TRAVEL MOTIVATION AND BEHAVIOR TOWARD VISITING A FOOD TOURISM DESTINATION

by

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Swinburne University of Technology

Faculty of Business and Law

2018

Abstract

Food has been a fashionable trend and also a major reason for millions of people, especially food lovers to travel (UNWTO, 2007, Getz et al., 2014). Food tourism has emerged as a type of special-interest tourism, which has increasingly attracted scholarly attention from academics in the field of hospitality and tourism. A comprehensive review of literature indicates that food tourism has been discussed from both supply and demand sides. From the perspective of destinations, food tourism has been recognized for its considerable importance in the development of destinations or nations, particularly in stimulating agriculture and the food manufacturing sectors, creating employment, preserving food-related cultural values, and enhancing destination brand identity. For these benefits, the demand-side of food tourism research has become increasingly important for destinations in the development of effective planning and marketing strategies to promote their destination images to tourists in a highly competitive marketplace. Previous studies have identified major themes from the demand side of food tourism including travel preferences, experiences, motivation and the behavior of food tourists towards local food consumption as well as food-related tourism products (e.g., food festivals and events, food markets). However, there is still relatively little research on the demand patterns of visiting a food tourism destination, particularly from the perspective of foodies, who are considered potential food tourists with a passion for food and a propensity to travel for the purpose of seeking food and food-related experiences.

The primary purpose of this study was to address this research gap in the demand-side of food tourism research by investigating the dimensionality of travel motivation for food tourism from the perspective of push and pull factors. Secondly, the study proposed a conceptual framework of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination based on the original Theory of Planned Behavior model. The causal relationships between constructs involved in the proposed model were then examined to provide an understanding of what factors affect the behavioral intention of foodies in their food travel making decisions. Age was also included as a proposed moderator in the relationships associated with the behavioral intention in the framework of the study. Finally, the study aimed to examine the differences of food travel motivation and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination between groups of foodies that were categorized based on travel experience, gender, age and region of residence.

A quantitative research strategy was designed to achieve the research objectives of the study. This involved the development of a framework that hypothesized relationships among seven major constructs (push factors, pull factors, food involvement, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention) as well as a moderator (age). These were conceptualized in a measurement instrument, which was developed based on a comprehensive review of the extant literature and a content analysis of food travel blogs. A group of experts in the field of hospitality and tourism was then invited to assess the content validity of the measurement scales. A questionnaire was designed and pilot tested with 50 valid responses in order to examine missing questions, ambiguities and reliability of scales. An online survey was conducted via networks of foodies and food travelers on Linkedin and Facebook which yielded 335 valid responses. The collected data was analyzed using PLS-SEM including sequential steps: exploratory factor analysis, measurement model evaluation, structural model evaluation, and mediator and moderator effects analyses.

The findings of the study indicate that foodies are motivated to visit a food tourism destination by three push factors (taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences) and three pull factors (core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals). In addition, the proposed framework of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination and hypotheses of relationships among constructs are also supported by empirical findings of the study. In particular, food involvement, attitude and perceived behavioral control were found to have direct influences on behavioral intention. Despite insignificant direct links with behavioral intention, push factors, pull factors and subjective norms indirectly affected behavioral intention mediated by attitude. Age was found to have a moderating effect on the relationships between pull factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination.

In summary, the multi-dimensionality of travel motivation and the proposed model of behavioral intention were empirically validated to provide a better understanding of foodies from a demand perspective. In addition to extending our theoretical understanding of travel motivation and intentions to visit a food tourism destination, the results of this study also present practical implications for destination marketing organizations to develop strategies to attract foodies. Although there were some limitations regarding the sampling and measurement instrument, the study presents an empirical foundation for future research in the field of food tourism as well as special-interest tourism more generally.

Acknowledgements

PhD study is a journey that taught me to become an independent researcher. For me, a completed thesis does not represent a high level of competence in doing research, however it is indicative of my confidence in conducting an academic research. For three years, I enjoyed the valuable academic experiences from Swinburne University of Technology and an interesting life in Melbourne, Australia. Throughout my journey, I have been surrounded by guidance, support, sympathy, and care of many wonderful people, therefore I would like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to them all.

First of all, I would like to express my deepest respect and gratitude to my two supervisors, Professor Lester Johnson and Professor Barry O' Mahony. I have been extremely lucky to receive supervision from these highly experienced Professors in their academic fields. Professor Lester, I would like thank you very much for sharing great ideas and giving me much support throughout my candidature milestones. I appreciate your enthusiasm in reading my thesis drafts with valuable comments that I could learn from. Professor Barry, I am indebted to you for accepting to supervise me at first. Although there was a change after four months of my candidature, you provided me with constructive advice and continual encouragement when I encountered difficulties and writing challenges during my study. I would not have been able to arrive at the final destination of the PhD journey without both of you, Professor Lester and Professor Barry.

I am grateful to the Ministry of Education and Training of Vietnam and Swinburne University of Technology for providing me with a much desired scholarship. Without the financial support, it would have been difficult for me to pursue a PhD degree in one of the most prestigious universities in Australia. Many big thanks to my lovely colleagues from the Faculty of Tourism - Danang University of Economics, who helped to deliver my lectures and perform my duties for three years of my absence. Having them made me completely feel at ease with my study.

I would like to expand the acknowledgement to my friends and relatives for their wholehearted support during my PhD journey. Thank you, Hai Nguyen, I was very lucky to have your advice and assistance from the beginning of my study. Special thanks to a lovely family, Anh Truong, Giang Pham and little Mon, and a friend, Quang Luong for their sharing not only with me but also with my family. I sincerely thank two pretty girls, Giang Pham

and Tram Anh for the happy moments we have had together. Having you both, my study was more enjoyable and less stressful. Many thanks to my friends, Huyen, Tra, My, Trang and Giang for your care and advice. Thanks to my best friend, Chi Nguyen for her sharing and listening even though she was miles away. I would also like to convey my appreciation to my relative, Aunt Suong Thai and many other friends who gave me great support during the period of data collection.

Many special thanks to my sisters and brothers, Khoi, An, Minh, Hoai for taking care of our parents while I was away. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to parents, Dad Trai and Mom Hanh, and parents-in-law, Dad Luan and Mom Nguyen for their care and encouragement.

Finally, I dedicate this thesis to my faithful husband, Duy Nguyen and my pretty daughter, Cherry. We have created an effective “teamwork” by making a life built on love, share and care. Duy, thank you for being by my side during the ups and downs of our PhD journey. Thank you for taking care of Cherry during the final stage of my study. I am very proud to be your wife! I also thank my angel, Cherry for giving mommy much enjoyment to relive stress after studying long hours every day. Picking you up at Monash childcare and giving you a big hug made me feel happiest on a day. I felt relaxed and refreshed with playgrounds, weekend picnics, dinners and story times with Duy and Cherry. Together, we three had a wonderful life in Melbourne, Australia.

Thank you very much and best wishes to you all!

Declaration by student

I, Ngoc Diep Su, declare that this PhD thesis entitled *Travel motivation and behavior toward visiting a food tourism destination,* is my own work. The thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy, Faculty of Business and Law, Swinburne University of Technology, Australia. This thesis contains no material that has been previously submitted, in whole or in part, except where indicated and referenced.

Melbourne,

Signed

Ngoc Diep Su

List of publications

Book chapter

Su, D.N., Johnson, L. & O'Mahony, B. (2016), Tourists' intention to visit food tourism destination: a conceptual framework, in S. Mohd. Radzi, M. Hanafiah, N. Sumarjan & Z. Mohi (eds), Heritage, Culture and Society: Research agenda and best practices in the hospitality and tourism industry - Proceedings of the 3rd International Hospitality and Tourism Conference (IHTC 2016) and 2nd International Seminar on Tourism (ISOT 2016), CRC Press, the Netherlands, pp. 267-272.

Refereed conference paper

Su, D.N., Johnson, L. & O'Mahony, B. (2018, 5-8 February). Motivating foodies to visit a food tourism destination. Paper presented at The 28th Annual Council for Australasian Tourism and Hospitality Education Conference (CAUTHE 2018), Newcastle, Australia

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background

In an increasingly globalized world, tourists have shown a tendency towards seeking experiences that allow them to learn about the traditional culture and local lifestyle of a territory. As a result, destinations have sought to exploit this trend in tourism by promoting travel experiences that include "respect for culture and tradition, a healthy lifestyle, authenticity, sustainability,…" (UNWTO, 2012, p.10). Food, in particular, has become a resource because it is "one of the most salient and defining markers of cultural heritage and tourism" (Timothy & Ron, 2013, p.99). Indeed, in recent years, many of the world's millions of tourists have traveled in search of new and special cuisine and/or returned to familiar destinations to enjoy the dishes that they have tasted during previous trips (UNWTO, 2012). This phenomenon has given birth to a new form of tourism labeled as Food tourism, Culinary tourism, Gastronomic tourism or Cuisine tourism with the same meaning for each term being defined by various researchers (Karim & Chi, 2010).

Food tourism was stated by (UWTO, 2012, p.6) as "travel for the specific purpose of enjoying food experiences". Hall and Sharples (2003) defined food tourism as an experiential trip where a tourist visits a gastronomic region to participate in any tourism activity related to food for entertainment and recreational purposes. Activities involved in food tourism include tours of farmers' markets, meeting primary or secondary food producers; joining cooking shows, food fairs, gastronomic events and festivals; and tasting food products (UNWTO, 2012). These activities help tourists learn about different traditional cultures and understand the cultural attributes related to culinary specialties at local destinations. To illustrate, Fields (2002) and Long (2004) have argued that enjoying local cuisines of a territory means experiencing a new story of history, culture and people. Thus, culinary experiences provide international visitors with opportunities to explore authentic or traditional food that they are unlikely to encounter in their home countries and in so doing, tourists can develop their interests and knowledge about the food-related culture of a destination that they visited. Fields (2002) has further asserted that food experience functions, not merely as a physical act of eating, but also an important part of people's

culinary culture-based lifestyles. As a result, food tourism has continued to be an area of special interest tourism for tourists and has grown into a recent global trend. For example, a survey conducted by TripAdvisor in 2013 found that restaurants and shops had significant influence on the destination choice of 37% of travelers worldwide (Ennion, 2013). Likewise in this study, the number of restaurants and shops was reported as one of the top five factors leading Australians to make decisions to travel to a destination (Ennion, 2013). Tourism Australia also conducted a Consumer Demand Research Project in fifteen of Australia's key tourism markets to identify the factors influencing tourists' holiday decision making. Findings showed that 38% of participants considered food as a major factor, ranking third among ten factors affecting tourists' holiday in Australia (Tourism Australia, 2013)

Another example has been provided from the European tourist industry. In 2014, the Pangaea Observatory, an international organization offering consultancy, marketing and communication services in the tourism and hospitality industry, conducted a survey across five European countries (France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom). Findings show that culinary experiences are one of the key elements influencing the travel choices of 66% of all travelers from these five countries (The Blueroom Project, 2014). In addition to the Australian and European markets, food tourism has also been growing in North America. For example:

> Approximately 35% of Canadian travelers surveyed indicated that they would travel primarily for a culinary purpose (e.g. to attend a food and wine festival), and over 50% consider food and beverage offerings in narrowing down their destination choice. South of the border, the Travel Industry Association of America recently reported that 60% of American leisure travelers indicate that they are interested in taking a trip to engage in culinary activities within the next 12 months (Deloitte and the Tourism Industry Association of Canada, 2012, p. 9)

In Asia, with over 129 million Chinese travelers going abroad in 2015, this has become the world's largest outbound travel. Certainly, the Chinese market is considered the most profitable emerging market, spending about 292 billion US dollars in 2015. According to a study by Tourism Australia, 46% of international Chinese travelers ranked good food, wine, local cuisine and produce among their top 5 most important factors when choosing a holiday destination (Yong, 2016).

With the figures mentioned above, the increasing demand for food-related tourism is worthy of attention from destinations both nationally and internationally. Indeed, the non-exhaustive list of countries including Spain, France, Italy, Greece, Belgium, Portugal, USA, Brazil, Peru, Mexico, New Zealand, South Africa, Australia, Chile, Malaysia, Japan, Indonesia, Bali, China and Singapore are well aware of the importance of food tourism as one of the most dynamic and creative segments of tourism to stimulate local, regional and national economic development (UNWTO, 2012). Moreover, for many nations that are not well endowed with conventional natural or cultural tourism resources, food is one of the most appropriate strategies to stimulate the growth of international tourist arrivals and tourism income. In fact, unlike many other tourism attractions that rely on sun, sea, and sand and are affected by the weather; the season or other natural conditions; gastronomy can be exploited all year-round to provide tourism activities at a destination (Su & Horng, 2012). Food tourism is not new but it is a growing phenomenon. It can also present a competitive advantage to help destinations position themselves in the global tourism marketplace (Henderson, 2009). In fact, many countries strive to build their brand identity by associating with gastronomic values. In Europe, for example, the images of France or Italy have always been connected to their food (Boyne, Hall, & Williams, 2003; Frochot, 2003). Similarly, in the Asian region, Thailand has been well-known for their cuisine (Karim & Chi, 2010). In Japan, the development of more than one region was mainly based on food tourism (Tussyadiah, 2005). In Korea, the tourism organization developed a strategy to turn traditional cuisine into a tourism product with the aim of attracting domestic and foreign tourists (UNWTO, 2012). Countries like Canada and Australia have also proposed marketing strategies that promote local cuisine to attract tourists (Shenoy, 2005). Specifically, the purpose of strategies for food tourism in some states of Australia like New South Wales, Victoria or Western Australia for the period 2015-2020 was to strengthen their position as a world-class culinary destination. Clearly, food tourism is "a recent global phenomenon of considerable importance to cities and destinations, and its prospects for continued growth are strong" (Getz et al., 2014, p.15).

Considering this growing importance, it is vital for destination marketing organizations (DMOs) to acquire a thorough understanding of the potential of food tourists or "foodies" who represent, "a contemporary niche market within leisure and tourism" (Getz et al., 2014, p.5). Foodies are people who are passionate about food and have intentions to travel specifically for their special interest (Getz et al., 2014). To understand their motivations and

behavior requires research of food tourism from a demand-side approach that examines foodies' involvement with food, travel motivation and behavior toward food trips. This line of special-interest tourism research not only makes theoretical contributions to the literature on food tourism, but also provides destinations with marketing and management information in designing food-related products, services and marketing strategies targeted at potential food tourists. As a result, the particular focus of this study is to gain an intimate knowledge of food involvement, travel motivation and their linkages with behavioral intentions towards visiting a food tourism destination.

1.2 Statement of research problem

From the above discussion, the increasing demand for food tourism as well as its significance to local, regional and national economic development have provided researchers with research ideas or topics in the field of hospitality and tourism. The literature indicates that previous studies on food tourism have been conducted from the viewpoints of either destinations or tourists. On the one hand, three major themes, including (i) the relationship between food, tourism and local development (Bélisle, 1983; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Fox, 2007; Hillel, Belhassen, & Shani, 2013; Kim & Ellis, 2015; Kim & Iwashita, 2016; Rand, Heath, & Alberts, 2003; Reynolds, 1993; Sims, 2009; Telfer & Wall, 1996) ; (ii) the association of food with destination marketing strategies (Boyne et al., 2003; Frochot, 2003; Horng & Tsai, 2010; Kim, Yuan, Goh & Autun, 2009; Morgan & Pritchard, 2000; Okumus, Okumus, & McKercher, 2007; Rand et al., 2003; Tussyadiah, 2005); (iii) food tourism development strategies (Beer, Ottechbacher & Harrington, 2012; Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000; Horng & Tsai, 2012a, 2012b, 2012c, Otechbacher & Harrington, 2013) have been frequently examined from the perspective of destination management. On the other hand, from the tourist perspective, three main topics, including (i) food tourist market segmentation (Ignatow & Smith, 2006; Kivela & Crotts, 2005; Robinson & Getz, 2014; Sanchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012; Takkanen, 2007); (ii) food consumption in tourism (Chang, Kivela & Mak, 2011; Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009; Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Larsen, Brun, Agaard, & Selstad, 2007; Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2012; Mynttinen, Logren, Sarkka-Tirkkonen, & Rautiainen, 2015; Son & Xu, 2013; Updhyay & Sharma, 2014; Wijaya, King, Nguyen, & Morrison, 2013); and (iii) tourists behavior towards food tourism (Correia, Moital, Costa, & Peres, 2008; Forga & Valiente, 2014; Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016' Lin & Chen, 2014; Meng & Choi, 2016a, 2016b; Namkung & Jang, 2007;

Ryu & Han, 2010b; Ryu & Jang, 2006) have been discussed. Although a substantial number of studies have been conducted from both the supply and demand side in various food tourism contexts, little research has been done to provide an understanding of food tourists' demand towards a destination. The fact that food tourism "has great potential for expansion as a main motivation for tourism trips" (UNWTO, 2012, p.9), underpins the need for further scholarly attention on the question of travel motivation and behavior towards a food tourism destination.

To highlight the current state of play, a review of travel motivation research has shown that it is of significant academic interest among researchers in the field of food tourism and has seen a substantial growth in recent years. Previous studies covered such topics as motivations for gastronomy tourism products (Fields, 2002), motivations for food festivals and events (Park, Reisinger, & Kang, 2008; Smith, Costello, & Muenchen, 2010) and motivations for local food consumption (Kim & Eves, 2012). It seems, however, that there has been a lack of research on travel motivation associated with research on the decision-making process of tourists towards visiting a food tourism destination. Moreover, in order to broaden the knowledge of food tourists who travel for their special interest, it is essential to have theory-based research on their motivation from both a tourist and destination-based understanding. While previous studies mainly focused on the internal psychological perspective of tourists, the attractive features of a food tourism destination also need consideration as a supply-side approach to the research of travel motivation in the context of food tourism. In fact, a comprehensive investigation of the dimensionality of travel motivation from multiple perspectives (push and pull factors) is worthy of attention.

An examination of literature also reveals that the research into tourist behavior is valuable in food tourism because it provides a deep understanding of the real demands of potential food tourists. Accordingly, marketers can establish appropriate marketing strategies to improve a destination's reputation and image, as well as to stimulate the growth of international tourist arrivals and tourism income in the increasingly competitive tourism industry. Some studies have been conducted to investigate tourist behavioral intentions toward the consumption of local or traditional cuisine at a travel destination. In particular, Ryu and Jang (2006) modified the original theory of reasoned action (TRA) model by adding a new construct, past behavior to predict tourist behavioral intentions to experience local cuisine. Furthermore, an extended theory of planned behavior (TPB) model with the addition

of food-related personality traits was adopted by Hsu (2014) to understand consumer behavior towards enjoying traditional food in Taiwan. However, none of the studies have been conducted to fully understand the factors influencing tourists' behavior in relation visits to a food tourism destination. This study helps to fill the gap in research on consumer decision-making in a food tourism context.

Another research gap has been identified in relation to the methodology applied in previous studies of food tourism. That is, while qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches have been adopted, the amount of research adopting a qualitative approach is significantly more than the number of quantitative-based studies (Su & Horng, 2012). Given the emphasis on exploratory research therefore, there may be a need for more quantitative research to extend earlier studies in the context of food tourism. Regarding quantitative research, survey research is prominent in most previous studies in the context of food tourism. Similarly, the current research adopted survey research to study the travel motivation and behavior of potential food tourists. In addition, four data collection methods were found to be frequently used in the survey research studies; face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, mailed questionnaires and online questionnaires. While face-to-face interviews were chosen in many studies (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016; Chi, Chua, Othman, & Karim, 2013; Forga & Valiente, 2014; Guan & Jones, 2015; Horng, Liu, Chou & Tsai, 2012; Ji et al., 2016; Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2013; Kim, Kim, & Goh, 2011; Kivela & Crotts, 2005; Meng & Choi, 2016b; Namkung & Jang, 2007; Ryu & Han, 2010a; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Sanchez-Cañizares & Castillo-Canalejo, 2015; Seo, Kim, Oh & Yun, 2013; Sheldon & Fox, 1988; Thompson & Prideaux, 2009; Updhyay & Sharma, 2014; Yuksel, 2003), very few studies applied telephone and mailed survey (Ignatov & Smith, 2006). Online surveys have also been used in a few studies. For example, Karim and Chi (2010) conducted an online survey on food groups from Yahoo.com and MSN.com to investigate the relationships between the destinations' food image, information sources and visit intention of travelers. Robinson and Getz (2014) also conducted an online survey targeted at networks of foodies in Australia to understand their demographic and socio-economic profile as well as their travel preferences. The respondents in their study were found via "self-identifying food enthusiasts known to the researchers and various media including food and wine club's mailing lists and newsletters, professional networks, readers of online food-related magazines and blogs" (Robinson and Getz, 2014, p.694). In a recent study by Anderson, Getz, Vijicic, Robinson, and Cavicchi (2016), an online survey was utilized to

examine the preferences of travel experiences of foodies from four countries (United Kingdom, Germany, Italy and Norway) through a photo elicitation technique. Blogs, Internet sites, and mailing lists were taken advantage of to reach food lovers in past studies. It is undeniable that the online groups of foodies have drawn the attention of scholars in the academic field of food tourism. Although Facebook and Linkedin are presently the most popular social networking sites in which hundreds of online foodies groups with millions of members have been established and shared over the world, previous studies have yet to conduct an online survey via these social media. As a result, the travel motivation and behavioral intentions of the online foodie market deserves research to make contributions to the food tourism literature and to travel destinations which plan to expand the niche market of food tourism.

In summary, some research topic and methodology-based gaps were identified in previous studies concerning travel motivation and behavior in food tourism. Consequently, this study was conducted to investigate motivations for food tourism from the perspectives of internal and external stimuli. In addition, this study develops a comprehensive theoretical framework of tourists' behavioral intentions toward visiting a food tourism destination and then empirically validates the framework with data collected from online groups of foodies on Facebook and Linkedin. The study presents a theoretical contribution by expanded the body of knowledge in travel motivation and behavior related to food tourism and also provides practical implications to assist DMOs to further develop the food tourism sector at the local level.

1.3 Research objectives and research questions

The main purpose of this study is to gain deeper insights into travel motivations as well as behavioral intentions to visit a food tourism destination. In particular, the study was guided by three research objectives. Each of these objectives is addressed by specific research questions as follow

Research objective 1: To examine the dimensionality of travel motivation to visit a food tourism destination from the aspects of push and pull factors.

Research questions related research objective 1:

1. Which push factors and pull factors motivate tourists to visit a food tourism destination?

Research objective 2: To construct and validate a conceptual framework of travel behavioral intentions towards visiting a food tourism destination.

Research questions related research objective 2:

2a. What are the determinants of tourists' behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination?

2b. Are there significant relationships among the constructs: tourists' attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, push factors, pull factors, food involvement and behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination?

2c. To what extent does age moderate the relationships associated with tourists' intention to visit a food tourism destination?

Research objective 3: To examine the differences of food travel motivation and behavioral intention towards visiting a food tourism destination between various groups of foodies that are categorized according to travel experience, gender, age and living region.

Research questions related research objective 3:

3. Are the push factors, pull factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination significantly different across groups categorized based on travel experiences (experienced food tourists and non-experienced food tourists), gender (male and female) age (aged 18-25, 26-35, 36-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65 and above) and region of residence (Asia, Europe, Australia, South and North America)?

1.4 Research methods

The aims of the current study were to investigate travel motivation and behavior in making decision to visit a food tourism destination. Therefore, a post-positivism paradigm was utilized as a means to better explain such a study of human behavior related to tourism and leisure (Stewart & Floyd, 2004). Through the post-positivism lens, knowledge is deliberately observed and measured by the objective reality to understand causes determining effects (Creswell, 2009). The study begins with existing theories which provide foundations to explain tourists' behavior. Data is then collected from the participants based on a set of numeric measurement instruments. The hypotheses, which represent the relationships among

variables, are accepted or rejected based on empirical evidence supported by the collected data. With this approach, the post-positivism paradigm is most suitable to present the links between theory and practice (Creswell, 2009).

A quantitative research design was adopted in this study. After identifying research objectives and research questions, the literature on relevant topics of food tourism, travel motivation, travel behavior and destination choice behavior was reviewed to provide a comprehensive insight into the concepts and theories related to the field of research. Materials such as journal articles, books, tourism industry and government reports and so on were then scanned to identify the constructs of travel motivation and foundation theories to develop a conceptual framework for the study. The dimensionality of the motivation construct and the theoretical model were then empirically validated with a set of data collected using an online questionnaire-based survey. The sample for this study was selected from online networks of foodies, who are "people with a passion for food" (Getz et al., 2014, p.5). For the complexity of the conceptual model, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), particularly least squares-based SEM (PLS-SEM) was applied for data analysis as a comprehensive technique to address all the research questions of the study. Among the software packages developed for PLS-SEM, SmartPLS 3.0 was utilized for statistical data analysis in this study. The research methodology and methods of data analysis are presented for more detail in chapters 4 and 5.

1.5 Research framework and hypotheses

One of the main objectives of this study is to provide the understandings of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. In order to achieve this objective, this study focuses on analyzing models of consumer decision-making in predicting travel destination choice behavior including a model of pleasure travel destination choice process (Um & Crompton, 1990), a general model of traveler destination choice (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), and the theory of planned behavior (TPB) model (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Details of these models are presented in chapter 3. Out of these models, Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) stated that the TPB model is most useful in predicting behavioral intentions in destination choice situations. In fact, the TPB model has been demonstrated to be efficient to explain tourists' behavior toward choosing a travel destination in different research contexts. Relative to this study, the TPB model has been applied in wine tourism, which, due to the links with gastronomy, can be considered a shared-field with food tourism. As a result,

it was felt that the TPB model could also be modified and applied to investigate destination choice behavior in the context of food tourism. In addition, several groups of variables including socio-psychological, personal, and environmental variables are frequently discussed in the consumer decision-making process. While the original TPB model includes socio-psychological variables (e.g., attitude, intention) and environmental variables (e.g., subjective norms, perceived behavioral control), the addition of personal variables was considered necessary to understand more about the personality and behavior related to food and tourism. Accordingly, with the purpose of examining factors affecting behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, the study employed an extended TPB model with the addition of three new constructs, push factors, pull factors and food involvement. Moreover, age, which classified tourists into group aged 35 and under and group aged above 35, is believed to have moderating effects on the hypothesized relationships associated with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. In summary, a total of 20 hypotheses were proposed to investigate direct relationships, mediating effects and moderating effects in the model developed for this study.

1.6 Contributions of the research

1.6.1 Theoretical contributions

The study focuses on analyzing travel motivations to choose a food tourism destination and the factors that influence tourists' behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination. Since these themes were not studied in previous literature, this research will make significant contributions to the body of knowledge relating to food tourism, tourist motivation and behavior with two major theoretical contributions.

First, previous studies on food tourism lacks a comprehensive instrument to measure travel motivation in food tourism destination choice, especially when taking both internal and external motivational factors into account. Therefore, the current research examines the multi-dimensionality of travel motivation constructs including push factors and pull factors which have been selected based on an analysis of exiting literature on travel motivation as well as food and wine tourism. These proposed motivational constructs are then empirically verified, thus laying a theoretical foundation for future studies of tourists' motivation in the different contexts of food tourism or even other types of special interest tourism.

Second, although previous studies have investigated tourists' behavior in the context of food tourism, most of them have focused on behavior toward local food consumption, or food festivals and events. There has not yet been an empirical study on behavior toward destination choice in this field (Getz et al., 2014). Therefore, by drawing on an established theoretical model from behavioral research, this study has attempted to explain food tourism destination choice behavior to provide a comprehensive understanding of travelers' behavioral intention towards visiting a food tourism destination. Accordingly, a theoretical framework of relationships of seven constructs (attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavior control, push factors, pull factors, food involvement and behavioral intention) in the food tourism context was proposed and then validated by empirical evidence. As a consequence, this study will provide a strong academic base for future research on consumer behavior toward a specific geographical context of food tourism such as a restaurant, a district in a city or a farming area which can be referred using the term 'foodscape' (Getz et al., 2014).

Third, among few studies of food tourism conducting an online survey via social media such as Facebook and Linkedin, the study of online foodie market makes significant contributions in filling the methodology-based gap in the literature of food tourism. In this study, the samples of online foodies were categorized into two groups, experience food tourists and non-experienced food tourists based on their travel experience. In addition, their demographic profiles (e.g., gender, age, and living region) were investigated with the purpose of making a comparison of the travel motivation and behavior between different groups. As a result, the study provide empirical findings related to demand patterns of the niche market of food tourism that help to enrich the literature of foodies and food tourists.

1.6.2 Managerial contributions

Food tourism is attracting considerable attention in many countries because it has a positive contribution to national development (UNWTO, 2012). "Food experiences can also stimulate local development because food tourism is high yield tourism that can extend the tourist season and diversify rural economies" (UNWTO, 2012, p.20). Yield refers to the amount that tourists spend at a destination and high yield tourists are favored for this reason. Consequently, the understanding of tourists' motivations and behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination is of significant interest to Destination Management and Marketing Organizations and policy makers in many cities and countries. In terms of general practical

and managerial contributions, this study provides valuable information that will allow DMOs to (1) understand target markets and their underlying motivational factors when choosing a food travel destination (2) understand core factors of food destination attractiveness and (3) develop profiles of products related to food and targeted destination marketing strategies to attract potential food tourists. The results of this study also indicate which factors influence behavioral intentions to visit a food tourism destination and thus help DMOs to build a comprehensive strategic marketing and management plan to stimulate future food trips from potential markets. In other words, they will be able to design marketing communications in a way that targets and motivates tourists to visit their food destination.

1.7 Definitions of terms

In this study, major concepts of food tourism, food tourist, foodie, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, behavioral intention, travel motivation and food involvement are found in literature with a variety of definitions for each. The choice of definition for each term will be discussed in more detail in the next chapters of the study. However, this section introduces and explains the most relevant terminologies below.

Food tourism

While food tourism can be defined from two perspectives of motivation and experience in previous studies, the definition of food tourism in this study is derived from a motivation viewpoint as "food tourism applies to visitors and tourists who travel to a specific destination for the purpose of exploring and enjoying the destination's food and savoring unique and memorable food experiences" (Kivela and Crotts, 2005, p.42).

Food tourist

Following from the understanding of food tourism, food tourist is also defined from a motivation side as "a special interest tourist, whose major activities at the destination are food-related and for whom food tourism is an important, if not primary, reason influencing his travel behavior" (Shenoy, 2005, p.17).

Foodie

The way to understand who is a foodie is explored through several psychological and social dimensions including their behavior, self-identity and social-identity. Accordingly, a foodie

is defined as "a food lover; one whose personal and social identity encompasses food quality, cooking, sharing meals and food experiences; foodies incorporate all aspects of food into their lifestyle, which often leads them to travel for new and authentic food experiences" (Getz et al., p.5).

Attitudes

"The degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question" (Ajzen, 1991, p.188). In this study, attitude refers to feelings toward the visit to a food tourism destination.

Subjective norms

"The perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). In this study, the social pressure derived from the opinions of family, friends, important people and foodies on social foodie networks about the visit to a food tourism destination.

Perceived behavioral control

Perceived behavioral control is an individual's perceptions of the perceived ability to perform behavior (Hsu & Huang, 2012). This study defines perceived behavioral control as tourists' perception of ability to take a trip to a food tourism destination.

Behavioral intention

Behavioral intention in this study refers to tourists' willingness to take a trip to a food tourism destination in the future.

Travel motivation

In this study, travel motivation is understood from the perspective of the tourist (push factors) and the destination (pull factors). Push factors include social-psychological motives and pull factors are motivational factors inspired by the attractive features of a destination.

Food involvement

Involvement is defined by Havitz and Dimanche (1997, p.246) as "… an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product, evoked

by a particular stimulus or situation, and which has driven properties". In this study, food involvement is considered as the participation in food-related activities.

1.8 Organization of the thesis

Figure 1.1 presents the structure of the thesis that includes seven chapters; (1) Introduction; (2) Food tourism; (3) Travel motivation, involvement and behavior; (4) Research methodology; (5) Methods of data analysis; (6) Research findings and (7) Discussion and conclusion. The contents of each chapter are summarized as follows

Chapter 1 provides an introduction of the research background and a statement of the research problem in which the rationale for conducting this study is presented. After that, research objectives and questions are listed to highlight the directions of the research. A brief introduction of theoretical models and hypotheses, research methods, as well as theoretical and managerial contributions of study are also presented in the first chapter.

The review of literature is divided into chapters 2 and 3. Chapter 2 covers the issues related to food tourism including definitions, classification of food tourist and food tourism destinations as well as a thematic review of previous studies in food tourism. Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical perspectives in relation to travel motivation, food involvement and behavior in the context of tourism in general and in the field of food tourism in particular. Both these chapters provide a critical analysis and discussion of previous literature on related topics to identify the research gaps. The conceptual framework and hypotheses are then presented in final section of chapter 3. This provides guidance on the research methodology and research design presented in chapter 4.

Chapter 4 introduces the research paradigm and provides justifications for the quantitative research approach chosen in the study. The issues involved in quantitative research including research instrument development, questionnaire design, sampling design as well as survey administration are logically presented in this chapter. Next, chapter 5 presents detailed guidelines for methods of data analysis including eight steps which help to facilitate the step-by-step report of research findings presented in chapter 6.

Chapter 6 reports the results of the main survey-based data including descriptive statistics analysis, exploratory factor analysis, measurement models evaluation, structural model evaluation, mediating and moderator effects analysis.

Finally, Chapter 7 reviews the major findings and discusses them in accordance with the research objectives and questions outlined in Chapter 1. The research findings are discussed in relation to previous research to highlight the contribution to theory and practice. After this discussion, the thesis is concluded with a highlight of achieved objectives, research limitations and directions recommended for further research.

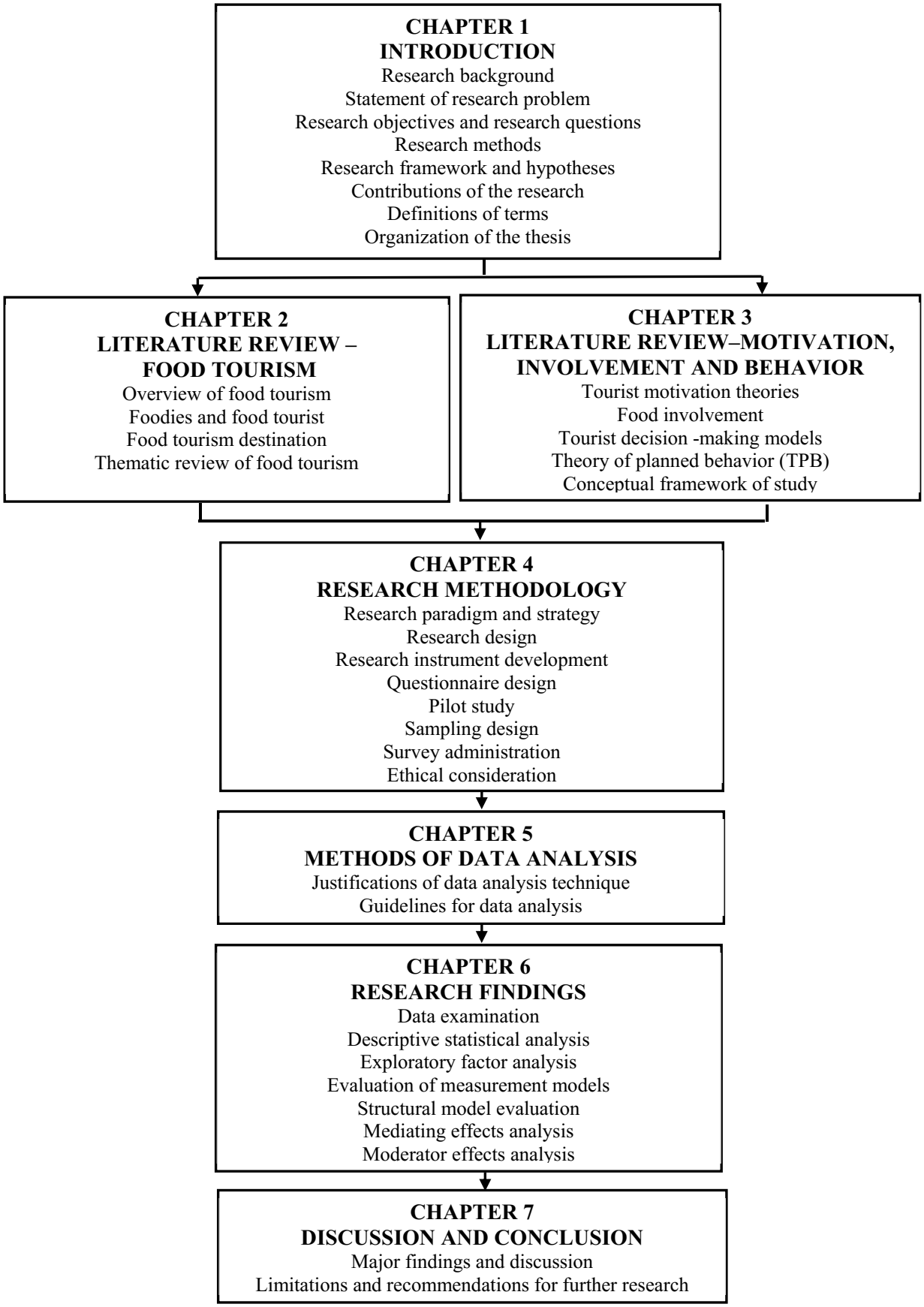


Figure 1.1 Structure of the thesis

CHAPTER 2
FOOD TOURISM

2.1 Introduction

The literature review provides a comprehensive understanding of how knowledge gaps are identified in food tourism, travel behavior and destination choice as well as the theoretical foundations employed to develop conceptual frameworks and hypotheses in this study. The literature review is presented in two chapters. Chapter 2 is labelled "Food tourism" and Chapter 3 is labelled "Travel motivation, involvement and behavior"

Chapter 2 focuses on presenting an overview of food tourism including definitions of food tourism (*Section 2.2*), food tourists (*Sections 2.3*) and food tourism destinations (*Section 2.4*). In addition, a thematic review of previous studies on food tourism is provided to identify research gaps in food tourism (*Section 2.5*). Particularly, in this section, the method applied to conduct the literature review is firstly presented (*Section 2.5.1*). Themes, which have been studied in the context of food tourism, are then analyzed in *Section 2.5.2*. The conclusion of the chapter is presented in *Section 2.6*.

