, 2021). These findings make us question if these two rather recent generations are distinctively different from each other or somewhat similar when it comes to their wine consumption motivations and involvement.

In summary, because of the expected global wine market growth, there is an increased relevance to conduct consumer behaviour research in order to better understand and to predict wine consumption. Sweden has been chosen for this research due to its unique characteristics and the expected growth of its wine market. Having established the overall scarcity of wine research in Sweden and the rarity of combining intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation with personal involvement to predict wine consumption, our core research has been defined. Obtaining a specific overview of internal and external motivational drivers that can possibly be linked to personal involvement and resultantly affect the wine consumption of individuals, can create viable marketing opportunities when combined with effective segmentation. Therefore, besides our core confirmatory research focuses on predicting wine consumption with the drivers of IM and EM with PI on the Swedish market, we will incorporate an exploratory focus. This exploratory focus will emphasise on analysing the motivations, personal involvement, and wine consumption of the two-generational cohorts of Gen Z and Millennials. These two generations will serve as segmentation characteristics based on the GCT.

1.2 Research Purpose

This research is aiming to provide further insights into the driving factors of consumer motivations and personal involvement in wine consumption. Additionally, the aim includes an exploratory aspect on generations which is focused on discovering the wine consumption behaviour of Gen Z and Millennials concerning the driving factors chosen in this research. Therefore, this research is not only aiming to provide insight into the driving factors of predicting wine consumption but also to gain insight into generational differences based on GCT in wine research. This part of the exploration concerning generations could be very valuable since Gen Z is still on its way to reaching its full wine-purchasing power and the research on this generation in combination with the most recently matured generation of Millennials is rather scarce.

Because of its high ranking amongst the top wine-consuming countries and the fact that wine is the most popular alcoholic beverage, this research will focus on the Swedish wine market

(BKWineMagazine, 2022; Statista, 2022). A study concerning wine-drinking motivations, and personal involvement in order to predict wine consumption has to our knowledge not been conducted on the Swedish market. Additionally, the research of generations is obtaining higher relevancy on the Swedish market since around half of the Gen Z cohort 1995-2003 will be of legal age to buy wine in 2023, based on the Swedish alcohol restrictions. Together with Millennials, they will account for the younger half of the potential purchasing power on the market.

The research's objective focuses on measuring consumers intrinsic- and extrinsic motivations and their personal involvement with wine to establish how they consume wine and if it is possible to predict their wine consumption. Furthermore, this will be complemented with the explorative focus on observing if there are generational differences in the levels of motivation, involvement, and consumption. By providing research results on this topic, marketers will have a greater understanding of wine consumers and be able to better predict wine consumption which will increase the effectiveness of their future marketing activities. With this increased knowledge of consumption drivers in combination with effective segmentation, marketing actions can be taken in order to effectively meet the consumers behaviours. Because of the expected wine market increase and the current expectation that the youngest wine-consuming generations will differ from the previous generations, this research has a clear and relevant purpose. The relevance is especially high for the Swedish wine market because of its expected increase in producers in the upcoming years (The Guardian, 2022a). Furthermore, since about half of the youngest generation of Gen Z (1995-2003) is only now in 2023 of legal alcohol consumption age in Sweden, the necessity for global but also Swedish wine producers to understand these consumers increases significantly.

1.3   Delimitations

Due to time, scope, and financial limitations set, the core focus of this thesis lies in the driving factors of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation, personal involvement, and wine consumption. The additional focus on the generational comparison will only be included to a certain extent due to the internal limitations of the GCT resulting in an absence of theory direction enabling us to create a hypothesis with clear directions.

The research will be conducted only on Swedish wine consumers because of convenience and the generations in focus will be Gen Z and Millennials. Due to the time limitation, this research will exclude the older generations of Gen X and Baby Boomers.

The research design will be of a quantitative manner focusing on an online survey data collection method. Due to time restrictions, the data will only be collected for a very limited number of days in 2023. This will also lead to only targeting around 200 respondents on the Swedish market. As the sampling was conducted through a convenience sampling method, most of the respondents will be university students at Lund University. The data will then be analysed in Jamovi instead of any other data analysis programs such as SPSS and SmartPLS, because

Jamovi is able to conduct all the essential analysis considered important for testing our stated hypotheses.

2   Literature Review

With the expected increase of revenue in the Swedish wine market and the rise of Sweden as an important global market player to understand, this literature review will focus on establishing the drivers that will enable for predicting of wine consumption. Here the former research conducted with motivation and personal involvement will be presented to explain these potential drivers of wine consumption. Furthermore, the novel research on generational studies concerning Gen Z and Millennials in the wine market, together with Sweden as a geographical research area will be presented to enable the formulation of a relevant research question.

2.1   Motivation

Motivation has in research widely been considered the most significant driver for individual behaviour since it can establish the behaviour's strength, persistence, intensity, and focus/purpose (Rode, 2016). Motivation can be categorised into the two categories of intrinsic and extrinsic (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation attributes have been broadly researched in the consumer behaviour research field, focusing on several different research issues to understand an individuals' behaviour (Taylor et al., 2018). Examined research topics include for example the consumer's perception of product attributes, product quality, confidence evaluation, purchase intentions, and product consumption. Marketing research has additionally shown that both intrinsic- and extrinsic motivations are considered major drivers of wine consumption (Reynolds et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2018).

2.1.1   Intrinsic Motivation and Wine Consumption

Intrinsic motivation is defined by Ryan and Deci (2000) as the reason behind the behaviour of an individual where the obtained value and satisfaction is solely for the individual itself without any external reinforcement. Several studies focusing on wine research have established that intrinsic motivation is a valuable factor to explain the drivers of wine consumption. Yuan et al. (2005) determined that pleasure and enjoyment are significant driving factors for wine consumption. This is also reflected in a study conducted by Lockshin et al. (2001) where the purchase of wine was categorised as being an enjoyable experience. Furthermore, the study determined that knowledge concerning wine is an essential driver of wine consumption (Lockshin, Quester & Spawton, 2001). Another study determined that having an interest in wine and culture can increase the initial wine consumption (Gustavsen & Rickertsen, 2020). Research conducted in 2021 identified health consciousness as another driver of wine consumption (Chi et al., 2021). Another research focusing on the motivation and personal involvement leading to wine consumption evaluated intrinsic motivation through several different aspects (Taylor et al., 2018). Here intrinsic attributes such as pleasure, enjoyment, life improvement, knowledge, relaxation, health, prestige, and experience were all considered

important when studying wine consumption. Additionally, this research emphasised the importance of conducting intrinsic motivation research focusing on personal attributes in combination with extrinsic motivation focusing on product characteristics that can influence wine purchasing (Taylor et al., 2018).

2.1.2   Extrinsic Motivation and Wine Consumption

In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation defines the motivation behind the behaviour of an individual as being constituted by external reinforcement (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1992). In wine research, extrinsic motivation is for example focusing on product characteristics such as price per bottle, grape variety, and alcohol level. Research conducted by Balestrini and Gamble (2006) found that factors such as wine brand, country of origin, and price are the most influential when purchasing wine. Another study found that the wine label had a high influence on the consumption. Elaborate label information on health and alcohol levels can influence the consumer's behaviour (Deroover et al., 2021). A study conducted in the United States found that changing extrinsic wine attributes such as the composition and labelling could increase the consumption frequency (Kelley, Hyde & Bruwer, 2015). The same research determined that changes in the bottle volume, as well as the bottle closure, can affect the consumption frequency. Similar findings by research focusing on the topic of wine bottle closure determined that the closure type has an overall effect on perceived quality and therefore consumption frequency (Reynolds et al., 2018). Research focusing on the motivation and personal involvement leading to wine consumption evaluated extrinsic motivation through several different aspects such as grape variety, food paring, awards, brand name, and taste (Taylor et al., 2018). However, intrinsic- and extrinsic motivations cannot alone predict consumption which is why this research has included personal involvement as an additional factor.

2.2   Involvement

Motivation and involvement are closely connected which has been shown in various studies (Afonso et al., 2018; Gao, 2022; Levitt et al., 2019). Involvement has developed into a significant construct in consumer behaviour research (Rahman & Reynolds, 2015). The measure of involvement is independent of the consumer's behaviour that can result from the involvement (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Individual consumers can be very different throughout their decision or consumption process depending on their degree of product involvement (Rahman & Reynolds, 2015). Vermeier and Verbeke (2006) defined consumer product involvement as when consumers perceive a product as adding value to their life. Research proposes that there are three distinct categories of involvement namely, *Situational, Physical,* and *Personal involvement* (Peter H. Bloch & Marsha L. Richin, 1983; Zaichkowsky, 1985). The latest category of *Personal involvement* is defined by Zaichowsky (1985) as the consumer's inherent interests, needs, and values toward an object initiated by the consumer's motivation. In wine

research, personal involvement has been used to understand the wine consumption of consumers.

2.2.1 Personal Involvement and Wine Consumption

Just like intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation, PI has been used in research to explain the drivers of wine consumption. Several studies focusing on wine research have noted the significance of using involvement to research wine consumption. Research by Yuan et al. (2005) segmented the study participants based on PI and found that consumers with high personal involvement with wine are more interested in obtaining knowledge and are additionally willing to spend more when consuming wine. Another study conducted by Cox (2009) found that wine involvement is a significant predictor of red wine consumption. Research conducted by Rahman and Reynolds (2018) found that consumers' personal involvement with wine is closely linked to wine-drinking frequency, in the sense that a higher personal involvement was connected to a higher wine-drinking frequency. Research focusing on the UK high-end wine market divided consumers into high- and low-involvement groups and found several similarities and differences. One such difference is that high-involvement consumers are less brand committed than low-involvement consumers (Bruwer et al., 2014). Research by Taylor et al. (2018) found a connection between intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and PI. Furthermore, the effect of the motivations on PI with wine significantly affected wine consumption. Several of the wine research studies have conducted their research with the help of the personal involvement inventory (PII) developed by Zaichkowsky (1985).

2.3   Market Segmentation

The segmentation of a market is an essential part of every company's marketing strategy since it allows marketers to target a specific consumer group to sell their product or services to. When wanting to segment a market it is possible to do this by geographic, psychographic, demographic, and behavioural factors in order to effectively define the different consumer groups (Wolf et al., 2018). However, it is also possible to segment the market based on generations with the knowledge about generational differences. By focusing on more than just demographic, geographic, or psychographic market segmentation, various consumer behaviour aspects can be identified (Koksal, 2019; Thach, Riewe & Camillo, 2021).

2.3.1   Generations and Wine Consumption

Wine research conducted throughout the last decade has focused on generational cohorts in several distinct ways to clearly understand the differences in wine consumers. Research has focused on overall wine consumption, purchasing habits, and wine attributes sought by consumers, all contributing to notable research findings focusing on the future of wine research (Lockshin & Corsi, 2012; Wolf et al., 2018). Since the wine research field is constantly

evolving, research has begun to include the more recent cohort of Gen Z to maintain a high relevancy of the research area. Gen Z has matured into an important consumer group with an expected high purchasing power in the wine market. Koksal (2019) focused during his research published in Lebanon on the differences among the wine consumer cohorts of Baby Boomers, Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z. The research concentrated on determining differences between the generations focusing on the areas of wine attributes, socio-demographic characteristics, information sources, purchasing, and consumption. Novel findings during this research included that Gen Z is not consuming wine as frequently, nor are they as involved with wine as the older generations. An additional finding was that Gen Z prefers rosé wine more compared to other generations (Koksal, 2019). Another research with a focus on Gen Z conducted in the United States in 2018 and 2019 determined like previous studies not just differences but also similarities across generations. In this case, the similarities across generations were discovered in the consumption and the preference for red wine. Findings made in the article repetitively suggest similarities between Millennials and Gen Z that propose that both of them are notably different from the older generations. An example is that both Millennials and Gen Z are more inclined to buy wine at tasting rooms. Nonetheless, this research also found important differences between Gen Z and other generations mainly in the areas of decision-making, and wine style preferences. Gen Z was determined as having a higher preference for sparkling wine and are overall more attracted to varietal wine meaning a wine primarily made from one single named grape displayed clearly on the bottle label. This research emphasised on the many significant findings when looking at the difference between Gen Z compared to other cohorts in the field of wine research (Thach, Riewe & Camillo, 2021).

2.4   Gen Z Uniqueness

Gen Z is the generational cohort following the Millennials and are born after the year 1995. This generation is also referred to as the i-Generation and is considered to have highly different character traits compared to older cohorts (Thach, Riewe & Camillo, 2021). By now Gen Z is representing a considerable part of the market and this cohort's purchasing power will increase in the upcoming years (Vieira et al., 2020).

According to the literature, Gen Z is remarkably different from other cohorts which has been shown through generational studies in a variety of different research fields. When looking at the values and beliefs of Gen Z, a study conducted in Portugal has determined that Portuguese Gen Z consumers have a higher environmental concern and are willing to contribute to the resolution of sustainable problems more than other cohorts. Moreover, the study determined that Gen Z is willing to pay a price premium for green products (Gomes, Lopes & Nogueira, 2023; Pencarelli et al., 2020). A similar finding was established by Ewe and Tjiptono's (2023) study in which they found that Gen Z consumers are willing to pay more for eco-friendly products with which they are familiar/involved with compared to non-eco-friendly products. On the contrary, a study conducted in Italy in 2020 discovered that Millennials in Italy had more environmentally concerned consumption habits than Gen Z (Pencarelli et al., 2020).

When considering the research topic of wine consumption with a focus on motivation, involvement, and generations, one can observe that research concerning these areas is rather scarce. This is due to Gen Z just starting to reach the legal drinking age in many countries and therefore just beginning to become relevant for consumption research. Meanwhile, existing studies starting to include Gen Z in research outside of the wine research area have found similarities and differences considering the characteristics of the generation compared to the older generations.

2.5 Swedish Market as Research Area

When looking at the research area of predicting wine consumption through the drivers of motivation and involvement while focusing on the Nordic countries the research that can be found is scarce. However, research conducted in Norway focused on determining beverage consumption patterns. Here the extrinsic attribute of food pairing with beverages was evaluated and found that wine was one of the most preferred beverages for dinner (Paulsen, Myhre & Andersen, 2016). Research focusing on Iceland and Finland found that extrinsic attributes such as price, income, and accessibility are explaining alcohol consumption (Gudmundsdottir, Asmundsson & Ords, 1997). Another study focusing on the Swedish market focused on alcohol consumption based on a population cohort study. Here different lifestyle predictors/consumers' involvement to consume alcohol were studied. The study found that wine was the most preferred beverage for all lifestyle predictors (Sidorchuk et al., 2022).

When looking at the research area of generations concerning their wine consumption the research that can be found is just as scarce. Research focusing on comparing different Swedish generations can be discovered in the study by Persson (2019) focusing on paralleling Millennials to four older generations in the area of consumer economic confidence. Here they looked at the generation's decisions in terms of savings, consumption, entrepreneurial activities, investments in financial assets, and consumers' expectations (optimism & pessimism) about future economic developments. Findings indicated that Swedish Millennials are more confident in their decisions and economic developments than all other generations tested (Persson, 2019). Another research by Parment (2013) focuses on comparing Swedish Millennials directly to the generation of Baby Boomers in the areas of Shopping behaviour, buyer involvement, and implications for retail. As well as the previous study this one also found significant differences between the two compared generations, such as that Baby Boomers value an in-store experience when shopping to a higher extent than the generation of Millennials (Parment, 2013).

As can be seen throughout this literature review, global wine research is rather extensive. However, when looking at the wine research conducted in the Nordic countries the research is scarce. To our knowledge, the combination of researching motivation and involvement to predict wine consumption has not been researched in the Swedish market. This is also the case when it comes to the theory about generations and the potential to segment wine consumers in terms of their generational differences.

2.6   Research Question

The literature review presented the possibilities to predict wine consumption by analysing motivation and personal involvement with wine, however, this research has to our knowledge not been conducted on the Nordic market yet. At the same time, the focus of generations on the wine market has not been seen in this area either. These gaps concerning the Nordics countries, and Sweden in particular, as a research area and the possibility to include generational studies, together with the increased importance for both, established by the background, have led us to ask the following research question:

How can intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation characteristics in combination with personal involvement predict wine consumption of the Swedish Gen Z and Millennials and are there any generational differences concerning their consumption behaviour?

Here the consumers are going to be evaluated through the research factors proposed by Taylor et al. (2018). The factors include intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation, personal involvement, and wine consumption. Additionally, the GCT framework by Mannheim (1952) will be used as a theoretical base to conduct exploratory research in order to see whether there are generational differences concerning wine consumption behaviour. Meaning that we investigate in the potential differences of motivation, involvement, and wine consumption between Gen Z and Millennials.

3 Theoretical Framework

When looking at the wine consumption drivers of motivation and involvement, a need to further explain the overarching theories of these drivers is provided to establish the relevancy of the research. Here the *Self-Determination Theory* (SDT) and the *Consumer Involvement Theory* (CIT) will be explaining the variables of motivation and involvement. Additionally, the *Generational Cohort Theory* (GCT) will be explained to allow for further analysing of whether there is a generational difference between Gen Z and Millennials considering their wine consumption behaviour.

3.1 Self-Determination Theory

The Self-determination theory focuses on understanding human behaviour and personality development (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017). It was developed by the psychologists Edward Deci and Richard Ryan in the 1980s and has since developed into a widely used theory to study human motivations in many different areas (Aviste & Niemiec, 2023; Fatima et al., 2023). This theory states that humans have three basic psychological needs namely: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017). The first need for autonomy refers to the demand to feel in control of one's own life and decisions. Competence focuses on the individual's needs to feel capable and effective with one's pursuits and the last-mentioned need of relatedness refers to the feeling of connectedness and support by others. According to the SDT, when these three basic psychological needs are met, individuals are more likely to be motivated (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017).