2.2 Definitions of food tourism

The early twenty-first century has witnessed the growth of special interest tourism which is considered as an alternative to mass tourism. While natural resources like sun, sea and sand are traditionally major destination attractions for tourists, food has emerged as a cultural attraction at tourism destinations over the past two decades (Hsu, 2014) . Food is seen as a central part in the tourism experience, providing tourists with a gateway into the local culture of a destination. It is apparent within the literature that there is a connection between food and tourism which is expressed in many different terms such as "cuisine tourism", "culinary tourism", "gastronomy tourism" and "food tourism" (Ignatov & Smith, 2006; Karim & Chi, 2010). Among these, food tourism is proposed as the most appropriate term in this study for the following reasons. First, "cuisine tourism" seems to be too narrow when cuisine means "a style of cooking" (Getz et al., 2014, p. 9). The emphasis on cookery styles alone does not denote all the value of food as a tourist attraction. The term, "gastronomy tourism" is considered to be broader than "cuisine tourism" as gastronomy refers to "the art, or science,

of good eating" (Gillespie, 2001, p.2). This term has emerged from studies of the relationship between culture and food since the early 18th century, however, it relates food to those who not only excessively love to eat and drink but also have much knowledge about food and wine. They are called "Gourmet" or "Gourmand" (Getz et al., 2014). Lastly, "culinary" is described in terms of the social and cultural context in which food and beverage is prepared as well as styles of food preparation and consumption. The term, "culinary tourism" can be a good choice, however it has been involved in the literature in both food tourism and beverage tourism (wine tourism, beer tourism, coffee tourism, tea tourism, whisky tourism) (Getz et al., 2014). Ignatov and Smith (2006, p. 238) also defined culinary tourism as "tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity". As a result, this study employs the term "food tourism" to keep it simple, focused and broad, and to avoid any bias associated with other terms. In fact, in this study, "Food" is simply "anything nutritious that people eat" (Getz et al., 2014, p.6) and a cultural artefact providing "a medium for the expression of local culture" (Getz et al., 2014, p.1). "Food tourism" is for all those with sufficient money and time to support their travel for enjoying food experiences.

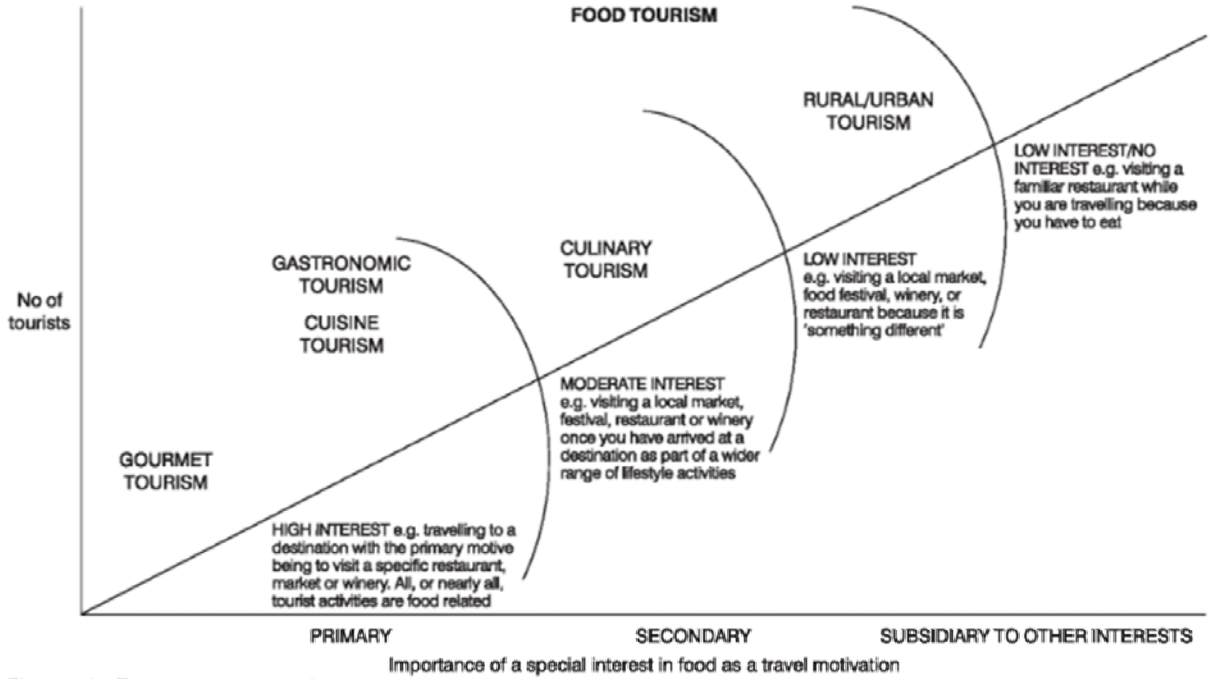


Figure 2.1 Food tourism as special interest tourism

(Source: Hall and Mitchell, 2005, p.74)

In order to define food tourism, a distinction firstly needs to be made between "tourists who consume food as part of the travel experience, and those whose activities, behaviors, and even destination selection is influenced by an interest in food" (Hall & Sharples, 2003, p.9). Hall and Mitchell (2005) categorized food tourism into gourmet tourism, cuisine/gastronomic tourism, culinary tourism, and rural/urban tourism as shown in *Figure 2.1*.

These classifications are derived from the criteria of tourists' interests in food and food-related activities at destinations. In particular, *Figure 2.1* explains as follows:

- The first high interest segment is gourmet tourism, cuisine or gastronomic tourism. These refer to those traveling to a destination with food being of primary importance rather than other interests. In fact, food is placed as a major motivation for travelers. Nearly all activities of this group are food related including visiting "expensive or "top end" restaurants, wineries and festivals" (Steinmetz, 2010, p.5).
- The second segment is culinary tourism that indicates a moderate interest in food at destinations. This group joins in food-related activities such as visiting a local market, restaurant, festival to widen the range of lifestyle activities once they have arrived at a destination for other interests.
- The lower interest segment is labelled rural or urban tourism. For this category, visiting a local market makes a difference with activities of shopping.
- The final group refers to those who have low interest or event no interest in food and food-related activities. This segment is unlabeled as the consumption of food is not considered as a part of tourism experiences. Eating at a restaurant while traveling is merely a biological need (Steinmetz, 2010).

It is undeniable that the classification of food tourism by Hall and Mitchell (2005) has a main contribution in defining various forms of food tourism from the perspectives of tourists' interest in food. There is a clear distinction between tourists who are specifically motivated by their food- related interests and others, for whom traveling to a specific destination is not primary for food tourism activities. In other words, *Table 2.1* presents definitions of food tourism that are differentiated between two perspectives (i.e., from a tourist experience-side and a tourist motivation-side).

Table 2.1 Definitions of food tourism

Author/year	Definition	Motivational approach	Experiential approach
Hall and Mitchell (2001, p.10)	Food tourism as a visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants, and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production regions are the primary motivation for travel	*	
Boniface (2003, p. 15)	Traveling to a destination for food and drink	*	
Kivela and Crotts (2005, p. 42)	Traveling for the purpose of exploring and enjoying the destination's food and beverages and savoring unique and memorable gastronomy experiences	*	
Karim and Chi (2010, p. 532)	Tourism activity related to food has been labeled such as food tourism, culinary tourism or gastronomy tourism. These terms have the same meaning: people travel to a specific destination for the purpose of finding foods	*	
World Food Travel Association	Culinary tourism is the pursuit of unique and memorable culinary experience of all kinds while in a travel context	*	
UNWTO (2012, p.7)	Gastronomic tourism applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trip partially and total in order to taste the cuisine of the place and to carry out activities related to gastronomy	*	
Long (2004, p.21)	It is an experience of food and food ways other than one's own		*
Ignatov and Smith (2006, p.237)	Culinary tourism is tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represents a significant motivation or activity		*
Smith and Xiao (2008, p.289)	Culinary tourism is any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources. Culinary tourism encompasses travel specifically motivated by culinary interests as well as travel in which culinary experiences occur but are not the primary motivation for the trip		*
Green and Dougherty (2008, p.150)	Culinary tourism is the pursuit of unique and memorable eating and drinking experiences, and provides a way of linking local food systems with the tourist experience		*
Ottenbacher and Harrington (2010, p.14)	Gastronomy and culinary tourism can be described as tourism where an opportunity for memorable food and drink experiences contributes significantly to travel motivation and behavior		*

On the one hand, an experience-oriented definition of food tourism indicates that "culinary tourism is the pursuit of unique and memorable eating and drinking experiences, and provides a way of linking local food systems with the tourist experience" (Green & Dougherty, 2008, p.150). In other words, food-related experiences are considered a main part of total tourists' travel experience, but are not a main reason for their trip. This is clearly defined by Smith and Xiao (2008, p.289) as "culinary tourism is any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources. Culinary tourism encompasses travel specifically motivated by culinary interests as well as travel in which culinary experiences occur but are not the primary motivation for the trip". Similarly, Ottenbacher and Harrington (2010, p.14) stated that "gastronomy and culinary tourism can be described as tourism where an opportunity for memorable food and drink experiences contributes significantly to travel motivation and behavior". Both these definitions refer to food tourism from the tourist motivation-side, however it should be emphasized that "it is an experience of food and food ways other than one's own" (Long, 2004, p.21).

One the other hand, some definitions emphasize food as a major motivational factor for travelers. For example, a definition of food tourism by Karim and Chi (2010, p.532) is straightforward on tourist motivation for finding food, particularly "Tourism activity related to food has been labelled such as food tourism, culinary tourism, or gastronomy tourism. These terms have the same meaning: people travel to a specific destination for the purpose of finding foods". Boniface (2003, p. 15) also provided a direct definition with tourist motivation as "traveling to a destination for food and drink". Another definition by Hall and Mitchell (2001, p.308) presents "food tourism as a visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants, and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production regions are the primary motivation for travel". This definition implies that not merely food consumption at restaurants during traveling can be seen as food tourism. It is affirmed by the World Food Travel Association that food tourism is "the pursuit of unique and memorable culinary experience of all kinds while in a travel context" . A definition by UNWTO (2012, p.7) helps to indicate the scope of food tourism by stating that "Gastronomic tourism applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trip partially and total in order to taste the cuisine of the place and to carry out activities related to gastronomy". In summary, in a motivation-oriented definition, food

tourism is a form of tourism where food-related experiences are the main motivation for visitors to travel to a destination.

The definitions of food tourism are considerably different from both experience and motivation sides. In this study, which has as its purpose investigating tourist motivation and behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination, the understanding of food tourism is based on the motivational approach. Therefore, by adapting definitions of food tourism from previous studies by UNWTO (2012, p.7) and Kivela and Crotts (2005, p.42), food tourism in this current research is defined as: *Food tourism applies to visitors and tourists who travel to a specific destination for the purpose of exploring and enjoying the destination's food and savoring unique and memorable food experiences.*

2.3 Foodies and food tourists

2.3.1 Foodies

In a simple way, foodie is defined by Getz et al. (2014, p.51) as a 'food lover' and "one who incorporates food, its preparation and enjoyment into their lifestyle". The term 'foodie' has been invented early in The Official Foodie Handbook

> A Foodie is a person who is very very very interested in food. Foodies are the ones talking about food in any gathering – salivating over restaurants, recipes, radicchio. They don't think they are being trivial – Foodies consider food to be an art, on a level with painting or drama.
>
> Barr and Levy (1984, p.6)

Barr and Levy (1984) also make a comparison between a foodie and a gourmet. While a gourmet was seen as older and upper-class, a foodie was typically described as younger. Foodies usually made judgment on food they enjoyed and then tried to cook it at home. They were considered as "children of the consumer boom" (Barr & Levy, 1984, p.7). Watson et al. (2008, p.290) said that "foodies 'collect' food experiences and visits to celebrated restaurants, much as tourists collect souvernirs".

Similar to Barr and Levy (1984), Johnston and Baumann (2007) distinguished foodies in terms of democracy. On the one hand, foodies are those who relate their consumption toward healthy eating, local produce, fair trade or prefer ecological or organic foods. In this way, all people can become foodies. On the other hand, foodies are understood as those who associate

food consumption with cultural experiences. They are required to have knowledge to share their food experiences. It implies that foodies are well-educated and wealthy people.

In summary, there have been various ways to interpret the term 'foodie', however being a foodie is not only about eating or showing a love of food, but also looking for tastes and experiences. The understanding of what is a foodie can be reflected by their self and social identities, their behavior, attitude, lifestyle and travel toward food and food-related activities. Therefore, in this study, the definition of foodies is adopted from Getz et al. (2014, p.197) that is:

> A food lover, one whose personal and social identity encompasses food quality, cooking, sharing meals and food experiences. Foodies incorporate all aspects of food into their lifestyle, which often leads them to travel for new and authentic food experiences
>
> Getz et al. (2014, p.197)

2.3.2 Food tourists

Some previous studies have attempted to categorize food tourists based on their interest level of local food, their involvement in food related activities, their attitude toward food consumption at a destination. First, following the classification of food tourism discussed in section 2.2, Mitchell and Hall (2003) suggested four different types of food tourists based on their level of interest in food consumption. They include: (1) gourmet tourists, (2) gastronomy and cuisine tourists, (3) culinary tourists and (4) rural/urban tourists. For the first two types, food is considered to be the main motive to travel to a destination. They show high interest in all food-related activities such as dining at a restaurant, shopping at food market or visiting wineries. However, food is seen as an additional reason for culinary tourists, rural/ urban tourists when they travel to a destination. For these two segments, food consumption or participation in food-related activities are only components of a wider range of tourism offers that they desire to experience at a destination.

Derived from the classification of tourist lifestyles suggested by Cohen (1984) , Hjalager (2003) divided food tourists into four groups, namely (1) recreational, (2) existential, (3) diversionary and (4) experimental gastronomy tourists. This categorization is based on tourists' preferences and attitudes toward the consumption of food and drink. Firstly, the recreational gastronomy tourists refer to those who prefer self-catering with prepared ingredients instead of being served by waiters in a restaurant while they travel. These tourists

often seek food and beverage like their daily eating habit and only enjoy food-related activities through watching without participation. For these reasons, this group is also referred to as the conservative type (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). Contrary to the recreational type, the existential gastronomy tourists actively seek the local and traditional food of a destination and join in food-related activities such as visiting farms and vineyards, attending cooking classes, visiting food producers and meeting professional chefs (Hjalager, 2003). For this existential group, food and beverage consumption does not only satisfy tourists' biological needs but also helps them learn about food knowledge and local culture. Therefore, existential gastronomy tourists are often attracted by special restaurants with traditional food, not by popular and crowded tourists restaurants (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). By contrast, those, who prefer chain-restaurant operations or "manufactured" dining out places, are grouped as the diversionary gastronomy tourists. The reason for their food travel is to escape from daily shopping and cooking. While the recreational group acknowledges eating and drinking as a way to enhance family values, dining-out is considered as a pleasure of meeting friends or new acquaintances. The final category is experimental gastronomy tourists who relate food and beverage into their trendy or fashionable lifestyle. Therefore, they love to experience new food which is prepared with new ingredients in new cooking methods. For this experimental group, food is a means to satisfy their social needs. Unlike the diversionary gastronomy tourists who think of the quantity of food, the experimental tourists pay attention to the quality and fashionable values of cuisine. In fact, the experimental group define their own image or personality and prestige through food and beverage consumption (Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

In terms of tourists' participation in culinary activities, Ignatov and Smith (2006) divided Canadian culinary tourists into three segments: (1) food tourists, (2) wine tourists and (3) food and wine tourists. Culinary activities are involved in three groups suggested by Ignatov and Smith (2006, p.243)

> **Group One:** farmers' fairs/ markets; shop/ browse gourmet foods in retail stores or farms; pick-your-own farms/ harvesting
> **Group Two:** restaurant dining (regional or local cooking); restaurant dining (internationally acclaimed restaurants); staying at a cooking school; staying at a gourmet restaurant with accommodation on premises
> **Group Three:** touring a regions' wineries with a stay of one or more nights; going to wineries for day visits and tasting; staying at a wine tasting school
>
> Ignatov and Smith (2006, p.243)

Based on these three groups of activities, those who participated in at least one activity in the first two groups were qualified as food tourists while wine tourists were those who joined in an activity in group three. According to Ignatov and Smith (2006), wine tourists were not seen as food tourists. In addition, these segments show significant differences in demographic profiles and trip motivations as well. For example, more female food tourists were reported than male ones. However, the wine tourists segment had a similar percentage of men and women (Ignatov &Smith, 2006).

Similar to Ignatov and Smith (2006), McKercher, Okumus and Okumus (2008) categorized food tourists based on their involvement in food-related activities. Three segments were defined from less involved to highly involved, including (1) possible culinary tourist, (2) likely culinary tourist and (3) definite culinary tourist. Later, Sanchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012) applied the methodology proposed by McKercher et al. (2008) to obtain the profile of culinary tourists in the city of Cordoba, Spain. As a result, culinary tourists were classified into three segments based on the importance of food in tourists' vacation decision making. In particular, the first group includes those who consider food as a major reason to travel. Tourists, who treat food as important, but not a primary factor for traveling, are grouped into the second segment. The final one involves those who have little interest in food and food-related activities at a destination (Sanchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012).

In summary, many previous studies have attempted to classify gastronomy, culinary, and food tourists. However, the purpose of this study is to understand the travel motivation and behavior of potential food tourists, thus typologies of foodies are necessarily invented to provide the knowledge of how foodies become food tourists. The current research applied typologies recommended by Getz et al. (2014) to categorize foodies into three segments, including (1) dynamic foodies, (2) active foodies and (3) passive foodies. First, dynamic foodies have the most propensity to travel for food. They might be dedicated food tourists who make decisions to visit a destination for food-related experiences. Second, active foodies are also food lovers, however, they do not consider food as important in their travel decision in the same way as dynamic foodies. The final segment is passive foodies who do not travel for food experiences although they love food. From this categorization, the potential food tourists were defined as dynamic foodies who were motivated to travel for food-related experiences.

2.4 Food tourism destination

Prior to providing an understanding of a food tourism destination, it is important to define a tourism destination. Previous studies have defined it in various ways. For example, UNWTO (2007, p.1) stated that

> A local tourism destination is a physical space in which a tourist spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attraction and tourism resources within one day' return travel time
>
> UNWTO (2007, p.1)

Bierman (2003) defined a tourism destination based on the range of scale that is a country, state, region, city or town which is marketed or markets itself as a place for tourists to visit. An attractive tourism destination basically contains six elements including attractions, amenities, accessibility, image, price and human resources. Particularly, attractions can be differently categorized by various researchers. They are natural, cultural and built (UNWTO, 2007) or places, businesses and experiences (Getz et al., 2014). Attractions are considered as "pull factors, or whatever food tourists are seeking" (Getz, et al., 2014, p.113). The UNWTO (2007) also agree that attractions need to provide initial motivation to attract tourists visiting a destination.

The second element is amenities which include basic infrastructure, facilities or services at a destination. In addition, it is necessary for a destination to be accessible to visitors with a good system of transport, flexible visa requirements or entry conditions. Another element is destination image including "uniqueness, sights, scenes, environmental quality, safety, service levels, and the friendliness of people" (UNWTO, 2007, p.2). The next important element of a tourism destination is price which may influence tourists' decisions. Human resources, including a well-trained tourism workforce and citizens, is the final important element which contributes to overall tourist experience at a tourism destination.

Using the accepted understanding of a tourism destination, Getz et al. (2014, p.202) concluded that "food tourism destinations can be cities, countries, resorts, restaurants or events". However, in this study, a food tourism destination was limited to the scale of a country which markets itself to dedicated food tourists. Getz et al. (2014) listed some examples of countries which considered food and food-related products and services (e.g., food trails and tours, restaurants and cooking schools, markets) as a focus area for international promotion, including Sweden, Ireland, Scotland or Italy.

2.5 A comprehensive review of previous studies on food tourism

2.5.1 The method of review

In order to understand research issues related to food tourism, a detailed review of academic research papers relating to food tourism was undertaken. The method used to source appropriate literature included searching for relevant papers in various databases without the limitation of publication year such as EBSCOhost, Scopus, Web of Science and Google Scholar. The key words "food tourism", "culinary tourism", "gastronomic tourism", "cuisine tourism" were used to search for relevant papers, of which only fully peer reviewed empirical articles were included. A snowballing technique was then adopted to identify additional literature in citations made in each publication (Wee & Banister, 2016). Following a review of the title, abstract, and reference list for each publication, a total of 107 studies were deemed to be relevant. However, only 87 articles from the top 23 tourism journals suggested by McKercher, Law, and Lam (2006) were selected for the thematic review. *Table 2.2* shows the synthesis of articles on the topics related to food tourism that were found in the top 23 tourism journals.

Table 2.2 Number of articles on the topics related to food tourism published in top-ranking academic journals

Journals	No. of articles
Tourism Management (TM)	12
International Journal of Hospitality Management (IJHM)	9
Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing (JTTM)	7
Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research (JHTS)	7
Journal of Sustainable Tourism (JST)	6
Journal of Culinary Science & Technology (JCST)	6
British Food Journal (BFJ)	5
Annals of Tourism Research (ATR)	5
Journal of Vacation Marketing (JVM)	4
Current Issues in Tourism (CIT)	4
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research (APJTR)	3
Tourism Analysis (TA)	2
Tourism Geographies (TG)	2

Journal of Travel Research (JTR)	2
Tourism Recreation Research (TRR)	2
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (IJCHM)	2
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management (JHTM)	2
International Journal of Tourism Research (IJTS)	2
Tourism and Hospitality Research (THR)	1
Tourism Review International (TRI)	1
Tourism, Culture & Communication (TCC)	1
Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism (SJHT)	1
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education (JHTE)	1

From this review, it can be seen that food tourism was first studied in tourism journals in 1983, starting with Bélisle (1983) in the Annals of Tourism Research. Topics in food tourism have been discussed in the early period, however there has been an increasing number of publications in this area mainly in the last decade (from 2006 to 2016). Tourism Management is, to date, the dominant journal publishing research on food tourism, with 12 articles (*Table 2.2*). The results of a review of 87 articles in the 23 listed ranking journals are presented in the following section.

2.5.2 Topical review

The literature indicates six different themes in the field of food tourism which have been conducted either from the perspectives of destinations or tourists. From the perspective of a destination, three major themes are identified including (i) the relationship between food, tourism and local development, (ii) the incorporation of food into destination marketing strategies and (iii) food tourism development strategies. In addition, (iv) food tourist market segmentation, (v) food consumption in tourism and (vi) tourist behavior towards food tourism are the three main topics that have been discussed from the side of tourists. These six themes have interrelationships between each other that provides an overall knowledge of food tourism that has been studied to date. *Figure 2.2* provides a conceptual representation of relationships between themes of food tourism. Themes are discussed in the following sections.

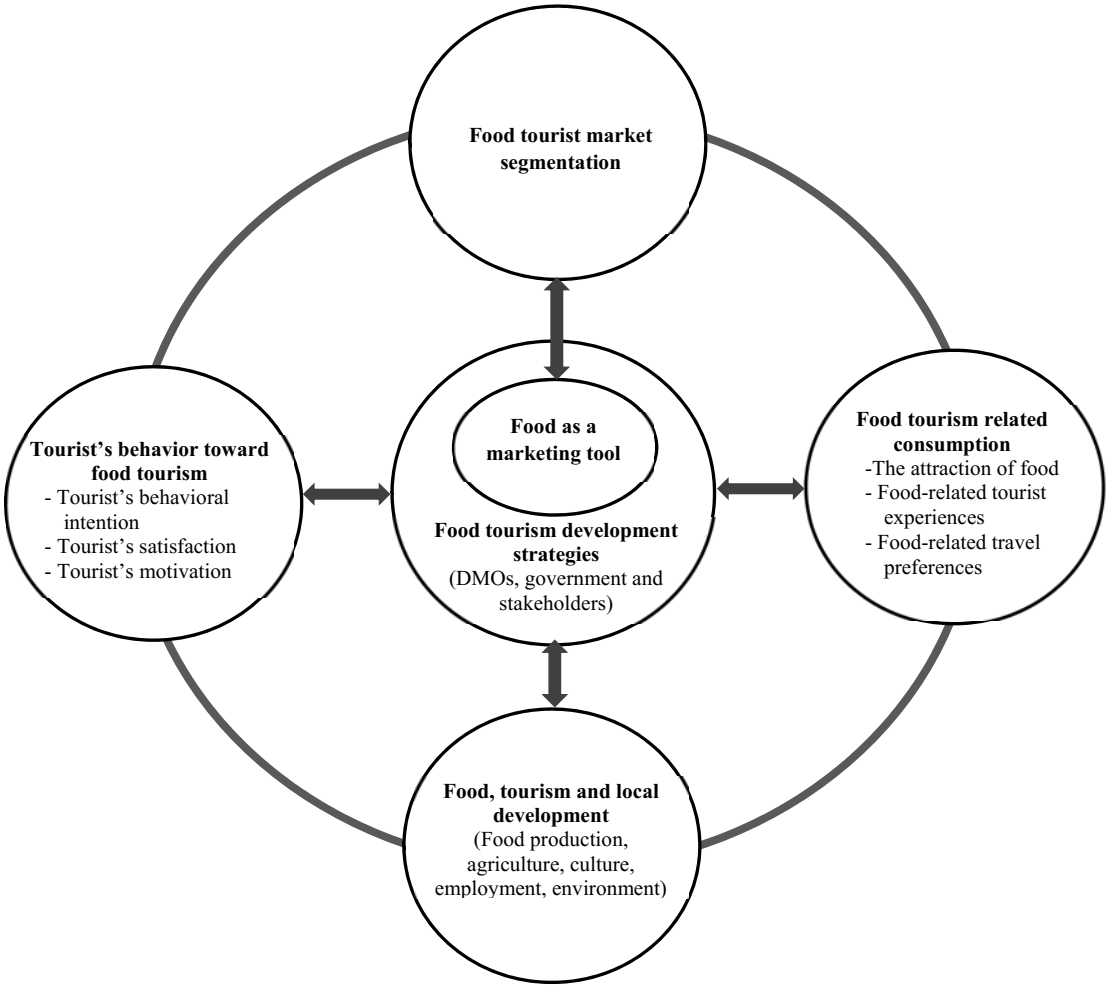


Figure 2.2 Conceptual representation of current research issues in food tourism

Source: Authors' synthesis

2.5.2.1 The relationship between food, tourism and local development

The linkage between food, tourism and local/regional development was first studied by Bélisle (1983). The study discussed the impact of tourism development on local food production with an emphasis on the leakages of tourism foreign exchange, competition for land, land values and land use in the Caribbean. Bélisle (1983) laid an initial foundation for the relationship of local food and tourism development. Telfer and Wall (1996) then reviewed the literature on this relationship by analyzing the influences of food tourism on the benefits of agriculture and the economy. In these early studies, there was a conflict found between tourism and food production, for example tourism could take land, labor, capital and other sources away from agriculture (Bélisle, 1983; Telfer & Wall, 1996). By contrast, Rand et al. (2003) contended that food tourism contributes to support and stimulate food

production and agricultural activity. This is one of six direct and indirect contributions that local food can make to the sustainability of a destination (Rand et al., 2003) *(see Figure 2.3).*

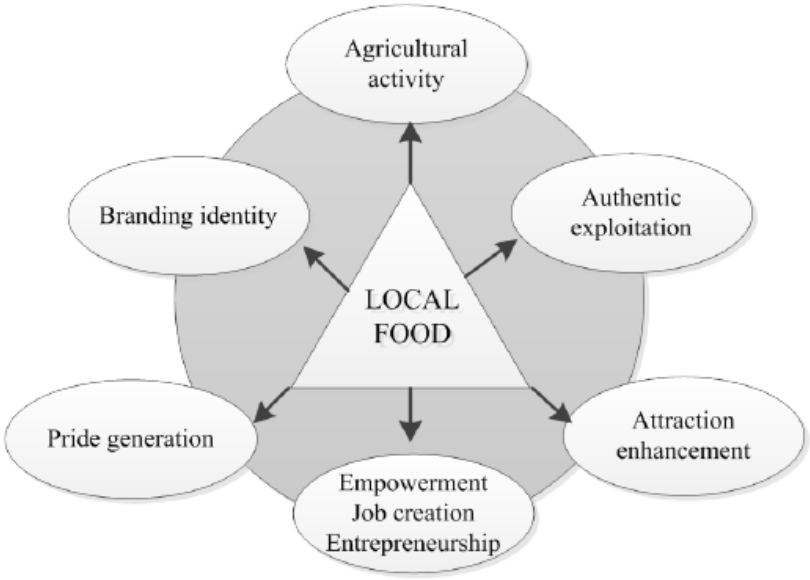


Figure 2.3 The role of local food in destination sustainability

Source: Rand et al. (2003, p.100)

Another area of significance in food tourism development is capitalizing on the authenticity and branding identity that can be acknowledged as benefits of food tourism from the cultural perspective of a tourism destination. Food, as identified by Hegarty and O'Mahony (2001, p. 25), is "a phenomenon of cultural expressionism and an aesthetic for living". This article presents food as an indicator of cultural differences in the way that it is prepared, cooked, served and enjoyed. In an empirical study, Reynolds (1993) concluded that traditional foods should be preserved along with other cultural aspects to meet tourists' demands for authentic experiences. Food was also found to be "one of the last areas of authenticity that is affordable on regular basis" (Reynolds, 1994, p.191). Similarly, in the research in the Lake District and Exmoor in the United Kingdom, Sims (2009) argued that local food played an important role in enhancing tourists' experiences by tapping into their desire for authenticity. Thus far in this review, local food was identified to be a critical part of culture and heritage that helps to connect tourists with a place they visit (Sims, 2009) and thus contributes to facilitating the development of sustainable tourism. Hillel, Belhassen and Shani (2013) focused their analysis on the link between food, place, and community in a study that looked at the potential to boost tourism development in the Negev - in Israel's southern region. Food was considered one of three essential dimensions to fulfill tourists' expectations for authenticity at a destination and improve the attractiveness of the destination (Hillel et al., 2013).

The second cultural viewpoint of food tourism in the relationship with local development is its role in a destination's regional identity. Everett and Aitchison (2008) explored the relationships between food tourism, place identity and sustainability in a case study of Cornwall, South West England. The results of in-depth interviews with twelve restaurants in four tourist locations demonstrated that "food and food-related industries can be central to the formation of regional identities, substantiating the theoretical link between identity and food" (Everett & Aitchison, 2008, p.164). In addition, Fox (2007) suggested an approach to reinvent the food identity of Croatian tourist destinations by showcasing the rich traditional gastronomic heritage rather than offering international cuisine. Fox's approach (2007) was sustained by Kim and Ellis (2015) and Kim and Iwashita (2016) in recent studies on traditional Japanese handmade udon noodles which are the main tourism attractions in the Kagawa and Mizusawa regions. The results of these two studies showed how udon noodle heritage could be used as a tool for tourism development by its contribution to the destination's cultural values and tourists' authentic experiences. However, as opposed to Fox (2007), Lin, Pearson, and Cai (2011) identified seven dimensions of food identity related to a tourism destination in which the class of food is the core identity regarding both local Taiwanese food or international food (Japanese and western food). Despite the differences in orientation of Fox's (2007) and Lin et al.'s (2011) studies, both have highlighted the importance of food in relation to a destinations' identity in the context of tourism.

With a growing demand for local authentic and novel experiences associated with a tourist destination, two aforementioned aspects related to food such as authenticity and identity are "an indispensable asset to any successful tourist destination" (Fox, 2007, p. 546). Clearly, this is an asset that brings considerable benefits to a tourist destination such as enhancing a destination's attractiveness and gaining a distinct global competitive advantage that contributes to destination sustainability (Rand et al., 2003).

In summary, the relationships between food and tourism are complex from various perspectives. However, regarding the economic links between tourism development and the food industry, the previous studies only discussed the negative effects of the former on the latter despite the potential benefits between them. The mutual support such as in what way tourism development can stimulate the regional food production or how local food production can be improved in both quantity and quality to contribute to tourism development should be a further research direction from the perspective of destination

management. In addition, although the linkage between food and tourism related to the cultural dimensions of a tourist destination have attracted scholarly attention until now, the studies focused on determining the role of food authenticity and identity in regional tourism development. There has not been much published research on the nature of food authenticity, particularly what makes food authentic in the tourism context or what aspects of food can build local identity of a tourist destination. These issues are worthy of consideration from the viewpoint of a tourist destination.

2.5.2.2 The incorporation of food into destination marketing strategies

A study investigating how food was incorporated into the promotional and marketing strategy in South Africa is considered the preliminary research in this theme (Rand et al., 2003). A survey with target groups such as South African Provincial, Regional or local Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) and key marketers in food tourism was conducted to identify the role of food in destination marketing strategies. The findings indicated that only half of the total sample used food as a marketing tool, therefore guidelines for future development strategy are necessary to utilize the advantages of this tool in South Africa. Rand and Heath (2006) then conceptualized a comprehensive tourism destination-marketing framework, which was based on a South African situation analysis in order to optimize the potential of local and regional food in developing the competitive strategies of a destination. However, Boyne et al. (2003) argued that such the framework for the marketing of food-related tourism might be problematic as there is a shortfall in providing the understanding of consumer behavior related to food in these studies. For this argument, other studies which examine the specific ways in which destination marketing organizations utilize food to promote their images are discussed next.

Brochures were recognized as one of the most effective promotional tools used by advertisers in the area of tourism and leisure (Morgan & Pritchard, 2000). With the function of brochures as a tool creating destination images, Frochot (2003) conducted a content analysis of 19 French regional tourism promotional materials to identify the different types of food images used for destination's positioning strategies by tourism advertisers. The results showed that gastronomic dimensions were underrepresented in brochures and used to position only a few regions in France (Frochot, 20003). Another cost-effective marketing tool, which can help destination marketing organizations (DMOs) widely market their destination, is to use the World Wide Web (Boyne et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2009). For

example, Boyne et al. (2003) examined the ways in which tourism and food are being used together at both theoretical and strategic level in the United Kingdom. It seems to be that the web-marketing of food and food tourism is still in deficit. Similar results were found by Kim et al. (2009) in a study which analyzed the Web sites of DMOs in West Texas regarding food products, food-related activities and information. In these studies, brochures and the World Wide Web could not efficiently help marketers convey local food values as a tool to attract tourists to their destinations. However, in a cross – national study of the government websites of six countries (Thailand, Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea and Japan), Horng and Tsai (2010, p.82) contended that "there is still room for improvement in/on each country's culinary tourism website". In particular, the website must have a user-friendly architecture, updated content and travel information and eye-catching design with both written and visual texts. In addition, the knowledge of local food and culture is extremely important for destination advertisers and marketers to build a destination image based on food.

Besides tourism brochures and the internet, Tussyadiah (2005) also identified other media channels such as travel magazines and television programs which used local and international food in marketing strategies of Japan. For example, while a gourmet travel magazine provided various choices for food and cuisine of a specific destination, all Japanese food-related matters appeared in different travel television programs such as talk shows, adventures, cultural explorations. The media played a supportive role in advertising Japanese food as a pull factor of a destination. A comparative study on incorporating local and international cuisine in destination marketing of Hong Kong and Turkey by Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher (2007) examined how these two countries used food in their marketing activities. It is concluded that an intimate knowledge of local and international cuisine and socio-cultural characteristics of potential tourists is essential for marketers to use food in destination marketing.

2.5.2.3 Food tourism development strategies

Due to the significance of food tourism in local development, previous studies proposed strategic plans for developing this type of tourism in many countries across the world. Not only tourism policies, but national economic, agricultural and food industrial policies are important for development (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000). Hjalager and Corigliano (2000) stated that food policies are most crucial to determine the standards of food image for tourists at European countries such as Italy and Demark. In addition, Beer et al. (2012) created a

matrix of activities with regard to two dimensions, market potential and market demand for the food tourism implementation in the Black Forest regions in Southwest Germany. This matrix suggested four regional tourism products including wine tourism, culinary tourism, gourmet tourism and non-food tourism which constitutes the tourist activities bundle in the regions. The strategic process of a culinary tourism campaign in the region of South Germany was also explored by Ottenbacher and Harrington (2013) to identify how to successfully develop and implement a food tourism strategy. As a result, a culinary tourism success was associated with six key areas including "(a) the strategy itself, (b) cooperation among stakeholders, (c) leadership issues, (d) culinary profile promotion, (e) communication of quality, and (f) enhancing tourist perceptions" (Ottenbacher & Harrinton, 2013, p.24). Similarly, in the United Kingdom, a food tourism model, which was developed by Everett and Slocum (2013), mapped five critical themes, including knowledge change, the supply chain, fear of change, regionalization and sustainable-principal marketing. The important factors for a successful food tourism development strategy found in these previous studies of food tourism were consistent with successful elements for a wine tourism region explored by Deery, O'Mahony, and Moors (2012).

In Asia- Pacific countries such as Australia, Hong Kong, Korea, Macao, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand, strategic development structure of food tourism was recommended by Horng and Tsai (2012b) from an analysis of their key success factors. They suggested that the first thing is for governments to effectively use the food tourism resources including local cuisine, food events, food-related activities and facilities, and organizations associated with food. Among these resources, local/traditional food should be appreciated as an important resource for the sustainable development of tourism at a destination. The second thing is to utilize different marketing strategies which integrate national resources, promotional tools and policies to promote the food industry and tourism. Regarding marketing strategies for food tourism, Horng and Tsai (2012a) also conducted another study in two countries, Hong Kong and Singapore to understand more about the framework of development from the resource-based theory perspective. The results showed that the food tourism marketing strategy effectively helps to advertise the food cultural resources, thus contributing to the development of food tourism. More important, a strategy cannot be successful without professional human resources as well as educated local residents. Finally, cooperation between the public and private sectors is necessary to integrate all stakeholders in the development of food tourism (Horng & Tsai, 2012b). In summary, by applying similar

research methodology, Horng and Tsai (2012a) confirmed a strategy framework and indicators for culinary tourism in Taiwan which includes four dimensions, namely "identification and effective utilization of culinary tourism resources", "evaluation of government effort to support the culinary tourism industry", "adoption of marketing strategies to promote culinary cultural industries", and "construction of an environment for culinary culture and tourism education" (Horng & Tsai, 2012a, p. 812)

2.5.2.4 Food tourist market segmentation

According to the extant literature review, there is clearly a connection between food and tourism, thus Kivela and Crotts (2005) asserted that food tourism could be a meaningful travel market segment. The classification of this market was conducted by Ignatov and Smith (2006) using a secondary database from the Canadian Travel Activities and Motivation Study. In particular, there were three major segments such as food tourists, wine tourists and food and wine tourists. While food tourists and wine tourists are those who participate only in food-related activities or wine-related activities respectively, those involved in both are called food and wine tourists (Kivela & Crotts, 2005). In this study, the socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, educational level and income are used as the basis of food tourist classification. Another method of market segmentation is explored by Tikkanen (2007) using Maslow's hierarchy of needs and motivation. The findings indicated that there were five sectors of food tourism in Finland as shown in the *Figure 2.4.*

Sanchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012) conducted fieldwork in the city of Cordoba, Spain with a demand survey being distributed in 10 famous tourist establishments. The respondents of this study were categorized into three segments with three different motivations associated to food at a destination. They are those who travel for food as the first reason, second reason and important reason, respectively. Differences between these segments were identified in the knowledge of local wine, satisfaction or the appreciation of attractions in Cordoba. Another recent study by Robinson and Getz (2014) was conducted to profile potential food tourists through a population of foodies in Australia. Although there were not specific food tourist segments, the study described a demographic and socio-economic profile as well as travel preferences of food tourists. For example, most food tourists are female, well-educated and generally wealthy. They actively seek the diverse and authentic food experiences at a destination and especially want to travel for food and other complementary cultural attractions. In summary, previous research found different

approaches to study the food tourist market that provide an understanding of various categories of food tourists in the highly-competitive tourism marketplace.

Figure 2.4 Sectors of food tourism in Finland classified by Maslow's hierarchy of needs

(Source: Tikkanen, 2007, p. 731)

2.5.2.5 Food consumption in tourism

Food consumption in the context of tourism has been widely discussed from three different perspectives. They are (i) the attraction and impediment of food to tourists, (ii) food-related tourist experiences and (iii) food-related travel preferences

Firstly, food of a destination can be considered as a tourism attraction and a source of risk for tourists on their vacations. On the one hand, experiencing food authenticity and local food culture are the main source of attraction. In fact, Kivela and Crotts (2006) said that Hong Kong attracted tourists to visit it for the unique and authentic Chinese food that was not available in their home countries. The experiences of culture through food was actually attractive for tourists to visit a destination (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). Another study by Son and Xu (2013) also focused on religious food as a tourism attraction. Food was concluded to be a means for novelty-seeking, sensory pleasure and cultural exploration; a symbol of authenticity and prestige; and a peak tourist experience. Moreover, Son and Xu (2013, p. 248) stated that "Buddist temple cuisine, as a cultural resource, can be a good example of an experience-based tourist attraction". On the other hand, tourists can encounter some

impediments such as hygiene standards, health considerations, limited knowledge about local food regarding ingredients or cooking method when experiencing local food at a tourism destination that is different from their daily cuisine (MacLaurin, 2001; Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Larsen et al. (2007) conducted a study on subjective food-risk judgements related to health concerns from the perspective of tourists. Particularly, 1880 individual tourists from 48 different countries answered a questionnaire pertaining to food-risk issues in their journeys. As a result, there was a correlation between travel experience and food-risk judgements (Larsen et al., 2007). However, if the source of risk was recognized on the positive side, it could be commodified to be an attraction of a tourist destination. Like the study by Gyimothy and Mykletun (2009), scary food might become a meal adventure appealing to thrill-seeking consumers.

The second perspective examines the importance of food and food service in tourists' vacation experiences and factors affecting tourist experience as well as tourist satisfaction. In terms of the role of food, Kivela and Crotts (2006) stated that the gastronomy of a destination contributed to the quality of tourist experiences and even attracted tourists to return to the same destination for its unique gastronomy. One of the earliest studies conducted by Sheldon and Fox (1988) concluded that the quality of foodservice and an available range of food prices were most important for tourists' food experiences. In their study, a survey of 1300 Japanese, Canadian and American people traveling to Hawaii found that tourists from various cultures evaluated the value of food on their vacation differently. For examples, food value was rated higher by visitors from Japan than by those from Canada and the United States of America. The role of food service in tourist satisfaction was also investigated by Nield, Kozak and LeGrys (2000). The result of a survey of 341 visitors in the Black Sea resorts of Romania revealed that food service played an important role in tourist satisfaction, especially food related attributes such as food quality, food price, variety of food types, presentation of food and attractive surroundings influenced significantly the overall tourist experiences (Nield et al., 2000). Chang, Kivela and Mak (2011) conducted a study on the evaluation of travel dining experience that identified six main factors affecting Mainland Chinese, Taiwanese and Hong Kong tourists in their visits to Australia. Two factors such as the contextual factor of dining experience and diversity of food were found to be similar to the study by Nield et al. (2000). Other factors were tourists' own food culture, perception of the destination, service encounter and tour guide's performance (Chang et al., 2011). It is summarized that travelers' food experiences could be influenced by "what is

served, where its served (i.e. the dining setting) and how it is served" (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, p. 305). In other words, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2014) recognized the dimensionality and dynamics of food-related experiences that consisted of three main dimensions, the food, the place and the behavior. In addition, food tourists traveled to search for experiences which were based on "audacity, engagement and a search for quality like aesthetics and reputation" (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016, p. 1275). Therefore, an emphasis should be placed on the value of local food culture which is presented in local, original and authentic food to contribute to the overall travel experience.

The third perspective is concerned with food-related travel preferences that have been studied broadly in the food tourism literature. Previous studies focused on analyzing the preferences of specific food tourism markets. For example, Mexican foods, tropical fruits and organic produce were identified as significant preferences of American visitors in Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico (Torres, 2003). In India, Updhyay and Sharma (2014) conducted a survey at different tourism spots to discover culinary preferences of foreign tourists. The outcome suggested five latent factors related to tourists' food preferences such as "taste of food, food preparation, localization of food and dining etiquettes, tradition and nutrition of food and food aroma and cleanliness" (Updhyay & Sharma, 2014, p.29). Another study on a specific tourist market was done by Mynttinen et al. (2015) who studied Russians. This was the largest tourist group visiting Finland and had the highest expenditure on food during their visits (Mynttinen et al., 2015). It was found that Russian tourists placed high value on two characteristics of Finland local food such as freshness and healthiness although they were not familiar with traditional cuisine there. Futhermore, in an attempt to generate in-depth understanding of Chinese tourists' food preferences, Chang, Kivela and Mak (2010) investigated motivational factors, dining attitudes and behaviors of Mainland Chinese, Taiwanese and Hong Kong visitors in Australia. As a result, the study suggested that Chinese tourists' dining behavior could be distinguished into three types such as observer, browser and participator. While the observers and browsers regarded tourism dining as an opportunity to explore the local culture or to extend the daily routine experiences, the participators have great interests and are willing to savor the local food in order to pursue a genuine sense with local food culture. In addition, Chang et al. (2010) found that there were major differences in the dining preferences and behavior among three groups of visitors when Hong Kong, Taiwanese and Mainland Chinese tourists had highest, medium and lowest exposure to Western cuisines, respectively. Similar research by Getz and Robinson

(2014) also analyzed the characteristics, travel behavior and preferences of Australian food lovers to add to the understanding of the connection between foodies and food tourism. The ideal for food travel experience for the Australian food tourists was then conceptualized as shown in *Figure 2.5*

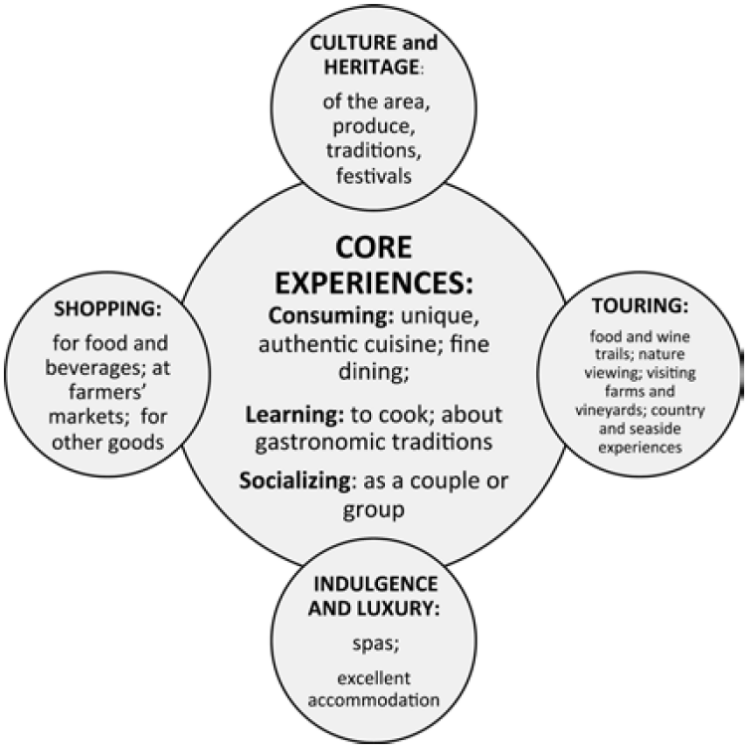


Figure 2.5 Conceptualizing food travel experiences
(Source: Getz and Robinson, 2014, p. 669)

Getz and Robinson (2014) confirmed that the food tourism experience was multidimensional and included "the cognitive, affective, and conative (behavioral) dimensions" (Getz and Robinson, 2014, p. 670). In particular,

> For foodies, the eating experience is in equal parts cognitive (learning about culture and cuisine, with authenticity essential), affective (socializing with partners and friends; communitas with like-minded foodies), and appropriate activity (especially fine dining and eating, and learning at special events)
>
> Getz and Robinson, 2014, p. 670

Moreover, regarding tourists' preferences for specific activities, Andersson, Getz, Vujicic, Robinson and Cavicchi (2016) used an online survey that employed the photo elicitation technique to investigate travel experiences of a large -scale sample of food lovers. The results

showed that the most popular food-related activity in participants' trips was to enjoy regional food in a local restaurant, and food festivals as well as meeting chefs.

The last perspective mentions factors affecting food consumption in tourism that have only been theoretically and empirically investigated in some studies in recent years (Kim et al., 2009; Mak et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Frisvoll et al., 2016). The study by Kim, Eves and Scarles (2009) was considered the initial research on this topic using grounded theory to propose a model of local food consumption. The model involved three major factors such as 'motivation factors' (i.e., exciting experience, escape from routine, healthy concern, learning knowledge, authentic experience, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal, and physical environment), 'demographic factors' (i.e., gender, age, and education), and 'physiological factors' (i.e., food neophilia and food neophobia). This theoretical model was empirically tested in 2013 with 900 self-administered questionnaires being conveniently distributed in three tourism destinations, namely South Korea, Spain and the United Kingdom. As a result, the relationships between five motivation factors, two food-related personality traits and demographic factors were validated in the proposed model by Kim et al. (2009). A qualitative study by Mak et al. (2012, p.928) also identified factors influencing tourist food consumption, including "cultural/religious influences, socio-demographic factors, food-related personality traits, exposure effect/ past experience, and motivational factors". However, these factors were only found through reviewing literature in hospitality and tourism without a quantitative test. Based on a perceived scarcity of empirical investigations into the consumption of food in tourism, Frisvoll et al. (2016) contributed research that employed both qualitative and quantitative data from fieldwork in a rural Norwegian region. Consequently, they presented a set of factors influencing tourists' consumption of local food. These are knowledge of local food and length of stay. While the former factor is similar to the result found by Mak et al. (2012), the latter factor was found to be an important addition to the literature because the longer tourists stay at a destination, the more opportunities they experience with local food. In summary, both internal and external factors have effects on visitor consumption involving local food as discussed by Wijaya, King, Nguyen and Morrison (2013). Particularly, the internal factors were divided into four (i.e., visitor demographics, travel characteristics, preconceptions about local food at destination, previous local food related dining experiences) and there were also four external factors such as food quality, food cultural-related, physical dining and social aspects (Wijaya et al., 2013).

2.5.2.6 Tourist behavior toward food tourism

Tourist behavior has arguably received the greatest attention of researchers in the area of food tourism to date, with various studies investigating three major perspectives such as tourist's behavior intention, tourist's satisfaction and tourist motivation toward enjoying local/traditional food. Many authors studied the first perspective by utilizing theories of social psychology such as the Theory of Reason Action (TRA), the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), the model of goal-directed behavior (MGB) and Maslow's Theory of Needs. For example, Ryu and Jang (2006) extended the original TRA model with a past behavior construct being added to predict tourist behavioral intentions to try local cuisine at a vacation destination. The extended model by Ryu and Jang (2006) was then utilized by Ryu and Han (2010c) to explore tourists' intention to try the local cuisine in New Orleans. In addition, Ryu and Han (2010b) examined the moderating role of gender in the relationships associated with behavioral intention to experience. All hypotheses involved in the model were supported which demonstrated the predictive ability of the proposed model regarding tourists' intention to try the local cuisine. Lin and Chen (2014) assessed the relationship between needs for food and food services and behavioral intention of Chinese group tourists visiting Taiwan based on applying Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The study indicated that attitudes of Chinese tourists toward the fulfillment of Taiwan' food and food service were more positive, their intentions to revisit Taiwan were higher. Meng and Choi (2016b) conducted an on-site survey to investigate behavioral intention of a special interest tourist segment that is known as slow food tourist. Accordingly, the original model of goal-directed behavior (MGB) was adapted and resulted in a satisfactory model fit in the explanation behavior intention of slow food tourists. Besides the theoretical model of social psychology, other frameworks were conceptualized to understand tourists' behavior intention in food tourism. For example, by a widespread survey on international tourists visiting Taiwan, Horng, Liu, Chou and Tsai (2012) explored the direct positive relationships between four determinants of brand equity (brand loyalty, brand image, perceived quality and brand awareness) and travel intentions toward culinary tourism with the destination familiarity positively moderating the effects of brand loyalty and perceived quality on travel intentions. For foreign tourists visiting South Korea, Seo, Kim and Yun (2013) also investigated the differences in tourist's image of local foods and their behavioral intentions to enjoy local foods from two perspectives of informational and experiential familiarity. The results showed that tourists' intention to consume local food was affected by the experiential

familiarity rather than by the informational familiarity on food image. In addition, the more experiences tourists had of local foods, the higher the likelihood they would consume local foods during their vacations (Seo et al., 2013). Clearly then, regardless of the theoretical model utilized in previous studies, strong appreciation for local food has been found to have a positive effect on the intention to visit or revisit a tourism destination (Alderighi, Bianchi and Lorenzini, 2016)

Second, tourist satisfaction was included in some studies reviewed in the theme of food tourists' behavior. Due to the lack of evidence of a factor structure of food tourist's satisfaction in previous research, Correia, Moital, da Costa and Peres (2008) developed and empirically validated a factor analysis model for measuring this satisfaction construct in Portugal. Accordingly, tourist satisfaction in a food tourism context was found to be a multidimensional construct comprising three first-order factors, 'gastronomy', 'price and quality' and 'atmosphere'. Certainly, 'gastronomy' is the most determinant of tourist satisfaction, followed by 'price and quality' and 'atmosphere' (Correia et al., 2008). It is stated that tourists' satisfaction of food experiences significantly contributes to the development level of gastronomic tourism (Forga & Valiente, 2014). A personal survey was conducted by Forga and Valiente (2014) at an important tourist region in Northern Spain to evaluate the interrelationships that exist between three factors of food tourist's satisfaction (i.e., 'cultural knowledge', 'new experiences', 'economic situation') and three factors indicating the level of development of food tourism (i.e., 'accessibility', 'marketing' and 'quality'). As the result, all the variables of tourist satisfaction with food experiences had indirect or direct effects on gastronomic tourism development that could help destination management organizations develop the competitive products and marketing strategies for their destinations.

Furthermore, the two perspectives, tourist's satisfaction and behavioral intention in food tourism are simultaneously involved and studied in the previous literature (Namkung & Jang, 2007; Kim, Kim, & Goh, 2011; Ryu & Han, 2010a; Chi, Chua, Othman, & Karim, 2013; Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016). Namkung and Jang (2007) firstly identified the role of food quality in enhancing tourists' satisfaction and improving their intention to visit a tourism destination. Ryu and Han (2010a) also applied a similar structural model with the 'perceived price' factor added as a moderator in a study on quick-casual restaurants. The findings revealed that customer satisfaction had a causal relationship with behavioral intention. In

addition, the relationships of food quality's attributes (quality of food, quality of service and quality of physical environment) associated customer satisfaction were moderated by perceived price. Another study by Kim et al. (2011) provided an integrated approach to understand food tourist' behavior based on a modified TRA model including three main constructs such as perceived value, tourists' satisfaction and their intention to attend a food event. Analysis of this theoretical framework showed that the perceived value and satisfaction were predictors of food tourists' intention to revisit. It can be seen from these previous studies that tourist satisfaction plays a mediating role in the relationships of food quality and perceived value associated with tourist's intention. On the contrary, Chi et al. (2013) proposed a theoretical framework in which culinary quality was expressed as a mediator in the relationship between food satisfaction and behavioral intentions. In summary, whatever theoretical approach is applied to examine the link between tourist satisfaction and intention, it is concluded that the higher food quality or value tourists perceive, the greater satisfaction they derive and the better intention they have towards visit/revisiting a tourism destination (Kim et al., 2011).

The last perspective in the theme of tourist behavior in food tourism is tourist motivation towards food consumption. With the intention to understand tourist motivations to consume local food at a tourist destination, Kim and Eves (2012, p. 1458) developed a motivational scale including five dimensions; "cultural experience; interpersonal relation; excitement; sensory appeal; and health concern". Then, Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang (2013) then explored motivational factors of tourist food consumption. Accordingly, 14 motivational factors were first derived including "authentic experience, prestige, cultural knowledge, health concern, assurance, convenience, price and value, novelty, variety, familiarity, eating habit, sensory pleasure, social pleasure, and contextual pleasure" (Mak et al., 2013, p. 327). The second stage involved content analysis which further categorized these 14 motivational factors into five main dimensions such as "symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension, and pleasure" (Mak et al., 2013, p. 327). In addition, in this study, a conceptual framework was developed based on the structural model of tourist experiences suggested by Quan and Wang (2004). As the result, tourist's food consumption could be classified into peak tourist experience, supporting consumer experience and 'attractionized' experience (Mak et al., 2013). One more approach from push-pull theory was utilised by Silkes (2012) to identify the major factors that influence visitors' behaviors to visit famers' markets as a case of food tourism. Three push factors (i.e., escape, family togetherness, fun and relax) and two pull

factors (i.e., food quality and shopping experience) were found in this research. The relationships between tourist motivation, satisfaction and intention were examined with the conclusion that only pull factors, especially quality food and a good shopping facility play an important role in improving visitor satisfaction and attracting visitors to farmers' markets.

For the three perspectives of tourist behavior including behavioral intention, satisfaction, and motivation, Ji, Wong, Eves and Scarles (2016) provided the understanding of tourists' food consumption behavior related to novelty-seeking travel motivation, food – related personality traits, satisfaction and travel outcomes. The causal relationships of tourists' personality traits, satisfaction associated with tourist's word of mouth and their intentions were almost supported. However, tourist's novelty seeking motivation only moderated the link between personality traits and tourists satisfaction in the proposed model. In summary, from constructing and validating scales of tourist motivation and tourist satisfaction to conceptualizing and empirically testing the proposed framework of relationships between behavioral constructs, previous studies have contributed to the comprehensive knowledge of tourist's behavior in a food tourism context.

2.6 Conclusion

The chapter provides comprehensive insights into knowledge of food tourism including definitions of food tourism, foodies and food tourists and food tourism destinations. These studies laid a sound foundation to ensure consistency of approaches in this study. In addition, the chapter provides a synthesis of current research issues published in top ranking journals to identify six different themes in the field of food tourism. They include (1) the relationship between food, tourism and local development, (2) the incorporation of food into destination marketing strategies, (3) food tourism development strategies, (4) food tourism market segmentation, (5) food consumption in tourism and (6) tourist behavior toward food tourism. It is implied from these themes that food tourism has been developing as a global phenomenon that plays a considerable importance to destinations. With efficient and effective marketing and development strategies, destinations stimulate the considerable growth of food tourism that has become one of the most dynamic segments of their tourism market. Foodies and food tourists are therefore important to be considered in food tourism planning, development and marketing. Food tourists' consumption or behavior have been studied, however previous studies only focused on local food consumption or behavior toward food products or services. There is a lack of demand-side research toward a food

tourism destination that both provides the literature with the understanding of foodies, their internal/external motivations and behavior and help destinations to compete in an environment of expanding competition. As a result, the research gap is identified in order to provide a rationale for this current research and then research objectives and research questions are defined as previously stated in the introduction chapter. The second part of the literature review is presented in the next chapter with contents relating to travel motivation, food involvement and behavior. These issues provide a foundation for the development of the conceptual framework of this study.

CHAPTER 3
TRAVEL MOTIVATION, INVOLVEMENT AND BEHAVIOR

3.1 Introduction

Chapter three is the second literature review chapter of this thesis, which concentrates on the travel motivation in food tourism and the theories of travel destination choice behavior. The review provides a theoretical foundation to understand food travel motivation and develop a conceptual framework of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. The content of this chapter is divided into three main parts. The first part begins by reviewing tourism motivation theories in the context of leisure and tourism (*Section 3.2.1*). This is followed by a review of previous studies on travel motivation related to food tourism (*Section 3.2.2*). The push-pull theory, introduced in chapter one, is then discussed as the foundation to identifying motivational factors toward a food tourism destination (*Section 3.2.3*). The second part reviews the literature concerning tourists' decision-making on travel destination choice with the discussion focused on the theories (*Section 3.3.1*), the theory of planned behavior (*Section 3.3.2*) and the application of the theory of planned behavior in predicting behavior toward a tourism destination (*Section 3.3.3*). The final section presents the conceptual framework developed for this study (*Section 3.4.1*) along with the hypothesized relationships between the constructs developed in the proposed model (*Section 3.4.2*).

3.2 Travel motivation

3.2.1 Travel motivation theories

The foundation of any effort to gain knowledge of travel behavior is travel motivation (Hsu & Huang, 2012). It has been defined as the biological/psychological needs and wants that arouse, direct and integrate a person's behavior and activity (Dann, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1982). This understanding of tourism motivation theories provides the benefit to research on both travel behavior and travel choice. There are three well-known theories of tourism motivation, namely Maslow's needs hierarchy theory, the push-pull theory proposed by Dann (1981)

and Crompton (1979) and the seeking - escaping theory of Iso-Ahola (1982) that seek to explain tourists' motivation.

3.2.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Motivations are inner drives that cause people to take action to satisfy their needs (Chon, Pizam, & Mansfeld, 2012), thus to understand the motivations of tourists, it is firstly to find out their needs using Maslow's (1954) needs hierarchy theory. In this theory, human needs range in a hierarchy of five categories from physiological and safety to social, ego and self-fulfillment needs. It indicates that "only when two lower level physical and safety needs are satisfied, human beings can become motivated by the higher level needs of personal growth and self-fulfillment" (Park, Reisinger, & Kang, 2008, p.162). Since Maslow's hierarchy theory was published, many disciplines have applied it, such as, psychology, counseling, marketing and tourism (Hsu & Huang, 2008). Tourism motivators and Maslow's list of needs were examined by early tourism researchers (Dann, 1981; Mill, 1985). Pearce (1982) also applied this theory to understand travel motivation and behavior from tourists in the USA, Europe, Canada and Australia. From Pearce's (1982) work, a conceptual framework referred to as the Travel Career Ladder (TCL) was developed to describe tourist motivation - "consisting of five different levels: relaxation needs, safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and self- actualization/fulfillment needs" (Pearce, 2005, p.52). The core idea of the TCL model was that travel motivation changes with the travel experiences that an individual gains through their trips. Indeed, the more travel experiences tourists acquire, the higher level needs they want to satisfy (Hsu & Huang, 2008). Although the TCL was published in previous academic journals, some suggest that there has been a lack of empirical evidence to support its underlying assumptions (Ryan, 1998).

Another conceptual framework that was developed based on Maslow's needs hierarchy theory is Travel Career Patterns (TCP) (Lee & Pearce, 2002). In this framework, 14 motivational factors were found including "(1) novelty, (2) escape/relax, (3) self-actualization, (4) nature, (5) kinship, (6) self-enhancement, (7) romance, (8) kinship-belonging, (9) autonomy, (10) self-development (host-side involvement), (11) nostalgia, (12) stimulation, (13) isolation and (14) recognition" (Lee & Pearce, 2002). The empirical test of the TCP framework by Lee and Pearce (2002) indicated that those at lower travel career levels were motivated by internal factors such as self-enhancement, romance, kinship

and autonomy while external motivational factors such as seeking nature or self-development through host-site involvement were emphasized by respondents at a higher level of travel career (Hsu & Huang, 2008). Based on these empirical findings, the TCP was conceptualized with three layers of travel motivation, with each layer involving different travel motives. The core layer consists of the most important travel motivation for novelty, escape/relax and relationship enhancement. The TCP model was found to be informative in explaining travel motivation and confirmed the multidimensionality of the travel motivation concept (Hsu & Huang, 2008).

In summary, Maslow's needs hierarchy theory laid a sound foundation for travel motivation research (Hsu & Huang, 2008). A linkage between food tourism and Maslow's hierarchy of needs was also studied by Tikkanen (2007) in Finland. In that study, physiological needs were identified as the main motivation for food tourism. In particular, safety needs related to food safety and hygiene knowledge were the main motives for participation in food safety conferences. Social needs considered food as a part of the social mix in the case of vineyard and food event tourism and esteem needs motivated travel for cultural food experiences. Due to its simplicity, Maslow's needs hierarchy theory has gained popularity and has supported a variety of tourism studies over a long period time (Hsu & Huang, 2008).

3.2.1.2 Push and pull theory

The second theory commonly applied in travel motivation research is the push/pull theory. Crompton (1979) and Dann (1981) had a similar view on identifying pull and push factors in travel motivation. The underlying principle of this theory is that people are motivated by internal factors (push factors) which typically include social - psychological motives; and external factors (pull factors) which are related to the attributes of a destination that attract people when they make travel decisions (Guillet, Lee, Law, & Leung, 2011). While the intrinsic motives were listed as "the desire for escape, rest, and relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure and social interaction" (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994, p.844), the tangible resources such as recreation facilities, cultural attractions, and beaches were considered as the attractiveness of a destination (pull factors).

Push and pull theory has been widely adopted in studies of travel motivation (Turnbull & Uysal, 1995; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Yuan & Mcdonald, 1990). In the context of food and wine tourism, push/pull theory has been utilized to examine travel motivation toward food

and wine festivals. For example, in a study of food-event motivations, Kim, Suh, and Eves (2010) identified three push factors (knowledge and learning, fun and new experiences and relaxation with family) and three pull factors (area quality and value, quality of events and food safety). There are also some other studies identifying specific pull factors or attractions that attract food tourists. Park, Reisinger, and Kang (2008) determined that visitors are motivated to go to wine and food festivals by tasting new wine and food. Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009) claimed that experiencing local cuisine not only satisfied visitors' appetites but also offers them local cultural exploration. This was also emphasized as an attraction by Germann (2007) while Kivela and Crotts (2006) argued that two pull factors attracting visitors were opportunities to discover new taste sensations and access to culinary experiences. Hsu and Huang (2008, p.21) asserted that "the adoption of both push and pull factors as travel motivation is not without controversy". Indeed, push factors have been accepted as motivational forces that are mainly responsible for initiating a travel desire, and pull factors referred to destination attractions that enable people to make a decision regarding a travel destination (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981).

3.2.1.3 Seeking-escaping theory

Seeking-escaping theory is another theoretical way to look at travel motivation. It was discovered as a dimension of tourist motivation by Iso-Ahola (1982). The theory proposed that a tourist may wish to escape from daily routines and stressful environments with the purpose of seeking specific benefits such as learning about other cultures, social interaction or recreational opportunities. In this way, seeking is expressed as a "pull factor" while escaping is categorized as a "push factor" (Getz, Robinson, Anderson, & Vujicic, 2014). Four dimensions of travel motivation were proposed including personal seeking, personal escape, interpersonal seeking and interpersonal escape. This four-dimensional motivation theory was empirically validated by Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006) in the context of recreation and tourism. However, no empirical papers that tested seeking-escaping theory were found in a review of food tourism.

In summary, travel motivation can be understood through the above three theories; including Maslow's needs hierarchy theory, push/pull theory and seeking-escaping theory. All these three theories have provided a theoretical foundation in a variety of previous studies on travel motivation within the tourism and hospitality literature. However, the major limitation of Maslow's theory is that it does not include all of the important needs that could be more

appropriate to understanding motivation and behavior in travel (Witt & Wright, 1992). In addition, regarding seeking-escaping theory, it was developed mainly based on an understanding of leisure motivation. Although tourism is one form of leisure activity, tourism motivation only partially overlaps with leisure motivation in some aspects. As a result, seeking-escaping theory cannot reflect all aspects of tourist motivation (Hsu & Huang, 2008). For most studies, a scale-based motivation instrument was developed by incorporating push and pull items (Snepenger et al., 2006). As a result, in this study, food travel motivation and the attributes of a food tourism destination were investigated by employing push and pull factors related to food trips.

3.2.2 A comprehensive review of previous studies on travel motivation in food tourism

In recent year, travel motivation has been extensively studied in the context of food and wine tourism in recent years. *Table 3.1* presents extant literature that covers such topics as (i) motivations for local food and beverage consumption at a destination (Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009; Kim and Eves, 2012; Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2013; Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012; Son & Xu, 2013), (ii) motivations for food tourism products (Fields, 2002), (iii) motivations for food and wine festivals and events (Yuan, Cai, Morrinson, & Linton, 2005; Park, Reisinger, & Kang, 2008; Kim, Goh, & Yuan, 2010; Smith, Costello, & Muenchen, 2010) ; or (iv) motivations for visiting wine regions (Sparks, Roberts, Deery, Davies, & Brown, 2005; Alebaki, Menexes, & Koutsouris, 2015).

Table 3.1 Previous studies on travel motivations in food tourism

Author/ year	Research problem	Motivational factors	Perspective	Research method
Fields (2002)	Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: motivational factors	• Physical motivators • Interpersonal motivators • Status motivators • Prestige motivators	Demand	Quantitative
Yuan et al. (2005)	Wine festival attendees' motivations	• Festival and escape • Wine • Socialization • Family togetherness	Demand	Quantitative
Sparks et al. (2005)	Tourists' motivations to travel to food and wine tourism regions	• Authenticity of the experience • Value for money • Service interactions	Supply/ Demand	Qualitative & Quantitative

		• The setting or surroundings • Product offerings • Information dissemination • Personal growth and indulgence		
Park et al. (2008)	Visitors' motivation for attending the South Beach wine and food festival	• The desire to taste new wine/ food • Enjoy the event • Enhance social status • Escape from routine life • Meet new people • Spend time with family • Get to know the celebrity chefs and wine experts	Demand	Quantitative
Kim et al. (2009)	Factors influencing consumption of local food and beverages in destinations	• Exciting experience • Escape from routine • Health concern • Learning knowledge • Authentic experience • Togetherness • Prestige • Sensory appeal • Physical environment	Demand	Qualitative
Kim and Eves (2012) Kim et al. (2013)	Tourist motivation to consume local food	• Cultural experience • Excitement • Interpersonal relation • Sensory appeal • Health concern	Demand	Qualitative & Quantitative
Kim et al. (2010)	Food tourists' motivation in a food event	• Knowledge and learning • Fun and new experiences • Relaxation with family • Area quality and value • Quality of event • Food variety	Supply/ Demand	Quantitative
Smith et al. (2010)	Influence of push and pull motivations on satisfaction and behavioral intentions within a culinary tourism event	• Food event • Event novelty • Socialization • Food product • Support services • Essential services	Supply/ Demand	Quantitative

Mak et al. (2012)	Motivational factors underlying food consumption	• Explore local culture • Authentic experience • Learning • Prestige • Status • Health concern • Physical need for sustenance • Exciting experience • Exploring new food • Core eating behavior • Family flavor • Sensory appeal • Togetherness	Demand	Qualitative
Son and Xu (2013)	Motivation for religious food consumption in a tourist destination	• Novelty-seeking • Sensory pleasure • Experience • Authenticity • Prestige • Cultural exploration	Demand	Qualitative
Alebaki et al. (2015)	Motivations for visiting a wine region	• Education experience • Reputation and novelty • Familiarity • Socialization • Core wine product • Vineyard aesthetics • Destination attractiveness	Demand/ Supply	Quantitative

Generally speaking, the psychological processes in tourism have been explained by previous motivation theories (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Maslow, 1954). However, as this study sought to examine the impacts of motivational factors on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, the push and pull concepts representing the internal and external stimuli respectively were found to be most appropriate (Klenosky, 2002). The next section presents the rationales for choosing push-pull theory as a foundation to investigate travel motivations toward visiting a food tourism destination for this study.