Besides the three psychological needs, the SDT also proposes three different types of motivation that can derive from human behaviour. These include intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation (absence of motivation) (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017). Intrinsic motivation arises from engaging in something due to interest, enjoyment, or fulfilment. These behaviours are solely performed out of the individual's interests and the rewards are seen in the spontaneous sensation of affection and enjoyment. Intrinsically motivated behaviours are defined as autonomous because they are experienced as emerging from the individual themselves. (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017). While intrinsic motivation is always autonomous, extrinsic motivation can vary in its autonomous degree. Extrinsic motivation can arise from several different external reinforcements like rewards, avoiding punishment, or social approval (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017). However, individuals only being motivated by either intrinsic or extrinsic factors are rare, and instead both types are affecting simultaneously. The degree to which one is either more driven by intrinsic or extrinsic motivations is determined by social conditions such as psychological well-being (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017).

Included in the main SDT are several sub-theories (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017). Through the six sub-theories, SDT acknowledges that there are aspects affecting motivation behaviour. Relevant to this research is the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) which acknowledges the linkage between extrinsic consequences such as rewards and feedback, that can affect by either supporting or weakening intrinsic motivation.

3.2 Consumer Involvement Theory

Consumer involvement has for the last decades become an important research matter to measure consumer behaviour (Bruwer et al., 2014). The consumer involvement theory studies the aspects of purchasing behaviour and the consumption process of consumers. This is done in order to evaluate to which extent a consumer is involved both mentally and physically in the consumption behaviour/process concerning a certain product or service (Bruwer et al., 2014). A consumer's involvement can then be considered as either high or low, which enables marketers to better understand their consumption behaviour (Bruwer et al., 2014). Different degrees to which a product/service is essential to a consumer's life, self-perceived identity, personality, and relationship to society, have been seen to affect consumers consumption behaviour. Individuals with high involvement are valuing knowledge and information-seeking more than those with low involvement, who instead use strategies to reduce the risks and complexity of their consumption (Bruwer et al., 2014).

However, there have also been distinctions made about how and when a consumer is either high- or low-involved with a product/service. According to Richins and Bloch (1986), there is a difference between situational- and enduring involvement. Situational involvement is defined as when the degree of involvement is explained by the situation. Whereas enduring involvement is stemming from the consumer itself and is seen as being a more permanent involvement with a certain product/service (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). The distinguishing between the two types enables us to understand that high- or low involvement is not something that is permanent to a consumer, instead it can differ depending on the purchasing occasion. An example could be when an individual with low enduring involvement with wine is going to buy a wine bottle as a gift. Then the usual consumption behaviour of that consumer not extensively seeking information and wanting to pay too much, might change because of the situation and therefore affecting the consumer behaviour. As the example shows and as established by Lesschaeve and Bruwer (2010), CIT can be a valuable theory in order to understand and predict consumption behaviours of wine.

3.3   Generational Cohort Theory

The concept of the generational cohort theory was first introduced by Karl Mannheim (1952) where he stated the following:

> *The phenomenon of generations is one of the basic factors contributing to the genesis of the dynamic of historical development. The analysis of the interaction of forces in this connection is a large task in itself, without which the nature of historical development cannot be properly understood. The problem can only be solved on the basis of a strict and careful analysis of all its component elements.* (p. 320)

Mannheim defines generations as being based on social constructs rather than just the biological factor of birthyear. The social construct can help to understand how individuals are shaped by the historical and social context in which they live. He emphasises that both biological factors and the *location* play a vital role in defining a cohort. The factor of location is focused on individuals who belong to the same generation, they are not only sharing the same year of birth but are also connected to a certain extent with a common location in the historical dimension of a society. Furthermore, one major factor he mentions in connection to location is that the definition of generational cohorts across countries is rather difficult since every country has its own history (Karl Mannheim, 1952).

When it comes to generational units, Mannheim argues that they are based on shared experiences and historical events which can create a sense of identity and solidarity among members of a particular age cohort. These generational units are not fixed nor permanent categories, but they are constantly evolving as new groups are formed and old ones slowly fade away. Furthermore, even though a member of a generational unit continues to develop throughout their whole life the characteristics created during their formative cohort years will stay the same (Karl Mannheim, 1952).

One of the key challenges he mentions is the problem of defining the boundaries between generations, as there is often an overlap and fluidity between different cohorts. Therefore, Mannheim emphasises through his research that generational analysis should not be reduced to a simple linear model of one generation replacing the last generation but that each generation represents a unique perspective on the world. Different generations can co-exist side-by-side and interact with each other in complex ways. Overall Mannheim has argued that generational analysis can be a useful tool for understanding social changes and historical development, as each generation brings a new set of ideas and values that can challenge existing social structures and create new possibilities for the future (Karl Mannheim, 1952). GCT is a framework making it possible to define generations, based on birth year but also emphasising the importance of similar life experiences and major events taking place during the formative years of an age group. The mentioned life experiences and events leave individuals within each cohort group with comparable values, attitudes, and beliefs which differentiate them distinctively from other cohort groups throughout their lifetime (Kruger & Viljoen, 2022; Thangavel, Pathak & Chandra, 2021).

3.4 Research Hypotheses

As established by the Self Determination Theory and Consumer Involvement Theory it is possible to research consumption behaviours based on an individual's motivation and involvement. Based on previous studies conducted on the topic of wine, the hypotheses of this research will focus on intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation together with personal involvement to understand and enabling to predict wine consumption. Additionally, the exploratory-focused hypotheses based on the Generational Cohort Theory will test whether there are differences between Gen Z and Millennials considering their wine consumption behaviour.

Throughout the literature review, the research gaps considering the consumer behaviour and consumption of Gen Z and Millennials in the Swedish wine market have been established. The research model presented by Taylor et al. (2018), has been identified as a suitable framework in order to increase the knowledge about these drivers and their applicability to predict these consumer's consumption behaviour. Therefore, this research will primarily use equal hypotheses as the ones proposed by Taylor et al. (2018).

In order to study the connection of the two drivers of *intrinsic-* and *extrinsic motivation* to the *personal involvement* with wine of the two generations, the first two hypotheses will be:

H$_1$: *Higher levels of intrinsic motivation to purchase wine will lead to an increase in personal involvement with wine.*

H$_2$: *Higher levels of extrinsic motivation to purchase wine will lead to an increase in personal involvement with wine.*

Based on the Cognitive Evaluation Theory by Ryan and Deci (2017) and Taylor et al. (2018) it is relevant to consider whether extrinsic motivation affects intrinsic motivation and its relationship with personal involvement. Therefore, the third hypothesis is:

H$_3$: *Extrinsic motivation to purchase wine will moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation to purchase wine and personal involvement, such that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and personal involvement will strengthen as extrinsic motivation increases.*

As has been established by the Consumer Involvement Theory and by Taylor et al. (2018), the potential for personal involvement to predict consumption behaviour will be considered relevant for this research. Because of this, the fourth hypothesis is:

H$_4$: *Higher levels of personal involvement with wine will lead to an increase in wine consumption.*

The role of personal involvement will not only be tested as a driver of consumption, but also if it can be seen as a mediator between the intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation and wine consumption. The fifth hypothesis will therefore be:

H$_5$: *Personal involvement with wine will serve as a mediator between the motivational antecedents (i.e., intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation) and wine consumption, such*

that the interaction between intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation will increase wine consumption via increasing personal involvement, forming a mediated moderation model.

In order to research the generational differences that could exist, concerning Gen Z and Millennials' wine consumption behaviour, four hypotheses with exploratory focuses based on the GCT have been created:

H6: *There are generational differences concerning the levels of intrinsic motivation between Gen Z and Millennials.*

H7: *There are generational differences concerning the levels of extrinsic motivation between Gen Z and Millennials.*

H8: *There are generational differences concerning the levels of personal involvement between Gen Z and Millennials.*

H9: *There are generational differences concerning the levels of wine consumption between Gen Z and Millennials.*

3.5   Research Model Visualisation

Figure 1: Research Model Visualisation
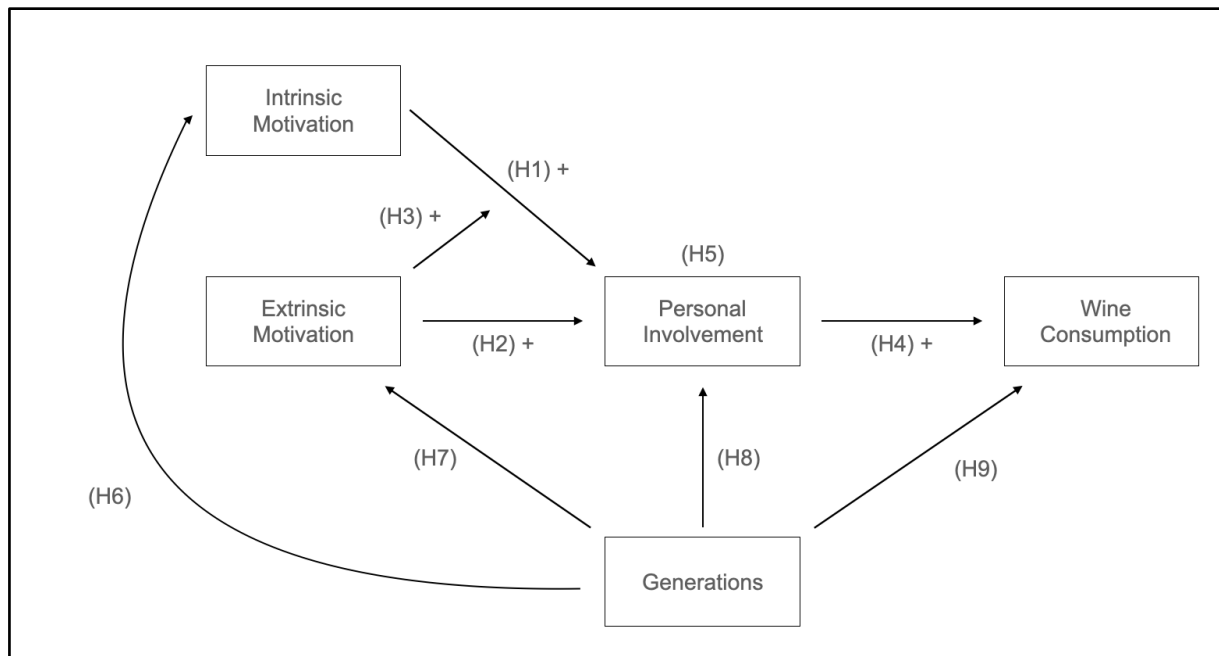
Source: Own Illustration

4 Methodology

To begin the methodology chapter, our philosophical stance in terms of ontology and epistemology throughout this thesis needs to be defined since it can influence the selection of an appropriate research design (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). Ontology is referring to the study of the nature of existence and actuality. Within research, the term ontology refers to an investigator's philosophies about the nature of reality and whether it is subjective or objective (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). Part of the ontology is the internal realist ontology which is suggesting that there is an objective reality that is existing independently of human knowledge. It indicates that our understanding of reality is shaped by our subjective involvement and interpretations of it (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). On the contrary, epistemology is referring to the study of knowledge and how this knowledge is obtained. Epistemology in research refers to the investigators' beliefs regarding how knowledge is gained and whether it is objective or subjective (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). Positivism is a part of epistemology that highlights the use of empirical observation and quantitative approaches to create an objective understanding that is generalisable, and without any research bias (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). Throughout this research, we have adopted an internal realist ontology and consequently a positivistic epistemology.

4.1 Research Approach

As reflected in the proposed research question, this thesis will identify how the variables of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation and personal involvement can predict wine consumption behaviour. This research is aiming to investigate wine consumption drivers based on the research conducted by Taylor et al. (2018). More specifically, we will look at several different items for each of the variables of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation, personal involvement, and consumption frequency mainly proposed by Taylor et al. (2018). Additionally, this research is aiming to connect the wine consumption factors established by Taylor et al. (2018) with the GCT to determine possible differences, similarities, or even patterns of wine consumption behaviour among the two relevant generations.

This research has a positivistic approach, assuming that it is possible to define the mentioned concepts and translate them into quantitative measurable items. This research will be of a confirmatory nature directed with the help of a quantitative research approach. Hence, we will use an investigative approach in answering our research question, which is reflected in the way we built our theoretical framework. Moreover, we used the past literature findings of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation, personal involvement, and consumption all referring to the field of wine research to create our hypotheses, which will be tested empirically. Additionally, our research has an exploratory influence by combining the GCT with our core research. All these mentioned items can be used to create a questionnaire and query a large sample of individuals to be able to confirm or deny our posed hypotheses.

This research takes the approach to investigate specifically the Swedish wine market consumers of Gen Z and Millennials because of the predetermined research scarcity on this market and the chosen scope of the study. For the wine industry, our findings will most importantly contribute to gaining an understanding of the intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation and personal involvement, influencing wine consumption. Furthermore, our findings will contribute to an increased ability for marketers and wine producers to recognise the younger half of the potential Swedish wine consumers, Gen Z and Millennials, based on their wine consumption. Furthermore, with the research findings, we do not only aim to contribute to the overall wine research field but also to specifically support the increasing numbers of Swedish wine producers (The Guardian, 2022a).

4.2   Confirmatory & Exploratory Research Design

A confirmatory research design is always based on exploratory research. Exploratory research is a research design used to explore and gain an initial understanding of a specific problem or phenomenon (James E. Sallis et al., 2021a). This design is often used when the researcher is unsure of the scope or nature of the research problem, or when there is a limited number of existing research on the topic (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). Confirmatory research on the other hand is a type of research design that is aiming to test or confirm specific priori hypotheses or a theory (Butler, 2014). This design is often used to validate or verify a pre-existing theory or study in a different context to prove its effectiveness (Butler, 2014). Confirmatory research begins with the identification of multiple alternative assumptions concerning the researcher's interest which is followed by the development of a research design to test the priori hypotheses through data collection. Afterward, the collected data is analysed, and conclusions are drawn based on the hypotheses (Butler, 2014). Confirmatory research design focuses on a quantitative research manner in which the goal can be seen in testing and confirming priori hypotheses (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021).

The most common starting point when conducting a confirmatory research design is to investigate the topic focusing on previous data collection conducted by other researchers. This research has presented its researched areas in the literature review. Here the scarcity of the research in the chosen areas was established, and a research question was formulated. The established research gap indicates the relevance to collect our own primary data collection. However, through the conducted literature review the already established research model by Taylor et al. (2018) was discovered which serves as a base for this research and its hypotheses. This research developed a model to test if intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation interact to predict personal involvement with wine, which then in turn predict wine consumption on the United States wine market. This model has been found supportive to predict wine consumption but has to our knowledge never been used on the Swedish market or in combination with GCT which was established as relevant in the literature review. Therefore, this model will be used as the base for the confirmatory focus of this research and to analyse the collected primary data.

Furthermore, among exploratory studies focusing on business and management research it has become quite common to cluster/segment research samples, and since confirmatory and

exploratory research designs are so closely linked this development has also influenced the field of confirmatory research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). The purpose here is to categorise heterogeneous or complex populations into easier interpretable sub-groups (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). Taylor et al. (2018), have not focused on such segmentation factors throughout their research but they recommend it to future research. Additionally, as can be seen throughout the literature review conducted earlier in this thesis, a common segmentation factor in wine research are generational cohorts. Generational cohorts will be treated as an exploratory aspect of this research. This is a very important factor throughout this research since we are not looking at the whole wine market population of Sweden, but we segmented it based on the GCT framework into the two relevant sub-groups of Gen Z and Millennials. This allows us to have a relevant focus since these are the two youngest generations in the wine market and will narrow down the complexity of this thesis.

Quantitative data collection can be conducted in multiple different ways. However, it is often linked to collection tools of surveys/questionnaires, polls, or observations (QuestionPro, 2023). For both our confirmatory and exploratory research parts, we will conduct a survey to collect primary data. There are several different techniques to conduct a survey/questionnaire such as postal surveys, telephone surveys, interview surveys, or web-based surveys. Depending on the research scope, one technique should be chosen, or a combination of the different techniques might be applied (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). This research will focus on a web-based survey due to the time limitations set to this research and the overall convenience. Further elaboration of the survey technique will be presented in the following sub-chapters. Overall, questionnaires are used for data collection to assure a standardised communication between the researcher and the participants (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). This method allows to ask all participants the same exact questions. Throughout this research, we are going to rely on questions that were predetermined by previous research. This increases our study's reliability since these predetermined questions have already been validated (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). The study that this research is based on is conducted by Taylor et al. (2018) and the questionnaire will therefore be based on the questions used in their research. However, due to the scope of this research, some modifications and additions are necessary which will be explained when elaborating on each of the variables later in this chapter. After conducting the data collection with a questionnaire, the obtained data needs to be analysed accordingly. The final research results can then be used to gain valuable insights into the specific researched area and can ultimately turn into practical implications supporting the constantly evolving wine market (Aityan, 2022).

4.3   Research Sample & Data Collection Method

The process of sampling is an important part of quantitative research. The sample for this research will be conducted through convenience sampling and will focus due to our exploratory approach on Gen Z and Millennials grown up in Sweden. The non-probability convenience sampling method is chosen based on the externally set time limit for this research. Gen Z during this research will only focus on the years of 1996 until 2003 since these birth years are by now of legal drinking age in 2023 according to the Swedish law. Millennials, however, will be

included during this research as a whole cohort from 1981-1996. In summary, our target population is females/males/other grown up in Sweden who are part of the generational cohorts between 1981 and 2003.

Data collection was conducted through a structured web-survey (Appendix A), which is one of the most common methods used to collect data in market research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). Through this survey, we want to research consumers' behavioural and attitude similarities, differences, and patterns of wine consumption to be able to answer the posed research question. This survey will be created in Google Forms and distributed both online as well as offline. The online distribution will be done through social media platforms and the offline distribution will focus on spreading physical QR codes (Appendix B) directly linking to the online survey. Social media platforms include Instagram through stories and Facebook through groups having a focus on wine. The physical QR code will be placed in the wine bar Lenoteket/L'enoteca in Lund and Malmö for the whole data collection period. Additionally, the physical QR codes will be spread over several days throughout different buildings of Lund University. Participants will be asked to share the survey with two other people to create a snowball sampling method.