3.2.3 Justification for choosing push-pull theory

In an introduction of travel motivation, Dann (1977) made a distinction between push and pull factors. While push factors include "escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship

relationships, and facilitation of social interaction" (Crompton, 1979, p. 416), pull factors are related to the destination attributes that attract people when they make travel decisions (Guillet, Lee, Law, & Leung, 2011). In other words, according to this theory, travelers are pushed by their internal forces and simultaneously pulled by the external forces of a particular destination (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). As a result, this theory has been considered to be appropriate for investigating travel motivation towards a food tourism destination because it provided a comprehensive understanding of motivation from both perspectives of tourist and destination.

The examination of motivation based on push-pull theory has been extensively adapted in travel and tourism research (Uysal et al., 2008). Several examinations of travel motivation using the push-pull framework have also been reported in the context of food and wine tourism such as food and wine festivals/ events, local food consumption, or a wine region (Alebaki et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2010; Sparks et al., 2005; Yuan et al., 2005). The purpose of this research was to understand travel motivation toward a food tourism destination that has not been discovered in previous studies. However, the previous findings related to travel motivation in the area of food and wine tourism provided a foundation for this study. On one hand, push factors were identified in empirical studies of tourist's motivation towards food festivals and events or traditional food consumption at a destination. For example, Park et al. (2008) identified seven factors motivating visitors to attend the South Beach wine and food festival, including the desire to taste new wine and food, enjoy the event, enhance routine life, meet new people, spend time with family and get to know celebrity chefs and wine experts. Three similar push motives, including knowledge and learning, fun and new experiences, and relaxation with family were also identified by Kim et al. (2010). In relation to tourist's motivation to consume local food, Kim et al. (2013) empirically verified five push motivational factors including cultural experience, excitement, interpersonal relations, sensory appeal and health concerns, which were presented in previous qualitative research by Kim and Eves (2012).

On the other hand, pull factors were only found in a few studies of tourist motivation in the context of food tourism (Kim et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2010). These pull motivations were mainly attractive features of a culinary festival or event. Thus, there have been a lack of empirical studies about the appeal of food tourism destinations as well as the factors shaping their attractiveness from a motivational perspective. In the context of wine tourism, recent

research by Alebaki et al. (2015) identified pull factors of a wine region such as the core wine product, vineyard aesthetics and destination attractiveness. As a result, in this study, the identification of push and pull factors motivating travelers to visit a food tourism destination is based on not only previous studies in the literature relative to food tourism, but also those examining motivational factors for wine tourism regions (Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Brown, Havitz, & Getz, 2007; Byrd, Canziani, Hsieh, & Debbage, 2016; Getz & Brown, 2006; Sparks et al., 2005). The rationale for this is that although wine tourism is a separate field of research, wine and food tourism in particular are strongly associated (Getz et al., 2014). This has allowed the researcher to develop a more comprehensive research instrument and gain a deeper understanding of foodies' motivations.

3.3 Food involvement

Involvement has been considered as a characteristic of an individual, that was initially introduced by Sherif and Cantril (1947). Selin and Howard (1988, p.237) defined involvement as "the state of identification existing between an individual and an activity, at one point of time, characterised by some level of enjoyment and self-expression being achieved through the activity". Therefore, involvement could be understood as "personal relevance" (Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammith, & Jodice, 2007, p.399), that refers to the extent to which people give their attention to an object or an activity or the degree to which people perceive their cognitive linkages between their needs/ values and associated products or activities (Zaichkowsky, 1985). In the leisure literature, involvement was conceptualized and empirically tested as a multi-dimensional construct. For example, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) proposed a consumer involvement profile (CIP) based on different segments for culinary products. Five antecedents of involvement were identified; (1) the products' benefits, (2) the perceived risk of bad choice's consequences, (3) the perceived probability of error made, (4) the emotional value attributed by the consumer and (5) the hedonic value of the product (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). At the same time, Zaichkowsky (1985) also published a study adopting the multi-facet approach to measure involvement. Zaichkowsky (1985, 342) defined invovlement as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests". Accordingly, the personal involvement inventory (PII) scale was developed to evaluate involvement in three aspects as physical, personal and situational. In a comparison between CIP and PII, the physical and personal facet of involvement are similar to the emotional and hedonic value of a product. While people are

motivated to involve themselves with an object that fit with their own interests or needs, the physical characteristics of that object make differences to their emotional feelings.

The construct of involvement has been broadly studied and applied in the marketing and consumer behaviour literature (Gross & Brown, 2008). With food as a product category in the literature on consumer behavior, some previous studies used the term 'food involvement' to refer to involvement in food products and activities. Bell and Marshall (2003) initially developed the understanding of food involvement to mean the importance of food in an individual's life. The level of food involvement was perceived differently from one individual to another. High food-involved individuals tend to be more excited about enjoying new food and experiences related to food than their counterparts (Bell & Marshall, 2003). The scale for the food involvement construct developed by Bell and Marshall (2003) provided a basis for other studies in different social contexts (Marshall & Bell, 2004). However, in the leisure or tourism – based context, the food involvement construct was initially studied by Robinson and Getz (2013). Accordingly, a foodie can be self-identified by four dimensions of food involvement including food-related identity, social bonding, quality and conscientiousness. The first feature of foodies, food-related identity is reflected through their love for food, expenditure on cooking-related activities and desire to learn about food. Second, social bonding means novelty seeking. Eating is not only for need, but also for pleasure and entertainment with food-related experiences. Third, the quality of food is what foodies seek to purchase for their meals. Finally, food consciousness is "reflective of the after-meal experience and post-preparation phase" (Robinson & Getz, 2013, p.447). Accordingly, food consciousness presents foodies' justification of the process in which food is prepared, eaten and disposed. All these dimensions are considered as central to foodies who love food and incorporate food into their lifestyle.

The scale of food involvement developed by Robinson and Getz (2013) in the context of leisure and tourism was then adapted to examine Australian food lovers who travelled domestically and internationally for food-related experiences by Getz and Robinson (2014). Accordingly, respondents who travelled for food reasons internationally were differentiated by seven items of food involvement. With this empirical evidence, it was confirmed that the level of food involvement affected food lovers' behavior toward travel. However, food involvement has not been widely considered as a variable in the demand-side research of food tourism. Therefore, in this study, the examination of food involvement as an independent variable which has a direct influence on foodies/ food tourists' attitude and

intention toward visiting a food tourism destination is necessary to contribute to the literature of involvement in the context of leisure and food tourism.

3.4 Tourists' decision-making toward travel destination choice

3.4.1 Decision-making

Decision-making has increasingly received attention in a variety of disciplines including sociology and psychology, economics and political science, and marketing and management science. The focus of this study is on consumer decision-making, which is of great importance in travel behavior and tourism marketing. Decision-making was explained by several theories: expected utility theory, prospect theory, regret theory, theory of reasoned action, and theory of planned behavior (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), which were categorized into two different approaches. These are classical theories and postmodern theories (Decrop, 2006).

Classical theories

In classical theories, a consumer was divided into three types, namely "a risk reducer, a problem solver or an information processor" (Decrop, 2006, p.5). First, a risk reducer may be understood as a person who is less likely to take a particular action connected with money, product, social justice that can lead to loss or uncertainty about the consequence of that action (Bauer, 1960; Taylor, 1974). Since consumers tend to reduce risk to an acceptable level in their choice behavior, information search is very limited for a risk reducer. By contrast, information processors are consumers who want to improve the quality of their market decisions through extensively searching, gathering and processing information (Bettman, 1979). Therefore, references for options are sometime needed in making a decision. Out of three classical theories, problem solving theory is the most popular approach to consumer decision-making which was considered as a basic paradigm for the development of a number of consumer behavior models (Andreasen, 1965; Nicosia, 1966; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell, 1973). A consumer is labelled a problem solver when he or she performs an action to satisfy their needs or desires. Their decision-making process involves five major steps: (i) need recognition, (ii) information search, (iii) alternative evaluation (iv) purchase making and (v) post-purchase evaluation (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1995). Among these five stages, the search for information is assumed to be very important (Decrop,

2006). A problem solver refers to consumers who have thoughtful and reasoned action and who are postulated as rational decision makers (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Postmodern theories

The development of the market economy with new technologies and intense competitive pressures results in a great number of alternatives and sources of information that creates uncertainty for consumers in making the ultimate decision. As a result, two major streams of consumer behavior have emerged, that consider a consumer as "hedonist and adaptive decision maker" (Decrop, 2006, p.6). On the one hand, the henonic and experiential view of consumer behavior assumes that consumers make the decision with the purpose of maximizing their consumption experiences and "the multisensory (i.e., tastes, sounds, scents, tactile impression and visual images), fantasy and emotive aspects of one's experience with products" (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982. P.92). On the other hand, from the adaptive or contingent perspective, prior knowledge or expertise significantly influences consumers' decision-making. In addition, social factors or relevant others (i.e., friends or family members) also affect individual decisions (Bettman, Johnson, & Payne, 1991).

3.4.2 Major variables in the tourists' decision-making process

The variables involved in the consumer decision-making process can be categorized into three major groups: socio-psychological (perception, learning, attitude), personal (tourist's motivation, personality and self-concept, lifestyles and emotions), and environmental variables (social and cultural influences, interpersonal variables, and situational variables). *Table 3.2* presents the meanings of these variables in providing a thorough understanding of tourist's decision-making process

Table 3. 2 Major variables in tourists' decision-making

Variables		Meanings
Socio-psychological variables	Perception	The ability to understand the environment that an individual experience through translating stimuli from the external (physical) world to the internal (mental) world (Wilkie, 1990). As external information becomes brain information, perception helps to make sense of the world.
	Learning	Learning is related to perception. Information of an environment is not only mentally perceived, but also learned by consumers. Therefore, consumers can develop knowledge and skills in response to the environment that they experience.

	Attitudes	Some authors argue that attitudes include three components: cognitive (perception, belief), affective (evaluation, affect) and conative (action, intention) (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Some authors narrow attitudes down to its affective component and define it as "feelings of liking or disliking" (Foxall & Goldsmith, 1994, p.94).
Personal variables	Motivation	Motivation is defined as a "state of tension within the individual which arouses, directs and maintains behavior toward a goal" (Mullen & Johnson, 1990, p.178).
	Involvement	Involvement is connected with motivation. Involvement is the result of a consumer-product interaction. *Enduring involvement:* exists when a consumer shows interest in a product or activity over a long period of time (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). *Situational involvement:* "the level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus within a specific situation" (Antil, 1984, p.204).
	Personality	Personality is the reflection of a person's enduring and unique characteristics that urge him or her to respond in persistent ways to recurring environmental stimuli.
	Self-concept (self-image)	Self-concept is another way to explain how personality influences behavior. *Actual self-image:* the individual's global perception of himself or herself. *Ideal self-image:* the person's perception of what he or she would like to be.
	Lifestyles	Lifestyles refers to unique patterns of thinking and behaving, which are reflections of self-concept and offer insight into tourists' patterns of time, spending and feeling.
	Emotions	Emotion is defined as "a state of arousal involving conscious experience and visceral, or physiological, changes" (Mullen & Johnson, 1990, p.75).
Environmental variables	Social and cultural influences	Culture refers to a "set of values, ideas, artifacts, and other meaningful symbols that help individuals communicate, interpret, and evaluate as members of society" (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001, p.314). Social class "display a distinctive lifestyle which is reflected in values, interpersonal attitudes, and self-perceptions that differ from those held by any other class" (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981, p.236-237).

	Interpersonal variables	Interpersonal or group influences are describes as "two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences or is influenced by each other person" (Shaw, 1976, p.11).
	Situational influences	Situational influences are "all those factors particular to a time and place of observation, which do not follow from a knowledge of personal (intra-individual) and stimulus (object or choice alternative) attributes and which have a demonstrable and systematic effect on current behavior" (Belk, 1975, p.158). They can be variables such as time, money, health, and marketing pressure.

Source: Adapted from Decrop, 2006, p.7-14

3.4.3 Models of tourists' decision-making in predicting travel destination choice behavior

Travel destination choice behavior includes the conceptual and empirical research on models of decision-making in the tourism literature. Decrop (2006) categorizes models of tourists' decision-making into three types. These are: microeconomic models, cognitive models and interpretive models. First, based on traditional demand theory defined as "the analysis of consumer choice under budget constraint and the consequent prediction of the change in a consumer's chosen collection of goods when prices change" (Lancaster, 1971, p.2), the microeconomic approach concentrates on the relationship between price and demand to explain tourists' behavior. The initial study applying this approach was conducted by Rugg (1973) with the purpose of conceptualizing and testing a model capable of explaining tourists' choice of journey destination. As a result, a model of three microeconomic dimensions (time constraint, transportation costs and time costs) was proposed and empirically validated by an analysis using least-squares regression.

Second, the cognitive models focus on the socio-psychological variables and processes in decision-making that result in two different types of models: process models and structural models (Decrop, 2006). These two approaches bear considerable similarity to the approaches one and two in studying tourists' decisions found by Smallman and Moore (2009). On the one hand, the structural models (Decrop, 2006) can be equated with the causal analysis of independent-dependent variables to explain tourists' choice behavior (Smallman & Moore, 2009). Some previous studies were found in this stream (Ajzen, 1991; Bansal & Eiselt, 2005; Crompton,1979; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). On the other hand, the process approach to study tourists' decision-making describes the chronological

sequences of events, stages or cycles of decisions that narrate the way a tourist makes a final choice (Decrop, 2006; Smallman & Moore, 2009). Some process models have been proposed in the tourism literature (Goodall, 1988; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Middleton, 1994; Moutinho, 1987; Raaij & Francken, 1984), however most of them lack empirical evidence (Decrop, 2006).

Last, interpretive frameworks, which were similar to the typology of complex process models of tourists' decision-making found by Smallman and Moore (2009), provided a comprehensive model including many components and processes to explain choice processes of tourists. The studies by Woodside and MacDonald (1994), Teare (1994), and Decrop and Snelders (2005) were representative examples in this stream.

It is clear from the review of models utilized in tourists' decision-making that while the microeconomic and cognitive models lean on classical theories of consumer behavior, "where decisions are thought to proceed in sequential and hierarchical steps" (Decrop, 2006, p.44), the interpretive models are derived from the postmodern approach. The purpose of this study is to investigate factors that influence decision-making to visit a food tourism destination by a tourist. Therefore, the analysis focuses on the structural cognitive models of tourists' decision-making that have dealt with the destination choice decision. They are the model of pleasure travel destination choice process (Um & Crompton, 1990) and the general model of traveler destination choice (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

3.4.3.1 Um and Crompton's model of pleasure travel destination choice process

Um and Crompton (1990) conceptualized and empirically tested the role of attitude in a tourists' pleasure travel destination choice process. *Figure 3.1* presents a framework of pleasure travel destination choice that integrates five sets of processes (Um & Crompton, 1990, p.434)

(1) the formation of subjective beliefs about destination attributes in the awareness set, through passive information catching or incidental learning;
(2) a decision to undertake a pleasure trip (initiation of a destination choice process) which includes considerattion of situational constraints;
(3) evolution of an evoked set from the awareness set of destinations;
(4) the formation of subjective beliefs about the destination attributes of each alternative in the evoked set of destination, through active solicitation of information; and
(5) selection of a specific travel destination (or destinations).

Within these five processes, there are three set of variables comprising external imputs, internal inputs and coginitive constructs. First, following Howard and Sheth (1969), external

inputs are divided into significative stimuli (e.g., from the information from the visit to a destination or destination attributes), symbolic stimuli (e.g., from travel information: words, photos, messages produced from promotional materials through the media), and social stimuli (e.g., from interpersonal interactions with social groups: families, relatives and friends). Second, based on Assael (1984), internal inputs derive from a socio-psychological set, including personal characteristics (e.g., sociodemographic, lifestyle, personality, and situational factors), motives, values and attitudes. Last, cognitive constructs represent the "integration of the internal and external inputs, into the awareness set of destinations and the evoked set of destinations" (Um & Crompton, 1990, p.436). Accordingly, the awareness set of destinations includes all the preferred destinations that a potential traveler perceives as ideal destinations. In fact, in the awareness set, travelers are likely to list all locations that they desire to visit regardless of situational constraints. By contrast, they might consider their constraints (e.g., time and money) and their preferences when selecting specific destinations in the evoked set (Howard & Sheth, 1969). By relating the awareness set and evoked set to the actual choice decision, Um and Crompton's model (1990) identified the role of attitidues in a vacationer's pleasure travel destination choice process. In particular, "attitude is a significant indicator for predicting whether or not a vacation place is selected as a final destination from the alternatives in the awareness sets (Um & Crompton, 1990, p.445). The behavioral intention variable as a mediator between attitude and actual behavior was not involved in Um and Crompton's (1990) model. It can be explained that the evolution of an evoked set is considered as an intermediate stage between the awareness set and the final choice (Um & Crompton, 1990). The evoked set is developed simultaneously or after a traveler makes a decision whether or not to take a vacation. Therefore, it is not necessary to hypothesize the behavioral intention variable involved in the model (Um & Crompton, 1990).

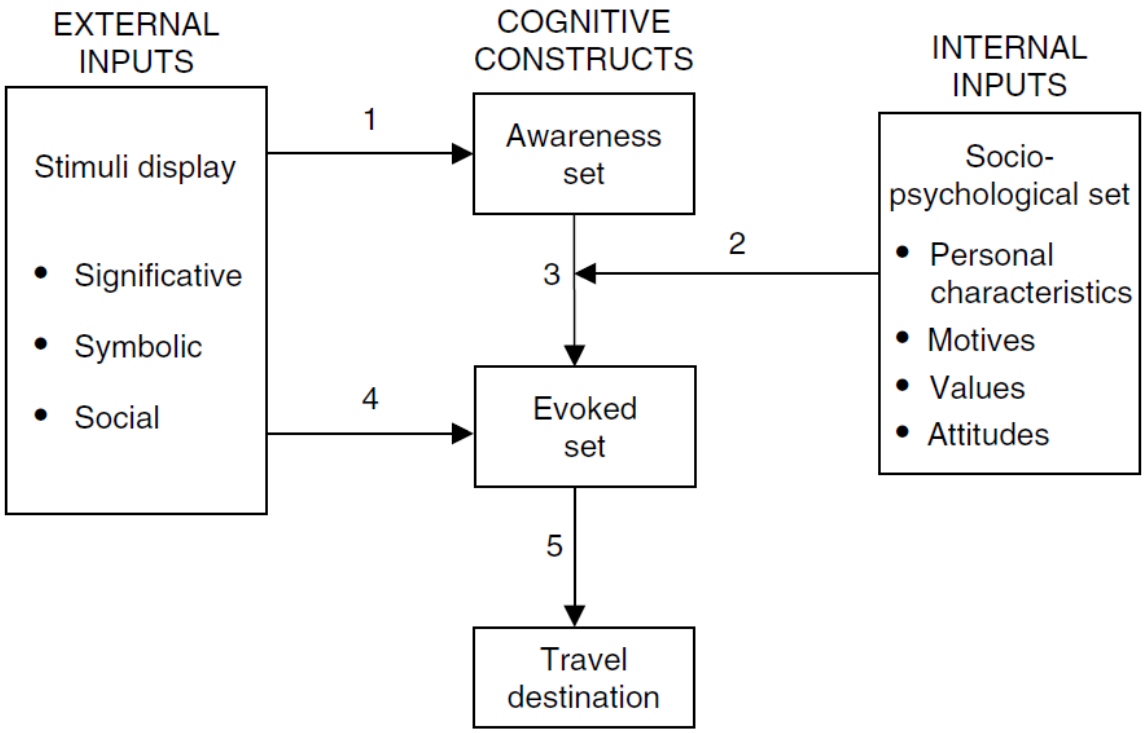


Figure 3.1 A model of the pleasure travel destination choice process
Source: Um & Crompton (1990, p.435)

3.4.3.2 Woodside and Lysonski 's general model of traveler destination choice

Woodside and Lysonski (1989) proposed a general model of traveler desitnation choice with eight variables (e.g., traveler characteristics, marketing variables, destination awareness, affective association, traveler destination preferences, intention to visit, situational variables and choice) and nine relationships that are shown in *Figure 3.2*. Generally speaking, this model is in line with Um and Crompton's (1990) model since both were developed based on the theory of buyer behavior developed by Howard and Sheth (1969). On the one hand, some similar characteristics were indentified in these two models. Specifically, the marketing variables and traveler variables in Woodside and Lysonski's model represent the external inputs and internal inputs in Um and Crompton's model. In additon, the process leading from destination awaremess to choice in the former model can be compared with the evolution from the awareness set to the final selection of travel destination in the latter model.

On the other hand, focussing on the differences, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) first provided a more detailed classification of destination awareness; that included four categories: consideration set, inert set, inept set, and unavailable/aware set. The consideration set was defined based on Howard's (1977) definition of the evoked set of

brands as the subset of destinations that a traveler considered selecting when he or she had awareness of given destinations. An inept set or reject set included destinations that a visitor rejected to travel due to his/her own unpleasant experiences or the negative comments from relative information sources (e.g., families, friends). The understanding of inept/reject set was based on Narayana and Markin (1975), who also provide references to the definition of inert set. It was a category of destinations that a traveler had a postive or negative evaluation, but did not have enough information to put them in the consideration set. The final set involves destinations, which were not available but a traveler could be aware of (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

In addition, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) proposed three more important variables which were not involved in Um and Crompton's (1990) model. The first variable is affective associations that are defined as specific positive or negative feelings of a traveler about a particular destination. In effect, affective associations are postive for a destination which belongs to the consideration set and negative for one which stands in the inept set. The second variable is traveler destination preferences, which are affected by affective associations and destination awareness. The result in the tourist preferences stage can be the rank order of destinations which have been listed in the consideration set. The third variable is intention to visit, which is "perceived likelihood of visiting a particular destination within a specific time period" (Decrop, 2006, p.31). The intention variable influenced by tourists' preferences toward a destination is a predictor of final choice. Situational variables play the role as moderators of the relationship between intentions and the final choice. In summary, the general model of traveler destination choice proposed by Woodside and Lysonski (1989) is the most popular conceptualization of the influences of socio-psychological variables on a traveler's decision making toward a tourist destination (Decrop, 2006).

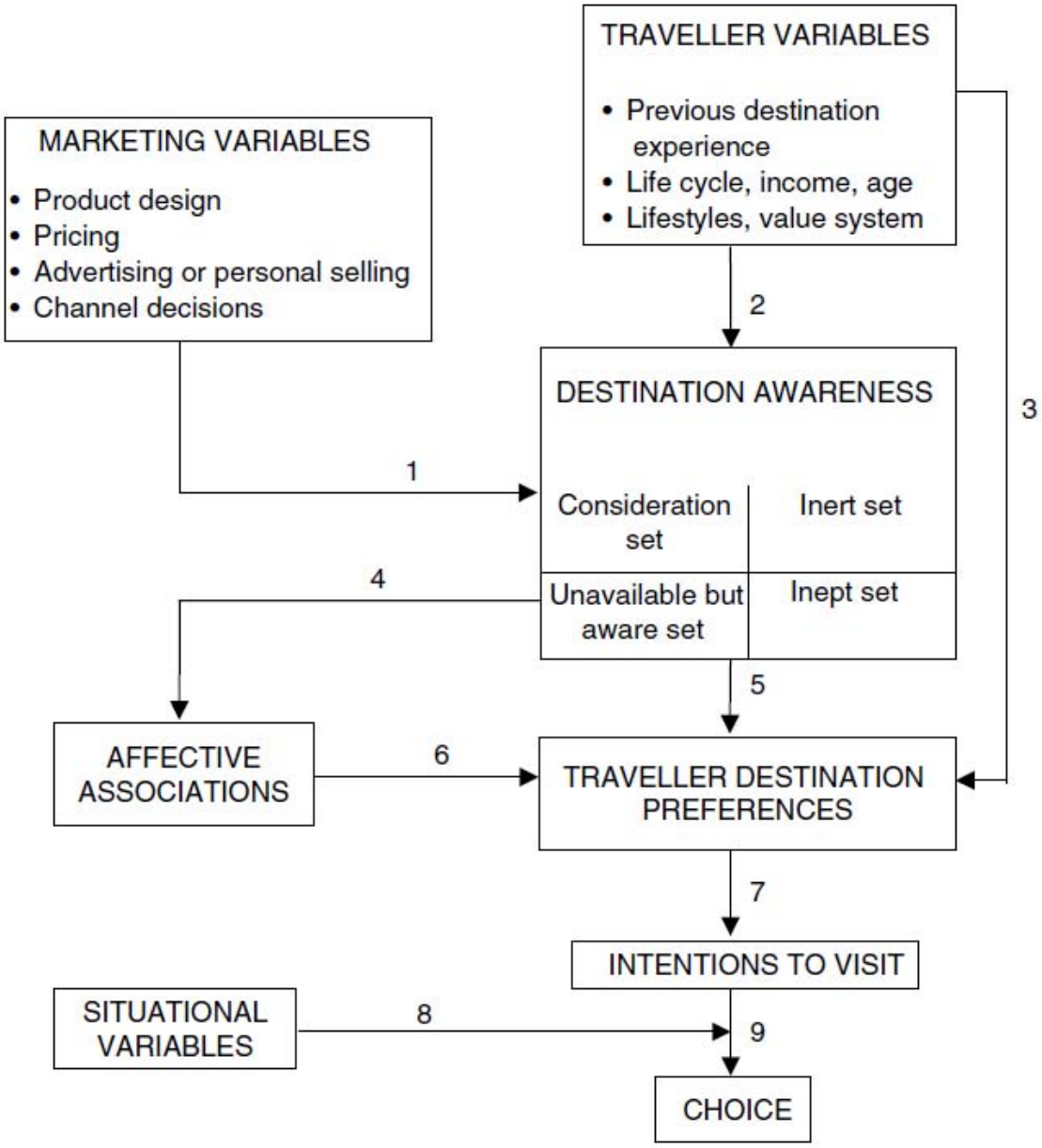


Figure 3.2 General model of traveler leisure destination awareness and choice
Source: Woodside and Lysonski, 1989, p.9

In summarizing the above review, the two models of travel destination choice behavior proposed by Um and Crompton (1990) and Woodside and Lysonski (1989) have been found to be "simple to understand and easy to use for empirical studies and managerial decision" (Decrop, 2006, p.32). These two models provide valuable contributions to our knowledge of tourist' behavior when they found sets of variables (cognitive, affective and behavioral variables) involved in tourists' decision-making toward a travel destination and suggested the influential relationships between those variables. These two models were useful for measurement and prediction; however, they had a limitation such as, only dealing with some

key variables. Furthermore, a thorough review of existing structural models and frameworks conducted in the context of food tourism shows that some more recent models have been developed to understand tourists' decision-making toward the consumption of food at a travel destination (Hsu, 2014; Kim et al., 2009; Ryu & Jang, 2006). However, there has not yet been specific research on the development of a model of food-tourism destination choice although this gap is important for the increasing trend of tourists visiting destination to engage in food-related activities (UNWTO, 2012). As a result, this study employed a social-psychological theory filtered through leisure choice situations to construct a framework of tourists' behavior toward a food tourism destination. One of the theories that has been widely applied to predict leisure intentions and behavior is the theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). The TPB was derived from the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) , which had been empirically validated and suggested as "the dominant attitude-behavior model" in previous research (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005, p.823). Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) also stated that the application of TPB was effective in predicting tourists' intentions and actual behavior in destination choice situations. By considering factors that influence destination choice suggested in existing models (Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989) along with other factors related to characteristics of food tourists, some new variables have been added to the original theory of planned behavior model to form a comprehensive model of tourists' behavior toward visiting a food tourism destination in this study. The next section introduces the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior in more detail to provide an understanding of the fundamental theories that have been applied in the current study.

3.5 Theory of planned behavior (TPB) and its application in travel destination choice bebavior

3.5.1 Theory of planned behavior

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) was introduced by Ajzen (1991), which was a modified theory based on the theory of reasoned action (TRA). As a result, it is important to present a preliminary discussion on the TRA.

The TRA is a behavioral theory derived from a social psychology setting by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) . This theory includes three general components: behavioral intention, attitude and subjective norms which are graphically described in *Figure 3.3.* In the TRA

model, behavioral intention, which is an antecedent of actual behavior, depends on a person's attitude to the behavior and his or her subjective norms (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977).

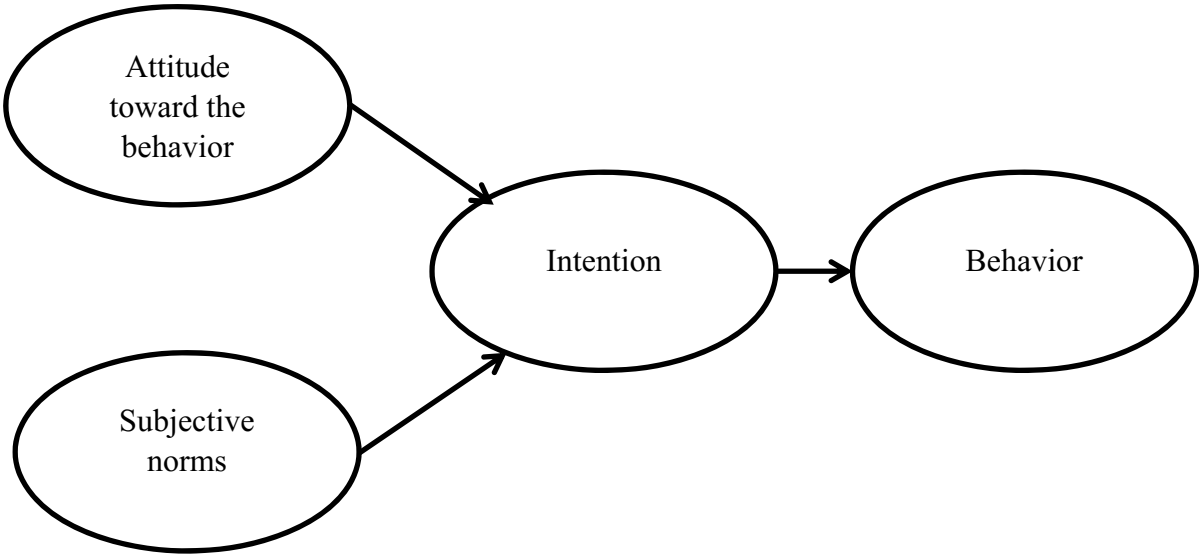


Figure 3.3 The theory of reasoned action
Source: Ajzen and Fishbein (1980)

This theory has been successfully applied to predict and explain consumers' behavior in the context of food and tourism. For example, the TRA model has strong predictive ability which has been validated in a study of eating in fast-food restaurants (Brinberg & Durand, 1983). Moreover, the TRA model has been applied to predict tourists' intention to experience local cuisine at a travel destination (Ryu & Han, 2010b; Ryu & Jang, 2006). There was a modification of the original TRA model with the construct "past behavior" being added in both of these studies. Consequently, apart from attitude and subjective norms, past behavior was also found to be a significant predictor of tourists' behavioral intentions. In summary, the TRA has proven valuable in predicting tourists' intentions toward food and cuisine and has been employed in hospitality and tourism research (Ryu & Jang, 2006).

However, the applicability of the TRA model is limited because it was developed to merely explain volitional behavior (Lee & Back, 2008). This means that the TRA model was proposed to deal with only goal behaviors regardless of possible circumstances or events related to health, time or money. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p.372) asserted that "people do not intend to perform behaviors that they realized are beyond their ability". Therefore, it is not appropriate to apply this model to examine the behavior of people who have little control

as it can lead to a weak power of prediction (Ajzen, 1991). For this reason, the TPB model was introduced as an extension and modification of the TRA (Ajzen, 1991).

The primary factor "intention" in the TPB model is the same as that in the original TRA. However, the difference between these two models is the factor termed perceived behavioral control (PBC) which was added as a third element to the TRA model. PBC is distinct from the first two predictors because it can be regarded as a magnitude of people' actual control towards their performance (Ajzen, 1991). As a result, the TPB model provides a sound foundation for predicting a dependent variable – intention, by analyzing the effects of three independent variables - attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control. These constructs are discussed in more detail below.

Attitude

Attitudes are the predispositions or feelings toward a vacation destination or service, based on multiple perceived product attributes (Moutinho, 1987). However, the attitude construct in the TPB model was defined by Ajzen (1991, p.188) as "the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation on appraisal of the behavior in question". More explicitly, the attitude toward the behavior refers to the degree to which the person has a positive or negative evaluation about the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) . Ajzen (1991) found the equation formulating attitude based on behavioral beliefs (BBs) that is "one's belief in performing a specific behavior that will lead to a specific consequence" (Lam & Hsu, 2006, p. 591). Attitude towards behavior is estimated as follows:

Equation 3.1 Attitude towards behavior

Source: Ajzen (2005, p.124)

$$A \propto \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i e_i$$

A stands for attitude toward behavior

b_i is the behavioral belief that performing behavior will lead to outcome i

e_i is the evaluation of outcome

In this study, instead of assessing the attitude towards a food tourism destination (an object), the theory measures attitude towards the visit to a food tourism destination. Accordingly, if

the potential tourists have an enjoyable feeling about the trip to a food tourism destination, they will have a positive attitude towards this behavior. As a result, Ajzen (1991) argued that the outcomes of evaluation of attitude determined consumer behavioral intention.

Subjective norms

Subjective norms is the second determinant of intention in the theory of planned behavior, which is regarded as the influence of social references or relevant other's beliefs on an individual's perceptions of whether she or he perform the behavior (Ajzen, 2005). Ajzen (1991, p.188) defined subjective norms as "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior". In fact, the beliefs of a person about opinions from important people such as family's members and close friends constitute his or her subjective norms (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Therefore, subjective norms can be formulated in *Equation 3.2*:

Equation 3.2 Subjective norms

Source: Ajzen (2005, p.125)

$$SN \propto \sum_{i=1}^{n} n_i m_i$$

SN is the subjective norms

n_i is the normative belief concerning referent i

m_i is the person's motivation to comply with referent i

Perceived behavioral control

Perceived behavioral control is the final determinant of intention in the theory of planned behavior. Generally speaking, perceived behavioral control is an individual's perceptions of the perceived ability to perform behavior (Hsu & Huang, 2012; Sparks, 2007) . In fact, individuals would have greater ability of control in performing their behavior if they hold a belief that they have more resources and less obstacles related to time, money or health. Therefore, Ajzen (1991) assumed that perceived control was a function of control beliefs leading to the perception of the capacity to carry out the behavior (*Equation 3.3*).

Equation 3.3 Perceived behavioral control

Source: Ajzen (2005, p.125)

$$PBC \propto \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i p_i$$

PBC is perceived behavioral control

c_i is the control belief that a given factor i will be present

p_i is the power of factor i to facilitate or inhibit performance of the behavior

Intention

A person' intention to perform or not to perform a behavior plays a central role in the TPB model (Ajzen, 1991; Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016), which is "the most important immediate determinant of that action" (Ajzen, 2005, p.117). It is a function of three basic determinants: attitude toward behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control. More explicitly, if individuals have a positive evaluation of a behavior, or they believe that their behavior is supported from relevant people, or they think they possess required resources and opportunities to perform the behavior, they would have intention toward that behavior (Ajzen, 2005).

Behavior

The actual behavior predicted from the behavioral intention is the last element of the theory of planned behavior. Once an individual has the intention of a behavior, he or she is likely to perform that behavior (Ajzen, 1991) . The investigation of the relationship between behavioral intention and actual behavior normally involves a longitudinal study that enables researchers to conduct observational studies of the same subjects over a period of time. It is likely to have changes in individuals' behavior compared to their intentions due to constraints of time or money. However, it is acceptable in behavioral studies that "the more positive the intention the more likely the tourist will travel" (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016, p. 137).

In summary, the TPB proposes three levels of influences. At the first level, behavior is assumed to be affected by behavioral control and intention. Intention is itself determined by attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control at the

second level. These three predictors of intention are explained by behavioral, normative and control beliefs (Azjen, 2005). *Figure 3.4* shows the TPB model with the addition of three belief elements and the perceived behavioral control construct.