When accessing the survey, respondents will be assured that their data is treated responsively and securely. Respondents will first only be asked to provide their birth year cohort and if they have grown up in Sweden, and afterward answer the posed wine-related questions about motivation, involvement, and consumption. Respondents will be provided with a thorough explanation as to why certain data is collected at the beginning of the survey. Furthermore, they will be assured that their data will not be used for other research purposes than this particular study.

The survey respondents will have to answer two filter questions in order to be directed to the main survey questions. The filter questions are asked right in the beginning and are used to assure that only respondents appropriate to the defined sample criteria can answer the survey and therefore continue with the main questions. The main questions are divided into four sections based on our variables. This is done to not lose the respondent's attention by overwhelming them with numerous questions at once. Furthermore, to attain attention throughout the survey, the questions/items out of the four different variables will be randomised. The randomisation of items will also eliminate order bias and improve the overall survey results (Cleave, 2022). Additionally, there is a fifth section containing control questions at the end of the survey. In total including filter and control questions, there will be 48 questions to be answered by the respondents which will take an approximate time of 15min. At the end of the survey, participants are given the possibility to write a comment or a concern regarding this research.

4.4 Variable Measurement & Scaling

To be able to test our hypotheses it is necessary to measure the effect between the dependent and independent variables. The chosen dependent and independent variables rely on the model proposed by Taylor et al. (2018) but the measurements have been slightly modified to fit our research.

Most of the scales for the variables were chosen based on the survey conducted by Taylor et al. (2018). Intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation will therefore be measured with a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The negative ending point is located on the left side of the scale while the positive ending point is placed on the right side. The middle point "4" represents a neutral position for respondents that are unsure or indifferent about a statement. The variable of PI is based on the PII framework by Zaichkowsky (1994). Following Zaichkowsky's method, the phrase "Wine to you is" was used as the base for all items. The framework proposes a seven-point scale between two adjectives for the respondents to mark, to indicate how they feel about wine. The variable of wine consumption was split into four different measurement aspects. The first one "*average glasses consumed per day*" is based on the main framework of Taylor et al. (2018) and will use a response scale of 0-10 glasses per day. Compared to the five-point scale ((1) *less than one per day,* (2) *one per day,* (3) *two per day,* (4) *three per day, and* (5) *four or more per day*) used by Taylor et al. (2018), a scale from 0-10 will provide more detailed answers to this particular question. The other three measurements ("*average glasses per week", "average glasses per month",* and *"average amount of bottles per month"*) aspects are measured with an open question type asking respondents to state the amount consumed according to the asked time frame, in a numerical manner. All chosen scales will be explained in more detail in the following descriptions of each variable.

Furthermore, since we used a multiple-item scale to measure the independent and mediating variables, the different items need to be evaluated. Meaning, that they need to be consistent and should contribute to measuring the same concept. This step is focused on the internal reliability and can be measured by the Cronbach's alpha value. Since we are already using established scales that have been tested in terms of validity and reliability by previous research this step is used to assure the internal reliability of our specific study and will be presented for all variables necessary in our analysis chapter.

4.4.1 Dependent Variable: Wine Consumption

The dependent variable in this research is *Wine Consumption* (WCon). Based on previous research we have chosen to study wine consumption rather than wine purchase since purchases can be for the purpose of sharing or even gifting wine (Taylor et al., 2018). Wine consumption refers to the amount of wine consumed by individuals throughout specified time periods and can be measured in several different units such as litres, bottles, or glasses. To be able to measure this variable, we have chosen to focus on the measurement units of glasses and bottles. The previous research that has been influencing these measurements was conducted by Taylor

et al. (2018), Koksal (2021), and Cox (2009). The scale was newly introduced but originated from Taylor et al. (2018) research whereas the items were adopted and slightly modified with research made by Koksal (2021) and Cox (2009). The items added will therefore not only focus on the number of glasses consumed but also on the number of bottles consumed. By this, just like previous research has shown (Cox, 2009), we enable to see whether it is easier to predict one of the measures of consumption more than the others. By not only looking at the glasses of wine consumed per day but at a weekly and monthly average as well, patterns and behaviours will be clearer to identify from this research. Respondents' wine consumption was measured by the following four questions:

Table 1: Wine Consumption Items

| "On average, how many glasses of wine do you consume per day?" (GPD) |
| "On average, how many glasses of wine do you consume per week?" (GPW) |
| "On average, how many glasses of wine do you consume per month?" (GPM) |
| "On average, how many bottles of wine do you consume per month?" (BPM) |

Source: Own Illustration

Since the measurement of GPD is based on Taylor et al. (2018) the respondents received a scale base on this research but slightly modified with a larger scale going from 0-10 instead of 0-5 to assure more specific results. With the other WCon measurement aspects, the respondents were asked to manually write down their answers in a numerical way responding to each of the asked fields. This was done in order to account for all the possible answers that could not have been achieved with a 0-10 Likert scale.

4.4.2 Independent Variable: Intrinsic Motivation

The first of the two independent variables to research in this study is the *intrinsic motivation* (IM). Intrinsic motivation refers to the reason behind the particular behaviour of an individual without any external reinforcement and where the gained value and satisfaction is solely for the individual. As established throughout the literature review several studies have focused on researching intrinsic motivation as a driver of wine consumption. To be able to measure this variable, we have chosen to use the research by Taylor et al. (2018) as a guideline for scales and items. Once again by using an established study the reliability of items and measurements has already been established once. This variable focuses on wine purchasing and asked respondents to take a position to the statement: "I purchase wine because...". This variable will be measured using the following 15-item scale:

Table 2: Intrinsic Motivation Items

| It is pleasurable (IM1) |
| I enjoy it (IM2) |
| I want to improve my quality of life (IM3) |
| I want to enjoy life (IM4) |

I want to increase my wine knowledge (IM5)
I want to share it with others (IM6)
It improves my social interaction (IM7)
It is my hobby (IM8)
I need relaxation (IM9)
I want an escape (IM10)
It shows prestige (IM11)
It is healthy (IM12)
I have had good experience with it (IM13)
It is novel (IM14)
It enhances my self-esteem (IM15)

Source: Own Illustration

When answering, respondents answered through a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

4.4.3   Independent Variable: Extrinsic Motivation

The second out of the two independent variables used during this research is the *extrinsic motivation* (EM). Extrinsic motivation is the opposite to intrinsic motivation and refers to behaviour being constituted by external reinforcement. As established in the literature review, the variable of extrinsic motivation in wine research mainly focuses on product characteristics. To be able to measure this variable we have chosen to use the Taylor et al. (2018) research as a guideline for scales and items. By once again using an established study, the possibility for a higher reliability of items and measurements throughout this research is increased. In order to make the measurement more relevant for the Swedish market, the item "promotional display" has been left out because of the regulations in Sweden not allowing to promote alcohol in stores (EUCAM, 2022).

The variable of EM focuses on the wine purchasing and asked the respondent to take a position to the statement: "I purchase wine based on...". This variable will be measured by a 14-item scale which is presented below:

Table 3: Extrinsic Motivation Items

Grape Variety (EM1)
Origin of the wine (EM2)
Information on the shelf and label (EM3)
Alcohol level (EM4)
Food pairing (EM5)
Medals or awards it has received (EM6)
Attractive packaging and design (EM7)
Brand name (EM8)
Other's recommendations (EM9)

Price (EM10)
Type of bottle closure (EM11)
Vintage (EM12)
Taste (EM13)
Aroma/Bouquet (EM14)

Source: Own Illustration

Here respondents had to use a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to answer the statements.

4.4.4   Mediating Variable: Personal Involvement

Personal involvement (PI) is the mediating variable in this research with the aim to mediate the relationship between the two types of motivation, such as intrinsic and extrinsic, and wine consumption. As personal involvement has been studied in a similar context in previous research by Taylor et al. (2018), this research has decided to use the same measuring method. While there are several different scales to measure personal involvement, Zaichkowsky's (1994) *Personal Involvement Inventory* (PII) has been seen as the most relevant because of its reliability. At the same time, by using the PII this study aims to generate results that can be compared with previous studies using the same measurement and thus increasing the knowledge in the wine research area further.

Based on Zaichkowsky's (1994), the statement "Wine to you is:" is used as an initial statement on all the ten items that the PII consists of:

Table 4: PII Items

Important (PI1)
Relevant (PI2)
Means a lot to me (PI3)
Valuable (PI4)
Interesting (PI5)
Exciting (PI6)
Appealing (PI7)
Fascinating (PI8)
Needed (PI9)
Involving (PI10)

Source: Own Illustration

The respondent will with the help of a seven-point scale, ranging from for example "unimportant" (1) to "important" (7), indicate their level of "importance" of each item. Based on each adjective the scale will be labelled accordingly.

4.4.5 Filter Questions and Control Variables

Filter questions are a type of question that is meant to help survey respondents avoid answering questionnaires that do not concern them (Guntzviller, 2018). These questions are typically formatted as "yes" or "no" questions and respondents answering with "no" are not questioned further on the topic. Participants who answer the filter question with "yes" however, are often asked a more detailed follow-up question. In general, the purpose of filter questions is to minimalise the respondent's burden and not waste the time of participants or researchers by collecting insignificant data (Guntzviller, 2018).

Throughout this research, we are only focusing on people who have grown up in Sweden. Therefore, we have incorporated in our survey as first question a filter question asking participants if they have grown up in Sweden formatted with a "yes" or "no" answer option. If participants answered with "no" they were directed without any further questioning to the end of the survey and were thanked for their participation. This was done based on GCT which clarifies generations as being country bound. Participants who answered with "yes" were asked another more detailed follow-up filter question. Since this research also explores on the GCT, the follow-up filter question controlled participants to tick one out of four cohort ranges (1946-1964, 1965-1980, 1981-1995, 1996-2003). Once again, participants answering with the older two generational cohort choices were directed without further questioning to the end of the survey and thanked for their participation. Respondents who answered by ticking the younger two cohorts fit our target group and were therefore directed to the main survey questions. By answering these two specific questions right in the beginning we assured to not waste neither participants nor our time and to only collect meaningful data for this research.

Next, we focused on so-called control variables. Control variables are anything that is considered constant or limited during a study (Scribbr, 2021). The control variables are unlike the filter questions not of interest to the study's objective but need to be controlled since they could possibly influence the research outcomes (Scribbr, 2021).

When looking at our study, three control variables should be considered. Similar to previous studies on the topic (Bruwer et al., 2014; Taylor et al., 2018), demographic variables such as gender, education, and income, will be used as variables in order to control if the results obtained in the end for our core research and exploratory part can be explained by such factors. These will be asked at the end of the survey in order to have as little of an effect on the measuring of the previous variables as possible.

Measuring these demographic variables will be done in the following way:

Table 5: Control Variables Codebook

Variable	Measurements
Gender (Categorical)	"Female" coded as 1, "Male" coded as 2, "Other" coded as 3
Educational degree (Categorical)	"University" coded as 1, "Gymnasium"* coded as 2, "PhD" coded as 3, "Yrkesutbildning"** coded as 4, "Other" coded as 5

Income (gross) in SEK (Categorical)	"Less than 25 000/month" coded as 1, "Between 25 000-50 000/month" coded as 2, "Between 50 000-75 000/month" coded as 3, "Between 75 000-100 000/month" coded as 4, "More than 100 000/month" coded as 5

Source: Own Illustration

The control questions will be answered by choosing one of the alternatives. These alternatives have been formed by looking at previous research and adjusted to the Swedish respondents to capture all the possible demographics. Additionally, respondents were given the possibility to answer the first two questions with "other" and to specify their answers.

*Gymnasium: Equivalent to high school in Sweden

**Yrkesutbildning: Professional training

4.5   Plan of Data Analysis

Data analysis throughout this research was conducted in two main stages. The first stage is the so-called preliminary analysis phase. In this phase, the conducted data was screened and then afterward prepared for the analysis in the statistical program Jamovi. The second step is the main analysis focusing on the statistical analysis which was completely conducted based on our mentioned delimitations in the analysis program Jamovi. Both phases will be explained in more detail throughout this chapter beginning with the preliminary phase.

4.5.1   Data Screening (Preliminary phase)

Through our distributed survey we received a total of 281 responses. The first step was to screen out respondents who did not fit our target population. Therefore, respondents who answered the first filter question of not having grown up in Sweden are irrelevant for this research and were hence deleted from the data set. Additionally, respondents not part of our two target cohorts of Gen Z and Millennials were also considered irrelevant for this research and therefore also deleted from the data set. After this primary data screening, we were left with 267 respondents.

As the second step, the dataset was screened to check for any possible errors. Errors included incomplete surveys or contradictory answers. Here another 11 surveys showed incompleteness or contradictory answers and were deleted from the dataset. After conducting these two steps a total of 25 responses were deleted which left us with a total of 256 respondents in the dataset, relevant to analyse.

4.5.2 Further Data Preparation in Jamovi (Preliminary phase)

The first thing done within Jamovi was to again check for missing values. Afterward, we deleted the variables not further relevant for the analysis from our data set. That includes time stamps and the first filter question posed. After conducting this check, we edited all variables and changed them to their given abbreviations and numerical sign in order to assure a good overview. Each description was adjusted with the full item name to keep a detailed overview. Each item's measure type was adjusted accordingly, and the data type was chosen. Furthermore, all the control variables which originally had a nominal measure type were transferred into their numerical code to be able to use them during the main analysis. Lastly, before starting the preliminary statistical analysis phase, we defined our significance level as being $\alpha = 0.05$. After conducting these steps, we were able to continue with the statistical part of the preliminary analysis phase.

4.5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Preliminary phase)

To assure a good model fit of each item a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was done with Jamovi, limiting all items of the model to load on a common single factor. The factor loadings will show us the standardised estimates suggesting the model fit. Furthermore, the standardised estimate will provide us with the factor loadings which should ideally be around 0.700 (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). Factor loadings below 0.500 might affect the model fit and should therefore be considered to be removed completely from the analysis (Kyriazos, 2018). However, each variable should have between three to four items in order to still assure a robust model for the analysis (Kyriazos, 2018). Additionally, the p-value can be determined, and the correlation coefficients can show if there is a rather strong correlation between the items. Furthermore, this is an important statistical analysis step in the preliminary phase since it will show us if certain items should be moved due to a high correlation (± 0.80) underneath a different variable than they are located at currently (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

Additionally, also part of the confirmatory factor analysis to assess the model fit is the analysis of the Test for Exact Fit or Chi-square ($\chi 2$) test. This test is very sensitive to the sample size and determines if the sample size might be too large or too small to assure a well model fit (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). Finally, the overall model fit can be evaluated. Here we will obtain a satisfactory fit with the values of CFI > .90, TLI > .90, and RMSEA about 0.05 to 0.08. A good model fit can be obtained through the values of CFI > .95, TLI > .95, and RMSEA < 0.05. Therefore, the final model fit should be around these proposed values (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

4.5.4 Reliability Analysis (Preliminary phase)

This analysis has already been mentioned at the beginning of chapter four. It is important in order to test the internal reliability of this study. That means that every individual item of this study needs to be tested based on its consistency (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). In order to conduct the reliability analysis the scale reliability is used where the Cronbach's α and

McDonald's omega (ω) results are both of importance for us. Cronbach's α divides the scale items into two different separate size groups to determine whether the analysis of the two parts provides comparable results. Additionally, is alpha considered very sample-specific. Meaning that it determines the characteristic of the sample in which the scale has been applied (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

The McDonald's omega (ω) results are considered a more robust reliability statistic than Cronbach's α. Here the following assumptions always need to be considered: no residual correlations, items having identical loadings, and a unidimensional scale (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

4.5.5   Descriptive Analysis (Preliminary phase)

As the last part of the preliminary phase, the analysis of descriptives should be conducted since it provides the researcher with a summary of the data making it compact and easy to understand (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). This analysis should be once conducted for each variable with all its items in order to check for any noticeable problems or to just determine the central tendency of the data. This analysis also provides a good overview if there are still any missing values, the measure of variability, and the measure of skewness and kurtosis which might have to be addressed before starting the analysis (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). Furthermore, the descriptives can show all relevant variables within one table which can provide a good first summary of possible differences or similarities between variables. This analysis also gives the option to provide a visualisation of the data which can help to understand the dataset better. Finally, it is possible to break down the dataset based on grouping variables which can be extremely helpful for the analysis process (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

4.5.6   Correlation Analysis (Main analysis)

Correlation analysis focuses on describing the relationship between two variables in the dataset. This relationship is always analysed based on its strength and direction. It can either be a positive relationship, a negative relationship, or even no relationship at all (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). A positive correlation appears when both of the values increase together. On the other hand, a negative correlation occurs when one value decreases as the other variables' value increases. The Person's correlation coefficient (r) is always between -1 and +1 where 1+ indicates a perfect positive correlation between variables, 0 indicates no correlation and -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation between variables (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). The correlation coefficient is also an effect size by itself meaning that r= +/- 0.30 indicates a weak correlation, r= +/- 0.50 indicates a moderate correlation and r= +/- 0.80 indicates a strong correlation (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). When reporting the Person's correlation coefficient (r) and the significance level are considered important.

4.5.7   Linear Regression Moderation (Main analysis)

Linear regression analyses the relationship between two variables. Linear regression moderation analyses the relationship between three variables. More specifically it analyses the relationship between one numerical independent variable, one numerical moderator, and one numerical dependent variable. Here the moderation estimates analysis, simple slop estimates and the simple slope plot need to be analysed. The interaction line in the moderation estimates analysis provides us with the significance and direction (positive/negative) of our two variables multiplied together. The p-value will therefore determine if there the tested variables moderating effect is statistically significant or not. If the moderating effect of the interaction is not statistically significant the individual effects should be analysed based on their significance as well. The simple slope estimates provide an overview of the moderator at one standard deviation lower (-1SD) and higher (+1SD) to see the clear effect of the moderator (Jamovi, 2017)

4.5.8   Conditional Mediation (Main analysis)

This analysis is used in order to establish whether a determined moderator actually has moderating effect on the components of the mediated effect forming a mediated moderation model. The results will provide a clear overview if there is a mediation effect and if so, how strong this effect is. First, it is important to establish the significance of the results. If no significance is given there is no mediation effect to observe. When the significance of results is established the different levels of ±1SD and the average level of mediation effect need to be evaluated. Here if a value is below 0 a negative level of mediation can be observed and if the level is above 0 a positive mediation can be seen. The higher the value the stronger the mediation effect (Gallucci, 2023). The indirect values should be compared to the direct effect values. If the p-value is significant in the indirect path while not being significant in the direct path the mediating variable is seen to have a significant mediating effect. Additionally, the total value explains the total effect of the indirect and direct path computed as the sum and should be taken into consideration during the analysis (Burger et al., 2013).

4.5.9   Independent Samples T-Test (Main analysis)

An independent sample t-test can be performed when wanting to compare numerical variables across two separate groups. There are three assumptions that should be considered when wanting to report the Student's t-test. The first one is that both groups are normally distributed which can be checked with the Shapiro-Wilk test. Here a non-significant result would be the optimal outcome. Visual inspections of the histograms or other visualisations should always be conducted even if the test has a significant result. The second one focuses on the groups' independence, meaning there should not be any cross-measurements. The last assumption is the homogeneity of variance which is not easy to justify in reality (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). Here again, a non-significant result is desired.

If the results of the assumptions are significant the Welch's t-test can be the better test to be used and reported since the assumptions of the Student's t-test seem to be violated. This test does not rely on the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Here the standard error calculations are different from each other, and the degrees of freedom do not have to be a whole number. Therefore, this test is a lot closer to reality since it does not assume the same standard deviation of the two groups (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

4.6   Validity and Reliability

Regardless of the research design a study needs to be evaluated based on its reliability and validity (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). The validity of a study is referring to how well the things in a study are measured (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). Validity can be divided into different types where internal, and external validity are of importance when conducting quantitative research (Pruzan, 2016). The internal validity refers to the degree to which a study's discoveries are attributed to the independent variable, rather than extraneous aspects (Pruzan, 2016). Our survey is based on previous studies meaning that all variables and items have been tested for their internal validity before. Furthermore, the items researched for each variable are established by previous literature which are also increasing the internal validity of this survey. Moreover, since we used a multi-item scale, we conducted a factor analysis in the next chapter to assure that each item is measuring the concept that it is supposed to measure. Maintaining this internal validity throughout this confirmatory research is essential in order to ensure that the relationships observed between the presented variables are likely to be causal and precise in their nature and not just the result of chance or other factors (Pruzan, 2016).

The external validity is referring to the extent to which the discoveries of a study can be generalised to other populations or new contexts (Easterby-Smith et al., 2021). As mentioned before, we are using a previously established research model as the base for this research. Therefore, we are testing if this particular research model by Taylor et al. (2018) can be applied to a new population and a new context. Here the new population is focusing on Swedish Gen Z and Millennials whereas the original model was tested on an unspecific population during a restaurant show in the United States. Furthermore, we are adding GCT to the context of wine and therefore placing this model in a completely new context. As the young generations of Gen Z and Millennials of Swedish nationality are our target group, we found it fitting to recruit our sample from social media but also through physical QR codes distributed at Lund University and the wine bar called Lenoteket/L'enoteca in Lund and Malmö. This added to our external validity by not limiting this research to only friends and family as respondents. However, the distribution of the survey is rather difficult to conduct for all of Sweden which again limits the extent of the external validity of our study, concerning the ability to draw conclusions for the population of Sweden.

The reliability of a study is referring to the consistency of the measures used throughout the research. That means that the study's results and findings could be used to repeat the study at another point in time (James E. Sallis et al., 2021). Research is differentiating between three

aspects of reliability. The first is the stability of the chosen measures, which focuses on the repeatability of a test over a certain time (Pruzan, 2016). More specifically, this means that if the same research would be conducted again with the same respondents on another occasion the same results would be obtained and therefore the stability of the measures confirmed (Pruzan, 2016). The second aspect focuses on internal reliability. This aspect is focusing on the coherency of respondent's answers throughout a study. The third and therefore last aspect is inter-observer consistency, which determines whether there is a regularity in the observer's decision or judgment (Scribbr, 2019). Contributing to the reliability of our study is first that it is a confirmatory design based on an already established research model facilitating the replication of the study. Additionally, since we are basing our research on the study conducted by Taylor et al. (2018), we provided accurate descriptions of how we adjusted and therefore conducted our research in detail. This step will support and facilitate further repetition if this study was to be conducted on another occasion. Additionally, we incorporated an exploratory aspect in this study where we based on the GCT created hypotheses with a common focus making them easily repeatable by other researchers at another point in time.

5 Analysis and Discussion

The following analysis chapter divides our study into two main sections. The first section is the preliminary data analysis. Here we first screened our data to prepare it for the analysis program Jamovi. With Jamovi we first conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to assure a good model fit followed by a reliability and descriptive analysis. The second part of this chapter is the main statistical analysis. Here we focus on conducting suitable analyses to test each hypothesis which is explained in more detail in that chapter. After the presentation of our analysis work, we will conduct a discussion based on the results established throughout this chapter.

5.1 Preliminary Analysis

The survey for this research was available for a total time frame of eleven days. With this survey, we were able to collect a total of **281 responses**. Out of the total responses 25 answers were not considered relevant based on the filter questions posed at the beginning of the survey. In more detail that means, that people who have not grown up in Sweden and do not belong to our two targeted generations (exploratory research part) were not able to answer the main survey questions and resultantly were not further relevant. Additionally, when screening the data, incomplete surveys and contradictory answers were also eliminated for further analysis. Hence, a total of **256 responses** out of the 281 to begin with, are considered relevant for the following analysis. Throughout the analysis in order to define the significance, α= 0.05 during this research. The following table presents the results concerning our three proposed control questions at the end of the survey and the second filter question concerning the generation and provides a first overview and insight into the collected sample.

Table 6: Sample Overview

Category	Count
Gender	
Female	140
Male	116
Other	0
Educational degree	
Gymnasium	25
PHD	3
University	221
Yrkesutbildning	5
Other	2
Gross income in SEK (Gross)	
Less than 25 000/month	181
Between 25 000-50 000/month	54
Between 50 000-75 000/month	16
Between 75 000-100 000/month	4

More than 100 000/month	1
Generations	
1996-2003 (Gen Z)	204
1981-1995 (Millennials)	52

Source: Own Illustration

As can be observed by the table most of the respondents are females' part of Gen Z with a university degree. Even though we had more female respondents than male respondents the gap here is not severe. It is noticeable that our survey was mainly answered by individuals with a university degree which was to be expected since the survey was distributed physically largely in university buildings. The two respondents answering the educational degree question with "other" specified their answer as having a degree from Folkhögskola and "YH" (Yrkeshögskola). When looking at the responses concerning gross income in SEK, we can observe that the majority of respondents have a gross income in the lower area of less than 25 000/month. This responds to our earlier assumption that most of our respondents are still students (university) and are not earning a full salary yet. The last presented factor in this table is based on the second filter question. Here respondents were asked in which birth year cohort they were born to add to the exploratory part of our study. Since for this research, Gen Z and Millennials were considered the most relevant the other generations were not further considered. As can be seen, is the majority of respondents part of Gen Z (204 out of 256). This again responds to the assumption that most respondents are still in university. Since the distribution of Gen Z and Millennials is rather unequal it is important to keep this in mind throughout this whole analysis process since it could affect this study's results.

5.1.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The first step within Jamovi was to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis, in order to limit all the researched items of the model to load on a common single factor. When conducting this first analysis step, we realised that many of the items did not get acceptable factor loadings of at least 0.500 or more as a standardised estimate, nor did they have significant p-values (Appendix C, 1.1). Furthermore, some of our items were by Jamovi considered as reverse items which lead to negative factor loadings. Therefore, we had to consider removing the items which did not load well. We started the modification process by removing items step by step beginning with the reversed items and worked our way through every value below 0.500. We started this analysis with a total of 39 items (15 items IM, 14 items EM, 10 items PI). After eliminating step by step, we had 15 items left (4 items IM, 5 items EM, 6 items PI), which could load on their common single factors with factor loadings around and above 0.700. In order to still assure a robust analysis, it is ideal to have three to four items underneath each variable (Kyriazos, 2018). As can be observed in the CFA table below we ended up with at least four items for each variable, hence assuring a robust analysis.

Table 7: Factor Loadings

Factor Loadings						
Factor	Indicator	Estimate	SE	Z	p	Stand. Estimate
IM	IM3	1.043	0.1119	9.32	<.0001	0.549
	IM5	1.547	0.1086	14.25	<.0001	0.768
	IM8	1.493	0.1071	13.94	<.0001	0.768
	IM14	0.744	0.0860	8.64	<.0001	0.513
EM	EM1	1.552	0.1175	13.21	<.0001	0.740
	EM2	1.481	0.1072	13.81	<.0001	0.764
	EM5	1.117	0.1046	10.67	<.0001	0.628
	EM12	1.298	0.0964	13.47	<.0001	0.749
	EM14	1.544	0.1091	14.15	<.0001	0.774
PI	PI4	1.207	0.0867	13.92	<.0001	0.756
	PI5	1.447	0.0868	16.67	<.0001	0.852
	PI6	1.384	0.0833	16.61	<.0001	0.850
	PI7	1.032	0.0850	12.15	<.0001	0.686
	PI8	1.446	0.0843	17.15	<.0001	0.866
	PI10	0.932	0.0953	9.78	<.0001	0.576

Source: Jamovi

As can be observed in the factor loadings table above, after the conducted adjustments only acceptable factor loadings all with significant p-values are presented. After analysing the factor loadings table the next step also part of the confirmatory factor analysis is the analysis of the Factor Covariance table.

Table 8: Factor Covariance

Factor Covariances						
		Estimate	SE	Z	p	Stand. Estimate
IM	IM	1.000 [a]				
	EM	0.949	0.0258	36.8	<.0001	0.949
	PI	0.953	0.0229	41.7	<.0001	0.953
EM	EM	1.000 [a]				
	PI	0.763	0.0354	21.5	<.0001	0.763
PI	PI	1.000 [a]				

Source: Jamovi

Here the correlation coefficients are of interest to us. The correlation of IM with EM and PI is rather high (±0.80) with significant p-values, which is not an optimal result but is often the case when examining consumer behaviours (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). However, there is still a visible distinction between them which is why we allow the factors to co-vary (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

When looking at the Test for Exact Fit or Chi-square (χ2) test we are assessing the model fit which is very sensitive to the sample size.

Table 9: Test for Exact Fit

Test for Exact Fit		
χ²	df	p
243	87	<.0001

Source: Jamovi

In this case, we can observe that the chi-square value is large and significant. That indicates that our sample size is not too large and that the model fit is well.

Next, we are looking at the Fit Measure analysis (Appendix C, 1.1.2). Here we can observe a satisfactory model fit with **CFI=0.931; TLI= 0.916; RMSEA= 0.0837**. After establishing this satisfactory model fit, we will be conducting a reliability analysis to look at the reliability of each factor.

5.1.2   Reliability Analysis

The reliability analysis is important in order to test the internal reliability of this study. That refers to the consistency of all the individual items that make up this study. For the reliability analysis we look at both the Cronbach's α and McDonald's omega (ω) results in the Scale Reliability Statistics table (Appendix C, 1.2). We began by looking at Cronbach's α which divides the scale items into two different sizes and separate groups to determine whether the analysis of the two parts provides comparable results. Additionally, is alpha considered very sample-specific. Meaning that it determines the characteristic of the sample in which the scale has been applied (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022). When looking at our alpha value we can observe the value being above 0.70. This first indicates a well enough internal reliability. Furthermore, since none of the alpha values are close to 0.95, we do not assume a high inter-correlation between the items.

However, as we have mentioned in the beginning is our sample very unevenly split between Gen Z and Millennials indicating a rather unequal sample which can affect the alpha value. Therefore, we also look at the McDonald's omega (ω) results since it is considered a more robust reliability statistic than Cronbach's α. Here we can observe that the omega value is very close to the alpha value indicating that the assumptions of no residual correlations, items having identical loadings, and a unidimensional scale are not violated (Navarro & Foxcroft, 2022).

IM (α= 0.740; ω= 0.751)

EM (α= 0.850; ω= 0.852)

PI (α= 0.895; ω= 0.898)

Resultantly, we can say that all variables have a well reliability with IM having a 30% error variance in a scale whereas EM and PI have a 20% error variance in a scale.

5.1.3 Descriptive Analysis

After conducting the CFA and reliability analysis we had a look at the descriptive statistics. Here we first conducted the descriptive analysis separately for all the chosen variables with their relevant items based on the grouping variable of generations. This very detailed analysis can be found in Appendix C, 1.3. Before beginning the main statistical analysis, another step focusing on the multiple-item scales was taken. For clarity and overview reasons we created means for the variables that consisted of multiple items. The following table provides an overview of the of the IM, EM, and PI variables means and the dependent variable options once again based on the grouping variable of generations.

Table 10: Descriptive Overview

Descriptives								
	Generations	IM Mean	EM Mean	PI Mean	GPD	GPW	GPM	BPM
N	Millennials	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
	Gen Z	204	204	204	204	204	204	204
Missing	Millennials	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Gen Z	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	Millennials	4.14	5.24	4.52	1.08	3.37	12.3	3.97
	Gen Z	3.36	3.56	4.27	0.564	2.96	12.5	2.78
Median	Millennials	4.50	5.80	4.67	1.00	3.00	10.0	4.00
	Gen Z	3.25	3.60	4.33	0.00	3.00	10.0	2.00
Standard deviation	Millennials	1.32	1.38	1.12	0.652	2.02	6.42	1.86
	Gen Z	1.36	1.36	1.36	0.750	2.30	9.68	2.26
Minimum	Millennials	1.00	1.00	1.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Gen Z	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Maximum	Millennials	6.50	7.00	6.00	3.00	10.0	32.0	8.00
	Gen Z	7.00	7.00	7.00	5.00	14.0	60.0	10.0

Source: Jamovi

The table provides us with an overview of everything relevant. We can now assure that there are no missing values in our data set and see the first indications concerning the two generations of wine consumption. Furthermore, we can see that there are no values lower than 1 and higher than 7 (answers outside the Likert scales) in the independent and mediating variables. This table also provides a good overview to primarily identify extreme points which can be helpful throughout the further analysis. However, since this is only a basic overview which does not give us a detailed analysis to answer our hypotheses, we have now completed the preliminary analysis and are prepared to begin our main statistical analysis to test our hypotheses thoroughly.

5.2 Main Statistical Analysis

After assuring a satisfactory model fit in the previous part throughout this section, we will conduct the main analysis. For this, we will analyse the data conducted in detail in order to test and resultantly answer our posed hypotheses. This will be done in multiple steps with the help of suitable analyses within Jamovi.

5.2.1 Correlation Matrix (H1, H2, H4)

This chapter will focus on analysing the first two hypotheses followed by H4. The hypotheses H1 and H2 proposed that higher levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to purchase wine would each lead individually to an increase in PI with wine. In order to test these two hypotheses a correlation matrix analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the variables. Additionally, before testing each hypothesis specifically added our control variables to the analysis in order to control if these specific variables have a noticeable effect on the correlations and compared it to the correlation matrix without controlling variables (Appendix C, 1.4). There were no considerable effects visible of the control variables when looking at the correlations. The following partial correlation table presents our results concerning H1, H2, and H4.

Table 11: Correlation Matrix

Partial Correlation		IM Mean	EM Mean	PI Mean	GPD	GPW	GPM	BPM
IM Mean	Pearson's r	—						
	p-value	—						
EM Mean	Pearson's r	0.752 ***	—					
	p-value	<.0001	—					
PI Mean	Pearson's r	0.808 ***	0.679 ***	—				
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	—				
GPD	Pearson's r	0.274 ***	0.275 ***	0.221 ***	—			
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	0.0002	—			
GPW	Pearson's r	0.367 ***	0.289 ***	0.394 ***	0.490 ***	—		
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	—		
GPM	Pearson's r	0.286 ***	0.199 ***	0.333 ***	0.496 ***	0.817 ***	—	
	p-value	<.0001	0.0007	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	—	
BPM	Pearson's r	0.340 ***	0.331 ***	0.304 ***	0.588 ***	0.733 ***	0.727 ***	—
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	—

Note. controlling for 'Gender ', 'Education', and 'Income'
Note. H_a is positive correlation
Note. * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001, one-tailed

Source: Jamovi

When observing the results in the table we can see that H1 is supported by a strong positive and highly significant correlation of r= 0.80, p<.0001 between intrinsic motivation and PI. H2 is as well supported by extrinsic motivation correlating highly significantly and strongly positively with PI, r= 0.679, p<.0001.

H4 proposed that high levels of personal involvement with wine will lead to an increase in wine consumption. In order to analyse H4, PI was tested with each of the four measurement options (GPD, GPW, GPM, BPM) for wine consumption in order to find the best-fitting one in terms of correlation and significance.

Support for H4 focusing on glasses per day (GPD) was obtained from a weak but positive, significant correlation between PI and GPD, r= 0.221, p = 0.0002. Next, we tested H4 focusing on glasses per week (GPW). Here support was also obtained from a weak but positive, highly significant correlation between PI and GPW, r= 0.394, p<.0001. The next measurement option for H4 was glasses per month (GPM) which as well obtains support from a weak but positive, highly significant correlation between PI and GPM, r= 0.333, p<.0001. The last measurement option for H4 was bottled per month (BPM) which also gained support through a weak but positive, highly significant correlation between PI and BPM, r= 0.304, p<.0001. As can be seen by these results the highest correlation between PI and GPW indicates that this measurement option has the best fit when wanting to predict consumption with PI. Since it is also an important step to visualise the results, we looked at the correlation plot which is only possible without the control variables in Jamovi. However, since there were no considerable effects of the control variables, we looked at the plot without the control variables (Appendix C, 1.5). Here we could observe that we have some extreme points which we have already previously seen in the descriptive analysis.