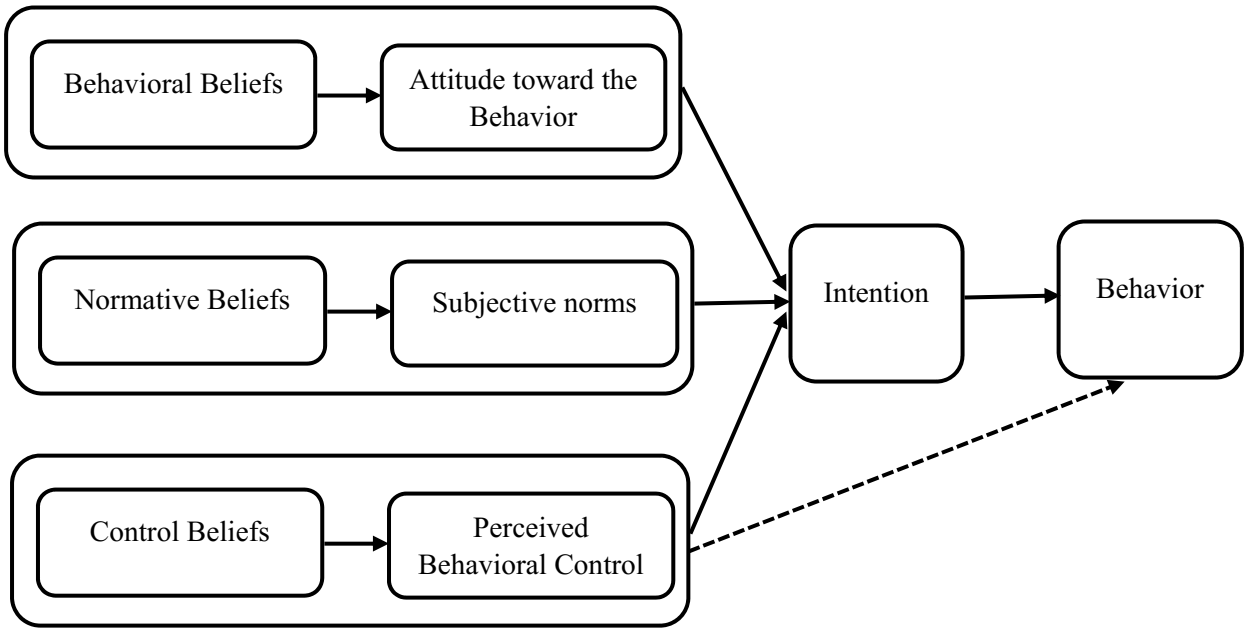


Figure 3.4 The theory of planned behavior

Source: Ajzen and Fishbein (1980)

3.5.2 The application of theory of planned behavior for predicting behavioral intention toward visiting a tourism destination

Since the TPB model was developed, a large number of researchers have attempted to modify or extend this theory to suit their study contexts. Noticeably, a meta-analytic review of over 180 independent studies adopting the TPB model concluded that the TPB was capable and sufficient to predict both intentions and actual behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001). The TPB has also been widely applied in the field of leisure and tourism and was found to be most useful for predicting behavioral intention in destination choice situations (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). So far, 16 peer-reviewed studies, which have been published in high-quality journals, applied TPB to predict the behavioral intention to choose a tourism destination (*Table 3.3).*

The literature reveals that the TPB was modified with the addition of one or many new constructs to provide a comprehensive understanding of tourists' behavior in different contexts of tourism destinations. Previous studies of travel behavior toward similar

destinations were discussed together. Out of 16 studies identified, eleven were concerned with travel destinations in Asia. First, Hong Kong was studied by Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006), who initially investigated travelers' intention to choose a tourism destination by adding a past behavior variable to the original TPB model. The data collected from mainland Chinese by Lam and Hsu (2004) and Taiwanese by Lam and Hsu (2006) fitted the extended TPB model and indicated that past behavior was a significant predictor of respondents' behavioral intention to visit Hong Kong. Similarly, Hsu and Huang (2012) proposed an extended TPB model with the addition of tourist motivations to examine mainland Chinese' travel intentions to visit Hong Kong. Findings of this study confirmed that the extension of the TPB model with motivation fitted the data collected. Regarding the second destination in Asia, the TPB model with three belief variables as shown in *Figure 3.4* was adapted to understand the decision-making process of medical-tourists or slow-tourists when traveling to Korea for their specific purposes (Lee, Han, & Lockyer, 2012, Meng & Choi, 2016a). While the original model was fully adopted by Lee et al. (2012) to predict intention of medical tourists, two variables: authentic perception and environmental concerns, were newly added to comprehensively understand slow tourists' behavior. Korea was also a destination studied by Han, Lee, and Lee (2011). In that study, expectation of tourist visa exemption was incorporated to the TPB model to predict mainland Chinese decision-making in choosing Korea. These three studies validated the applicability of the original TPB or the extended ones in the explanation of tourists' intention to visit Korea. In the most recent study of intention for medical tourism, like in Lee et al.'s (2012) study, Seow, Choong, Moorthy, and Chan (2017) added three new constructs: perceived benefits, perceived costs as antecedents of attitude and resource ability as a predictor of perceived behavioral control in the TPB model to examine tourists' behavioral intention in seeking medical tourism in Malaysia. Two studies conducted in an Asian destination focus on youth's intentions to visit Japan (Hsieh, Park, & McNally, 2016; Park, Hsieh, & Lee, 2017). For example, Hsieh, Park, and McNally (2016) added perceived risks as a variable to the TPB model and found that this new construct had indirect influence on young Taiwanese' intention to visit Japan via attitudes. Park, Hsieh, and Lee (2017) proposed two new variables: destination image and travel constraints in the original TPB model to understand the behavior of Chinese college students in choosing Japan as their future travel destination. The extended models were concluded to have "better predictive power for travel intention to Japan than the original one" (Park, et al., 2017, p.113). Suzhou world cultural heritage, China was another Asian destination which was studied by Shen, Schuttemeyer, and Braun (2009). Past behavior and

cultural tour involvement were additional variables that they used in the extended TPB model employed to study the intentions of cultural Chinese visitors' intention. Results showed that both new constructs were valid predictors of tourists' intention to visit world cultural heritage sites. The final destination studied in the Asian region is Isfahan, Iran. Jalilvand and Samiei (2012) developed the TPB model with the word of mouth variable added as a predictor of attitude, perceived behavioral control and subjective norms and behavioral intention towards visiting Isfahan. As a result, the extended TPB model was found to be applicable in predicting tourists' behavior in the choice of Asian countries.

In a different context, the theory of planned behavior was found to be a useful approach to investigate Chinese outbound tourists' intention to visit Australia (Sparks & Pan, 2009). The results of the study revealed that Chinese future journey was affected by reference groups (friends, family, or agencies) and perceived control factors (time, money) rather than their attitude about a trip to Australia. This destination was also chosen by Quintal, Lee, and Soutar (2010) in a study of the travel decision-making of a sample of South Koreans, Chinese and Japanese. The extended TPB model with the addition of perceived risk and perceived uncertainty fitted the data and explained tourists' destination choice behavior well (Quintal, et al., 2010).

From a latin American destination perspective, Chile, a South America country was studied by Bianchi, Milberg and Cuneo (2017). They incorporated destination familiarity and the self-concept construct into the original TPB model and sampled tourists from two short haul (Peru and Brazil) and two long haul (Spain and Germany) to understand their intention towards visiting Chile. The results allowed them to differentiate the short-haul and long-haul tourist market and demonstrated that "…the extended TPB as a conceptual framework for predicting behavioral intentions of traveling to a vacation destination" was appropriate (Bianchi et al., 2017, p.321).

In addition to the studies of a country destination as discussed above, two other studies were conducted that examined wine tourists' intentions toward a wine region. In particular, Sparks (2007) tested the extended the TPB model with three wine expectancy-value dimensions, wine/food involvement, food involvement being included. Results indicated a good model fit in a sample of 1089 respondents collected from 3500 people obtained from a marketing list company. All the newly added constructs together with two original constructs (subjective norms and perceived behavioral control) influenced intentions to take a vacation

to a wine region except the emotional attitude toward wine tourism. A similar study of wine tourism was conducted by Quintal, Thomas, and Phau (2015) to investigate and compare tourists' behavior in four wineries in Australia and the USA. A wine tourist decision-making framework was developed based upon the TPB model with seven winescape attibutes (setting, atmospherics, wine quality, wine value, complementary product, signage and service staff) being proposed to directly affect tourists' attitude and indirectly affect behavioral intention toward visiting a wine region. The results of a survey of wine tourists confirmed the significant influence of "winescape setting and wine value" in the understanding of wine tourists' attitude and intention (Quintal et al., 2015, p.596).

In summary, the literature review of previous studies stated that the theory of planned behavior provided a strong foundation in the prediction of behavioral intention towards choosing a tourism destination. This theory has been widely applied to examine tourists' behavior to visit a country destination. In wine tourism, a shared-field with food tourism, the TPB model was developed to examine intention of wine tourists towards wine regions. However, in food tourism contexts, previous studies utilized the extended TPB model to identify the factors that have influence on tourists' behavior towards food events and festivals (Horng, Su, & So, 2013), or local and traditional food consumption at a destination (Hsu, 2014; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011; Ting, de Run, Cheah, & Chuah, 2016; Wu, Raab, Chang, & Krishen, 2016) . To date, there has been a lack of research conducted to provide an understanding of intention towards visiting a food tourism destination. This study sought to bridge this gap by developing a theoretical framework based on the TPB model to explain tourists' behavior in choosing a food tourism destination. *Table 3.2* summarizes the research that has been conducted thus far on food tourism and destination choice.

Table 3.3 The application of the TPB model in previous studies of food tourism and travel destination choice

Author/Year	Apply TPB to predict…	Target sample	Sample size	New added construct(s)
Lam and Hsu (2004)	Intention to travel to Hong Kong	Mainland China travelers	328	Past behavior
Lam and Hsu (2006)	Intention to choose Hong Kong as a travel destination	Taiwanese travelers	299	Past behavior
Sparks (2007)	Intention to take a wine-based vacation	Wine tourists	1089	Expectancy – value dimensions; Food and wine involvement; Past behavior
Shen et al. (2009)	Intention to visit Suzhou world cultural heritage	Chinese visitors in Suzhou, China	366	Past behavior; Cultural tour involvement
Sparks and Pan (2009)	Intention to visit Australia	Potential tourists from Mainland China	548	Information source
Quintal et al. (2010)	Intention to travel to Australia	Adults in 3 Asian countries (South Korea, China and Japan)	1187	Perceived Risk; Perceived Uncertainty
Lee et al. (2012)	Intention to travel to Korea for medical treatment	Japanese tourists	237	None
Han et al. (2011)	Intention to visit Korea	Mainland Chinese travelers	437	Expectation of tourist visa exemption
Hsu and Huang (2012)	Intention to Hong Kong	Potential mainland Chinese travelers	1514	Tourist motivation
Jalilvand and Samiei (2012)	Intention to visit Isfahan, Iran	Tourists traveled to Isfahan	296	Electronic worth of mouth
Quintal et al. (2015)	Intention to visit a wine region	Wine tourists across four wineries in Australia and the USA	1135	Winescape attributes (setting, atmospherics, wine quality, wine value, complementary product, signage and service staff)

Hsieh et al. (2016)	Intention to travel to Japan	Taiwanese tourists to Japan	474	Perceived risks
Meng and Choi (2016a)	Intention to choose slow-tourism destinations	Tourists visited Dong-rae area in Busan, Korea	378	Authentic perception; Environmental concerns
Park et al. (2017)	Intention to travel to Japan	Chinese college students	736	Destination image
Seow et al. (2017)	Intention to travel to Malaysia for medical tourism	Foreign tourists in Malaysia	380	Perceived risks, perceived benefits and resource availability
Bianchi et al. (2017)	Intention to visit Chile	Tourists from Peru, Brazil, Spain and Germany	800	Destination familiarity, Ideal social self

3.6 Conceptual framework and hypotheses

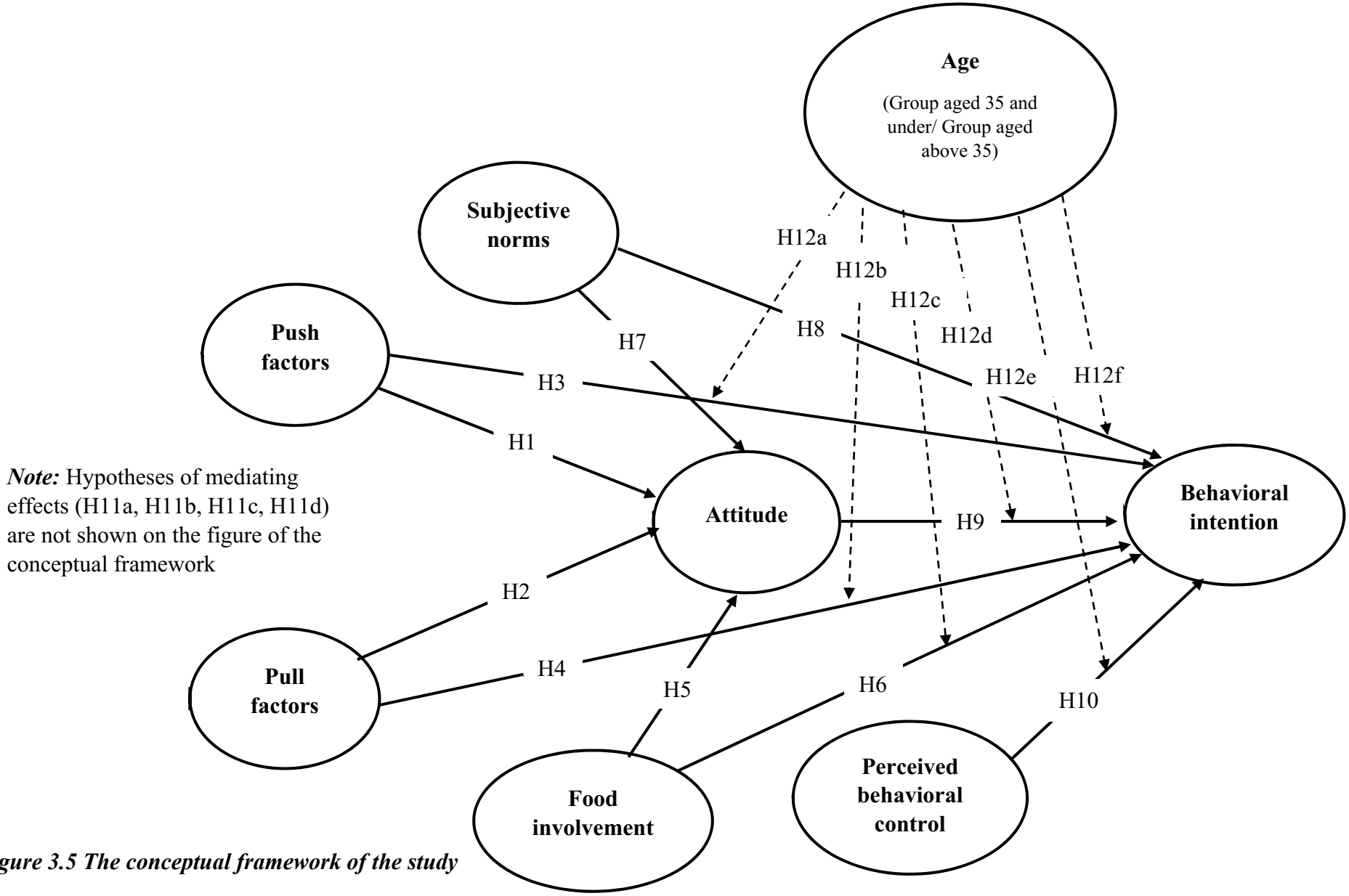
3.6.1 Conceptual framework

From the comprehensive review of literature on the topics of food tourism, travel motivation, food involvement, travel behavior and related issues, the following extended Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) model is proposed as shown in *Figure 3.5* to examine behavioral intentions to visit a food tourism destination. Based on the original TPB model, in this study, attitudes (AT), subjective norms (SN) and perceived behavioral control (BC) were hypothesized to influence the behavioral intention (BI) towards visiting a food tourism destination. Subjective norms (SN) was also hypothesized to have a direct influence on attitude.

In the literature review, the understanding of travel motivation is important for researchers to have a better knowledge about tourism behavior in order to be able to predict travel patterns (Iso-Ahola, 1982). While travel motivation is considered to be the major determinant of travel (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994), tourist motivation was only added relatively recently as an independent variable in the extended TPB model to predict tourists' behavior towards a travel destination (Hsu and Huang, 2012). It is also orth noting that the motivational factors in Hsu and Huang's (2012) study was identified from the perspecitve of travelers' internal forces. As a result, the current reseach takes into account the fact that it could be expected that travelers would have tendency to visit a food tourism destination if the internal factors and external forces of the destination were simultaneously activated. To this end, an extended theory of planned behavior model was proposed with two more predictors, push factors and pull factors to understand tourists' intention towards a food tourism destination in the context of this study. In addition, in the research context of food tourism, food involvement needs to be considered as a personal variable in analyzing food tourism behavior. In fact, specific to foodies who are a potential food tourist segment, their behaviors toward leisure and travel have been found to be affected by how involved are they in food or food-related activities (Getz et al., 2014). Therefore, food involvement was also considered to be influential in tourists' intention to visit a food tourism destination.

In summary, three new constructs, push factors, pull factors and food involvement, were added to the original theory of planned behavior model to predict future behavior toward visiting a food tourism destination. Particularly, these three factors are likely to affect

attitude, which is an important antecedent of behavioral intention. All the relationships associated with behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination are also proposed to be moderated by age which refers to a group aged 35 and under, and a group aged above 35, respectively.



Note: Hypotheses of mediating effects (H11a, H11b, H11c, H11d) are not shown on the figure of the conceptual framework

Figure 3.5 The conceptual framework of the study

3.6.2 Hypothesized relationships between the constructs

3.6.2.1 Relationships of Push and Pull factors with attitude and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

Motivations are drives that cause people to take action to satisfy their needs (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999). Hsu and Huang (2012) claimed that this construct is measured in most tourist motivation studies by asking respondents the reason why they visit a destination or what they want to take part in when visiting a destination. In fact, motivation is considered as a multidimensional construct. According to the original TPB model, an attitude is the function of behavioral beliefs that are one's beliefs in performing a specific behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). More specifically, Hollander (1971, p.114) argued that "attitudes have properties which define what is expected and what is desired". This implies that cognitive motivation may influence affective attitude (Ajzen, 1991). Gnoth (1997) reached the same conclusion that tourists' attitude toward an object was determined by their feelings about their needs or its values. Moreover, behavioral beliefs were found to be related to attitude in the studies of behavioral intentions of potential travelers from Mainland China and Taiwan to Hong Kong (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006). Attitude was also explained by behavioral beliefs in research into green hotel customers' decision making (Han & Kim, 2010). Although motivation plays an important role in the formation and changing of attitude, very few studies determined the relationship between travel motivation (push and pull factors) and attitude in forming tourists' behavior toward food tourism. In a study conducted by Sparks (2007), three wine expectancy-value dimensions, namely personal self-development, destination experience and core wine experience, were found to be representative of push and pull motivational factors. In particular, while personal development related more to a push motivator, the other two factors (destination experience and wine experience) were considered as pull factors. All three factors had a significant effect on emotional attitude to take a wine-based vacation (Sparks, 2007). Consequently, in this study, push factors and pull factors are suggested to directly affect attitude towards visiting a food tourism destination.

Hypothesis 1: Push factors have a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.

Hypothesis 2: Pull factors have a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.

Very few studies have investigated the relationships between motivational factors (push and pull factors) with behavioral intention in the context of tourism in general and food tourism in particular. The study conducted by Hsu and Huang (2012) initially provided an understanding of the influence of travelers' motivation on behavioral intention toward visiting a destination (Hong Kong) that had not been previously well documented. Four components of motivation; knowledge, relaxation, novelty and shopping were identified, but only the motivation of shopping was a good predictor of Mainland Chinese travelers' intention to visit Hong Kong. Indeed, Hsu and Huang (2012) did not clearly separate the travel motivation construct into push and pull factors when forming an extended TPB model. However, in another study on senior travelers' motivation and future intention for visiting a city destination, Nice in France, Prayag (2012) confirmed that both push and pull factors have a direct influence on future behavior. In the context of food tourism, however, the direct effect of push/pull factors on future behavioral intention has not been well studied. Smith, Costello and Muenchen (2010) did discover indirect relationships between these constructs via tourist satisfaction in a culinary tourism event and Sparks (2007, p. 1189) also implied that three wine components, which fell into push and pull factors, were "related to attitude formation and to future intention to partake in wine tourism". These studies, therefore, provide a strong rationale to include the following two hypotheses to investigate the links between push factors/ pull factors and future intention toward visiting a food tourism destination and thus to contribute to the body of literature on food tourism and tourism destination:

Hypothesis 3: Push factors have a direct effect on behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination.

Hypothesis 4: Pull factors have a direct effect on behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination.

3.6.2.2 Relationships of food involvement with attitude and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

Involvement is defined by Havitz and Dimanche (1997, p.246) as "… an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product, evoked

by a particular stimulus or situation, and which has drive properties". The construct of involvement has been widely studied and applied in the consumer behavior literature (Bell & Marshall, 2003). A meta-analysis of 53 leisure involvement studies has confirmed that the level of involvement with products, services or activities has an apparent relationship with both purchases and participation (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). In the food and tourism context, involvement with food-related activities has been seen as a predictor of participation in food tourism (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Long, 2004). Long (2004) stated that culinary tourists perceived food as a social and cultural resource, and their involvement was related to the cultural aspects rather than the physiological aspects. Brown, Havitz and Getz (2007) developed a wine involvement scale and confirmed that the relationship between consumptive behaviors and wine/wine tourism involvement was profound. In addition, the recent study by Lee, Bruwer and Song (2015) revealed that wine tourism involvement formed a positive relationship with Korean wine tourists' attitude towards participating in a tour. The influence of involvement with wine activities on both attitude and intention to take a wine tourism vacation was also tested in a large cross-sectional study by Sparks (2007). Based on the discussion of these previous studies, two hypotheses of the relationship between food involvement and attitude and the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination emerged as follows:

Hypothesis 5: Food involvement has a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.

Hypothesis 6: Food involvement has a direct effect on behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination.

3.6.2.3 Relationships of subjective norms and attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination

While the causal paths from attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control to behavioral intention were formulated in the original theory of planned behavior model (Ajzen, 1991), the model did not specify the relationships between these variables, particularly between attitude and subjective norms. The high correlation between attitude and subjective norms were examined in previous research by Chang (1998), which compared the validity of theory of planned behavior as applied to the context of moral behavior. Subjective norms were determined to directly influence attitude, that means the social

references or relevant other's beliefs lead to the favorable or unfavorable feelings toward the behavior (Chang, 1998; Oliver & Bearden, 1985) . The causal link from subjective norms to attitude was also investigated in the field of leisure and tourism. For example, attitude toward the acceptance of buying tickets or using other products/services from airline companies via the internet was significantly affected by opinions from other relevant people (Kim et al. 2009). In addition, Han and Kim (2010) found that the pressure from travelers' important individuals is likely to positively affect their evaluation of behavior towards staying in a green hotel. In the context of a travel destination, Quintal et al. (2010) affirmed that subjective norms had significant impact on attitude to visiting Australia for all samples of three countries including Japan, China and South Korea. Based on these empirical results, in this study, the direct relationship between attitude and subjective norms was hypothesized:

Hypothesis 7: Subjective norms has a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.

3.6.2.4 Relationships of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination

In the context of tourism, many previous studies on destination choice, which were based on the application of the TPB model, provided empirical evidence that attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control all had a direct and positive impact on behavioral intentions (Han et al., 2010; Han & Kim, 2010; Han et al., 2011; Hsieh et al., 2016; Hsu & Huang, 2012; Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Martin, et al., 2011; Meng & Choi, 2016a; Park et al., 2017). Previous studies in this regard can be found in the food and wine tourism literature. For example, an Australian study into potential wine tourists' intention to take a wine-based vacation found that perceived control and normative influences contribute to predict intention to visit a wine region while emotional attitude and intentions have no direct relationship in the extended TPB model (Sparks, 2007). However, attitude was an important predictor of tourist behavioral intentions to experience local cuisine in a travel destination in Ryu and Jang's (2006) study. Another study conducted by Hsu (2014) , through an on-site survey in Taiwan also found that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control were significant variables in the formation of the purchase intentions of traditional Taiwanese food. In summary, from the literature review, the following three hypotheses were proposed in the context of food tourism and destination choice:

Hypothesis 8: Attitude has a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination.

Hypothesis 9: Subjective norms have a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination.

Hypothesis 10: Perceived behavioral control has a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination.

3.6.2.5 Mediating effects of attitude in the relationships of push factors, pull factors, food involvement and subjective norms with behavioral intention

While tourists' behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination is proposed to be directly influenced by travel motivation (push factors and pull factors) and food involvement, these relationships can possibly be better explained by tourists' attitude as an intermediary. In fact, it can be argued from the literature on consumer behavior in tourism, motivation refers to individuals' needs and desires that lead to their engagement in tourism activities and the level of involvement has a relationship with destination choice (Clements & Josiam, 1995; Moutinho, 1987). Further, when making decisions on travel destinations, people primarily depend on cognitive evaluations of the behavior that is understood in terms of attitude (Ryu & Jang, 2006). It was evident in the study of intention to experience local cuisine in a travel destination by Ryu and Jang (2006, p.514) that "attitudes was found to be the dominant significant antecedent of behavioral intention". While push factors, pull factors, food involvement, and subjective norms may have direct effects on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, as stated in the above hypotheses (H3, H4, H6, and H8), these four constructs were also found to affect tourist's attitude (Hsu & Huang, 2012; Lee at a., 2015; Quintal et al., 2010; Sparks, 2007) . Therefore, attitude was proposed to be a mediator of the relationships between travel motivation (push factors and pull factors) and behavioral intention, food involvement and behavioral intention as well as subjective norms and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Four hypotheses of mediating effects of attitude are formed as below.

Hypothesis H11a: Push factors indirectly influences behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by tourist's attitude.

Hypothesis H11b: Pull factors indirectly influences behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by tourist's attitude.

Hypothesis H11c: Food involvement indirectly influences behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by tourist's attitude.

Hypothesis H11d: Subjective norms indirectly influences behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by tourist's attitude.

3.6.2.6 Moderating effects of age

In the marketing and consumer behavior literature, the influence of age was found to be significant (Im, Bayus, & Mason, 2003). Similarly, in the tourism literaure, previous studies identified the role of age focusing on the differences in travel motivation and travel behavior (Baloglu, 1997; Jonsson & Devonish, 2008). Regarding tourist's decision-making processes, the impact of age on intention formation was studied by Han, Hsu, and Lee (2009) in a green hotel context. The study found that older tourists had more tendencies toward eco-friendly tourism product than younger tourists. Han et al. (2009, p.521) stated that "the relationships between antecedents of intentions and intentions would be stronger for high age groups than low age groups". The role of age in understanding tourists' behavior has also been investigated in the literature of food tourism. For example, younger tourists may experience a wider range of foods than older tourists when traveling to a destination (Tse & Crotts, 2005). Similarly, age was found as one of three socio-demographic variables that have influences the local food consumption of tourists at a travel destination (Kim et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2013). Given the empirical evidence of the role of age within the literature, it is expected that age will play a moderating role in the formation of behavioral intention in the context of food tourism, leading to the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 12a: Age moderates the relationship between push factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

Hypothesis 12b: Age moderates the relationship between pull factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

Hypothesis 12c: Age moderates the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

Hypothesis 12d: Age moderates the relationship between attitude and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

Hypothesis 12e: Age moderates the relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

Hypothesis 12f: Age moderates the relationship between subjective norms and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

3.7 Conclusion

The chapter presents a review of the literature on travel motivation, food involvement and travel decision-making to provide a foundation for conceptualizing a research framework for this study. Based on the in-depth discussion about motivation theories and their application in the field of food tourism, push-pull theory was justified to be most suitable to achieve the first objective of the study. In addition, the literature of tourists' decision-making toward travel destination choice provided an understanding of models of travel decision making and variables involved in these models. As a result, the theory of planned behavior model was identified as a basic model for developing the conceptual framework in this current research. Other literature related to food involvement confirmed the importance of this personal variable in learning about foodies and food tourists. Finally, a conceptual model and proposed hypotheses were presented in the chapter. In particular, the proposed model included seven major constructs (push factors, pull factors, food involvement, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention) and one moderator (age). There were a total of twenty hypotheses representing the direct and indirect relationships between constructs involved in the conceptual model. In summary, the literature review presented in chapter 2 and chapter 3 provides a comprehensive understanding of the extant research and theory-related issues necessary for this current study. The next chapter discusses the research methodology applied to reach the research objectives and answer research questions as stated in chapter 1.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the methodological approach and research design employed in this study. The chapter commences with the introduction of four types of research paradigm (*Section 4.2*), followed by a research strategy (*Section 4.3*) that explains the rationale for choosing the quantitative research approach in this study. The overall research design is then proposed in *Section 4.4*. A detailed description of the research instrument development is presented in *Section 4.5* and the preliminary questionnaire design comes next in *Section 4.6*. The *Section 4.7* is the analysis of the pilot study for the modification of the questionnaire used in the main study. The issues related to the survey research methods, including sampling design (*Section 4.8*) and survey administration (*Section 4.9*) are then discussed. The last sections outline ethical considerations as a compulsory requirement of the study (*Section 4.10*) and a summative statement of the chapter (*Section 4.11*).

4.2 Research paradigm

There are a variety of definitions of research paradigms, however it is clearly defined by Neuman (2011, p.94) as "a general organizing framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research, and methods for seeking answers". In other words, a research paradigm can be guided by three major characteristics namely ontology (What is the nature of reality?), epistemology (How do researchers know depending on the ontological view?) and methodology (How do researchers go about conducting the research?) (Creswell, 2009). Having an appropriate research paradigm helps researchers understand their world and then have a consistency in research implementation. The chosen research paradigm leads to the selection of research strategies (qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods), which subsequently influences the methods of data collection, analysis, interpretation and research write-up to gather information and gain the knowledge from collected information (Jennings, 2010). Generally speaking, a research paradigm provides a common orientation in adopting the process of research to deal with

research problems (Corbetta, 2003). There are four major paradigms, namely postpositivism; social constructivism, advocacy and participatory, and pragmatism, that have been often discussed in the social sciences (Guba, 1990). The differences among these paradigms are compared based on three aspects (ontology, epistemology and methodology) and discussed as follows.

4.2.1 Postpositivism

The postpositivists recognized that no one can be "positive" about our statements of knowledge when studying the behavior or actions of humans (Creswell, 2009, p.6). Through a postpositivist lens, the acquirement of knowledge is based on the careful observation recorded by the researcher or measurement of the objective reality existing in the social world. There is a deterministic philosophy in the postpositivist worldview that causes probably determine effects or outcomes. Therefore, according to postpositivists, the research problems are commonly employed to identify the causes affecting the outcomes (Creswell, 2009). Regarding methodological perspective, postpositivist assumptions "hold true more for quantitative research than qualitative research" (Creswell, 2009, p. 6). More specifically, a study starts with the test of a theory and then the theory is verified and refined based on the data or information that is collected through measurement instruments completed by researchers or participants (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). As a result, Creswell (2009, p.7) stated that "developing numeric measures of observations and studying the behavior of individuals becomes paramount for a postpositivist".

4.2.2 Constructivism

Constructivism, also known as interpretivism, is typically seen as an approach to qualitative research (Creswell, 2009; Neuman, 2011). This paradigm has the assumption that people try to explore and gain their own understanding of the world in which they live and work daily by subjectively reflecting on their own experiences. These subjective meanings are formed not only through individuals themselves toward certain objects or things, but also through the interaction among individuals. Therefore, constructivist researchers often focus on the interaction between individuals with others to learn about their historical and cultural settings. In practice, Crotty (1998) made some suggestions for qualitative researchers to use open-ended questions, which are broad and general enough to obtain as much as possible the views of participants on studied phenomenon. Researchers directly visit the context or

setting of the participants, gather information and give an interpretation based on their own backgrounds and experiences. As opposed to postpostivism, constructivism generates and develops a theory from data collected in the field rather than starting with a theory (Crotty, 1998).

4.2.3 Advocacy and participatory

The participatory paradigm is often applied to address an important social issue such as "empowerment, inequality, oppression, domination, suppression, and alienation" (Creswell, 2009, p.9). In addition to exploring and interpreting the views, concerns or experiences of participants based on their own perspectives, participatory research also establishes an action agenda to make change and even improve their lives (Chambers, 1997). In terms of the methodological perspective, researchers begin with an important issue in society as the central part of a study and then collaborate with participants who help to design questions, collect data, analyze information and obtain the rewards of research. In participatory research, participants play a role as active collaborators in political debate and discussion with the aims of advancing measures for change (Kemmis & Wilkinson, 1998). With such a process of research, this advocacy/ participatory worldview is commonly aligned with qualitative research although it can be "a foundation for quantitative research" (Creswell, 2009, p. 9).

4.2.4 Pragmatism

Pragmatism opens a door to multiple approaches with the major objective of understanding the research problems rather than focusing on methods (Morgan, 2007; Rossman & Wilson, 1985). Researchers see the world from different assumptions and different worldviews, not from an absolute unity. Then, it is free for researchers to apply multiple methods, techniques of data collection and analysis or procedures of research that help them achieve knowledge about the research problem (Creswell, 2009; Morgan, 2007). Therefore, this philosophical worldview applies mixed methods research including both qualitative and quantitative methods. Importantly, mixed methods researchers need to provide an explanation of reasons why it is necessary to combine both qualitative and quantitative data to obtain the understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2009). In summary, based on the intended consequences, the pragmatist researchers could know what and how to research.

Given that the main objective of this study is to understand food travel motivation and identify factors determining travel behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, the study starts with theories, namely the push-pull theory and the theory of planned behavior. These theories were adopted as the fundamental theories to develop a conceptual framework of behavioral intention toward food tourism. Accordingly, in this study, the intention can be explained by a combination of variables whose relationships are expressed in hypotheses. The measurement instrument of each variable was adapted by previous studies. The data is collected from participants and then analyzed to provide the evidence to accept or reject the proposed hypotheses or theory. With these propositions in the current research, postpositivism is acknowledged to be the most suitable worldview among the four major paradigms discussed above. By adopting the postpositivism paradigm, the researcher can ensure the objectivity in data collection and analysis to acquire an understanding of the objective reality existing in the world (Cavana, Sekaran, & Delahaye, 2001).

4.3 Research strategy of inquiry

Strategies of inquiry, also called research methodology (Mertens, 1998), refers to

> … the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes (Crotty, 1998, p.2)

There are three types of strategy including qualitative, quantitative and mixed method that give a clear direction for establishing research procedures in a research design. (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, it is important for researchers to choose the most suitable research methodology among qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches.

4.3.1 Qualitative research approach

In a general understanding, a topic is explored by qualitative research in cases that (1) lack of a foundational theory or previous research, (2) are underpinned by inappropriate or incorrect theory or variables that have previously been used, (3) related to phenomena description or theory where development is still required, or (4) relate to studies where quantitative measures are not applicable (Creswell, 2009). There are various ways to conduct qualitative studies such as ethnography, grounded theory, case studies, phenomenological

research and narrative research (Creswell, 2009). These strategies of inquiry help researchers to gather "a great deal of information about a small number of people rather than a limited amount of information about a large number of people" (Veal, 2006, p.40).

4.3.2 Quantitative research approach

Quantitative research is designed to study relatively large numbers of people with the purpose of testing the relationships of variables in an existing theory (Creswell, 2009; Veal, 2006). Recently, quantitative research strategies have dealt with complex structural equation models including multiple variables and causal paths or elaborate experiments with many treatments and variables such as factorial designs or repeated measure designs. Accordingly, there are two types of quantitative projects, which are survey research with the intent of studying a sample to generalize to a population (Babbie, 1990) and experimental research with the purpose of determining the effects of a specific treatment on an outcome (Creswell, 2009).

4.3.3 Mixed methods research approach

Mixed method strategies are less common than either quantitative or qualitative strategies (Creswell, 2009). Mixed method research is simply the concept of combining the quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study. There are three types of strategy used to conduct a mixed method research, including sequential mixed methods, concurrent mixed methods and transformative mixed methods. The goal of adopting mixed methods to both understand the relationship among variables in a situation and explore the topic in further depth (Creswell, 2009, p.100).