5.2.2   Linear Regression Moderation (H3)

In order to test the moderating effect of EM on the relationship between IM and PI, a moderation regression was conducted. As can be seen in the moderation estimates, the relationship between IM and PI is moderated by EM (p<0.05). Looking at the simple slope estimates, in this case at low levels of EM (-1 SD), the relationship between IM and PI is higher (b = 0.782, SE = 0.049, z = 16.1, p <0.0001), compared to when a respondent's EM is high (+1 SD) (b = 0.574, SE = 0.049, z = 11.8, p < 0.0001). This results in H3 not being supported.

Table 12: Moderation Estimates

Moderation Estimates

	Estimate	SE	Z	p
IM Mean	0.6783	0.0345	19.65	<.0001
EM Mean	0.1006	0.0315	3.20	0.0014
IM Mean ∗ EM Mean	−0.0687	0.0220	−3.12	0.0018

Simple Slope Estimates

	Estimate	SE	Z	p
Average	0.678	0.0351	19.3	<.0001
Low (-1SD)	0.782	0.0485	16.1	<.0001
High (+1SD)	0.574	0.0488	11.8	<.0001

Note. shows the effect of the predictor (IM Mean) on the dependent variable (PI Mean) at different levels of the moderator (EM Mean)

Source: Jamovi

These results are visualised in the simple slope plot figure.

Figure 2: Simple Slope Plot
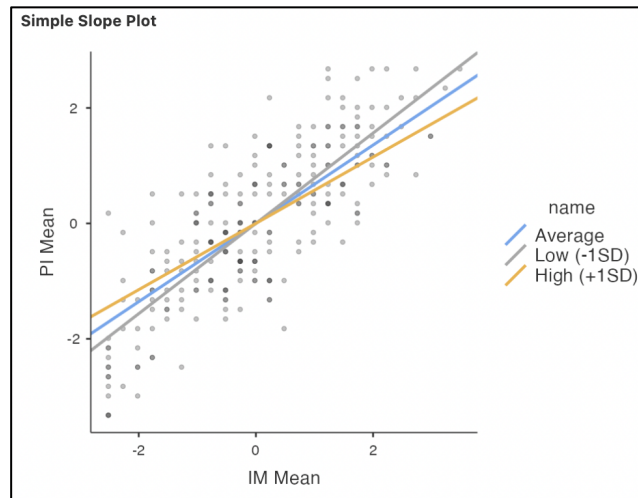
Source: Jamovi

5.2.3   Conditional Mediation (H5)

To analyse the H5, a mediated moderation model was conducted (Appendix C, 1.6). In the four tables conducted, each of the four consumption measures (GPD, GPW, GPM, BPM) have been analysed. This has been done in order to see whether the interaction between EM and IM will affect the consumption through the mediating variable PI.

When looking at the mediating effect of PI between IM and GPD, for low (IE=0.075, CI= [-0.013,0.163], beta=0.135, z=1.668, p=.0952) and average (IE=-0.0399, CI= [-0.116,0.036], beta=-0.073, z=-1.031, p=.3027) levels of EM there is no significant mediating effect. However, for high levels of EM the mediating effect of PI is significant and negative (IE=-0.123, CI= [-0.192, -0.054], beta=-0.216, z=-3.48, p=.0005).

Continuing with looking at the mediating effect of PI between IM and GPW, PI has mediating effect for each of the levels of EM. For low levels of EM (IE=0.363, CI= [0.098,0.627], beta=0.223, z=2.69, p=.007) PI has the strongest mediating effect compared to when the level is average (IE=0.304, CI= [0.075,0.533], beta=0.187, z=2.61, p=.009) and high (IE=0.249, CI= [0.052,0.445], beta=0.153, z=2.48, p=.013).

Similar effects can be seen when analysing the effect of PI between IM and GPM. Here the mediating effect of PI is stronger when the levels of EM are low (IE=2.107, CI= [0.0994,3.221], beta=0.317, z=3.708, p=.0002). At the same time, there are significant effects of average (IE=1.415, CI= [0.469,2.361], beta=0.215, z=2.932, p=.0034) and high (IE=0.85, CI= [0.05,1.65], beta=0.13, z=2.082, p=.0374) levels of EM, however, they are not as strong.

Taking a look at the last consumption measure BPM, there is no significant mediating effect of PI on any level of EM: low: (p=.259), average (p=.7467), and high (p=.0805).

The way H5 is defined, PI was supposed to serve as a mediating variable between IM, EM, and the consumption measures. Since this research has conducted four different consumption measurements to see if there would be any practical differences when trying to predict wine consumption, the testing of H5 has been divided into four parts. Because of the varied results concerning the different consumption measurements, it is not possible to neither reject nor accept the hypothesis. H5 is therefore partly supported in the case of GPD, GPW, and GPM, where PI was seen to have a mediating effect on one or all the various levels of EM. Here also comparing to the direct effects the mediating effect was still strong. When looking at the measurement of BPM the hypothesis cannot be supported due to being non-significant and clearly observing that the direct effects levels are higher than the indirect levels. Therefore, IM does not serve as a mediator between IM and BPM on any effect level of EM.

5.2.4 Independent Samples T-Test (H6, H7, H8, H9)

In order to test the exploratory hypotheses, H6, H7, H8, and H9 of the research, independent samples t-tests were conducted (Appendix C, 1.7).

Table 13: Test of Normality and Homogeneity of Variance

Tests of Normality		statistic	p
IM Mean	Shapiro-Wilk	0.990	0.0762
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.0505	0.5317
	Anderson–Darling	0.608	0.1126
EM Mean	Shapiro-Wilk	0.992	0.1630
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.0572	0.3725
	Anderson–Darling	0.656	0.0861
PI Mean	Shapiro-Wilk	0.989	0.0457
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.0518	0.4993
	Anderson–Darling	0.536	0.1679
GPD	Shapiro-Wilk	0.805	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.2488	<.0001
	Anderson–Darling	15.723	<.0001
GPW	Shapiro-Wilk	0.894	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.1422	<.0001
	Anderson–Darling	5.580	<.0001
GPM	Shapiro-Wilk	0.867	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.1282	0.0004
	Anderson–Darling	6.795	<.0001
BPM	Shapiro-Wilk	0.919	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.1446	<.0001
	Anderson–Darling	5.478	<.0001

Note. Additional results provided by *moretests*

Homogeneity of Variances Tests

		F	df	df2	p
IM Mean	Levene's	0.0121	1	254	0.9125
	Variance ratio	0.950	51	203	0.8535
EM Mean	Levene's	0.1885	1	254	0.6645
	Variance ratio	1.032	51	203	0.8532
PI Mean	Levene's	3.0657	1	254	0.0812
	Variance ratio	0.679	51	203	0.1024
GPD	Levene's	7.8941	1	254	0.0053
	Variance ratio	0.756	51	203	0.2386
GPW	Levene's	1.4597	1	254	0.2281
	Variance ratio	0.768	51	203	0.2666
GPM	Levene's	5.5473	1	254	0.0193
	Variance ratio	0.439	51	203	0.0008
BPM	Levene's	4.0166	1	254	0.0461
	Variance ratio	0.680	51	203	0.1047

Note. Additional results provided by *moretests*

Source: Jamovi

Looking at the test of normality for these variables, the IM (W = 0.990, p = 0.073), EM (W = 0.992, p = 0.163), and PI (W = 0.989, p = 0.046) all fulfilled accepted levels of the Shapiro-Wilk's test (N = 256), which was not the case for the four consumption measures, GPD, GPW, GPM and BPM, which all had p-values lower than 0.0001. Followed by the Test of Normality, we analysed the homogeneity of variance and could observe that the Levene's result for IM (F = 0.012, p = 0.913), EM (F = 0.189, p = 0.665), and PI (F = 3.066, p = 0.081) all fulfilled accepted non-significant levels. When looking at the consumption measures during this test we can observe that only GPW (F = 1.459, p = 0.228) is non-significant and has therefore an accepted level. The other measure GPD (F = 7.894, p = 0.005), GPM (F = 5.547, p = 0.019) and BPM (F = 4.017, p = 0.046) are all significant and have therefore based on the assumption no accepted level.

The values of these two assumption tests, therefore, make us aware that there might be no difference between the generations when considering the consumption measures. However, in order to be completely sure about this assumption we will have a look at the visualisations after looking at our results concerning the Independent Samples T-Test and Group Descriptives.

*Table 14: Independent Sample T-Test and Group Descriptives*

Independent Samples T-Test		Statistic	df	p		Effect Size
IM Mean	Student's t	3.747	254	0.0002	Cohen's d	0.5821
	Welch's t	3.805	80.6	0.0003	Cohen's d	0.5866
EM Mean	Student's t	7.921	254	<.0001	Cohen's d	1.2306
	Welch's t	7.848	78.1	<.0001	Cohen's d	1.2248
PI Mean	Student's t	1.184	254	0.2377	Cohen's d	0.1839
	Welch's t	1.327	93.2	0.1877	Cohen's d	0.1941
GPD	Student's t	4.517 [a]	254	<.0001	Cohen's d	0.7017
	Welch's t	4.907	88.6	<.0001	Cohen's d	0.7303
GPW	Student's t	1.163	254	0.2459	Cohen's d	0.1807
	Welch's t	1.258	88.0	0.2118	Cohen's d	0.1876
GPM	Student's t	−0.143 [a]	254	0.8867	Cohen's d	−0.0222
	Welch's t	−0.181	117.4	0.8570	Cohen's d	−0.0246
BPM	Student's t	3.499 [a]	254	0.0006	Cohen's d	0.5436
	Welch's t	3.921	93.1	0.0002	Cohen's d	0.5737

Note. H_a μ Millennials ≠ μ Gen Z
[a] Levene's test is significant (p < .05), suggesting a violation of the assumption of equal variances

Group Descriptives		Group	N	Mean	Median	SD	SE
IM Mean		Millennials	52	4.14	4.50	1.321	0.1832
		Gen Z	204	3.359	3.25	1.356	0.0949
EM Mean		Millennials	52	5.24	5.80	1.377	0.1910
		Gen Z	204	3.565	3.60	1.356	0.0949
PI Mean		Millennials	52	4.52	4.67	1.119	0.1552
		Gen Z	204	4.275	4.33	1.358	0.0951
GPD		Millennials	52	1.08	1.00	0.652	0.0904
		Gen Z	204	0.564	0.00	0.750	0.0525
GPW		Millennials	52	3.37	3.00	2.016	0.2795
		Gen Z	204	2.964	3.00	2.299	0.1610
GPM		Millennials	52	12.28	10.00	6.420	0.8902
		Gen Z	204	12.483	10.00	9.683	0.6780
BPM		Millennials	52	3.97	4.00	1.861	0.2581
		Gen Z	204	2.785	2.00	2.256	0.1580

Source: Jamovi

Based on the analysis conducted, there were significant differences between Gen Z (M = 3.36, SD = 1.36) and Millennials (M =4.14, SD = 1.32; $t(254) = 3.81$, $p < 0.05$, $d = 0.59$) concerning their levels of IM. Therefore, H6 is supported which can also be clearly seen in the visualisation.

Figure 3: IM Mean Generations
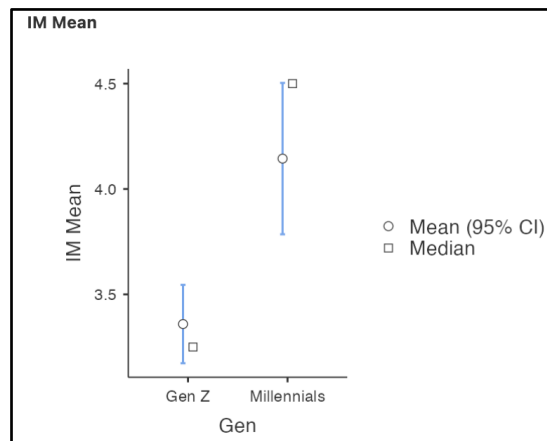
Source: Jamovi

This was also the case for the levels of EM between Gen Z (M = 3.57, SD = 1.37) and Millennials (M = 5.24, SD = 1.38; $t(254) = 7.85$, $p < 0.05$, $d = 1.23$). Which also makes H7 supported and can also be seen once again in the visualisation.

Figure 4: EM Mean Generations
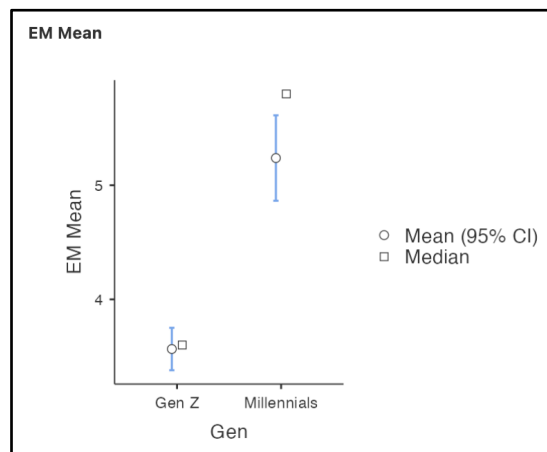
Source: Jamovi

Concerning H8, there were no significant differences between the levels of PI concerning Gen Z (M = 4.28, SD = 1.39) and Millennials (M = 4.52, SD = 1.12; $t(254)$ = 1.33, $p > 0.05$, d = 0.19) which can also be observed in the visualisation. This results in H8 being rejected.

Figure 5: PI Mean Generations
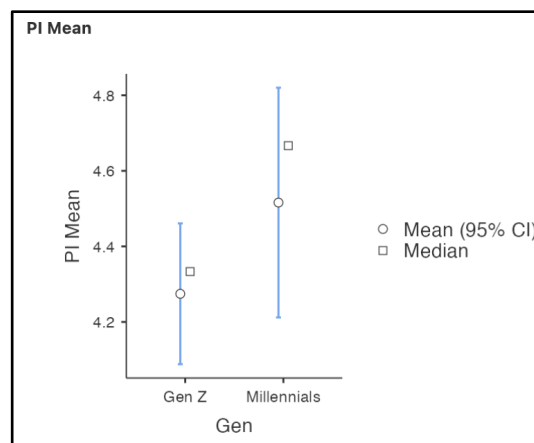
Source: Jamovi

Lastly, we will have look at the visualisations of the consumption measures even though most of the results were not met by the assumptions for normality and variance.

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Figure 6: WCon Measures Generations
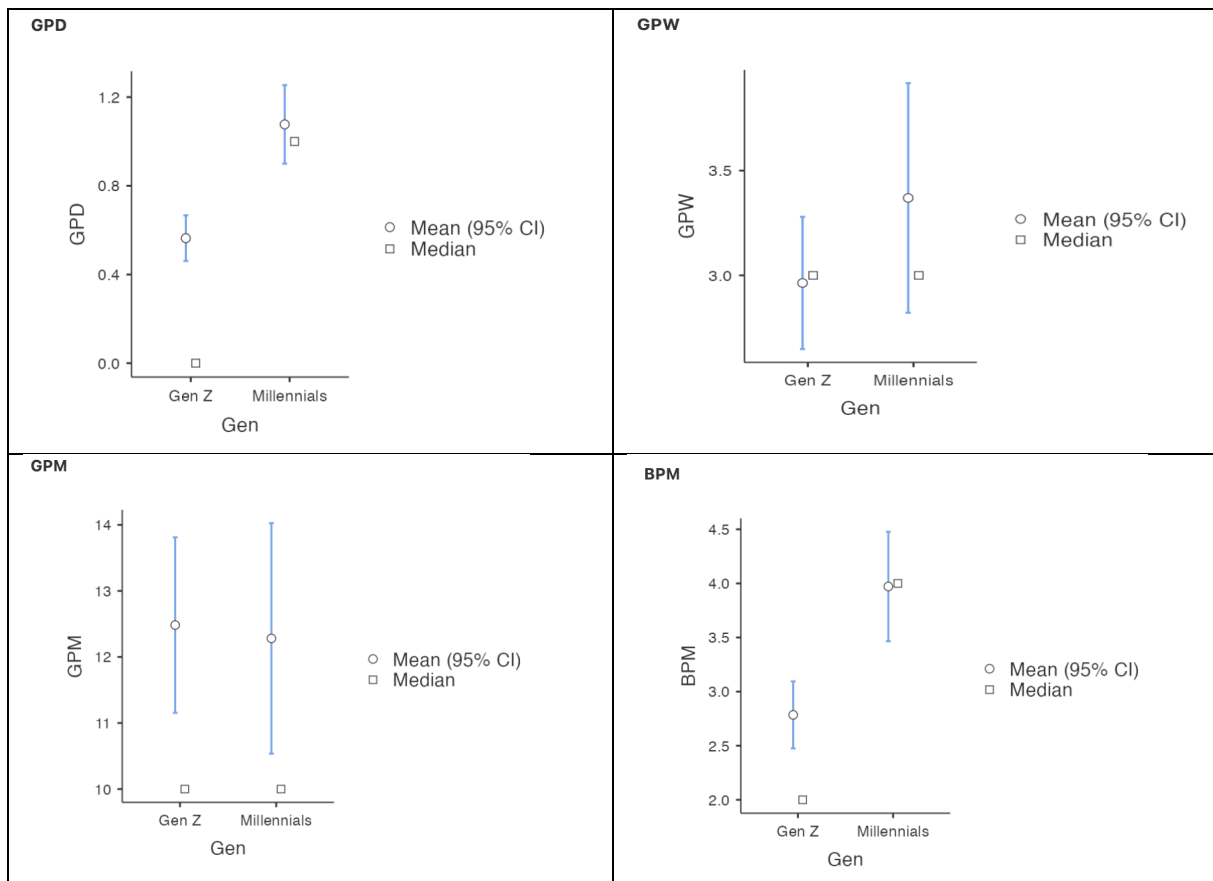
Source: Jamovi

Based on the visualisations of consumption measures there could be seen as being significant differences in the GPD between and Gen Z (M = 0.564, SD = 0.75) and Millennials (M = 1.08, SD = 0.652, ; $t(254)$ = 4.907, $p < 0.05$, d = 0.73). There is also significant differences between Gen Z (M = 2.785, SD = 2.256) and Millennials (M = 3.97, SD = 1.861, ; $t(254)$ = 3.921, $p < 0.05$, d = 0.574) concerning BPM. In both cases Millennials are the generation that consumes the most. By these results, H9 is partly supported.

5.3 Discussion

During the following discussion, we will be analysing the hypotheses in the same order as they have been analysed in the last chapter. Meaning that first, we will analyse hypotheses one, two, and four followed by the other hypotheses.

Beginning with the first hypothesis which stated that high levels of intrinsic motivation to purchase wine would lead to an increase in personal involvement with wine, had a strong and significant positive correlation based on the achieved results. This was also the case for the second hypothesis stating that high levels of extrinsic motivation to purchase wine would lead to an increase in personal involvement with wine, which also had a strong, significant, and positive correlation based on the analysis. After having removed items from the variables, based

on the CFA, these results still both support the findings made by Taylor et al. (2018), stating that it is a valuable way of measuring the potential drivers of wine consumption. When looking further into the literature review, we can see that both motivation and involvement have been used separately as drivers to predict wine consumption before. The relevancy of both drivers to predict wine consumption has therefore been established several times before among others by Lockshin et al. (2001), Balestrini and Gamble (2006), and Rahman and Reynolds (2015). As stated by the theory, motivation is closely linked to involvement. According to Richins and Bloch (1986) situational involvement, or in our case extrinsic factors, can have an effect on the degree of involvement. The possibility to link situational involvement with extrinsic factors is that a situation is created by the extrinsic factors present in a specific purchase occasion, which is the same as for extrinsic motivation. They could therefore be seen as being based on the same factors. Additionally, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) determined that enduring involvement or in our case intrinsic factors are as well closely connected to the degree of involvement. The possibility to link enduring involvement with intrinsic motivation is also explained by that they are both based on intrinsic factors. The involvement theory therefore states that depending on the two types of extrinsic and intrinsic factors in a purchase occasion the involvement level of consumers can change. Taylor et al. (2018) have therefore primarily connected the fields of motivation and involvement in wine research. Through our results, we can confirm a relevant connection between motivation and involvement which is not only the same as Taylor et al. (2018) established but can also be found and therefore supported by the theory.

The fourth hypothesis was stating that high levels of personal involvement with wine would lead to an increase in wine consumption. Since wine consumption during this research was tested with multiple different measurements this analysis had to be done for each of the consumption measures (GPD, GPW, GPM, BPM). Based on the obtained results this hypothesis had a significant weak positive correlation throughout all the measurement options. This means that the respondents with a high personal involvement with wine were more likely to consume larger quantities compared to those who were not personally involved. These results support the findings made by Taylor et al. (2018). During this study, they determined that personal involvement significantly affected the wine consumption of individuals. Additional research conducted by Rahman and Reynolds (2018) also found that consumers' personal involvement is closely linked to consumption frequency meaning that higher consumer involvement led to higher consumption frequency. Based on theory however, the personal involvement and with that the related consumption behaviour is very much dependent on the consumer's life, self-perceived identity, personality, and relationship to society (Bruwer et al., 2014). Depending on these aspects individuals are either low or highly involved in consumption processes and therefore either seeking or not interested in knowledge and information concerning the consumption process. This could be the case for this research because of the homogenous demographics of this research sample being mainly Gen Z students. When comparing to previous studies made by Taylor et al. (2018) and Rahman and Reynolds (2018) both had more diverse samples in terms of age and education level and therefore a better focus on consumer's life, self-perceived identity, personality, and relationship to society. Even though in this research, all the correlations were similar to each other and weak, the strongest correlation could be seen between PI and GPW. This shows that it is easier to predict a respondent's consumption quantity per week based on their level of involvement compared to glasses per day, month, or bottles per month.

Continuing with the third hypothesis, stating that extrinsic motivation would moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and personal involvement with wine. This relationship was also thought to be moderated in such a way that an increase in extrinsic motivation would increase the relationship between the two stated variables. Based on the results found in this research the extrinsic motivation was determined to have a significant moderating role. However, an increased relationship between intrinsic motivation and personal involvement was rather seen when extrinsic motivation was decreased, meaning that the result was the opposite of what was expected through the hypothesis. It was also the opposite of the findings made by Taylor et al. (2018), who could support the hypothesis with their results. This type of contrary can be found in the theory as well, stating that extrinsic motivation can either strengthen or weaken the level of intrinsic motivation. These assumptions have been explained by the CET (Richard M. Ryan and Edward L. Deci, 2017). Why the direction of the hypothesis was stated in the way it was, was because of the previous study on the topic by Taylor et al. (2018) and not necessarily based on theory. The opposite result found in this research is therefore seen to be a valuable reason to further research this relationship. In order to understand what differentiates this research result from the previous research could be found in the surrounding factors. One of these might be the sample used. The sample used by Taylor et al. (2018) consisted of an older population with an established interest in wine, whereas this study mainly had respondents in the Gen Z cohort who are studying. Another possible explanation for the observed differences could be the low factor loadings that resulted in having to remove several items from the variables compared to the ones used by Taylor et al. (2018).

As the fifth hypothesis stated, PI was assumed to act as a mediator between IM, EM, and each of the four measures of WCon, in the way that the interaction between IM and EM will increase WCon via PI. Starting with the consumption measure GPD, PI significantly mediated the relationship between IM, EM, and GPD for high levels of EM, in a negative manner. When then looking at GPW and GPM, the mediating effect of PI was significantly mediating the relationship in a positive and stronger manner. For both GPW and GPM, the mediating effect increased when the level of EM decreased, meaning that the connection between IM and WCon was stronger when respondents' EM was low. Lastly taking a look at the WCon measure of BPM, the mediating effect of PI was not significant at any levels of EM. As can be seen, by these results, the mediating role of PI is depending on the different levels of EM as well as the way of measuring WCon.

When comparing the results of H5 to the previous research by Taylor et al. (2018), they found PI to have a significant mediating effect between IM, EM, and GPD, whereas that was only true for high levels of EM in this research. However, the stronger mediating effect of PI found when using GPW and GPM as WCon measures in this research indicates that PI can be seen as a valuable mediating variable to study. This is also reflected in a study conducted by Lockshin et al. (2001) where the purchase of wine was categorised as being an enjoyable experience. Furthermore, the study determined that the want to obtain knowledge concerning wine is an essential driver for wine consumption which can be seen as the personal involvement (Lockshin, Quester & Spawton, 2001). Overall, we can say that since to our knowledge PI has only once before been used as a mediator between motivation and wine consumption, we have successfully established that PI as a mediator is a valuable and novel perspective when wanting to predict wine consumption. However, as established the prediction of GPW and GPM

obtained better results in our research than the measurement of GPD established by Taylor et al. (2018).

For the exploratory part of this research, the potential generational differences in each of the variables were tested. For H6 and H7 which were looking at the motivation variables IM and EM, significant differences in the levels of motivation were found. This was not the case concerning the involvement variable PI. Concerning the four measures of WCon, the test of normality homogeneity variance was not accepted. However, we were still able to determine differences in the generations based on the visualisations in the measures of GPD and BPM. These differences found in H9, show how Millennials are the generation consuming wine in a higher quantity compared to Gen Z. The results found in H6, H7, and H9 were all in line with what is stated by the GCT, that there should exist generational differences concerning their values, attitudes, and beliefs, which are closely connected to their motivation. The main explanation to why these differences were found in this research could potentially be due to that most of the Millennial respondents have been acquired by the QR-codes distributed at the wine bars in Lund and Malmö. Compared to the Gen Z respondents who has mostly been acquired through social media and Lund University. This could possibly have led to a higher percentage of the Millennial respondent being more interested in wine and therefore indicating higher levels of both IM and EM as well as consumption.

When looking at the variable of motivation some findings considering EM could be connected to the literature review conducted in the way of how wine style preference and decision-making factors can differ between Gen Z and other older generations (Thach, Riewe & Camillo, 2021). Results regarding the IM and PI are not as thoroughly researched based on Gen Z's only recent entry into the wine market. Furthermore, when expanding the search of generational differences between Gen Z and Millennials one can observe that there is a scarcity of relevant research on Gen Z concerning their motivations and involvement. Therefore, we expanded our search to non-academic literature like websites and articles in order to gain a better insight into these generations. However, even here the literature concerning and comparing their motivations and involvement is rather scarce. Though, when looking at consumption behaviour we could observe that Gen Z's consumption is declining compared to the older generation of Millennials (The Guardian, 2022b). This can also be observed in our results where Millennials overall have a higher wine consumption than Gen Z. When searching for specific differences in wine consumption between the two generations it is easy to notice how the generations so far have mostly been treated as one group. This group has then been compared to the more researched generations of Gen X and Baby Boomers. However, when trying to explain why Gen Z is consuming less than Millennials it is difficult to find any clear indications. Overall, the literature so far suggests, that there are differences but also similarities among the generations and that researching this most recent cohort of Gen Z can lead to valuable insights. This can be partly supported by our exploratory research's findings.

6 Conclusion

As it has been established in this study there is a need to research the drivers of wine consumption, together with a generational focus on the differences of wine consumption between Gen Z and Millennials in Sweden. This is partly due to the predicted increase in the wine market both globally and in Sweden. But it is also due to the fact that Gen Z is entering the wine market and it is valuable to contribute to the research about their consumption behaviour based on their assumed unique characteristics and the scarcity of research of the generation. This research field has been studied in this research conducted in Sweden by a quantitative study focusing on motivation and involvement as drivers of wine consumption, while also comparing the two generations of Gen Z and Millennials.

Through this research, intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation together with personal involvement with wine have been seen as being drivers of wine consumption. By measuring the levels of motivation and involvement with wine of consumers it is possible to predict their current wine consumption. The strongest relationship found in this research to predict the consumption was that of intrinsic motivation on the average amount of glasses consumed per month when extrinsic motivation was low and personal involvement was serving as a mediator. Concerning the exploratory and novel part of this research, looking at the potential differences between Gen Z and Millennials in Sweden, there was seen to be significant differences discovered. The main differences were found in the levels of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation, where Millennials indicated higher levels of both motivations. At the same time, indications show that Millennials consume larger quantities of wine compared to Gen Z, however, these differences were rather minor and would need to be studied further in future research.

Based on the results of this research, the modified research model proposed by Taylor et al. (2018) together with the focus on generational differences, has been shown to generate valuable insights regarding the wine consumption in Sweden and thereby answering the research question. These insights are contributing to the knowledge of both drivers of wine consumption, as well as an increased understanding of the consumption behaviour of Gen Z and Millennials. However, to gain an even better understanding of the two fields of study, future research will need to widen the scope considering the potential consumption drivers as well as comparisons between the other generations. This increased knowledge can then be used by practitioners in the wine market in order to better allocate their budgets, generate effective marketing campaigns, and adjust their production to suit their consumer's needs. We hope that this research has provided future researchers and practitioners with valuable insights that enable for higher knowledge and practical implications in the field of wine.

6.1 Implications

Through this research, there can be valuable implications derived, both practical as well as theoretical. In this chapter, these will be clearly stated and explained in order to increase the applicability and understanding for potential practitioners.

6.1.1 Practical

Results of this research have shown that it is possible to predict wine consumption by determining the consumer's level of motivation and personal involvement with wine. This insight can be used by producers and marketers that want to extract the highest value from the growing wine market by better understanding their potential customers. One such way that is supported by this research could be the need to increase the intrinsic motivation of customers. The relationship between both GPW and GPM and the intrinsic motivation was significant, meaning that an increased intrinsic motivation of a consumer could lead to an increased consumption. At the same time, this relationship was higher when the extrinsic motivation was low, leading to the understanding that it might not be as important to spend a lot of time and budget on trying to increase the extrinsic motivation.

As could also be seen, the personal involvement with wine served as a mediator between motivation and consumption, meaning that to predict a consumer's consumption it is important to understand how personally involved they are with wine. The positive relationship here would mean that a consumer with a high personal involvement with wine is more likely to consume larger quantities compared to someone who is not as involved. Knowing this could lead to producers and marketers starting to focus on increasing the involvement of their potential customers through suitable marketing activities. One such example would be through marketing activities that provide Gen Z consumers with education/knowledge about wine, as it is requested by Gen Z (Thach, 2019). This can be done through educational videos on YouTube, Instagram, and other platforms.

Further knowledge that was obtained through the exploratory part of this research was the significant difference in levels of both intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation between Gen Z and Millennials. By understanding this, segmentation based on generation can be applied by practitioners to effectively allocate their marketing activities. In this case, Gen Z had significantly lower levels of both intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation. This suggests that, based on the previously stated implication, there is a need for producers/marketers to increase their intrinsic motivation to increase their consumption and resultantly also revenue. One way to reach the Gen Z consumer with marketing campaigns is through the use of social media since this is the generations most preferred marketing channel considering wine (Thach, 2019). Research has also found that more active Gen Z social media users who are publishing content and expressing their opinions will be greater influenced by campaigns aiming to increase intrinsic motivation (Król & Zdonek, 2020). Therefore, an increased involvement on social media of potential consumers will increase the success of the marketing campaigns. One such marketing activity that could increase involvement and therefore enable for more effective

intrinsic motivation campaigns could be to let consumers express their opinion of a wine based on taste, price, and preferred drinking occasion.

While these insights were significant in this research made in a delimited part of Sweden, it will not necessarily be the case for every other geographical area. However, the model has shown its applicability and can therefore be used to understand consumers in a desired market chosen by each producer/marketer. A possible way could be to continuously measure customers' levels of motivation, involvement, and consumption with this model to see how well the change in marketing activities and budget allocation are extracting value. An important part obtained from this research is the segmentation factor that was added to the initial model. In this case, the respondents were segmented based on generation but depending on the desired market to research it might be more relevant to use other demographical factors. These factors could be gender, income, or educational degree.

6.1.2 Theoretical

This research aimed to confirm the applicability of the research model that was proposed by Taylor et al. (2018) on the Swedish wine market. The model focused on intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and personal involvement in predicting wine consumption. Besides this main aim, this research explored generational differences between Gen Z and Millennials concerning their wine consumption. In the following, we will discuss the theoretical implications that can be made after conducting this research focusing not only on the research by Taylor et al. (2018) but also on the theories considered in this research of Self-Determination Theory, Involvement Theory, and the Generational Cohort Theory.

We will begin with the applicability of the research model chosen for this research. By confirming the applicability of the model proposed by Taylor et al. (2018), this study contributes to the existing literature by addressing the gap in research on the combination of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation with personal involvement in predicting wine consumption. The findings of this study support the connection between motivation and involvement as established in previous research. Therefore, this research model has been found to be valuable when wanting to predict wine consumption not only in the United States wine market but by this research also in the Swedish wine market. Additionally, this research has shown that this model can be used to predict wine consumption of the average wine consumer which is indifferent from Taylor et al. (2018) testing this model with wine 'enthusiasts'. This is not only adding valuable insight to the literature but is additionally adding to the external validity of this research model implicating its applicability in other demographical locations or contexts.

Opposite to the expectations, this study revealed that a decreased level of extrinsic motivation resulted in an increased relationship between intrinsic motivation and personal involvement. This particular finding provides a new perspective to the research field, differing from the results reported by Taylor et al. (2018). The moderating role of extrinsic motivation on the relationship between intrinsic motivation and personal involvement appears to be complex and deserves further investigation. Furthermore, these findings are adding to the research fields of consumer motivation and involvement. To our knowledge, we were the second ones after Taylor et al. (2018) to combine the factors of motivation and involvement within one construct

in the first place. By using extrinsic motivation as a moderator between the relationship of intrinsic motivation and personal involvement we are contributing to the theoretical understanding of the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) being part of the SDT. CET acknowledges the linkage between extrinsic consequences such as rewards and feedback affecting and therefore could either support or weaken the intrinsic motivation. Establishing, that the relationship between motivation and involvement exists, is addressing a research gap and is connecting the theories on motivation and involvement. These insights add further knowledge and detail to involvement and therefore contribute to the theoretical understanding of how personal involvement is constructed by intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation.

During this study, four different measurements of consumption were tested, differentiating from the single measurement proposed by Taylor et al. (2018). This modification of using different consumption measures adds value to the original research model, enhancing its applicability in the context of the Swedish wine market. Furthermore, this research investigated the mediating role of personal involvement towards the different wine consumption measures. It was noticeable that personal involvement had a strong mediating role with glasses consumed per week and glasses consumed per month, as compared to glasses consumed per day, as was tested by Taylor et al. (2018). Once again this showed that the modifications made by testing different consumption measures were more suitable for studying the Swedish market. When connecting to the involvement theory the results obtained add to the theoretical understanding of personal involvement concerning the Swedish wine consumers. Furthermore, they implicate that their personal involvement is seemingly different than the United States consumers tested by Taylor et al. (2018) when it comes to wine consumption. Therefore, this modification not only added to the theory of consumers in different countries being differently personally involved but also provided literature with a set of valuable consumption measures in context with this model.

When considering the results concerning our explorative research on Swedish Gen Z and Millennials wine consumers, valuable insights for the research field have been found. The study revealed notable differences between the two generations in terms of their levels of intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation and two of the wine consumption measures. This insight first of all adds to the literature, showing that it is possible and even valuable to include a relevant segmentation factor into the tested research model. When considering theoretical understanding, the results add to the belief of the generational cohort theory of generations being different from each other in each country. Our results provided a novel insight into the Swedish consumers attempting to close a research gap on the two youngest generations in this market. Since the generational cohort theory establishes that there should be differences seen between generations, our results not only provide confirmation but also adds three specific aspects in which they differentiate from each other. By establishing that Gen Z and Millennials differ notably in their intrinsic- and extrinsic motivation and wine consumption we add valuable insight into understanding the theory of generational cohorts in more detail and also to the existing literature on generations.