In summary, the choice of a strategy of inquiry among qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods research is dependent on the research problems, objectives and the personal experiences of the researcher (Creswell, 2009). Accordingly, a quantitative research methodology was selected in this study. Indeed, the strategy of inquiry associated with quantitative research is aligned with the postpositivist paradigm chosen in the preceding discussion. In addition, the intent of the current study was to investigate the multi-dimensionality of travel motivation and examine the factors affecting tourist's intention to visit a food tourism destination by adapting the existing push-pull theory and the theory of planned behavior. As a result, out of three strategies of research, a quantitative research

approach was utilized to test the theories with statistical analyses of variables and their causal relationships, which help to address the research problems.

After the decision of applying the quantitative research strategy, it is also important to select the type of study, which is survey research in this study. According to Creswell (2009, p.12), "Survey research provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population". By using a questionnaire-based survey to collect empirical data from a sample of online groups of foodies, the researcher can generalize about the travel motivation and Behavioral intention of a food lover population. The next section provides a more detailed research design for survey research employed in this study.

4.4 Research design

This study aims to investigate food travel motivation and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination from tourists' perspectives. Therefore, in order to deal with the research questions proposed in chapter 1, a quantitative research strategy was designed to both investigate motivational factors in food tourism and examine the hypothesized relationships among the constructs involved in the framework of behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination. For this purpose, an effective approach for testing the theoretical model and hypotheses was to apply a Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedure. *Figure 4.1* presents the research procedure adopted for this study.

According to the research procedure presented in *Figure 4.1*, an extensive review of the literature was conducted in the broad context of food and wine tourism, travel motivation, travel behavior and destination choice to identify potential motivational constructs and to develop a theoretical model of behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination. As a result, a conceptual framework was proposed including seven constructs (i.e., attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, push factors, pull factors, food involvement and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination). The relationships among these constructs were also hypothesized. In addition, an initial set of measurement items for all of the constructs was developed based on the literature review and a content analysis of food travel blogs. An expert panel was then invited to evaluate and validate the research instrument. These experts were qualified to also make suggestions on potential items that may have been missed or have not yet been published. Once the research

instrument had been validated, a questionnaire for data collection was designed. A pilot study, which is "a small scale version(s), or trial run(s), done in preparation for the major study" (Polit, Beck & Hungler, 2001, p.467), was conducted. This test helped to modify the questionnaire because possible weaknesses, ambiguities, missing questions and poor reliability can be identified through a pilot test (DeVellis, 2003). The finalized questionnaire was then utilized for the main survey. The collected data was analyzed through descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), measurement models evaluation, structural model evaluation, mediating effects assessment and moderator effects assessment. From these analyses, findings and discussions will be drawn in the final stage.

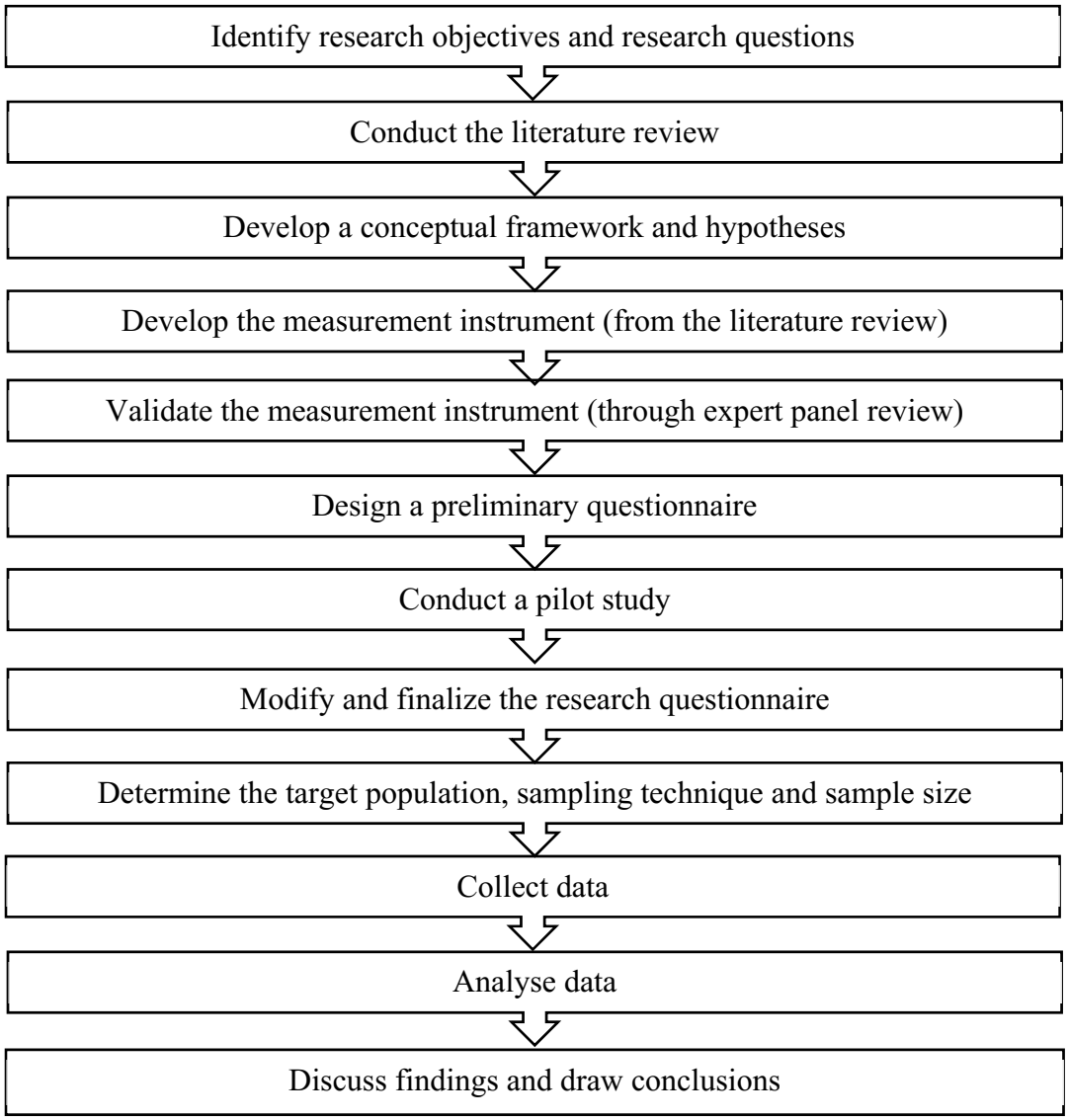


Figure 4.1 The research procedure

4.5 Research instrument development

4.5.1 Theoretical considerations for instrument development

When developing the measurement scale for constructs, it is important to consider two types of measurement models: reflective and formative (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). In a reflective measurement model, the underlying construct causes indicators, thus all indicators have high correlations with each other. Individual items of a reflective construct can be interchangeable so that the meaning of the construct does not change if deleting any single item. On the contrary, in a formative measurement model, the construct is caused by indicators which are not interchangeable. As each indicator represent an aspect of the construct, therefore the nature of the construct would be changed if removing any item. There has been not a definite idea on how to decide whether the measurement model is reflective or formative, however Hair et al. (2014, p.47) provided a guidelines for choosing the measurement model mode as shown in *Table 4.1*.

Table 4.1 Guideline for assessing reflective or formative measurement model

Considerations	Criteria	Decision
The nature of construct	Is the construct a trait explaining the indicators or a combination of the indicators?	• If trait: reflective • If combination: formative
Direction of causality between the construct and indicators	What does the causality flow?	• From the construct to indicators: reflective • From indicators to the construct: formative
Characteristics of indicators	Do indicators represent consequences or causes of the construct?	• If consequences: reflective • If causes: formative
	Are the items mutually interchangeable?	• If yes: reflective • If no: formative

Source: Hair et al. (2014, p.47)

In addition to the guidelines given by Hair et al. (2014), the specification of whether to measure a construct reflectively or formatively is dependent on the conceptualization of the construct and the objectives of the study. As presented above, the proposed framework of behavioral intention towards visiting a food tourism destination was made up of seven constructs including push factors (PUS), pull factors (PUL), food involvement (FI), attitude (AT), subjective norms (SN), perceived behavioral control (BC), behavioral intention (BI).

Out of them, five constructs (FI, AT, SN, BC and BI) were formed as first-order measurement constructs. In addition, the other two constructs (PUS and PUL) were theorized as second-order constructs. The detail of the research instrument to measure each of these constructs is now discussed in the following sections.

4.5.2 Measurement scales for attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, food involvement and behavioral intention

The objective of the study was to quantitatively test the proposed framework of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, which was made up of seven constructs: attitude (AT), subjective norms (SN), perceived behavioral control (BC), food involvement (FI), push factors (PUS), pull factors (PUL), and behavioral intention (BI). Measurement scales for five out of seven constructs (AT, SN, BC, FI and BI) have been extensively investigated in previous empirical studies of travel motivations, travel destination choice and food tourism. As a result, the scales for these five constructs were adapted from the literature and then checked for reliability through a pilot study. The development of the scale for each construct is now discussed below.

4.5.2.1 Attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination

Tourist's attitude in this study is understood as positive feelings towards a visit to a food travel destination, generated by their interests, knowledge or experience. The method to measure attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination was to utilize the items that were found in previous studies of the theory of planned behavior in travel destination choice and in food tourism contexts. The following section discusses the measurement instrument of tourist's attitude utilized in empirical studies of travel behavior toward visiting a destination and local food consumption while traveling.

Hsu and Huang (2012) conducted a study that focused on Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou residents to test an extended version of the TPB model for tourists. Six statements, which began with "from all your knowledge about Hong Kong, you think the visit would be…" were used to measure the attitude construct in this study. In particular, they were "the visit would be enjoyable, the visit would be pleasant, the visit would be worthwhile, the visit would be satisfying, the visit would be fascinating, the visit would be rewarding". Cronbach's alpha was high at 0.82.

In the study of tourists' intention toward traditional Taiwanese food by Hsu (2014) , tourist's attitude was measured by nine items using a 7-point semantic differential scale: "For me, sampling the Taiwanese traditional foods when traveling in Taiwan is… extremely bad/ extremely good, extremely undesirable/ extremely desirable, extremely unpleasant/ extremely pleasant, extremely foolish/ extremely wise, extremely unfavorable/ extremely favorable, extremely unenjoyable/ extremely enjoyable, extremely negative/ extremely positive, extremely fun/ extremely boring".

In summary, the positive feelings of tourists towards a visit to a travel destination are expressed by some characteristics such as enjoyable, worthwhile, satisfying and rewarding. Using a seven- point Likert scale, *Table 4.2* presents four statements adopted to measure attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.

Table 4.2 Literature – generated measurement items for attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination

No.	Item codes	Measurement items	Measurement items
1	AT1	The visit to a food tourism destination will be enjoyable	Hsu and Huang (2012)
2	AT2	The visit to a food tourism destination will be worthwhile	Hsu and Huang (2012)
3	AT3	The visit to a food tourism destination will be satisfying	Hsu and Huang (2012)
4	AT4	The visit to a food tourism destination will be rewarding	Hsu and Huang (2012)

4.5.2.2 Subjective norms toward visiting a food tourism destination

In this study, the subjective norms refers to the influence of social reference groups or family on an individual's perception of the trip to a food tourism destination. It has been utilized in some previous studies employing the theory of planned behavior. The following section discusses scales to measure subjective norms in previous studies of tourist's intention towards a tourist destination and a wine tourism region.

Three items were used for the subjective norms construct in Sparks' (2007) investigation of factors that predicted tourist behavioral intentions towards a wine tourism vacation. Items, which were "would like to visit a wine region that I have heard about from friends/family", "would like to take a wine holiday that is popular among friends/ family", "would like to

visit a wine region that has been recommended by friends/ family", were measured on a Likert scale from 1 to 7 with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 being "strongly agree". In Sparks' (2007) study, two groups, which had a strong effect on tourist' perception, were friends and family.

Lee et al. (2015) conducted research to understand Korean wine tourists' intention to participate in a wine tour. The reference group was identified in this study as "most people who are important to me". The agreement, support, understanding and recommendations of these important people would affect the decision whether an individual would participate in a wine tour. The Cronbach alpha of the subjective norms scale in this study was high at 0.921.

Three statements were used to evaluate subjective norms in the study of the decision-making process leading to the choice of a travel destination by Lam and Hsu (2006). Accordingly, 299 potential Taiwanese travelers to Hong Kong were investigated to test the applicability of the theory of planned behavior model. A seven-point Likert scale was used to measure each item of Subjective norms. The following items, "most people I know would choose Hong Kong as a travel destination", "people who are important to me would think I … visit Hong Kong", and "people who are important to me would … of my visit to Hong Kong" were measured with 1 being strongly disagree to 7 being strongly agree, respectively.

In addition, the rise of the internet and social media has contributed to open new reference resources for tourists before making travel decisions. Social and online media such as Foursquare, Foodspotting, Facebook, Twitter, OpenTable, TripAdvisor and others offer good ways to connect directly with foodies (Getz et al., 2014). Bussel and Roberts (2014, p.423) stated that "digitally connected consumers simply log into their Twitter, Facebook, Foodspotting, Vine and Yelp accounts and share their experiences in real-time – the good, the bad and the mediocre – before their bill has even been presented. The net result is a significant increase in the 'power of the people', and their collective social influence over food-related planning and purchasing decisions". As a result, the comments or recommendations of foodies on social media are found to influence tourist's perceptions.

From the above discussion, *Table 4.3* presents four items to measure subjective norms towards visiting a food tourism destination. While three items were adapted from previous studies (Sparks, 2007; Lee et al., 2015), one item was developed based on literature of the

influence of the internet on travel decision making. All these measurement items use the 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree)

Table 4.3 Literature – generated measurement items for subjective norms toward visiting a food tourism destination

No.	Item codes	Measurement items	References
1	SN1	I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have heard about from friends/ family	Sparks (2007)
2	SN2	I want to visit a food tourism destination that is popular among friends/ family	Sparks (2007)
3	SN3	I want to visit a food tourism destination that has been recommended by most people who are important to me	Lee et al. (2015)
4	SN4	I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media*	Author

* *Item developed by author based on the literature review*

4.5.2.3 Perceived behavioral control toward visiting a food tourism destination

Perceived behavioral control is a tourist's perception of the perceived ability to visit a food tourism destination. By using the 7-point Likert scale, three items were used to measure control influences in Sparks' (2007) study of intentions to take a wine tourism vacation. They were "I have enough money to take a wine holiday in the next 12 months", "nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a wine region" and "I have enough time to take a wine holiday in the next 12 months". Time and money are two major sources for tourists to make a travel decision. Similarly, "having enough resources (money) to participate in a wine tour" was also one of three items to measure the perceived behavioral control construct in the study of Korean wine tourists by Lee et al. (2015). Two other measurement items are "I am confident that if I want, I can participate in a wine tour" and "I am capable of going a wine tour".

In another study related to the consumption of Taiwanese traditional food, Hsu (2014) measured perceived behavioral control by three statements using a Likert 7- point scale such as " I feel there is nothing that prevents me from sampling Taiwanese traditional food if I want to", "whether I will eventually buy Taiwanese traditional food is entirely up to me"

and "I am confident that if I want, I can buy Taiwanese traditional food when traveling in Taiwan".

From the above review of measurement scales developed in previous studies of travel behavior toward wine tourism and local food consumption, three items of perceived behavioral control towards visiting a food tourism destination were adapted from Sparks (2007) and modified to be suitable for this study (see *Table 4.4*)

Table 4.4 Literature – generated measurement items for perceived behavioral control toward visiting a food tourism destination

No.	Item codes	Measurement items	References
1	BC1	I have enough money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	Sparks (2007)
2	BC2	I have enough time to take a holiday to a food tourism destination in the next two years	Sparks (2007)
3	BC3	Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want to	Sparks (2007)

4.5.2.4 Food involvement

In this study, food involvement can be defined as the perception of personal relevance of food-related activities based on needs, interests and values (Robinson & Getz, 2016). The measurement instrument of food involvement was mainly derived from the literature of behavior and leisure. In consumer behavior research, a food involvement scale was well-developed by Bell and Marshall (2003, p.235) based on the life cycle of food suggested by Goody (1982). Accordingly, the food lifecycle includes activities involved in five stages such as food acquisition, preparation, cooking, eating and disposal. It was used as a foundation framework to construct a 12-item measure of food involvement in the study by Bell and Marshall (2003). This scale was adopted and modified in the research of food tourism by Kim et al. (2010) with 6 items being used to study of visitors attending Gwangju Kimchi Festival in South Korea.

Likewise, in leisure research, Robinson and Getz (2013) also developed a food involvement scale based on the framework of Goody (1982). By combining previous studies on involvement conducted by Kyle et al. (2007), Goody (1982), Bell and Marshall (2003) and Kim et al. (2010), Robinson and Getz (2013) customized a food involvement scale of 44 initial items. After testing and validating on a sample of self-declared food enthusiasts, food

involvement was concluded to include four dimensions such as food-related identity, food quality, social bonding, and food consciousness with a total of 18 measurement items.

In addition, Brown et al. (2007) found that highly involved wine lovers could also be considered food lovers, thus the food involvement scale deserves a careful consideration in previous studies of not only food tourism, but also wine tourism. For example, Brown et al. (2007) developed a wine involvement scale of 15 items which were categorized into three different factors; "expertise", "enjoyment" and "symbolic centrality". After that, this scale was adapted together with the food involvement scale studied by Bell and Marshall (2003) in research on Australian food lovers traveling domestically and internationally for food-related experiences (Getz & Robinson, 2014). By using a discriminant analysis technique, Getz and Robinson (2014) found seven statements of food involvement to differentiate foodies who traveled abroad for food experiences. By making comparison, the seven items validated by Getz and Robinson (2014) had the same meaning with measurement items of two constructs food – related identity and social bonding that were developed by Robinson and Getz (2013). Considering the aims of the study in terms of food visit to an overseas destination, in this study, the measurement items of food involvement were replicated from Getz and Robinson (2014) using a seven-point Likert scale as shown in *Table 4.5*

Table 4.5 Literature – generated measurement items for Food involvement

No.	Item codes	Measurement items	References
1	FI1	Shopping for produce is one of the most enjoyable things in my life	Getz and Robinson (2014)
2	FI2	Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life	Getz and Robinson (2014)
3	FI3	I spend a great deal of my disposable income on dining out	Getz and Robinson (2014)
4	FI4	Food experiences prompt me to learn more about other cultures	Getz and Robinson (2014)
5	FI5	I often reminisce about food experiences with family and friends	Getz and Robinson (2014)
6	FI6	People know me as a gourmet	Getz and Robinson (2014)

4.5.2.5 Behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

In this research, behavioral intention can be understood as the willingness and the efforts that tourists make to visit a food tourism destination in the near future. In the study by Hsu (2014), behavioral intention toward the consumption of Taiwanese traditional food was measured by three statements such as "I am willing to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip", "I plan to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip", and "I will make an effort to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip". A seven-point Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) were used for these measurement items.

Another study by Lam and Hsu (2006) measured behavioral intention of choosing Hong Kong as travel destination by three statements with a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1). These measurement items are "likelihood to visit Hong Kong in next 12 months", "intend to visit Hong Kong in next 12 months" and "want to visit Hong Kong".

Four statements were used to measure behavioral intention of Korean wine tourists by Lee et al. (2015), which were "I will make an effort to participate in a wine tour in the near future", "I have an intention to participate in a wine tour", "I am willing to participate in a wine tour" and "I am willing to save time and money to participate in a wine tour".

In contrast with the discussed studies above, only one item "how likely would you be to take a holiday based around wine activities in the next 12 months" was used to measure a behavioral intention to visit a wine region by Sparks (2007). However, in this study, the evaluation of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination were measured by multiple items that are derived from previous studies (Lam and Hsu, 2006, Lee et al., 2015). Accordingly, *Table 4.6* presents four measurement items of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination as follows:

Table 4.6 Literature – generated measurement items for behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

No.	Item codes	Measurement items	References
1	BI1	I intend to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	Lam and Hsu (2006)
2	BI2	I want to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	Lam and Hsu (2006)

3	BI3	I will make an effort to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	Lee et al. (2015)
4	BI4	I am willing to save money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	Lee et al. (2015)

4.5.3 Measurement scales for push factors and pull factors

Measurement scales for push factors and pull factors have also been developed in the literature of travel motivation and destination choice. In the context of food and wine tourism, the instrument for measuring these two constructs was found in relevant topics such as motivation for local food consumption at a travel destination, motivation for a wine tourism vacation, and motivation for attending food festivals and events. As a result, to capture push factors and pull factors of a food traveler toward visiting a food tourism destination in this study, the research instrument was designed based on the previous findings in the literature of travel motivation for both food and wine tourism. By adapting from the stages of measurement development employed in previous studies (DeVellis, 2003; Kim & Eves, 2012), a four-step procedure was employed to construct the scales to measure push factors and pull factors. The steps include: (1) determining dimensions of the construct through literature review, (2) determining measure items through literature review and web-based content analysis, (3) refining items through expert panel review, and (4) checking reliability of the construct through a pilot study. Each of these steps is now discussed in the next sections.

4.5.3.1 Literature-generated dimensions of push factors and pull factors

Step one involved a comprehensive literature review to identify dimensions of push factors and pull factors. Push factors and pull factors were formed as multi-dimensional constructs in the theoretical model. First, based on the push and pull theory of Crompton (1979) and other previous studies of travel motivation in the food and wine tourism context, the dimensions of push factors and pull factors were identified and are discussed below.

Push factors

Crompton (1979, p.412) argued that "push factors may be useful not only in explaining the initial arousal, energizing, or 'push' to take a vacation, but also have directive potential to direct the tourist toward a particular destination". Regarding push factors in food travel motivation, the previous studies commonly identified dimensions of motivation such as

escape, change, excitement, taste of food/wine, socializations, interpersonal relationship, social status, family togetherness, relaxation, enjoyment, cultural experience, novelty, knowledge and learning. Although these factors seemed to be similar in most studies, their importance and measurement items were different within various studies. As a result, the most critical push factors, including taste of food, socialization, cultural experiences, were identified and discussed for this study.

First 'taste of food', the sensory experience tends to be a primary motivation for traveling (Boniface, 2003). It was also considered to be a key consideration for travelers to involve in food tourism settings such as traditional/ local food consumption, food festivals and events, culinary tourism or gourmet tourism (Kim & Eves, 2012). In a study of wine tourism destination choice, Brown and Getz (2005, p.267) found that "tasting quality motivates visits to wineries". Similarly, tasting and buying wine were the most prevalent motivations in the study of motivations for wine regions and cellar doors by Alant and Bruwer (2004). In addition, food and wine tasting is also the most important reason for visitors to attend food festivals and events (Park et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2005). Tourists are provided with opportunities to taste new and different food and experience food and wine in an overseas country. Therefore, the taste of food can play a crucial role in tourists' appreciation of a food tourism destination.

Second, 'socialization' can be seen as a desire to meet new people in different locations (Crompton, 1979). More general, people make travel decisions for interpersonal motivators which are the demand to make friends, share experiences, exchange ideals with others (Fields, 2002). At food tourism destinations, people with a common interest in food and tourism including food tourists, local people, chefs, food and wine experts and caterers are gathered together, which is a great opportunity to travel for socialization (Park et al., 2008). In a study by Warde and Martens (2000), United Kingdom people acknowledged the importance of the sociability function of eating contributing to their experience. Therefore, it is not surprising that socialization has been indicated as a dimension in travel motivation in food tourism studies (Kim et al., 2003; Park et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2005).

Third, 'cultural experiences' is studied in the context of tourism as the desire to experience the cultures of different countries or learn about history (Kim & Eves, 2012). Thus, it is considered as a key motivator for visiting heritage attractions and destinations (Kerstetter,

Confer, & Graefe, 2001), for participating in local leisure activities (Funk & Bruun, 2007) and for attending festivals and events (Crompton & McKay, 1997). These existing studies have indicated that the cultural experience includes a thirst to gain knowledge and engage in an authentic experience. Crompton & McKay (1997) also pointed out that travel can help people satisfy a demand for knowledge enhancement and cultural experience enrichment. In the field of food tourism, tourists have opportunities to learn about local wine culture and gain knowledge about the way local people eat and drink through local food experiences (Getz, 2000). Similarly, tourists are motivated to attend food events to learn about culinary performance and skills, and increase food knowledge (Kim et al., 2010). In addition, food culture, including the art of ingredients selection, preparation and cooking, or food preservation is different between countries. Consequently, tourists can experience food culture at destinations that provide them with unique cultural attributes referred to as "authentic culture" (Fields, 2002; Kim et al., 2009). The study by Kim et al. (2013) concluded that "gaining knowledge" and "authentic experience" were grouped in "cultural experience" and that is the main reason for tourists to consume food at destinations in South Korea, Spain and the UK. They seek to understand local cultures, see how local people live, gain special experience and increase their knowledge about different cultures (Kim et al., 2013). Understandably, cultural experience should be considered as the primary consideration for travelers in making decisions to visit a destination, especially a food tourism destination.

Pull factors

What motivates people to travel is not only their internal motives but also motives related to the attractions of a tourism destination (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Getz et al. (2014, p.113) stated that "attractions are places, businesses and experiencescapes that can motivate a trip. They are the pull factors or whatever food tourists are seeking". Until now, there has been a lack of empirical studies about the appeal of food tourism destinations as well as the factors shaping their attractiveness from a demand perspective. Hence, the theoretical approach to pull factors influencing the visit to a food tourism destination was mainly based on the suggestions of previous studies for wine tourism regions (Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Brown et al., 2007; Getz & Brown, 2006). Although wine tourism is a separate field of research, wine and food tourism in particular have a strong association with each other (Getz et al., 2014).

Alant and Bruwer (2004) conducted an exploratory study to measure motivations for engaging in wine tourism and suggested that the pull factors of a wine region are the accessibility of the region, regional brand image, the wineries, and product brand image. Another study on the importance of wine region features by Getz and Brown (2006) was conducted through a survey of 161 respondents. Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of each feature in a list of 27 when making decisions about which wine region to visit. The result of factor analysis found five important factors including core wine product, core destination appeal, core cultural product, variety and tourist-oriented. Brown et al. (2007) grouped the 27 potential features of wine regions into categories related to wine-related amenities, unique destination atmosphere, ancillary attractions, personal touches and destination marketing. Based on these previous studies, two pull factors of a food region could be extrapolated. They were food tourism appeals and destination-related appeals. Each factor is discussed in detail as follows.

The first dimension, 'food tourism appeals' is considered to be the main feature related to food events, food fairs, food trails and tours, markets, restaurant and cooking schools, food producers and staff (UNWTO, 2012). In a wine tourism context, core wine products were identified in all three studies by Getz and Brown (2006), Alant and Bruwer (2004) and Brown et al. (2007) under three different construct names as "core wine product", "wine-related wineries" and "the wineries", respectively. Moreover, in another study in a food tourism context, S. Smith et al. (2010) found that the food product was one of three pull factors motivating tourists to attend a culinary tourism event. Similarly, food variety emerged as a pull factor attracting tourists to a food event in the southwestern United States (Kim et al., 2010). From a deliberate browse of practical literature in food and wine tourism, the report on selected wine and food regions of Queensland, South Australia and Victoria by Sparks, Roberts, Deery, Brown and Malady (2007) identified core products which constitute a successful food and wine region. As a result, food tourism appeals need to be considered as a pull factor of a food tourism destination in this study.

The second dimension was 'destination appeals' associated with the features of the cultural attractiveness as described by Getz and Brown (2006). Clearly, food tourists are considered as primary cultural tourists, hence they tend to look for destinations with an abundance of cultural and heritage features. Getz et al. (2014, p.114) observed that "the elements of culture and heritage go together best with the food experience". In Brown et al.'s study (2007), the

appeal of a wine region was also confirmed by the "personal touches" construct, which was similar to the cultural factor. Accordingly, destination-related appeals, that encompasses features such as unique specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce, cultural events, rural environment, farmers' market was utilized for the discussion of the pull factors.

In summary, in the current research, push factors and pull factors was conceptualized as second-order constructs. From the literature review, three dimensions (taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences) were identified to capture instrinsic motivation for food travel. In addition, pull factors comprised two dimensions, food tourism appeals and destination appeals representating the attractive features of a food tourism destination.

4.5.3.2 Measure items for dimensions of push factors and pull factors

The initial measurement items for measuring three dimensions of push factors and two dimensions of pull facotrs were extracted and chosen from the most relevant studies on travel motivation in the literature of food and wine tourism. In particular, items to measure push factors were obtained from relevant studies on tourists' motivation towards visiting wine regions, attenting food and wine festivals and events, and enjoying traditional food in a destination (Alant and Bruwer, 2004, Park et al., 2008, Kim and Eves, 2012, Kim et al., 2013). In addition, scales to measure pull factors were mainly derived from the research of wine tourism regions and literature of the attractiveness of a food and wine region (Getz and Brown, 2006, Brown et al., 2007, Getz et al., 2014, Sparks et al., 2007).

After developing an initial pool of literature-generated measurement items for push and pull factors, a web-based content analysis was also conducted in this step. The purpose was to further validate the measurement items determined from the literature, and to identify other items for each dimension of push and pull factors toward food travel. The extant literature indicated that travel blogs have been increasingly utilized to provide a deeper understanding of travel behavior of tourists (Bosangit, Dulnuan, & Mena, 2012). As a result, food travel blogs were used to look for references related to motives for food travel and attractions of a food destination in this study. *Table 4.7* lists five food travel blogs, which won in the Best Readers' Choice New Media Award for Best Travel and Food Blogger in 2014 and won 2015 Saveur Blog Award for Best Culinary Travel Coverage. These five blogs were chosen for the content analysis in this step because they shared amazing travel adventures through food and inspired the reader with food travel.

Table 4.7 Food travel blogs selected in the study

No	Blog name	Blog site
1	A Global Kitchen	http://aglobalkitchen.com/
2	The Travel Bite	https://thetravelbite.com/
3	Behind the Food Carts	http://behindthefoodcarts.com/
4	Misadventures with Andi	https://misadventureswithandi.com/
5	The Funnelogy Channel	http://www.funnelogychannel.com/

The five chosen food travel blogs were accessed and posts of food travel toward a destination from January 2015 to May 2016 were captured for Nvivo11 (see *Appendix 1*). These posts were recorded and analyzed based on the guideline of litereture-based dimensions of push and pull which were identified in step one. *Appendix 2* provided detailed content analysis for food travel posts to generate the useful information for identifying measure items. The items generated from the web-based content analysis were found to be consistent and overlapped with items identified from the literature review. As a result, after combining and revising measurement items from both literature and content analysis, a list of 16 items using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) was generated to measure push factors. In addition, 12 items using a seven-point scale ranging from very unimportant (1) to very important (7) were generated to measure attractive features of a food destination that motivate respondents to visit it. Details of the measurement items of four measured constructs of push factors and two measured constructs of pull factors as well as their reference sources are presented in *Table 4.8.*

Table 4.8 Literature – generated measurement items for tourist motivation toward visiting a food tourism destination

No.	Construct	Item codes	Measurement items	References
			Push factors	
1	Taste of food	PUS1	To taste local food in traditional setting at destination	Kim and Eves (2012) & Content analysis
2		PUS2	To experience a variety of different types of food at a destination	Park et al. (2008) & Content analysis
3		PUS3	To find special food in a food tourism destination	Alant and Bruwer (2004)

4		PUS4	To develop cooking skills through food – related activities at a destination	Content analysis
5		PUS5	To increase food knowledge	Park et al. (2008)
6		PUS6	To develop an interest in food	Park et al. (2008)
7	Socialization	PUS7	To meet other people who have same interest in food at a destination	Kim and Eves (2012) & Content analysis
8		PUS8	To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	Park et al. (2008) & Content analysis
9		PUS9	To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events	Park et al. (2008)
10		PUS10	To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination	Park et al. (2008) & Content analysis
11		PUS11	To share food experiences with people in food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013)
12		PUS12	To exchange ideas with food experts through food-related activities at destination	Park et al. (2008)
13	Cultural experience	PUS13	To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013) & Content analysis
14		PUS14	To see how other people live in a food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013)
15		PUS15	To increase my knowledge about different cultures	Kim et al. (2013) & Content analysis
16		PUS16	To have an authentic food experience in a food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013)
			Pull factors	
17	Food tourism appeals	PUL1	Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	Brown et al. (2007) & Content analysis
18		PUL2	Traditional food villages	Brown et al. (2007) & Content analysis
19		PUL3	Visitor- friendly food markets	Content analysis
20		PUL4	Food tours	Getz and Brown (2006) & Content analysis

21		PUL5	Cooking classes	Brown et al. (2007) & Content analysis
22		PUL6	Food festivals and events	Brown et al. (2007) & Getz and Brown (2006)
23		PUL7	Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	Getz and Brown (2006) & Content analysis
24	Destination appeals	PUL8	Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	Content analysis
25		PUL9	Traditional farmers' markets	Content analysis
26		PUL10	Specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce	Getz and Brown (2006)
27		PUL11	Local artwork and crafts for sale	Getz and Brown (2006)
28		PUL12	Authentic rural environment	Content analysis

4.5.3.3 Expert panel review

According to DeVellis (2003), the judgment of experts can be considered as a general technique of item generation. Therefore, in the third step, the list of measurement items generated from the second step were sent to ask for opinions or comments from academic professionals who have expertise and research experience in the field of hospitality and tourism with the specific aim of examining content validity. Content validity refers to the systematic evaluation of the representativeness of the content of a scale regarding the domain which is used to measure (Churchill, 1979). Six academic experts were invited to participate in June and July 2016. They were asked to assess the applicability and representativeness of each measurement item towards the associated constructs of tourist motivation to visit a food tourism destination. A five-point scale (1 = "totally inapplicable"/ "totally unrepresentative" and 5 = "totally applicable"/"totally representative") was used to rate each item (see *Appendix 3*). In addition, the experts were requested to provide comments and recommend alternatives where applicable. As a result, the measurement scale items of push factors and pull factors were logically and accurately modified on the summed score of each item and the basis of the experts' opinions and comments. For example, some wording was changed and duplicated questions were removed if they were found to be inappropriate. Ultimately, one item was eliminated, which was "PUS12: To exchange ideas with food experts through food-related activities at destination". The reason was argued by the experts that this item was not suitable for common food travelers. It should be applied for travelers who had professional qualifications or skills related to food and might work in food-related sectors

such as chefs, cooks, food producers. Another item "PUS7: To meet other people who have same interest in food at a destination" was revised according to the experts' comments for fully comprehensive meaning. It became "PUS7: To increase friendship in a food tourism destination**".**

In summary, after three steps of measurement development, the instrument included 15 items to measure push factors and 12 items to measure pull factors. These 27 items together with 21 measure items for other constructs (attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, food involvement and behavioral intention) presented above were used to develop a questionnaire for a pilot study to examine the reliability of measurement scales.

4.6 Questionnaire design

Based on the measurement scales previously developed, a preliminary questionnaire including travel information, a range of measurement scales and socio-demographic information was developed as shown in *Appendix 4*. The questionnaire is started by a screening question about respondents' future plan to travel for food experiences. The purpose is to decide whether respondents are suitable for the survey or not. Next, a paragraph including project description, expected benefits, risks, privacy and confidentiality for participation is introduced to those who answer 'Yes' to the screening question. After this introductory part, the main body of the questionnaire is divided into five parts.

Part 1: "Information on your trip" collects basic information related to food travel experiences as well as future food trips of respondents. The information such as the country which they have traveled or plan to travel for food as main purpose, sources of information that they will use for future trips helps to create a warm-up atmosphere for the beginning of the survey. Data collected from the first question "Have you ever traveled for food and food-related activities before?" in this part helps to define two groups of respondents based on past travel experience (i.e., experienced food tourists or non- experienced food tourists) for the purpose of answering the third research question of the study.

Part 2: "Reasons to visit a food tourism destination" includes two questions. The first question is to ask the respondents the level of their agreement on the possible intrinsic motives (push factors) for visiting a food tourism destination in the future. The second one involves measurement items of an attractive food tourism destination as pull factors. Data

collected from this part was utilized to answer the first research question, particularly identifying factors which motivate tourists to visit a food tourism destination.