Overall, this research model has through this study and its use in previous studies (Taylor et al., 2018) seen to be a relevant and valuable way to measure existing motivation, involvement, and consumption to make reliable predictions on wine consumption. This has been done by establishing relationships between the included variables, while also enabling the addition of segmenting factors suitable for the specific market.

6.2 Limitations

6.2.1 Research Design

Limitations concerning the research design can be seen in this being a quantitative study. We have used a survey for the data collection meaning that we rely on what respondents answer and self-perceptions, but have no insights into their actual behaviour, which could have been potentially better captured with a qualitative or observational study.

When including the exploratory aspect in our research focusing on analysing whether there are generational differences concerning wine consumption, we decided to delimit our sample to only include the generations Gen Z and Millennials. This has suited the time limit for our data collection but has also narrowed the scope of the possible conclusions. However, as Taylor et al. (2018) emphasised, researching the segmenting of wine consumers based on generations can lead to valuable insights, which supports the decision as to why it was included in this research.

6.2.2 Selection of Research Model – Confirmatory Research

We base this confirmatory research on an established model which also limited us to a certain extent. The model used in this research was established by Taylor et al. (2018). Since this model to our knowledge only has been tested once before, the risk of not obtaining valuable results could be considered increased. During the first test by Taylor et al. (2018) the established model was determined with a good model fit. However, when using the model with the sample in this research, several of the items turned out to not have acceptable factor loadings and were proposed by our analysis program to be moved to other variables due to high covariance. In order to obtain a suitable model fit and be able to proceed with the analysis of our research we had to delete numerous items. Since to our knowledge the original study by Taylor et al. (2018) had a satisfactory model fit when including all items, the actual comparability with our results is rather limited but still possible to a certain extent.

6.2.3 Sample and Sampling Errors

The sample was obtained by distributing our online survey through social media, wine bars, and the university which we considered the most effective way of reaching our target population. We have acknowledged throughout this research that this non-probability convenience sampling process is part of our limitations since our findings can only be generalised to a certain extent to the population of Sweden.

More specifically, the limitations of this research can be seen in the extent to which this study was able to collect data on the chosen geographical area of Sweden. The survey was distributed both online, through social media, and offline in two wine bars in Lund/Malmö and Lund University. Since the sampling was done through these chosen channels, the increased likelihood of respondents being from Lund and the surrounding area was considered at the

beginning of this study. Furthermore, we had to keep in mind that the demographics of respondents from Lund, being approximately 50 % students, will likely differ significantly from the larger cities such as Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Malmö, where also a large part of Sweden's wine consumers are situated. These limitations affect the generalisability to draw conclusions about the larger population of Sweden. Would it have been possible to conduct the data collection for a longer period of time, this particular limitation would have been reduced by enabling responses to be collected throughout all of Sweden. By this, the more diverse demographics would be able to account for a larger population, compared to the proven biased demographics of Lund. Examples of how this further limited this research is shown in the majority of respondents being Gen Z students, resulting in difficulties to perform some of the analysis based on the high level of homogeneity.

6.2.4   Generational Cohort Theory – Exploratory Research

When observing research conducted with GCT as a theoretical base it becomes clear that the theory has been used in various research areas throughout the years to explore generational differences. For instance: social sciences, business research, but also management research which have all been studied with the help of GCT (Gabrielova & Buchko, 2021; Nikolić et al., 2022; Thangavel et al., 2022). However, even though the theory has been widely used researchers have found certain limitations considering the potential application. Some of the limitations are the difficulties in defining each cohort's beginning and ending date, since the concept of each cohort is that everyone included is supposed to have the same experiences. Something which is difficult to achieve when trying to define a generational cohort for multiple countries or even continents. The difficulty of defining specific cohort starting and ending dates has been mentioned in various previous studies (Kruger & Viljoen, 2022). These limitations have not only been mentioned by the studies, but also by Mannheim himself. He mentioned the difficulties of defining cohorts' starting and end dates, as well as across larger geographic locations in his early years of defining the theory, which is still being confirmed by these recent studies. Therefore, first of all, we have limited Gen Z to the individuals who are allowed to purchase wine based on Swedish law. Furthermore, we have limited the scope of our research to only focus on the Swedish generations of Gen Z and Millennials.

A further limitation is the perceived lack of distinctiveness to other segmentation schemes like the life-stage theory which, while seeming similar, instead is focusing on the change of behaviours and beliefs throughout a person's lifetime (Kruger & Viljoen, 2022). Despite these limitations, GCT has seen an increase in popularity specifically concerning the research fields of consumer behaviour product/service marketing (Thach et al., 2021).

Additionally, the GCT is clearly stating that there should be differences between generations. However, the theory does not specify differences among the generations. The theory is limiting this research in a way that it is difficult to draw conclusions about the generational differences by its lack of contributing with detailed distinctions about how the generations should differ. The theory only states that there should be differences between generations, but it does not provide any preconceptions of how or in what way. Because of this, its contribution to the analysis might be vague. This is understandable because of the theory's broad nature, making it applicable to multiple research fields and to research any of the generations.

6.2.5   Time & Budget

Due to the aspect that we were limited in budget and time these two aspects contribute to the limitations of this study. Based on the budget, financial support could have contributed to the possibility of obtaining a larger sample size and potentially increasing the possibility to have a sample equally distributed between Gen Z and Millennials across Sweden. Furthermore, financial support could also support the analysis process since valuable analysis tools such as SmartPLS require payment when exceeding a certain amount of data. In terms of the time aspect, our survey was only available for the respondents for 11 days due to the time limit. With a longer timeframe, the possibility of recruiting a larger and more diverse sample could be achieved.

6.3   Future Research

Since the research field of drivers predicting wine research in combination with a generational focus on the Swedish market is novel, we have several suggestions for future research. These suggestions are based on the valuable insights gained through this research and the limitations, to enable future contributions in this research field.

Beginning with the most relevant suggestions based on the results of this research would be to expand the sample in terms of location and the segmenting factor of generations. Suggestions are that in order to research Sweden more thoroughly the data collection should be done equally divided throughout the whole country. This would increase the generalisability of the results since the sample would be conducted through a more diverse and therefore heterogeneous sample. Furthermore, we suggest that all the relevant generations should be taken into consideration. This will provide broader insights and also enable the discovery of similarities, differences, or consumption patterns across multiple generations.

As it has been seen through this research there are significant differences between Gen Z and Millennials concerning their levels of motivation. This supports the assumption made by both GCT as well as literature, indicating that it could be valuable to further research these differences, or similarities, across generations. Specific knowledge about the generation's wine consumption would be desirable because of the GCT's vague assumption about the way the generations could differ. Our suggestions would be to specifically focus on Gen Z as consumers since they are on their way to entering the wine market and therefore have not been researched as thoroughly as the other generations. Additionally, the research that has been conducted so far has determined that the generation is significantly different in aspects such as motivation, wine consumption, and wine preferences. Conducting research about this generation could be done by both more qualitative studies enabling for a more thorough understanding of their wine consumption behaviour, or through quantitative studies comparing Gen Z to the other generational cohorts. Increasing the knowledge and awareness about generational differences and similarities will enable for more effective market segmentation. As the results in this research show, the effectiveness could come from knowing whether to target generations with intrinsic or extrinsic motivations, allowing for a better allocation of a marketing budget. Future

research would be suggested to research more of the potential behavioural consumption aspects of generations such as concerns about environmentally friendly wine and purchase occasions (buying as a gift, for own consumption, to guests).

Throughout this research, Sweden has served as the research area. This was based on the country's unique characteristic of being one of the highest consuming countries in Europe while, compared to the higher consuming countries like Portugal, Italy, and France, not being considered a large producer (BKWineMagazine, 2022). Sweden has also been proven to be relevant by its predicted increase in the wine market in the coming years (Statista, 2021). Both are based on increased consumption but also the expected increase of producers based on the change to a warmer climate (The Guardian, 2022a). Therefore, further research concerning the consumers of the Swedish wine market can be of value not only for the Swedish but also for the worldwide wine producers. Additionally, it would be interesting to conduct research trying to understand the rather new wine producers of Sweden who just now enter the wine market. Interesting research topics could include market positioning, environmental concerns, and wine tourism.

Since this research solely focused on Sweden, it could be valuable to conduct similar research in other geographical areas. The model used in this research has been established as functioning for the Swedish market. However, adapting this model with the modifications made during this research into other geographical areas can enable further insights and comparisons across countries. Furthermore, when considering the segmentation with GCT the theory states that generations are location bound which implies an interesting research area for contributing to the generational research field of wine. Since generations are location bound it could be interesting and valuable to compare generations wine consumption across different countries.

Based on the results of this research, these above-mentioned suggestions are seen to be the most relevant. However, when concluding the suggestions for future research we encourage researchers to extend the knowledge of wine consumption behaviour in connection to marketing in other geographical markets and consumer segments.

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Appendix A

This appendix includes a detailed overview of every question posed in the online survey.

Filter questions:

Have you grown up in Sweden? *

◯ Yes

◯ No

Check the time frame in which you were born *

◯ 1996-2003

◯ 1981-1995

◯ 1965-1980

◯ 1946-1964

Section 1:

I purchase wine because *it is pleasurable* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *grape variety* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly agree

Wine to you is *important* *

(indicate your level of importance)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Unimportant	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Important

How much is your average glass of wine in millilitres? *

Please state your answer in a numerical way

Short answer text

I purchase wine because *I enjoy it* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *origin of the wine* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Wine to you is *relevant*   *

(indicate your level of relevancy)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not relevant	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Relevant

On average, how many glasses of wine do you consume per week? *

Please state your answer in a numerical way

Short answer text

I purchase wine because *I want to improve my quality of life* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *information on the shelf and label* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

⠿

Wine *means a lot to me* *

(please indicate your level of meaningfulness)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Does not mean a lot	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Means a lot

I purchase wine because *I want to enjoy life* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

⠿

I purchase wine based on *alcohol level* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Section 2:

Wine to you is *valuable* *

(indicate your level of valuableness)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not valuable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Valuable

I purchase wine because *I want to increase my wine knowledge* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *food pairing* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Wine to you is *interesting* *

(indicate your level of interest)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not interesting	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Interesting

On average, how many glasses of wine do you consume per day? *

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I purchase wine because *I want to share it with others* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *medals or awards it has received* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Wine to you is *exciting* *

(indicate your level of excitement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not exciting	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Exciting

65

I purchase wine because it *improves my social interaction* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Section 3:

I purchase wine based on *attractive packaging and design* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine because *it is my hobby* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *brand name* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Wine to you is *appealing* *

(indicate your level of appeal)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not appealing	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Appealing

66

On average, how many glasses of wine do you consume per month?

Please state your answer in a numerical way

Short answer text

:::

I purchase wine because *I need relaxation* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *other's recommendations* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Wine to you is *fascinating*   *

(indicate your level of fascination)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not fascinated	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Fascinated

Section 4:

I purchase wine because *I want an escape* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based *on price*   *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Wine to you is *needed*   *

(indicate your level of need)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
No need	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Needed

⸬

I purchase wine because *it shows prestige* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *type of bottle closure* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

⸬

Wine to you is *involving*   *

(indicate your level of involvement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not involving	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Involving

I purchase wine because it *is healthy* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine based on *vintage* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine because *I have had good experience with it* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

⋮⋮⋮

On average, how many bottles of wine do you consume per month? *

Please state your answer in a numerical way

Short answer text

I purchase wine because *it is novel* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

⋮⋮⋮

I purchase wine based on *taste* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

I purchase wine because *it enhances my self-esteem* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

⋮⋮⋮

I purchase wine based on *aroma/bouquet* *

(indicate your level of agreement)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

Control questions:

Gender *

( ) Male

( ) Female

( ) Other…

::::

Educational degree *

( ) Gymnasium (Equivalent to high school in Sweden)

( ) University

( ) PhD

( ) Yrkesutbildning (Professional training)

( ) Other…

Gross income in SEK (Brutto) *

( ) Less than 25 000/month

( ) Between 25 000-50 000/month

( ) Between 50 000-75 000/month

( ) Between 75 000-100 000/month

( ) More than 100 000/month

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Appendix B

The visualisation of the physically distributed QR code.

Appendix C - Analysis

Additional analysis tables all retrieved from Jamovi:

1.1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis:

Initiative factor loadings

Factor Loadings

Factor	Indicator	Estimate	SE	Z	p	Stand. Estimate
IM	IM1	0.933	0.0807	11.5624	<.0001	0.66688
	IM2	0.901	0.0781	11.5296	<.0001	0.66443
	IM3	1.285	0.1084	11.8531	<.0001	0.67623
	IM4	1.045	0.0857	12.1924	<.0001	0.69590
	IM5	1.285	0.1186	10.8371	<.0001	0.63809
	IM6	0.687	0.0877	7.8314	<.0001	0.47751
	IM7	0.460	0.1110	4.1445	<.0001	0.26867
	IM8	1.350	0.1112	12.1401	<.0001	0.69451
	IM9	0.976	0.1082	9.0185	<.0001	0.54428
	IM10	0.745	0.1136	6.5557	<.0001	0.41315
	IM11	0.724	0.1031	7.0226	<.0001	0.43612
	IM12	0.523	0.0823	6.3600	<.0001	0.39696
	IM13	0.943	0.0893	10.5615	<.0001	0.61584
	IM14	0.771	0.0872	8.8492	<.0001	0.53192
	IM15	0.632	0.1206	5.2404	<.0001	0.33732
EM	EM1	1.512	0.1183	12.7822	<.0001	0.72090
	EM2	1.487	0.1064	13.9705	<.0001	0.76711
	EM3	0.529	0.1109	4.7664	<.0001	0.30785
	EM4	−0.519	0.1112	−4.6668	<.0001	−0.30139
	EM5	1.106	0.1044	10.5922	<.0001	0.62205
	EM6	1.080	0.1219	8.8595	<.0001	0.53974
	EM7	0.286	0.1190	2.4078	0.0160	0.15987
	EM8	0.746	0.1077	6.9215	<.0001	0.43402
	EM9	0.457	0.0863	5.2949	<.0001	0.34018
	EM10	−0.226	0.0969	−2.3289	0.0199	−0.15418
	EM11	0.492	0.1145	4.3005	<.0001	0.27765
	EM12	1.187	0.0993	11.9533	<.0001	0.68408
	EM13	0.616	0.0733	8.4104	<.0001	0.51468
	EM14	1.594	0.1070	14.8916	<.0001	0.79927
PI	PI1	1.328	0.0873	15.2150	<.0001	0.80050
	PI2	1.271	0.0917	13.8672	<.0001	0.75063
	PI3	1.396	0.0936	14.9199	<.0001	0.79059
	PI4	1.310	0.0828	15.8195	<.0001	0.82014
	PI5	1.308	0.0912	14.3356	<.0001	0.76972
	PI6	1.351	0.0839	16.0951	<.0001	0.83000
	PI7	1.072	0.0831	12.8987	<.0001	0.71234
	PI8	1.325	0.0882	15.0128	<.0001	0.79375
	PI9	1.093	0.1008	10.8366	<.0001	0.62336
	PI10	0.908	0.0952	9.5417	<.0001	0.56127
WC	WC Average glass (ml)	−0.363	3.7989	−0.0957	0.9238	−0.00625
	WC Average glasses consumed per day	−0.435	0.0455	−9.5735	<.0001	−0.57483
	WC Average glasses consumed per week	−2.040	0.1117	−18.2716	<.0001	−0.90975
	WC Average glasses consumed per month (2)	−7.923	0.4628	−17.1204	<.0001	−0.87188
	WC Average bottles consumed per month	−1.803	0.1188	−15.1741	<.0001	−0.81020

1.1.2: Model Fit:

Fit Measures

CFI	TLI	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% CI	
			Lower	Upper
0.931	0.916	0.0837	0.0713	0.0963

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1.2: Reliability analysis:

Scale Reliability Statistics				Scale Reliability Statistics		
	Cronbach's α	McDonald's ω			Cronbach's α	McDonald's ω
scale	0.740	0.751		scale	0.850	0.852
	IM				EM	

Scale Reliability Statistics			
	Cronbach's α	McDonald's ω	
scale	0.895	0.898	
	PI		

1.3: Descriptives:

IM descriptives

Descriptives

	Generations	IM3	IM5	IM8	IM14
N	Millennials	52	52	52	52
	Gen Z	204	204	204	204
Missing	Millennials	0	0	0	0
	Gen Z	0	0	0	0
Mean	Millennials	4.77	4.94	3.87	3.00
	Gen Z	4.27	3.90	2.62	2.64
Median	Millennials	5.00	5.00	4.00	3.00
	Gen Z	5.00	4.00	2.00	2.00
Standard deviation	Millennials	1.79	1.75	1.96	1.36
	Gen Z	1.92	2.03	1.87	1.47
Minimum	Millennials	1	1	1	1
	Gen Z	1	1	1	1
Maximum	Millennials	7	7	7	6
	Gen Z	7	7	7	7

EM descriptives

Descriptives

	Generations	EM1	EM2	EM5	EM12	EM14
N	Millennials	52	52	52	52	52
	Gen Z	204	204	204	204	204
Missing	Millennials	0	0	0	0	0
	Gen Z	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	Millennials	5.52	5.79	5.38	3.63	5.87
	Gen Z	3.45	4.21	4.14	2.36	3.67
Median	Millennials	6.00	6.00	6.00	3.50	6.00
	Gen Z	4.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	4.00
Standard deviation	Millennials	1.89	1.67	1.65	1.74	1.40
	Gen Z	1.94	1.88	1.73	1.64	1.88
Minimum	Millennials	1	1	1	1	1
	Gen Z	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	Millennials	7	7	7	7	7
	Gen Z	7	7	7	7	7