Part 3: "Your food involvement" includes the questions to assess the level of agreement of respondents on their food involvement. Six items are adopted to collect data to measure the construct food involvement.

Part 4: "Your visit to a food tourism destination" gathers information on respondents' attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention towards visiting a food tourism destination through fifteen measurement items. Data collected from this part and two above parts (part 2 and part 3) is used to validate the proposed conceptual framework and hypotheses.

Part 5: "Personal information" contains questions about living country, gender, age, marital status, highest education, occupation and annual personal income. Data of this part was used to conduct both descriptive analyses of respondents' profile and comparative analyses of food travel motivation and behavioral intention regarding demographic characteristics.

With the purpose of using clear language and avoiding vague words or academic jargon where possible, the questionnaire was primarily designed in English. In addition, data was collected mainly via online social networks of foodies where English is the main language for discussion among their members, therefore, the questionnaire was not translated into any other language in this study.

4.7 Pilot study

4.7.1 Data collection

A pilot study is "a small scale version(s), or trial run(s), done in preparation for the major study" (Polit, Beck and Hungler, 2001, p.467). This helped to develop the questionnaire because possible weaknesses, ambiguities, missing questions and poor reliability could be identified through a pilot test (DeVellis, 2003). A sample size from 20 to 50 participants is considered sufficient to provide feedback and help the researcher identify the potential weaknesses in a questionnaire (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The participants were asked to both fill in the questionnaires and provide their feedback on the following issues:

- How long does it take you to complete the survey?

- Is the questionnaire too long?
- Do you feel comfortable to give answers for all questions in the survey?
- Is the wording of each question clear?
- Which items are not understandable and thus require you to think hard before answering?
- Which items seem to produce irritation, embarrassment, or confusion?

These above questions are adapted from the checklist of concerns for pilot tests suggested by Iarossi (2006, pp. 90-92). The pilot study was conducted in August, 2016. The link of the online questionnaire attached to an invitation was directly sent to 200 members of the social networks of foodies via messages on Facebook and LinkedIn. There were a total of 83 responses, giving a response rate of 41.5% (83 out of 200). Not all the respondents had comments on the questionnaire, but many of them had the same ideas that the questionnaire was not too long and required from 15 to 20 minutes to complete. In addition, the structure and wording of the survey was clear and understandable. Some respondents made comments on item "FI1: Shopping for produce is one of the most enjoyable things in my life" that should be clearly explained with the word "produce". The minor change should be given to the phrase "take the trip to visit a food tourism destination" of item BC2 to show consistency with item BC1.

Of 83 responses, only 54 cases were valid for analysis because the other 29 cases had "No" answers for the screening question "Do you plan to travel in the future where food-related experiences are the primary reason for travel". After data cleaning, four observations were deleted for extreme outliers and a data set of 50 cases was finally retained to examine the reliability and validity of the scale items.

4.7.2 Reliability of measure constructs

Reliability is to measure whether the observable items from a scale correlate well and express the same idea (Pallant, 2007). This is achieved by testing the data collected with the computation of a Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Churchill (1979, p.68) stated that "coefficient alpha absolutely should be the first measure one calculated to assess the quality of the instrument". Cronbach alpha coefficients of above 0.7 are considered to have high reliability (DeVellis, 2003). Cronbach's alpha was examined for the reflective measurement constructs (attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, food involvement and

behavioral intention), three push factors (taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences) and two pull factors (food tourism appeals and destination appeals). As shown in ***Error! Reference source not found.****9*, the Cronbach's alpha values of attitude, subjective, perceived behavioral control, behavioral intention (BI), socialization, cultural experiences and destination appeals were well above 0.7, ranging from 0.722 to 0.877, indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency (Kline, 2005). The Cronbach's alpha of food involvement, taste of food and food tourism appeals were 0.674, 0.665 and 0.684, respectively. However, they could be acceptable as Nunnally (1978) suggested that the value could be as low as 0.5 in the early stages of research.

Table 4.9 Reliability of constructs in pilot study

Construct	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Attitude	0.812
Subjective norms	0.739
Perceived behavioral control	0.739
Behavioral intention	0.877
Food involvement	0.674
Taste of Food	0.665
Socialization	0.792
Cultural Experiences	0.722
Food tourism appeals	0.684
Destination appeals	0.792

In summary, after the procedure of research instrument development as discussed above, one items PUS11 were deleted from the measurement instrument used for the main survey. Other items, BC2, FI1 and SO1, were amended based on the comments of experts as well as the participants in the pilot test. *Table 4.10* shows a refinement of the measurement items.

Table 4.10 Measurement items of constructs in the model – Pilot study and main study

Construct	Measurement items in the pilot study	Measurement items in the main survey
Push factors (PUS)	PUS1 - To taste local food in traditional setting at destination	PUS1 - To taste local food in traditional setting at destination
	PUS2 - To experience a variety of different types of food at a destination	PUS2 - To experience a variety of different types of food at a destination
	PUS 3 - To find special food in a food tourism destination	PUS 3 - To find special food in a food tourism destination
	PUS 4 - To develop cooking skills through food-related activities at destination	PUS 4 - To develop cooking skills through food-related activities at destination
	PUS 5 - To develop an interest in food	PUS 5 - To develop an interest in food
	PUS 6 - To increase food knowledge	PUS 6 - To increase food knowledge
	PUS7 - To meet other people who have same interest in food at a destination	PUS7 - To increase friendship in a food tourism destination
	PUS8- To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	PUS8- To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers
	PUS9 - To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events	PUS9 - To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events
	PUS10 - To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination	PUS10 - To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination
	PUS11 - To share food experiences with people in food tourism destination	PUS11 - To share food experiences with people in food tourism destination
	PUS12- To exchange ideas with food experts in seminars or conferences on food [a]	
	PUS13[b] - To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination	PUS12 - To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination

	PUS14[b] - To see how other people live in a food tourism destination	PUS13 - To see how other people live in a food tourism destination
	PUS15[b] - To increase my knowledge about different cultures	PUS14 - To increase my knowledge about different cultures
	PUS16[b] - To have an authentic food experience in a food tourism destination	PUS15 - To have an authentic food experience in a food tourism destination
Pull factors (PUL)	PUL1 - Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	PUL1 - Fine dining and gourmet restaurants
	PUL2 - Traditional food villages	PUL2 - Traditional food villages
	PUL3 - Visitor- friendly food markets	PUL3 - Visitor- friendly food markets
	PUL4 - Food tours	PUL4 - Food tours
	PUL5 - Cooking classes	PUL5 - Cooking classes
	PUL6 - Food festivals and events	PUL6 - Food festivals and events
	PUL7 - Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	PUL7 - Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers
	PUL8 - Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	PUL8 - Cultural events featuring food and other traditions
	PUL9 - Traditional farmers' markets	PUL9 - Traditional farmers' markets
	PUL10 - Specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce	PUL10 - Specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce
	PUL11 - Local artwork and crafts for sale	PUL11 - Local artwork and crafts for sale
	PUL12 - Authentic rural environment	PUL12 - Authentic rural environment
Attitude (AT)	AT1 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be enjoyable	AT1 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be enjoyable

	AT2 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be worthwhile	AT2 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be worthwhile
	AT3 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be satisfying	AT3 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be satisfying
	AT4 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be rewarding	AT4 - The visit to a food tourism destination will be rewarding
Subjective norms (SN)	SN1 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have heard about from friends/ family	SN1 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have heard about from friends/ family
	SN2 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that is popular among friends/ family	SN2 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that is popular among friends/ family
	SN3 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that has been recommended by most people who are important to me	SN3 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that has been recommended by most people who are important to me
	SN4 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media	SN4 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media
Perceived behavioral control (BC)	BC1 - I have enough money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	BC1 - I have enough money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
	BC2 - I have enough time to take a holiday to a food tourism destination in the next two years	BC2 - I have enough time to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
	BC3 - Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want to	BC3 - Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want to
	FI1 - Shopping for produce is one of the most enjoyable things in my life	FI1 - Shopping for ingredients for cooking is one of the most enjoyable things in my life

Food involvement (FI)	FI2 - Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life	FI2 - Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life
	FI3 - I spend a great deal of my disposable income on dining out	FI3 - I spend a great deal of my disposable income on dining out
	FI4 - Food experiences prompt me to learn more about other cultures	FI4 - Food experiences prompt me to learn more about other cultures
	FI5 - People know me as a gourmet	FI5 - People know me as a gourmet
	FI6 - I often reminisce about food experiences with family and friends	FI6 - I often reminisce about food experiences with family and friends
Behavioral intention (BI)	BI1 - I intend to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	BI1 - I intend to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
	BI2 - I want to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	BI2 - I want to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
	BI3 - I will make an effort to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	BI3 - I will make an effort to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
	BI4 - I am willing to save money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	BI4 - I am willing to save money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years

Note: [a] *deleted item from the measurement instrument used for the main study*

[b] *number-changed items used for the main study*

4.8 Sampling design

4.8.1 Target population and sampling frame

The target population in survey research is defined by Malhotra (2007, p.406) as "the collection of elements or objects that possess the information sought by the researchers and about which inferences are to be made". It can be simply understood that the population is the people who the study aims to collect data from. Therefore, the target population for this study is all foodies, who are defined as "food lover" and "one who incorporates food, its preparation and enjoyment into their lifestyle" (Getz et al., 2014, p.51). However, it would be impossible and too expensive to collect data from the whole population for a single study (Sproull, 1995) and within the timeframe allowed for a doctoral study, thus it is necessary to choose a selected sampling frame.

Table 4.11 Target sample of the study

No.	Social network	Group	No. of members*
1	Linkedin	Foodies	29,858
2		World Gourmet Society	26,948
3		Foodies!!	17,727
4		Food & Drink Tourism	12,311
5		Wine & Culinary Tourism Worldwide	3,564
6	Facebook	Foodie Love	9,271
7		FOODIE	5,619
8		Fun for Foodies	5,282
9		Foodies Around The World	4,734
10		Foodies WorldWide	3,560

Note: * *Number of members: updated at the time of survey (20th July, 2016)*

Sampling frames are defined by Sekaran and Bougie (2010, p.267) as "a representative of all elements in the population from which the sample is drawn". The word 'sample' is considered a selected segment of the population which can generalize the conclusions for overall target population (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The sample for this study was chosen from the world's largest online social networks of foodies and food travel on Linkedin and Facebook. Each foodies' group is required to have 1,000 members at minimum. These groups are selected based on the description provided on the groups' homepage. They are mainly for their members to exchange dining experiences or food-related travel experiences

from around the world. Another condition for choosing target groups is that the language used to discuss is English. A list of the selected groups is contained in *Table 4.11.*

4.8.2 Sampling method

Sampling techniques are primarily classified into nonprobability and probability sampling. The major difference between these two sampling techniques is that while in probability sampling, sampling units in a population have a chance of being selected, nonprobability sampling significantly relies on the personal judgment of the researcher (Malhotra, 2007). For this reason, representative sampling and judgement sampling are termed probability and nonprobability sampling respectively. Probability sampling techniques include simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Convenience sampling, judgment sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling are commonly-used methods in nonprobability sampling

For the online survey, not all the possible foodies can be known. As such, a nonprobability sampling technique, particularly convenience sampling was employed in the study. In this way, all members of the prospective groups were invited to participate in this research. The survey was conducted from August 2016 to December 2016.

4.8.3 Sample size

"How large a sample is needed to produce trustworthy results" is always the critical question in any statistical model (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010, p.636). Moreover, the determination of sample size provides a foundation for the estimation of sampling error (Hair et al., 2010). The sample size can be different for various statistical requirements of researchers. In most surveys, sample sizes between 30 and 500 are appropriate for a statistical analysis to be undertaken (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Specifically, sample size can be determined according to the statistical method chosen by the researchers (Hsu, 2014). For example, Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006) recommended that a sample size should be at least five times larger than the number of variables for factor analysis. Hair et al. (2006) also suggested a sample size of between 200 and 400 as a standard sample size, however, a minimum of 150 observations may be required in factor analysis for scale development (Hensley, 1999). In light of these suggestions, since factor analysis was utilized at the first stage of data analysis to purify the potential underlying factors before the measurement model evaluation, the sample size was estimated based on the suggestion by

Hair et al. (2006) that was at least five times as many observations as the number of variables to be analyzed. Accordingly, as the number of variables used in the exploratory factor analysis was 48, sample size was recommended to be sufficient at a minimum 240 for the present study.

In addition, regarding the application of the structural equation modeling (SEM) approach in the study, Hair et al. (2010) suggested that the minimum sample sizes are between 100 and 500 based on model complexity and basic measurement model characteristics. However, for PLS-SEM, Hair et al. (2014, p19) stated that "the overall complexity of a structural model has little influence on the sample size requirements". Although, PLS-SEM has higher levels of statistical power compared to CB-SEM in cases of smaller sample sizes, some researchers suggested the ideas for calculating the proper sample size for PLS-SEM. First, Barclay, Higgins and Thompson (1995) recommended a "10 times rule" that is considered the often-cited rule to estimate sample size. Particularly, the sample size should be equal to either 10 times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure a single construct or 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a construct in the structural model (Hair, 2014, p. 20). Accordingly, in this study, 7 and 6 were the largest number of formative indicators and structural paths respectively. As a result, the minimum sample size was estimated to be 70 or 60 cases. Another argument of sample size by Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011) that like any statistical technique, sample size for PLS-SEM should be considered against the model background and characteristics of data. Specifically, Cohen (1992) offered a rule of thumb to determine sample size by means of power analyses based on the part of the model with the largest number of predictors. The maximum number of exogenous variables in the measurement and structural model in this study was 6, therefore it was necessary to have 103 observations at least to achieve a statistical power of 80% for detecting R^2 values of at least 0.25 (with 1% probability of error). This number was looked up in the exhibit of "sample size recommendation in PLS-SEM for a Statistical Power of 80%" (Hair et al., 2014, p.21).

In summary, from the above discussion, the sample size expected for the overall study was at least 240 to facilitate the process of data analysis. However, the effects of age, which was divided into group aged 18-35 and aged above 35, were investigated in this study. As the result, a sample size of a minimum 103 observations for each group is expected to achieve a

minimum R^2 value of 0.25 at the significant level of 1% in the case of having maximum six arrows pointing at a construct in the PLS-SEM model.

4.9 Survey administration

There are two main approaches to data collection. These are; interviewer - administered surveys or self - administered surveys (Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, & Singer, 2009). While in the former, questionnaires are filled out by the researcher based on the responses of participants, the latter requires participants to complete the questionnaires and then return them to the researcher (Ryu, Couper and Marans, 2005). There are various ways of administering a survey such as mobile surveys, online surveys, mail, face-to-face and mixed-mode surveys (Mellenbergh, 2008). Each way of collecting data includes both advantages and disadvantages. For examples, mobile survey and online surveys are much faster, simpler and cheaper than mail or face-to-face survey. However, more cases of refusing or terminating survey during the process can be observed in online-surveys than face-to-face surveys (Vehovar & Manfreda, 2008). Therefore, the choice of suitable mode of data collection depends on many factors such as costs, the availability of target population, the sample size requirements, the numbers and types of questions, and the willingness of participants (Fowler, 2002). In this study, a self-administered online survey was conducted for data collection. The link to the questionnaire was hosted at Opinio survey (http://opinio.online.swin.edu.au/s?s=17913). The questionnaire took only 15 minutes to complete and participation was voluntary. The surveys were 100% confidential and anonymous. The survey was carried out within five months from September 2016 to January 2017. During the first month, the link to the questionnaire attached to an invitation was uploaded on the homepages of target online groups of foodies listed in *Table 4.10.* A reminder invitation was uploaded every week in the second month. After that, in order to attract more participants into the survey, an invitation of connection was sent to each member in the groups. A link to the questionnaire was then directly sent to those who accepted the connection via instant messenger on Linkedin and Facebook. This work was carried out continuously during three months. Finally, at the end of the data collection period, there were totally 785 clicks on the survey link, but 510 surveys were completed. However, 352 surveys are valid for this study as the screening questions “Do you plan to travel in the future where food-related experiences are the primary reason for travel” were filled out by ‘Yes’. The

number of 352 valid cases were considered to meet the requirement of sample size as discussed above.

4.10 Ethics clearance

This student applied for ethical review of the "SHR Project 2016/132- Tourist's motivation and intentions to visit a food tourism destination" by a Subcommittee (SHESC3) of the Swinburne Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC). Ethics clearance was given for the project for the period from 01-07-2016 to 01-07-2018 (see *Appendix 5*). The procedure of research design was designed concerning the regulatory standards related to human research activity. The study strictly considered the privacy and confidentiality of all participants during data collection and report. In this research project, participation was completely voluntary. Participants could decide to not begin the survey or to stop participating at any time without any penalty. However, by completing the survey, they were giving permission for the investigator to use the information for research purposes.

4.11 Conclusion

The chapter provided a justification of choosing the research paradigm and research strategy in this study. The selection of the positivism paradigm and quantitative research approach was appropriate to investigate the travel motivation and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. A survey research design was presented with twelve steps. While the three first steps were discussed in previous chapters (*Chapter 1,2,3*), this chapter reported the method how to develop the research instrument. Accordingly, the measurement scales of each construct involved in the conceptual framework were created from previous literature review. The study also reported the results of examining the content validity and reliability of these scales through an expert panel review and pilot study. Data was successfully collected from a target sample of study that is online groups of foodies on Facebook and Linkedin. A total of 352 completed questionnaires were received that met the requirement of sample size (at least 103). With this data set, the next chapter discusses the process and methods of data analysis applied in this study.

CHAPTER 5
METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the procedure, methods and techniques applied to analyze the collected data. It first explains the reasons for the selection of partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) as the main data analysis approach in this study (*Section 5.2*). After that, a process of data analysis including seven stages is introduced in *Section 5.3*. In this section, the different techniques applied in each stage of analysis are discussed in detail. Particularly, the technique for data examination is presented in *Section 5.3.1*. The procedure of exploratory factor analysis is then explained in *Section 5.3.2*. The next sections provide guidelines for evaluation of first – order measurement models (*Section 5.3.3*) and second-order measurement models (*Section 5.3.4*). The evaluation of the structural model is explicitly described in *Section 5.3.5*. The last sections provide methods of mediator analysis (*Section 5.3.6*) and moderator analysis (*Section 5.3.7*). The *Section 5.4* summarizes the content presented in this chapter.

5.2 Justifications of data analysis technique

In this study, the extended theory of planned behavior model including five first-order constructs (FI, AT, SN, BC and BI), two second-order constructs (PUS and PUL), ten hypotheses of direct effects (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H9, and H10), four hypotheses of mediating effects (H11a, H11b, H11c, and H11d) and six hypotheses of moderating effects (H12a, H12b, H12c, H12d, H12e, and H12f) were proposed and examined. As it was a complex model, structural equation modeling was used for data analysis. SEM is known by many different names such as linear structural relationship model, covariance structure analysis or latent variable analysis that “has become the most prominent multivariate tool for testing behavioral theory” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 660). SEM was deemed as a suitable approach for several reasons.

First, seven constructs involved in the model of study are measured indirectly through multiple measuring items. Therefore, it is necessary to establish discriminant and convergent

validity of one's measurement instruments (called "the measurement model") before testing the proposed relationships among theoretical constructs (called "the structural model") (Gefen & Straub, 2005). Traditionally, researchers conduct the "two-step approach" that separates assessments for the theory and the measurement. This separation can cause "incorrect measurements, incorrect explanations and incorrect prediction" (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014, p.127). One of the problems of subsequent analysis of the theoretical framework is fixed-scale construction which is understood as the removal of information from the model (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003). SEM is therefore a solution to fix the problems of a two-step approach, by simultaneously testing the measurement model and the structural model (Gefen & Straub, 2005).

Second, the study proposed ten hypotheses representing correlations between causal and consequent constructs of a theoretical proposition that regression analysis could be applied as a dependence technique to test. However, a limitation of this technique is that it can examine only a single relationship between independent variables and a dependent variable at a time. In other words, each theoretical proposition must be tested separately from other propositions so that it is impossible to test chains of causal relationships (mediated relationships). As a result, SEM, which "maps paths to many dependent (theoretical or observed) variables in the same research model and analyses all the paths simultaneously rather than one at a time" (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000, p.10), is believed to be the best approach for examining all the dependence relationships among latent variables simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010). In this case, a set of relationships among seven variables, push factors, pull factors, food involvement, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, was established from the existing theory of planned behavior and examined. As a result, SEM is the best technique to examine all these relationships.

Third, the review study of 209 articles published in nine tourism journals over a decade from 2000 to 2011 by Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, and Gursoy (2013) stated that SEM has been increasingly adopted in tourist studies in order to test various types of theoretical models. For many causal behavioral theories including mediators and moderators, SEM was believed to better test them (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). In this study, SEM was applied to examine the moderating effect of travel experience on the causal relationships associated with tourists' intentions to visit a food tourism destination.

To summarize, SEM is a comprehensive technique which is considered the best choice to address all the research question of the current study. However, there are two forms of SEM, namely covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and least squares-based SEM (PLS-SEM). While the former is "covariance based and represents constructs through factors", the latter is "least squares based or component based and represents constructs through components" (Lowry and Gaskin, 2014, p.130). Each method is suitable for a different perspective of research as well as has its own strengths and weaknesses. As a result, it is a requirement for researchers to understand the discrepancies and then appropriately choose whether to use PLS or CB-SEM. In this study, the following reasons are applicable to the selection of PLS-SEM.

The most important reason is that the goal of PLS-SEM is suitable for the study. In particular, while CB-SEM should be applied to assess how well- established theories fits reality, PLS is used "for exploratory analysis and for testing developmental theories" (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982, p. 451). It is not necessary for the theory being tested in PLS to have sufficient empirical support from previous research (Gefen et al., 2000). In this study, the proposed theoretical model of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination was developed based on the existing TPB. Three new constructs, namely push factors, pull factors and food involvement were added to form an extended TPB model. As a result, PLS-SEM lends itself well for the purpose of theory development in the study

The second reason is that both reflective and formative indicators can be involved in PLS-SEM. Hair et al. (2014, p. 71) defined reflective indicators as observed variables that "represent the effects (or manifestations) of an underlying construct". By contrast, formative indicators are assumed to cause a latent construct (Hair, 2014). For a theoretical model with a mix of reflective and formative indicators, PLS is much better than CB-SEM as all indicators are treated to be reflective in CB-SEM. This can lead to serious modeling errors (Chin, 1998). In the theoretical model of this study, beside reflective measured constructs, two constructs, push factors and pull factors were formed as formative measured constructs. As a result, the appropriate statistical technique applied to account for both indicators should be PLS-SEM in this study.

The last reason of using PLS-SEM is the complexity of the proposed model in this study. In fact, the proposed model involves two second-order constructs, push factors (PUS) and pull factors (PUL). Each construct contains three first-order constructs. With many constructs and many indicators, CB-SEM is not as well equipped to handle as PLS-SEM (Lowry &

Gaskin, 2014). In fact, CB-SEM requires a large sample size to prevent model nonconvergence or model failure while PLS has the ability to handle a lower sample size (Marcoulides & Sauders, 2006). Basically, with a data set of over 250 (335 cases), PLS and CB-SEM have similar results (Hair et al., 2014). However, PLS-SEM is chosen because it has higher levels of statistical power in the case of a complex structural model as compared with its covariance based counterpart (Hair et al., 2014).

From the above discussion, in this study, PLS-SEM was applied that aims to best suit the research objectives and complex model setup. Among several software packages developed for PLS-SEM, SmartPLS 3.0 was used to conduct the PLS-SEM analyses in this study.

5.3 Guidelines for data analysis

A systematic procedure for data analysis was adapted from Hair et al. (2014), including seven steps as shown in *Figure 5.1*. The data, after being collected, was coded and input into IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 23.0 and Smart PLS 3.0 for statistical processing. Each step of data analysis is discussed in the following sections.

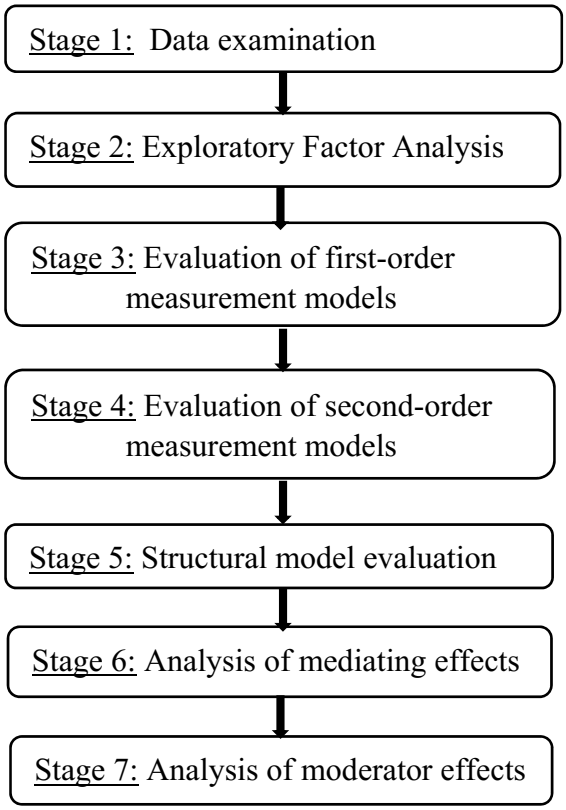


Figure 5.1 Procedure of data analysis

5.3.1 Data examination

The stage of data examination plays an important role in the application of PLS - SEM. After the data are collected, a set of important issues need to be resolved such as evaluation of missing data, examination of straight lining, identification of outliers, assumptions of data distribution. The consideration and resolution of these issues are fundamental to an honest analysis of the data.

Evaluation of missing data

Missing data refers to a situation when values on variables are not available for analysis (Hair et al., 2010). The analysis of a data set with missing observations is complicated. These missing values may result from errors in data collection and data entry, or from an omission or a refusal of the respondents to answer. Missing data may also be a reflection of bias issues, if certain patterns within the missing data are identified. Errors in the stage of data collection and data entry or refusal of answers by respondents may lead to missing data (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, in the current study, it was important to make every effort to minimize missing data at these first stages. In particular, an online Opinio survey platform was used to collect data. Each question in the survey was set as a required question that was marked by an asterisk (*). If respondents did not answer a required question, they would not be able to advance to the next page until they answer the question within the requirements. As a result, all the questions must be filled in before submitting. The collected data was then exported to some different files such as SPSS, Excel or .TXT file. No missing value was recorded for the data set of 352 cases in this study.

Examination of straight lining

Straight lining should also be examined before data analysis. It means “when a respondent marks the same response for a high proportion of the questions” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 52). For example, there are some respondents choosing one score for all questions where a 7-point scale is used. In order to identify such cases, the standard deviation of all scores given by each case was calculated. If this value equals zero, the corresponding case will be deleted from the data set (Field, 2013).

Identification of outliers

Values which have differences in data are considered as outliers (Kline, 2016). There are two forms of outlier which are univariate and multivariate outlier. While a univariate outlier is a case with an extreme value on one variable, a multivariate outlier has extreme scores on two or more variables (Kline, 2016; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). On the one hand, in order to detect outliers in an individual variable, observable items were grouped into their corresponding single variable. After that, by using the descriptive statistics function in SPSS, the values of each observation were converted to standardized scores (z-scores) which were then examined based on the rules of thumb suggested by Hair et al. (2006). Accordingly, outliers are defined as cases with z-scores of ± 2.5 or beyond for small samples (80 or fewer observations). For larger sample sizes, the z-scores value can be up to 4 and specifically ± 3 or beyond in this study (Hair et al., 2006).

On the other hand, multivariate outliers can be detected by a box plots visual approach and the Mahalanobis d-square (D^2). A boxplot is a useful way to display data with the median being at the centre of the plot. In a box, the top and bottom are limits within which the middle of 50% of observations fall. That is called the interquartile range (IQR). In this study, any case over the upper quartile plus 3 times standard deviations or below the lower quartile minus 3 times standard deviations is labelled an outlier. In addition, multivariate outliers can be detected by using Mahalanobis d-square (D^2), which measures the distance of each observation in standard deviation units between a set of scores for an individual case and the sample means for all variables (Kline, 2016). Mahalanobis distance is a measure of multivariate distance that "can be evaluated for each case using chi-square $\chi 2$ distribution" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013, p.74). For calculation, the Mahalanobis D^2 is achieved by using the linear regression method in SPSS 23.0. After that, a function of SPSS 23.0, that is "1 - CDF.CHISQ(quant,df)" (quant = D^2 and df = 3), is computed to obtain t-value of significance. In this study, a conservative statistical test of significance $p < 0.001$ was used "as the threshold value for designation as an outlier" (Hair et al., 2006, p.75). In a different way, observations having D^2/df value greater than 3 could be designated as possible outliers. However, in the situation of many observations designated as outliers, researchers need to deliberately consider which cases should be retained or eliminated based on different elements such as outliers' characteristics and analyses' objectives.

Normality of data

PLS-SEM is a nonparametric statistical method that is different from CB-SEM. While most statistical tests and estimation techniques used in CB-SEM assume "each variable and all linear combinations of the variables are normally distributed" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013, p. 78), PLS-SEM does not require normal data distribution (Hair et al., 2014). However, it is important to verify how far the data are from normal because "extremely non-normal data prove problematic in the assessment of the parameters' significances" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 54).

Normality of variables is assessed by two components such as skewness and kurtosis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In particular, indices of univariate skewness and univariate kurtosis are commonly reviewed. Skewness means that the distribution of data stretches toward the right or left direction. Therefore, if the number is greater than +1 or lower than -1, the data distribution is substantially skewed. Regarding kurtoris, Field (2013) suggested an indication of whether the distribution of responses is too peaked (greater than +1) or too flat (less than -1). Data is likely to be normally distributed when the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis are close to zero. By contrast, Kline (2016) recommends that 3 and 8 are maximum for the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis, respectively to achieve a normality assumption. Hair et al. (2006) proposed the critical values of skewness and kurtosis that are ± 2.58 (0.01 significance level) ± 1.96 (0.05 significance level). In this study, multivariate normality was assumed not to be violated when all the variables were in the normal range of skewness and kurtosis from -2.58 to +2.58 as suggestion by Hair et al. (2006).

5.3.2 Exploratory factor analysis

In this study, the purpose of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was to define the structure of potential underlying latent variables and reduce a data set of variables to a smaller and manageable size. EFA is such a complex procedure that researchers need to consider for the most efficient selection of options, particularly practices for factor extraction and factor rotation (Costello & Osborne, 2005). First, factor extraction is "the process of deciding how many factors to keep" (Field, 2013, p.677). There are various methods of factor extraction including principal component analysis, principle factors, maximum likelihood factoring, image factoring, alpha factoring and unweighted and generalized weighted least squares

factoring (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Out of them, the principal axis factoring method was chosen initial solution for the EFA in this study as it was recommended as a method of extraction to identify the latent variables in behavioral research (Iacobucci, 2001). Accordingly, the output of factor extraction process provides the eigenvalues associated with each factor that indicate the substantive importance of factors. Therefore, it is logical that the criterion of retaining factors is their large eigenvalues. Kaiser (1960) suggested to keep all factor with eigenvalues greater than 1. However, Jolliffe (1972, 1986) claimed that Kaiser's criterion was too strict and suggested another criterion with eigenvalue being 0.7 at least. In this study, the decision of eigenvalues criterion suggested Kaiser (1960) or Jolliffe (1972) depends on the number of extracted factors associated with each criterion. It is expected that the number of factors extracted meets the required numbers of factors proposed in the theoretical model. Once factors have been extracted, the factor rotation technique is utilized to discriminate between factors. In SPSS, there are "three methods of orthogonal rotation (varimax, quartimax and equamax) and two methods of oblique rotation (direct oblimin and promax)" (Field, 2013, p.681). In this study, varimax rotation method developed by Kaiser (1960) was chosen for the EFA procedure as it was the most common method to identify major factors and easier to interpret (Hair et al., 2006, Field, 2009).

In EFA, after determining how many factors should be extracted by the eigenvalues, it is necessary to re-estimate the communalities of the factors that represent the proportion of common variance. Field (2013, p.677) stated that "if the values are 1 then all common variance is accounted for, and if the values are 0 then no common variance is accounted for". For a sample size of over 250 (325 cases), the criterion of communality applied in this study is greater than 0.7 recommended by Kaiser (1974). Next, it is suggested to examine a Kaiser – Meyer – Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity. Accordingly, A KMO value with a minimum of 0.5 shows that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974). The p value of the Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant ($p<0.001$), indicating no problems with the variables' structure (Field, 2013).

Other additional criteria to evaluate the adequacy of extracted components are factor loadings and item-total correlation. Field (2009) suggested to retain items with factor loading values of 0.4 and above. Items should be deleted to avoid cross loadings if they loaded on more than one factor (Hair et al., 2010). The corrected item – total correlation value of 0.30 is considered the minimum requirement of threshold value for correlations between each

item and the total score from the questionnaire (Field, 2013). Finally, it is important to conduct reliability analysis on each identified factor by computing a Cronbach's alpha value. A value of 0.7 to 0.8 is considered an acceptable value for Cronbach's α (Kline, 2005). However, when dealing with psychological constructs, a Cronbach's α value of below 0.7 can be understandable because of the diversity of measured constructs (Kline, 2005). The values of Cronbach's alpha if the item was deleted were also checked to consider if the deletion of an item could improve the overall reliability value of its associated construct (Field, 2013).

5.3.3 Evaluation of first-order measurement model

There are two types of measurement models called "reflective" and "formative". The discrepancy between these two types of models is based on the relationship between a construct and its corresponding indicators. The measurement model is called "reflective" when the direction of the arrows goes from the construct to the indicators. In contrast, the direction of the arrows is from the measured indicator variables to the constructs, the measurement model is labelled "formative" (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, all the first-order constructs were hypothesized as reflective constructs, therefore their evaluation was based on the procedure of reflective measurement model.

The assessment of a reflective measurement model is based on internal consistency reliability and validity. While reliability indicates the consistency and stability of a measurement scale over time (Straub, 1989), validity refers to the degree to which a set of measures can correctly represent the construct which is conceptualized in the study (Hair et al., 2010) . Three criteria need to be assessed in the reflective measurement models, including internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014).

Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is the first criterion being evaluated in the reflective measurement models. Traditionally, Cronbach's alpha is used to provide an estimate of the reliability based on the inter-correlations of indicators in the scale. However, the limitation of coefficient alpha is that it is "sensitive to the number of items in the scale and generally tends to underestimate the internal consistency reliability" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 101). Therefore, in the PLS-SEM approach, the composite reliability, which is similarly

interpreted as Cronbach's alpha, is used as a means to measure internal consistency. The values of composite reliability range between 0 and 1, with higher values meaning higher reliability of the measure. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) reported that satisfactory composite reliability is between 0.70 and 0.90 but the values of 0.60 to 0.70 can be accepted in exploratory research. By contrast, the values below 0.60 or higher 0.90 are not desirable as they indicate a lack of internal consistency reliability or invalid measurement of the construct, respectively.

Convergent validity

Convergent validity refers to "the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternatively measures of the same construct" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 121). Two criteria are used to assess convergent validity including the outer loadings, the average variance extracted (AVE)

The first criterion is the outer loadings of the indicators which is commonly called indicator reliability. It is a requirement that all indicators' outer loadings should be statistically significant. A standard for the outer loadings should be greater than 0.7 (Hulland, 1999). Indicators with very low outer loadings (below 0.4) should certainly be deleted from the scale (Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2011). However, careful consideration should be given to indicators with outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70. The decision of whether an indicator should be deleted depends on whether the removal of the indicator increases the measures of composite reliability and AVE. In the situation of the removal of indicator, the measurement model is rerun.

The second common criterion to establish convergent validity is the average variance extracted, which is equivalent to the communality of a variable. It is used as a measure of common variance in a construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As a common rule of thumb, the AVE value is at least 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014) indicating that a latent variable explains more than half of its indicators' variance. AVE was assessed for each reflectively measured construct in the proposed model.

Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity refers to "the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 104). Two methods of evaluating

discriminant validity are to examine the cross loadings of the indicators and to compare the square root of the AVE values with construct's correlations. Particularly, in the first method, it is requirement for the outer loading of an indicator on the associated construct to be higher than all of its cross loadings with other constructs (Hair et al., 2014). In addition, the second method is based on the idea that a construct shares more covariance with its associated indicators with any other construct. The Fornell-Larcker criterion used in this second assessment that the square root of AVE of each latent variable should be greater than its highest correlation with any other variable.