PI descriptives

Descriptives

	Generations	PI4	PI5	PI6	PI7	PI8	PI10
N	Millennials	52	52	52	52	52	52
	Gen Z	204	204	204	204	204	204
Missing	Millennials	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Gen Z	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	Millennials	4.35	5.37	4.63	4.65	4.33	3.77
	Gen Z	3.96	4.64	4.46	4.78	4.05	3.76
Median	Millennials	4.00	6.00	5.00	5.00	4.00	4.00
	Gen Z	4.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.00	4.00
Standard deviation	Millennials	1.33	1.43	1.43	1.40	1.44	1.45
	Gen Z	1.66	1.74	1.68	1.54	1.73	1.67
Minimum	Millennials	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Gen Z	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	Millennials	7	7	7	7	7	6
	Gen Z	7	7	7	7	7	7

Wine consumption descriptives (Average Glass in ml, GPD, GPW, GPM, BPM)

Descriptives

	Generations	AG(ml)	GPD	GPW	GPM	BPM
N	Millennials	52	52	52	52	52
	Gen Z	204	204	204	204	204
Missing	Millennials	0	0	0	0	0
	Gen Z	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	Millennials	169	1.08	3.37	12.3	3.97
	Gen Z	176	0.564	2.96	12.5	2.78
Median	Millennials	150	1.00	3.00	10.0	4.00
	Gen Z	165	0.00	3.00	10.0	2.00
Standard deviation	Millennials	69.9	0.652	2.02	6.42	1.86
	Gen Z	55.0	0.750	2.30	9.68	2.26
Minimum	Millennials	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Gen Z	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Maximum	Millennials	450	3.00	10.0	32.0	8.00
	Gen Z	400	5.00	14.0	60.0	10.0

1.4: Partial Correlation without control variables:

Correlation

		IM Mean	EM Mean	PI Mean	GPD	GPW	GPM	BPM
IM Mean	Pearson's r	—						
	p-value	—						
EM Mean	Pearson's r	0.757 ***	—					
	p-value	<.0001	—					
PI Mean	Pearson's r	0.802 ***	0.660 ***	—				
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	—				
GPD	Pearson's r	0.316 ***	0.351 ***	0.242 ***	—			
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	—			
GPW	Pearson's r	0.366 ***	0.274 ***	0.389 ***	0.482 ***	—		
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	—		
GPM	Pearson's r	0.267 ***	0.165 **	0.331 ***	0.467 ***	0.808 ***	—	
	p-value	<.0001	0.0040	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	—	
BPM	Pearson's r	0.365 ***	0.361 ***	0.304 ***	0.600 ***	0.726 ***	0.692 ***	—
	p-value	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	—

Note. H_a is positive correlation
Note. * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001, one–tailed

1.5: Correlation Matrix Plot without control variables:
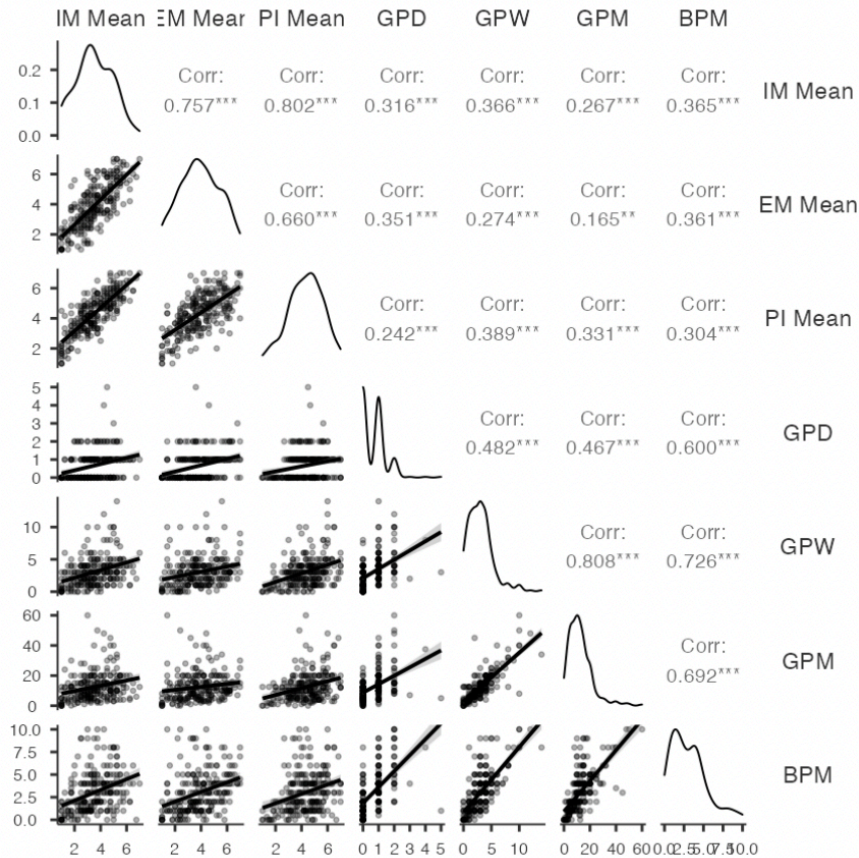
1.6: Conditional mediation:

Conditional Mediation					95% C.I. (a)				
Moderator levels									
EM Mean	Type	Effect	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	β	z	p
Mean-1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPD	0.07501	0.0450	−0.0131	0.1631	0.1348	1.668	0.0952
Mean-1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.78242	0.0634	0.6581	0.9067	0.8230	12.337	<.0001
Mean-1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ GPD	0.09587	0.0569	−0.0157	0.2075	0.1638	1.684	0.0922
Mean-1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPD	0.00970	0.0730	−0.1335	0.1529	0.0174	0.133	0.8944
Mean-1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPD	0.09824	0.0588	−0.0170	0.2135	0.1790	1.671	0.0948
Mean	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPD	−0.03993	0.0387	−0.1159	0.0360	−0.0728	−1.031	0.3027
Mean	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.67832	0.0528	0.5748	0.7819	0.7135	12.841	<.0001
Mean		PI Mean ⇒ GPD	−0.05887	0.0569	−0.1705	0.0527	−0.1020	−1.034	0.3011
Mean	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPD	0.10123	0.0617	−0.0198	0.2222	0.1844	1.640	0.1010
Mean	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPD	0.06661	0.0490	−0.0294	0.1626	0.1214	1.360	0.1738
Mean+1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPD	−0.12266	0.0352	−0.1917	−0.0536	−0.2162	−3.480	0.0005
Mean+1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.57422	0.0616	0.4534	0.6950	0.6040	9.319	<.0001
Mean+1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ GPD	−0.21361	0.0569	−0.3252	−0.1020	−0.3580	−3.752	0.0002
Mean+1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPD	0.19276	0.0656	0.0642	0.3213	0.3398	2.939	0.0033
Mean+1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPD	0.03498	0.0571	−0.0770	0.1469	0.0638	0.612	0.5403

Note. Confidence intervals computed with method: Standard (Delta method)
Note. Betas are completely standardized effect sizes

GPD

Low levels: IE=0.07501, CI=[-0.0131,0.1631],beta=0.1348, z=1.668, p.=.0952.
Average: IE=-0.03993, CI=[-0.1159,0.0360],beta=-0.0728, z=-1.031, p.=.3027.
High levels: IE=-0.12266, CI=[-0.1917,-0.0536],beta=-0.2162, z=-3.480, p.=.0005.

Conditional Mediation					95% C.I. (a)				
Moderator levels									
EM Mean	Type	Effect	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	β	z	p
Mean-1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPW	0.363	0.1350	0.0981	0.627	0.223	2.69	0.0072
Mean-1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.782	0.0634	0.6581	0.907	0.823	12.34	<.0001
Mean-1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ GPW	0.463	0.1683	0.1334	0.793	0.271	2.75	0.0059
Mean-1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPW	0.354	0.2160	−0.0690	0.778	0.218	1.64	0.1009
Mean-1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPW	0.718	0.1735	0.3781	1.058	0.442	4.14	<.0001
Mean	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPW	0.304	0.1166	0.0754	0.533	0.187	2.61	0.0092
Mean	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.678	0.0528	0.5748	0.782	0.713	12.84	<.0001
Mean		PI Mean ⇒ GPW	0.448	0.1683	0.1181	0.778	0.262	2.66	0.0078
Mean	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPW	0.304	0.1825	−0.0540	0.661	0.187	1.66	0.0961
Mean	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPW	0.608	0.1445	0.3249	0.891	0.374	4.21	<.0001
Mean+1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPW	0.249	0.1003	0.0520	0.445	0.153	2.48	0.0132
Mean+1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.574	0.0616	0.4534	0.695	0.604	9.32	<.0001
Mean+1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ GPW	0.433	0.1683	0.1028	0.763	0.253	2.57	0.0101
Mean+1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPW	0.253	0.1939	−0.1269	0.633	0.156	1.31	0.1917
Mean+1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPW	0.498	0.1686	0.1678	0.829	0.307	2.96	0.0031

Note. Confidence intervals computed with method: Standard (Delta method)
Note. Betas are completely standardized effect sizes

GPW

Low levels: IE=0.363, CI=[0.098,0.627],beta=0.223, z=2.69, p.=.007.
Average: IE=0.304, CI=[0.075,0.533],beta=0.187, z=2.61, p.=.009.
High levels: IE=0.249, CI=[0.052,0.445],beta=0.153, z=2.48, p.=.013.

Conditional Mediation

| Moderator levels | | | | | 95% C.I. (a) | | | | |
EM Mean	Type	Effect	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	β	z	p
Mean-1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPM	2.107	0.5683	0.9935	3.221	0.3166	3.708	0.0002
Mean-1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.782	0.0634	0.6581	0.907	0.8230	12.337	<.0001
Mean-1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ GPM	2.693	0.6928	1.3356	4.051	0.3846	3.888	0.0001
Mean-1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPM	1.140	0.8888	−0.6024	2.882	0.1712	1.282	0.1998
Mean-1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPM	3.300	0.7180	1.8928	4.707	0.5012	4.596	<.0001
Mean	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPM	1.415	0.4827	0.4693	2.361	0.2150	2.932	0.0034
Mean	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.678	0.0528	0.5748	0.782	0.7135	12.841	<.0001
Mean		PI Mean ⇒ GPM	2.087	0.6928	0.7287	3.444	0.3014	3.012	0.0026
Mean	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPM	0.802	0.7512	−0.6705	2.274	0.1218	1.067	0.2858
Mean	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPM	2.238	0.5980	1.0659	3.410	0.3399	3.742	0.0002
Mean+1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ GPM	0.850	0.4081	0.0498	1.650	0.1299	2.082	0.0374
Mean+1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.574	0.0616	0.4534	0.695	0.6040	9.319	<.0001
Mean+1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ GPM	1.480	0.6928	0.1219	2.838	0.2151	2.136	0.0327
Mean+1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ GPM	0.464	0.7980	−1.1002	2.028	0.0709	0.581	0.5610
Mean+1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ GPM	1.176	0.6976	−0.1913	2.543	0.1786	1.686	0.0918

Note. Confidence intervals computed with method: Standard (Delta method)
Note. Betas are completely standardized effect sizes

GPM

Low levels: IE=2.107, CI=[0.0994,3.221],beta=0.317, z=3.708, p.=.0002.
Average: IE=1.415, CI=[0.469,2.361],beta=0.215, z=2.932, p.=.0034.
High levels: IE=0.85, CI=[0.05,1.65],beta=0.13, z=2.082, p.=.0374

Conditional Mediation

| Moderator levels | | | | | 95% C.I. (a) | | | | |
EM Mean	Type	Effect	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	β	z	p
Mean-1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ BPM	0.1479	0.1311	−0.1089	0.4048	0.0912	1.129	0.2590
Mean-1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.7824	0.0634	0.6581	0.9067	0.8230	12.337	<.0001
Mean-1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ BPM	0.1891	0.1668	−0.1379	0.5160	0.1109	1.133	0.2570
Mean-1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ BPM	0.3203	0.2140	−0.0991	0.7397	0.1976	1.497	0.1344
Mean-1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ BPM	0.4895	0.1703	0.1557	0.8233	0.3035	2.874	0.0040
Mean	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ BPM	−0.0366	0.1132	−0.2584	0.1853	−0.0227	−0.323	0.7467
Mean	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.6783	0.0528	0.5748	0.7819	0.7135	12.841	<.0001
Mean		PI Mean ⇒ BPM	−0.0539	0.1668	−0.3808	0.2730	−0.0318	−0.323	0.7466
Mean	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ BPM	0.3814	0.1809	0.0269	0.7358	0.2365	2.109	0.0350
Mean	Total	IM Mean ⇒ BPM	0.3531	0.1418	0.0751	0.6311	0.2190	2.490	0.0128
Mean+1·SD	Indirect	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean ⇒ BPM	−0.1705	0.0975	−0.3616	0.0207	−0.1048	−1.748	0.0805
Mean+1·SD	Component	IM Mean ⇒ PI Mean	0.5742	0.0616	0.4534	0.6950	0.6040	9.319	<.0001
Mean+1·SD		PI Mean ⇒ BPM	−0.2968	0.1668	−0.6238	0.0301	−0.1735	−1.780	0.0751
Mean+1·SD	Direct	IM Mean ⇒ BPM	0.4424	0.1921	0.0658	0.8190	0.2720	2.302	0.0213
Mean+1·SD	Total	IM Mean ⇒ BPM	0.2168	0.1655	−0.1075	0.5411	0.1344	1.310	0.1901

Note. Confidence intervals computed with method: Standard (Delta method)
Note. Betas are completely standardized effect sizes

BPM

Low levels: IE=0.148, CI=[-0.109,0.405],beta=0.91, z=1.129, p.=.259.
Average: IE=-0.037, CI=[-0.258,0.185],beta=-0.023, z=-0.323, p.=.7467.
High levels: IE=-0.171, CI=[-0.362,0.021],beta=-0.105, z=-1.748, p.=.0805

1.7: Independent Samples T-Test:

Independent Samples T-Test

		Statistic	df	p		Effect Size
IM Mean	Student's t	3.747	254	0.0002	Cohen's d	0.5821
	Welch's t	3.805	80.6	0.0003	Cohen's d	0.5866
EM Mean	Student's t	7.921	254	<.0001	Cohen's d	1.2306
	Welch's t	7.848	78.1	<.0001	Cohen's d	1.2248
PI Mean	Student's t	1.184	254	0.2377	Cohen's d	0.1839
	Welch's t	1.327	93.2	0.1877	Cohen's d	0.1941
GPD	Student's t	4.517[a]	254	<.0001	Cohen's d	0.7017
	Welch's t	4.907	88.6	<.0001	Cohen's d	0.7303
GPW	Student's t	1.163	254	0.2459	Cohen's d	0.1807
	Welch's t	1.258	88.0	0.2118	Cohen's d	0.1876
GPM	Student's t	−0.143[a]	254	0.8867	Cohen's d	−0.0222
	Welch's t	−0.181	117.4	0.8570	Cohen's d	−0.0246
BPM	Student's t	3.499[a]	254	0.0006	Cohen's d	0.5436
	Welch's t	3.921	93.1	0.0002	Cohen's d	0.5737

Note. $H_a \mu_{Millennials} \neq \mu_{Gen Z}$
[a] Levene's test is significant (p < .05), suggesting a violation of the assumption of equal variances

Homogeneity of Variances Tests

		F	df	df2	p
IM Mean	Levene's	0.0121	1	254	0.9125
	Variance ratio	0.950	51	203	0.8535
EM Mean	Levene's	0.1885	1	254	0.6645
	Variance ratio	1.032	51	203	0.8532
PI Mean	Levene's	3.0657	1	254	0.0812
	Variance ratio	0.679	51	203	0.1024
GPD	Levene's	7.8941	1	254	0.0053
	Variance ratio	0.756	51	203	0.2386
GPW	Levene's	1.4597	1	254	0.2281
	Variance ratio	0.768	51	203	0.2666
GPM	Levene's	5.5473	1	254	0.0193
	Variance ratio	0.439	51	203	0.0008
BPM	Levene's	4.0166	1	254	0.0461
	Variance ratio	0.680	51	203	0.1047

Note. Additional results provided by *moretests*

Tests of Normality

		statistic	p
IM Mean	Shapiro-Wilk	0.990	0.0762
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.0505	0.5317
	Anderson-Darling	0.608	0.1126
EM Mean	Shapiro-Wilk	0.992	0.1630
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.0572	0.3725
	Anderson-Darling	0.656	0.0861
PI Mean	Shapiro-Wilk	0.989	0.0457
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.0518	0.4993
	Anderson-Darling	0.536	0.1679
GPD	Shapiro-Wilk	0.805	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.2488	<.0001
	Anderson-Darling	15.723	<.0001
GPW	Shapiro-Wilk	0.894	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.1422	<.0001
	Anderson-Darling	5.580	<.0001
GPM	Shapiro-Wilk	0.867	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.1282	0.0004
	Anderson-Darling	6.795	<.0001
BPM	Shapiro-Wilk	0.919	<.0001
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.1446	<.0001
	Anderson-Darling	5.478	<.0001

Note. Additional results provided by *moretests*

Group Descriptives

	Group	N	Mean	Median	SD	SE
IM Mean	Millennials	52	4.14	4.50	1.321	0.1832
	Gen Z	204	3.359	3.25	1.356	0.0949
EM Mean	Millennials	52	5.24	5.80	1.377	0.1910
	Gen Z	204	3.565	3.60	1.356	0.0949
PI Mean	Millennials	52	4.52	4.67	1.119	0.1552
	Gen Z	204	4.275	4.33	1.358	0.0951
GPD	Millennials	52	1.08	1.00	0.652	0.0904
	Gen Z	204	0.564	0.00	0.750	0.0525
GPW	Millennials	52	3.37	3.00	2.016	0.2795
	Gen Z	204	2.964	3.00	2.299	0.1610
GPM	Millennials	52	12.28	10.00	6.420	0.8902
	Gen Z	204	12.483	10.00	9.683	0.6780
BPM	Millennials	52	3.97	4.00	1.861	0.2581
	Gen Z	204	2.785	2.00	2.256	0.1580