Table 5.1 Rules of thumb for the assessment of reflective measurement models

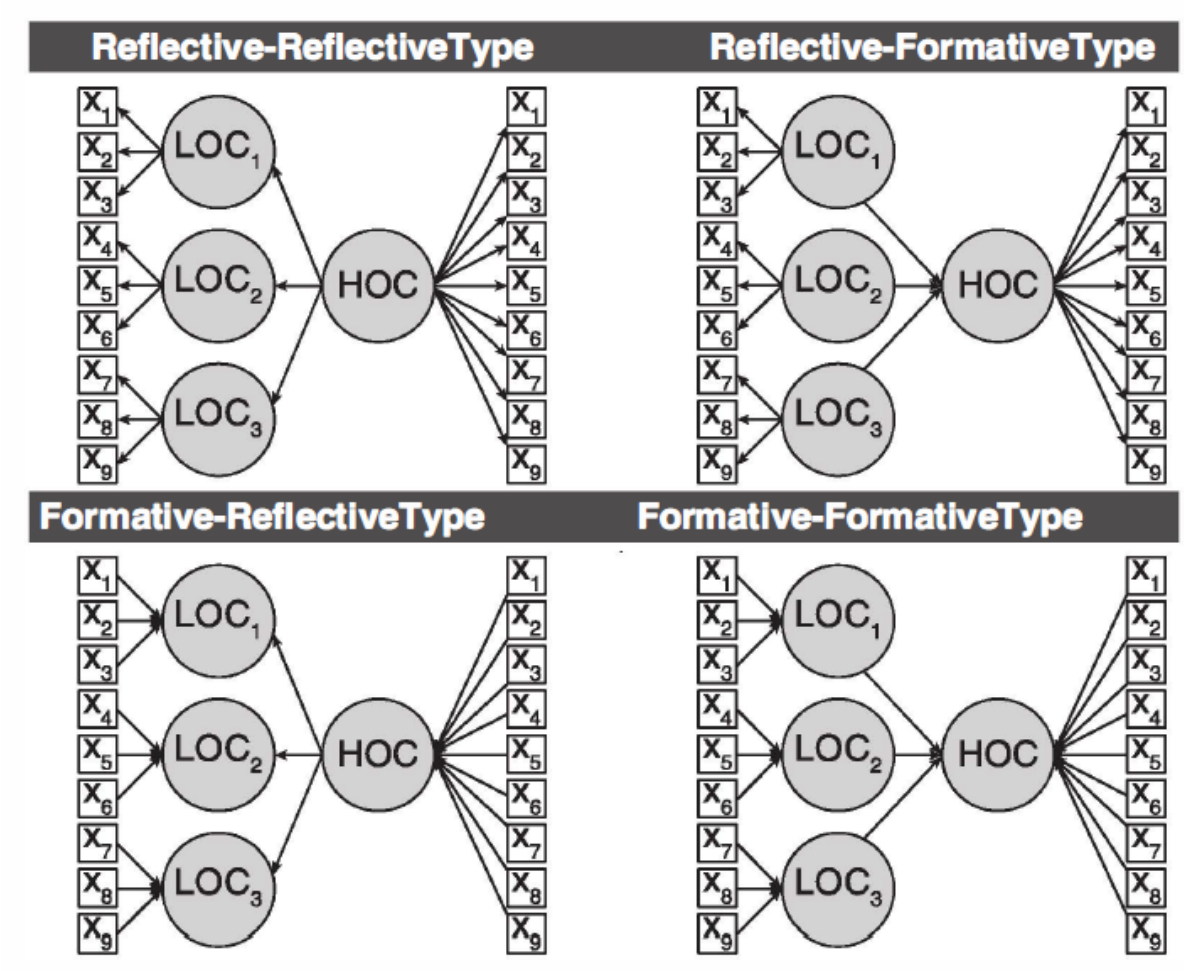
Internal consistency reliability (ICR)	> 0.70 (Hair et al., 2014)
Indicator's outer loadings	> 0.70 (Hulland, 1999)
	> all cross loadings with other constructs
Average variance extracted (AVE)	> 0.50 (Hair et al., 2014)
Square root of AVE	> highest correlation with any other construct (Hair et al., 2014)

In summary, in PLS-SEM, the criteria listed in *Table 5.1* are used to assess the reliability and validity of the reflective measurement models. As a result, in this study, the evaluation of first-order constructs is also based on the below criteria.

5.3.4 Evaluation of second – order measurement model

The second-order measurement model is often the common type of higher – order model or hierarchical component model (HCM). As discussed in the extant literature, there are four main types of HCMs, namely reflective-reflective type, reflective-formative type, formative-reflective type and formative-formative type (Jarvis, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003; Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder & Van Oppen, 2009; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012) (see *Figure 5.2*). These types of models include two elements that are a higher – order component (HOC) and lower – order components (LOCs). The relationships between indicators and LOCs as well as the relationship between LOCs and HOC are determinant for the type of higher – order model. For example, the reflective – formative type of HCM means that each LOC is measured by reflective indicators whereas the relationship between HOC and LOCs is formative.

In order to estimate the higher – order measurement model, there have been two approaches named the repeated indicators approach and two-step approach. First, the repeated indicators approach was proposed by Lohmoller (1989), who suggested that all the manifest variables of the lower – order constructs were linked to a higher – order latent variable. Hair et al. (2014) claimed that it was not difficult to apply this approach, however it was important to pay attention to two conditions: (1) the number of indicators of the LOCs should be equal and (2) the criteria applied for the higher – order construct should be the same as for any other construct in the PLS path model. The repeated indicators approach is more suitable for the type of model where the relationship between LOCs and HOC is reflective. In the case of the formative relationship of LOCs and HOC, the repeated indicators approach supposed that "almost all of the HOC variance is explained by its LOCs ($R^2 \approx 1$)" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 233), thus the path relationship between the HOC and its predecessors is always insignificant. As a result, for formative – formative or reflective – formative higher – order models, the two – stage approach is more appropriate (Ringle et al., 2012). The first stage was to obtain the scores of the lower – order constructs which then used them as indicators for measuring the high – order construct in the second stage. The latent variables could be considered the predecessors of HOC to explain its variance, which may lead to significant path relationships. In summary, due to the differences between approaches, it is important to decide whether the repeated indicators approach or two – stage approach is more suitable to estimate each type of the hierarchical latent variable model (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012).



Note: LOC_2 = lower – order component; HOC = higher – order component

Figure 5.2 Types of hierarchical component models

Source: Hair et al. (2014, p.231)

In this study, push factors and pull factors were proposed as reflective –formative second-order constructs. Therefore, the two – stage approach was applied to evaluate these constructs. Becker et al. (2012) recommended that the standards for reporting the evaluation results of reflective-formative constructs should be the same with the guidelines for formative constructs that are now discussed as below.

In the review study of PLS-SEM in the field of marketing by Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Mena (2012), many previous researchers commonly made a mistake of using criteria of reflective measurement model evaluation to assess formative measurement models. The examination of internal consistency reliability, convergent validity as well as discriminant validity are not appropriate and meaningful because formative indicators are assumed to be error free (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). Instead, it is needed to take consideration into the content validity before the formatively measured constructs are assessed. A construct

ensures content validity when all its facets are fully explained by the formative indicators. In this study, in order to establish the formatively measured tourism motivation constructs, the comprehensive literature review and assessment of academic experts in the area of tourism hospitality was helpful to properly set the domains of the construct (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001).

The empirical evaluation of the formative measurement models includes two steps. The purpose of the first step is to examine whether a specific indicator fit into the corresponding construct or not. Then, the question whether an indicator relatively and absolutely contributes to form the formative construct is tested in the second step. Each step is now presented below.

The first step involves the assessment of convergent validity of formative measurement models to ensure that the selected indicators cover all relevant aspects of formative construct. In this study, a multitrait multimethod (MTMM) analysis approach developed by Loch, Straub and Kamel (2003) was employed to validate formative measures. Accordingly, SmartPLS 3.0 was utilized to create a weighted score for each measured indicator and a composite score for each formative construct was then computed. With all these values, a matrix of inter – item correlations and inter – to – construct correlations were created by bivariate correlations technique in IBM-SPSS statistics. The reason for this matrix could be explained that individual measures should correlate not only with each other but also with their construct value at a significant level (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Loch et al., 2003). This can be a persuasive explanation for convergent validity of the formative instrument (Loch et al., 2003).

The second step is to assess the significance and relevance of the formative indicators. An important criterion of this step is the significance of the outer weight, which is the outcome of multiple regression of formative indicators and the latent variable in the role of independent variables and dependent variable, respectively (Hair et al., 2010). The outer weight values can firstly be compared with each other to determine the relative contribution of each indicator to the latent variable. Then, the absolute contribution is assessed by the outer loading of formative indicator. Both outer weights (relative importance) and outer loadings (absolute importance) of formative indicators could be examined by means of a bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 samples as recommended by Hair et al.(2014). The empirical t-value is achieved after running the bootstrap routine. If this t-value is greater than

the critical t-value 1,65, 1.96, or 2,57 at the significance level of 0.1, 0.05 or 0.01, respectively, the weight is significantly different from zero (Hair et al., 2014). As a result, the formative indicator would be definitely retained. By contrast, if the weight of the formative indicator is not significant, the question whether the indicator is retained or not depends on its corresponding item loading. Accordingly, the indicator should be retained if the loading value is higher than 0.50 disregarding the outer weight value. However, if both outer weight and outer loading are insignificant, the indicators should be omitted from the model as there is no empirical support to retain them (Hair et al., 2014).

5.3.5 Evaluation of structural model

After the assessment of first – order and second - order measurement models, the next stage is to determine how well empirical data support the proposed theory or concept of the path model. This involves the examination of predictive capabilities of the proposed model as well as relationships between the constructs involved in the model (Hair et al., 2014). A five-step procedure is applied to assess the structural model as shown in *Figure 5.3*.

It could be understood that the estimation of path coefficients in the structural model is based on regressions of each endogenous variable and its corresponding exogenous constructs. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the structural model for collinearity as the high levels of collinearity among predictor constructs might cause an inaccurate estimation of path coefficients (Manson & Perreault, 1991). The collinearity can be evaluated though the calculation of a variance inflation factor (VIF) for each of the latent variable (Hair et al., 2010). As the guideline suggested by Petter, Straub, and Rai (2007), the VIF of a predictor variable is greater than the threshold value of 3.3, indicating the existence of collinearity. The levels of collinearity should be examined for each set of predictor constructs associated with an endogenous variable of the structural model separately. In this study, push factors (PUS), pull factors (PUL), food involvement (FI) and subjective norms were proposed as predictors of attitude (AT). In addition, behavioral intention (BI) was hypothesized to be predicted by push factors, pull factors, food involvement, attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (BC). As a result, it is necessary to examine collinearity for two sets of predictor variables including set 1 (PUS, PUL, FI and SN) and set 2 (PUS, PUL, FI, AT, SN, BC)

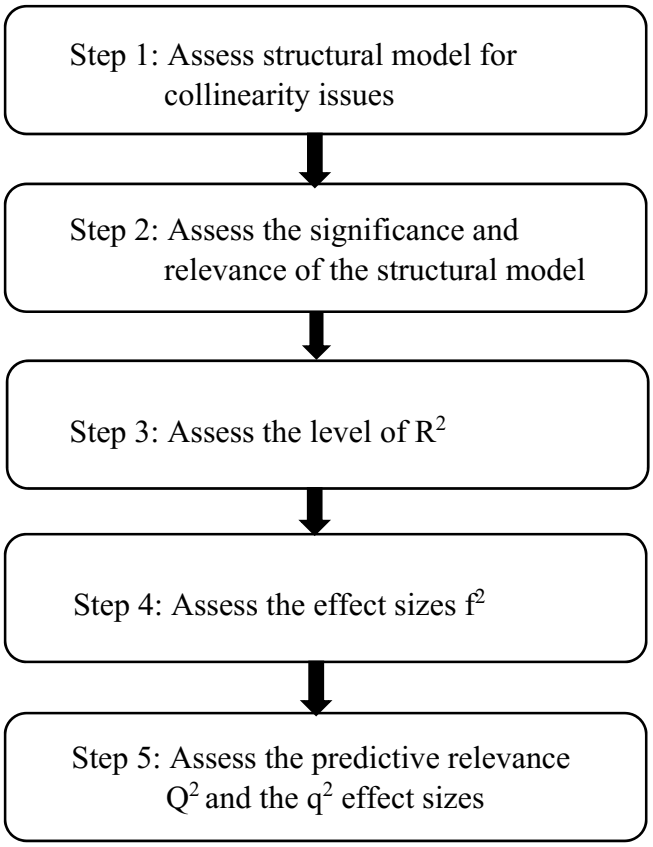


Figure 5.3 The procedure of structural model evaluation

Source: Hair et al., (2014, p. 169)

The second stage is to assess the significance of the structural model relationships which represent the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. The path coefficients are examined with values between -1 and +1 with values closing to +1 indicating strong positive relationships and vice versa for the negative values. The relationships are weaker if the path coefficients are closer to 0. Means of bootstrapping is utilized to assess the path coefficients. The number of recommended bootstrap samples is generally 5,000, higher than the number of valid observations in the original sample (Hair et al., 2014). The bootstrap standard errors allows to determine the empirical t-value. If the empirical t-value is greater than the critical t-value, the path coefficient is considered significantly different from 0 at a selected significant level (α). Hair et al. (2014, p. 138) suggested that "popular critical (theoretical) t values for a two-tailed test are 1.65 (α=0.10), 1,96 (α= 0.05), or 2.57 (α=0.01)". In this study, critical t-value is used with significant level of 10%. After the examination of significance of structural model relationships, the relevance of significant relationships should be assessed because it is crucial for results analysis and conclusion. Simply, if one path

coefficient is greater than another, it can be concluded that its effect on the endogenous latent variable is larger.

The next primary criterion for the structural model evaluation is the coefficient of determination (R^2 value), which is "a measure of the model's predictive accuracy" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 174). This coefficient represents the amount of explained variance of each endogenous latent variable. Due to the complexity of each model, it is impossible to formulate a rule of thumb for an acceptable R^2 as recommended by Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009). In particular, the R^2 value is 0.67, 0.33, 0.19 reporting a substantial, moderate or weak level of predictive accuracy, respectively (Chin, 1998). However, the higher value of R^2 indicates the higher levels of predictive accuracy.

In addition to evaluating the R^2 value, the next measure is the f^2 effect size. It examines whether there is a substantive influence on the endogenous variable in the structural model in case of a selected exogenous variable being omitted. Hair et al. (2014, p.177) suggested an equation to calculate f^2 value as follows

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$$

$R^2_{included}$ – the R^2 value of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included in the model

$R^2_{excluded}$ - the R^2 value of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is excluded from the model

Cohen (1988) provides a guideline for f^2 effect size assessment. Particularly, the value of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 respectively indicate small, medium and large effects of the exogenous construct on an endogenous construct.

The last evaluation of the structural model is the model's predictive relevance, which is tested by Stone-Geiser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1974). Chin (1998, p.318) pointed to Q^2 as "a measure of how well – observed values are reconstructed by the model and its parameter estimates". Q^2 obtained by the blindfolding procedure in SmartPLS shows a predictive relevance for an endogenous construct at value above zero. By contrast, the values of 0 and below are indicative of a lack of predictive relevance. Finally, like f^2 effect size assessment

as mentioned above, the impact of a model's predictive relevance is examined by the q^2 effect size, which is calculated as follows

$$q^2 = \frac{Q^2_{included} - Q^2_{excluded}}{1 - Q^2_{included}}$$

$Q^2_{included}$ – the Q^2 value of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included in the model

$Q^2_{excluded}$ - the Q^2 value of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is excluded from the model

The value of q^2 at 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 respectively implies the small, medium and large effect level of predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2014).

5.3.6 Mediator analysis

A mediator, which is a construct between the independent and dependent construct in the causal chain, has the effect on the direct relationship between these constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The illustrative *Figure 5.4* presents the theoretically established path relationships of exogenous variable *(Y_1)*, mediator *(Y_2)* and endogenous variable *(Y_3)*. Accordingly, the indirect relationship via the *Y_2 mediator (i.e., p_{12}* x *p_{23})* influence the direct relationship between *Y_1* and *Y_3* (*p_{13}*).

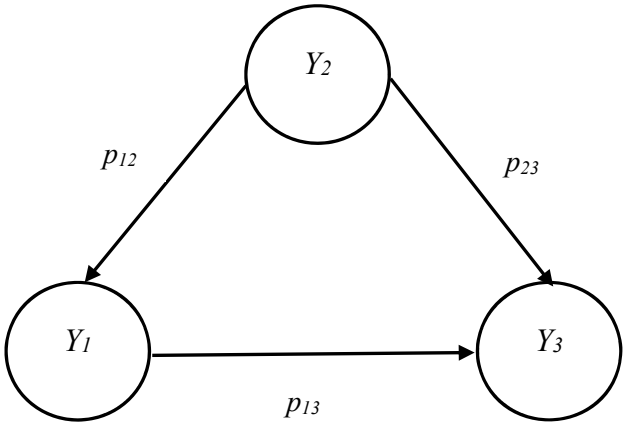


Figure 5.4 General mediator model

Source: Hair et al., (2014, p.220)

Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010) classified three types of mediations and two types of non-mediations as following

- Complementary mediation: Both indirect relationship (p_{12} x p_{23}) and direct relationship (p_{13}) are significant and have the same direction
- Competitive mediation: Both indirect relationship (p_{12} x p_{23}) and direct relationship (p_{13}) are significant, but have the opposite direction
- Indirect – only mediation: Only indirect relationship (p_{12} x p_{23}) is significant while direct relationship (p_{13}) is insignificant
- Direct – only non-mediation: Only direct relationship (p_{13}) is significant, but indirect relationship (p_{12} x p_{23}) is insignificant
- No – effect non-mediation: Neither indirect relationship (p_{12} x p_{23}) nor direct relationship (p_{13}) significant

Two common approaches to test mediation effects are Sobel z-test recommended by Baron and David (1986) and bootstrapping test suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2004). Between these, bootstrapping is the increasingly commonly-used method (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) because it is user-friendly (Zhao et al., 2010). Particularly, bootstrapping aims at increasing the level of statistical power compared to the Sobel's test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). In addition, bootstrapping is a non-parametric method that is most suitable for PLS-SEM as it makes no assumptions about data distribution and can be applied to small sample sizes (Hair et al., 2014). Bootstrap test of the indirect effect p_{12} x p_{23} was therefore chosen in this study, following a procedure suggested by Zhao et al. (2010).

At the beginning, the bootstrapping procedure with 335 cases and 5,000 samples was carried out to evaluate the significance of indirect effect p_{12} x p_{23}. If the indirect effect is insignificant, it can be concluded that there is no mediating effects in the model. In contrast, if there is a significant indirect effect p_{12} x p_{23}, the next step is to classify the type of mediation by estimating the coefficients $p_{12,}$ $p_{23,}$ and $p_{13.}$ The mediation can be classified into partial or full mediation as recommended by Hair et al. (2010). Accordingly, the strength of relation between Y_1 and Y_3 was compared in the model which excludes the moderator. If the path coefficient of direct relationship between Y_1 and Y_3 is reduced, but still significant in the model without the mediator, it could be presumed as partial mediation. However, the full mediation is the case in which the direct effect of Y_1 on Y_3 is no longer significant after the moderator is eliminated. In this study, the mediation test was conducted on the causal relationships between four constructs (push factors, pull factors, food involvement, and subjective norms) and behavioral intention.

5.3.7 Moderator analysis

The study proposes to examine the moderating effects of age on direct paths linked to behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination. For this test, it is needed to apply the PLS-SEM multi-group analysis (PLS-MGA) approach, which is a set of different techniques to compare PLS model estimates across groups of data. PLS-MGA is utilized not only to assess the differences of path coefficients in the structural model but also compare loadings and weights (Hair et al., 2014). According to Kummer (2014), there are several approaches to conduct PLS-MGA, namely the parametric approach, the Smith-Satterthwaite test, the permutation-based approach and the non-parametric approach. In this study, due to the fact that the sample sizes of two groups of age , 35 and under (178) and above 35 (157) were fairly similar, the permutation-based PLS-MGA was executed to test the moderating effect of age. The procedure of this approach involves three steps as described in *Figure 5.5*

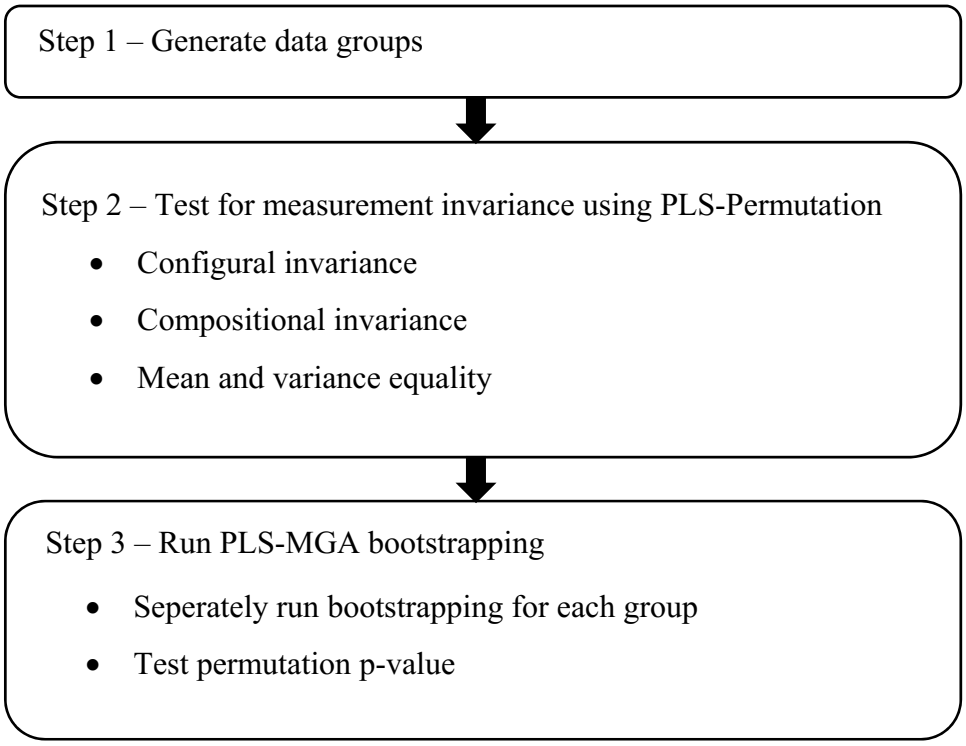


Figure 5.5 The procedure of moderator analysis

Source: Matthews (2017, p. 222)

Step 1 was to generate data groups based on the categorical variable of age. In this study, two groups were generated including group aged 35 and under and above 35. It is important to confirm that the sample size of each subgroup is large enough to meet statistical power guidelines. Accordingly, Hair et al. (2014) recommended the minimum sample size for each

subgroup was at least 103 to achieve a minimum R^2 value of 0.25 at the significant level of 1% in the case of having maximum six arrows pointing at a construct in the model.

Step 2 was to test the measurement invariance which is defined as a means to determine "whether or not, under different condition of observing and studying phenomena, measurement models yield measures of the same attribute" (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015, p.117). The study applied the measurement invariance of composite models (MICOM) procedure including three steps to check the measurement invariance (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). These steps involve test for (1) configural invariance, (2) compositional invariance, and (3) equality of composite mean values and variances. The first step of MICOM procedure is to evaluate measurement models for each group to determine the factor structure is similar across different groups. After that, by running permutation set at 5,000 samples at the two-tailed default in SmartPLS 3.0, the second and third step of MICOM are evaluation. Accordingly, the measurement invariance is not established if the original correlation is below the 5% quantile. Construct's equality of means and variances are then compared within the 95% confidence interval. Full invariance can be concluded if both the mean and variance original difference falls within the 95% confidence interval. Partial invariance is accounted if only one of these two values (mean and variance) falls in the range. No invariance is the case in which neither mean nor variance falls within the 95% confidence interval, then the construct should be deleted for the analysis (Matthews, 2017).

Step 3 was to examine the significant difference of path coefficients among observed groups. The bootstrapping was first run for each group separately to determine if there were the significance of path coefficients in each group. Then permutation p-value was examined, with the p-value below 0.1 indicating the significant difference of path coefficients between two groups

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter discusses justifications of applying PLS – SEM for data analysis to answer the research questions in this study. Accordingly, IBM SPSS 23.0 were used for the analysis techniques such as descriptive statistics analysis and EFA. Techniques for PLS – SEM were dealt with using the SmartPLS 3.0 software package. A procedure including seven steps provided detailed guidelines for analyzing and reporting data. Based on these seven steps, the research results and finds are presented in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER 6
RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 reports the results and findings from the step-by-step methods of data analysis that were presented in Chapter 5. After an introductory section, the chapter begins with the results of data screening (*Section 6.2*), followed by profiles of respondents (*Section 6.3*). Exploratory factor analysis aiming to purify the measurement scales is then presented in *Section 6.4*. The evaluation of first-order measurement models is reported in *Section 6.5,* followed by the evaluation of second-order measurement models (see *Section 6.6*). After these steps, the results of structural model evaluation are described with five detailed steps including collinearity assessment, structural model path coefficients, coefficient of determination, effect size f^2, predictive relevance Q^2 and q^2 effect sizes (*Section 6.7*). The analysis of mediating and moderating effects are presented in the next sections (*Section 6.8* and *Section 6.9*). In addition, this chapter also presents additional findings of other analyses, t-tests and ANOVA (*Section 6.10*). The last section provides a summary of results of all these analyses (*Section 6.11*).

The details of analysis techniques for each section of results and findings in this chapter were discussed in Chapter 5. However, in order to facilitate a grasp of analysis, *Table 6.1* briefly describe the analysis methods and their corresponding rules of thumb which were used as guidelines for the next discussion.

Table 6.1 An overview of data analysis techniques

Analysis method	Purpose	Analysis technique	Rules of thumb	References
DATA SCREENING				
Missing data & unengaged responses	- To examine missing data	Frequencies analysis	Missing = 0	Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007)
	- To examine unengaged ressponses	Standard deviation (STDEV.P) of scores of each case	STDEV.P >0	Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007)
Univariate outliers	- To identify a case of extreme value on single variable	Standardized score (z-scores)	-3.0 < value < +0.3	Hair et al (2006)
Multivariate outliers	- To identify case of odd combination of extreme values in two or more than two variables	Mahalanobis D^2	$D^2/df > 3$ or $p < 0.001$	Hair at al. (2006) Tabachnick and Fidell (2007)
		Box Plot	IQR > + 3.0	Hair et al. (2006)
Normality	- To examine the data distribution of scores of each item	Skewness and kurtosis	-2.58 < Value < +2.58	Hair et al., (2006)
PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS				
Frequencies	- To examine the background information of respondents	Frequency, Percentage	-	-
EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)				
Factor analysis (EFA)	- To identify latent variables	Eigenvalues of factor	Eigenvalue > 0.7	Jolliffe (1972)
	- To ensure that measures are free from the error and therefore yields consistent results	Cronbach's α	α > 0.5	Nunnally (1978)
		Item – to – total correlation	Value > 0.3	Churchill (1979)
		Communality	Value > 0.5	Hair et al. (2006)
		Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO)	Value > 0.5	Kaiser (1974)
	- To confirm that scale selected for the present study is supported by the data	Bartlett's test of sphericity	p<0.05	Bartlett (1954)
		Factor loadings	Value > 0.4	Churchill (1979)
FIRST-ORDER REFLECTIVE MEASUREMENT MODEL EVALUATION				
Reliability	- To examine the consistency and stability of a measurement scale	Composite reliability	Value > 0.7	Henseler et al., 2009
Convergent validity		Indicator's outer loadings	Value > 0.7	Hulland (1999)

	- To examine the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct	Average variance extracted (AVE)	AVE > 0.5	Fornell and Larcker (1981)
Discriminant validity	- To examine the distinction of two or more conceptually similar concepts	Square root of AVE ($\sqrt{AVE}$)	$\sqrt{AVE}$ > latent variable's correlation with others	Fornell and Larcker (1981)
		Indicator's outer loadings	Value > all cross loadings with other constructs	Chin (1998)
SECOND-ORDER FORMATIVE MEASUREMENT MODEL EVALUATION				
Two-step approach is applied and the evaluation procedure is based on the same guidelines as for first-order formative model evaluation				
Convergent validity	- To examine that the selected indicators cover all of the relevant aspects of formative construct	Inter-item correlations Inter-to-construct correlation	p<0.05	Lowry and Gaskin (2014)
Significance of formative indicators	- To test whether an indicator relatively and absolutely contributes to form the formative construct	Indicator's outer weight	t-value > 1.65 at sig. level of 10%	Hair et al. (2014)
		Indicator's outer loading	Value > 0.5	Hair et al. (2014)
EVALUATION OF STRUCTURAL MODEL				
Collinearity Assessment	- To check the availability of collinearity issues	VIF	VIF < 3.3	Petter et al. (2007)
Path coefficients (β value)	- To examine the significance of structural model relationships	t-value	t-value > 1.65 at significance level of 10%	Hair et al. (2014)
Coefficient of determination (R^2 value)	- To determine how much percentage of the endogenous variable' s variance can be explained by exogenous variables	R^2 value	Value of 0.25 (weak) 0.5 (moderate) 0.75 (substantial)	Henseler et al., 2009)
Effect size f^2	- To examine the substantive influence on the endogenous variables if omitting a selected exogenous variable	f^2	Value of 0.02, 0.15, 0.35 indicate small, medium, and large effects respectively	Cohen (1988)
		Stone-Geiser's Q^2 value	Q^2 value > 0	Geisser, 1974

Model's predictive relevance	- To evaluate the magnitude of the R^2 value	Effect size q^2	Value of 0.02, 0.15, 0.35 indicate small, medium, and large effect level of predictive relevance respectively	Chin, 1998
ANALYSIS OF MEDIATING EFFECTS				
Significance of direct effect	- To examine the path coefficient of direct relationship without mediator variable	Significance of β value	t-value > 1.65 at significance level of 10%	Hair et al. (2014)
Significance of indirect effect	- To examine the path coefficient of relationships associated with mediator variable	Significance of β value	t-value > 1.65 at significance level of 10%	Hair et al. (2014)
The variance accounted for (VAF)	- To calculate how much of direct effect the indirect effect absorbs	VAF	VAF >80%: Full mediation, 20%<VAF<80%: Partial mediation, VAF < 20%: No mediation	Hair et al. (2014)
ANALYSIS OF MODERATING EFFECTS				
Data group generation	- Divide data into data groups based on the categorical variable	Sample size of group	Minimum 103 for each sub-group	Hair et al. (2014)
Test for measurement invariance	- To determine whether or not, under different condition of observing and studying phenomena, measurement models yield measures of the same attribute	Configural invariance	Measurement model evaluation for each sub-group	Henseler et al. (2016)
		Compositional invariance	Original correlation ≥ the 5% quantile	Henseler et al. (2016)
		Composite equality	Mean, variance original difference falls in the range of 95% confidence interval	Henseler et al. (2016)
PLS-MGA	- To examine the significant difference of path coefficients among observed groups	Permutation p-value	p-value < 0.1	Matthews (2017)

6.2 Data screening

6.2.1 Unengaged responses

Unengaged responses are an important problem that need to be tested at the beginning of the data analysis process. Unengaged responses refer to "the same response for a high proportion of the questions" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 52). They can have significant influences on the results of data analysis. The examination of unengaged responses is to check whether there is any respondent giving the same answers for many questions. Accordingly, a decision of whether a case was retained or deleted was based on calculating the standard deviation (STDEV.P) of all scores given by each case. Field (2013) stated that a standard deviating of 0 would mean that all of the scores were the same. As a result, the case of unengaged responses should be deleted from the data set. At the end of this stage, all 352 cases were retained for further analysis.

6.2.2 Outliers

In this study, both univariate outliers and multivariate outliers were examined for the issue of outliers. Regarding to testing for univariate outliers, outliers were identified based on calculating the value in standard deviations from the mean. For a large sample size (352) in this study, the z-score value can be considered on the range -3 to +3. Z-scores value is regarded as outlier if it is more than 3+ or less than -3.

In this study, the data values of each observation were converted to z-scores by descriptive analysis in SPSS 23.0. Findings show that the data set contained 21 univariate outliers (see *Table 6.2).* They were equivalent to cases 211, 91, 57, 140, 62, 176, 229, 287, 192, 227, 318, 315, 121, 207, 80, 147, 243, 305, 126, 73, 175.

Multivariate outliers were detected by a box plots visual approach and the Mahalanobis d-square statistic. Using box plots graphic, there were 22 cases of extreme outliers in the sample of 352 respondents (IQR>3.0). They are cases 91, 57, 211, 227, 192, 140, 144, 62, 315, 305, 287, 318, 229, 176, 126, 73, 234, 207, 116, 190, 228, 241. In addition, the Mahalanobis D^2 was used to finally decide which outliers need to be removed. According to Hair et al. (2006, p.75), for the large sample (352) in this study, if the value of D^2/df exceeds three or the p-value of Mahalanobis distance is below 0.001, it is likely to be considered an

outlier. *Table 6.3* indicates that there were five observations (211, 62, 318, 140, 192, 227) of extreme outliers.

Table 6.2 Results of univariate outliers

Variable	Case of outlier	Standardized value (-3.0 < z-scores < +3.0)
Push factors	211	-3.501
	91	-3.501
	57	-3.501
	140	-3.813
	62	-6.125
	176	-6.125
	229	-6.437
	287	-6.750
	192	-6.750
	227	-6.750
	318	-6.750
	315	-3.249
	91	-3.249
	57	-3.249
	287	-3.249
	62	-3.853
	176	-3.853
	192	-3.853
	227	-6.154
	229	-6.456
	318	-6.456
Pull factors	62	-3.127
	140	-3.765
	121	-3.318
	62	-3.532
	207	-3.746
	140	-3.960
Food involvement	80	-3.240
	147	-3.240
	243	-3.240
	305	-3.240
	227	-3.583
	192	-6.610
Attitude	305	-3.524
	192	-5.295
Subjective norms	126	-3.390
	73	-3.390
	192	-6.334
Perceive behavioral control	147	-3.391
	175	-3.798
Behavioral intention	192	-3.798

Table 6.3 Multivariate outlier detection using Mahalanobis

No.	Case of outlier	Mahalanobis D^2	D^2/df^a	p-value
1	211	37.212	2.862	0.0004
2	62	43.622	3.356	0.0000
3	318	53.868	6.144	0.0000
4	140	55.958	6.304	0.0000
5	192	63.595	6.892	0.0000
6	227	76.040	5.695	0.0000

Finally, from the observation of all the outliers identified in both univariate and multivariate outlier analyses, 17 cases (57, 62, 73, 91, 126, 140, 144, 176, 190, 192, 207, 211, 227, 229, 287, 315, 318) were deleted from the data set for further analysis. The data set of 335 cases was therefore available for further analysis.

6.2.3 Normality

After screening missing data and outliers, this study includes 335 cases. Hair et al. (2010) suggested that a large sample size of 200 or more is likely to diminish the negative effects of non-normal data distribution. The PLS-SEM approach is also a non-parametric statistical tool that does not require normally-distributed data. However, it is necessary to verify whether the data distribution is far from normality because non-normal data can cause problems in the evaluation of parameters' significance (Henseler et al., 2009).

Two methods, namely skewness and kurtosis, are used to identify the shape of distribution (Pallant, 2007). First, skewness portrays the symmetry of distribution with the recommended value "0" representing normal distribution. According to Field (2013), positive skewness indicates a pile-up on the left of distribution and negative skewness denotes a reversed trend. Second, kurtosis refers to the peaked or flat shape of distribution. The positive kurtosis or 'leptokurtic' indicates "a pointy and heavy-tailed distribution", whereas negative kurtosis or 'platykurtic' indicates "a flat and light-tailed distribution" (Field, 2013, p. 182).

Following the guidelines presented in the Chapter 5 (*Section 5.3.1*), the normal range of skewness and kurtosis is from -2.58 to +2.58 (Hair et al., 2006). The results shown in *Table 6.4* have both positive and negative values of skewness and kurtosis which do not indicate any problem if they are within the required value range of normal distribution. In particular, the values of univariate standardized skewness were from -1.521 to 0.058, indicating that most of the variables were slightly negatively skewed. The values of kurtosis ranged from -0.762 to 2.366. Accordingly, findings show that the skewness and kurtosis values of all the

variables are in the normal range as suggested. Therefore, it is assumed that the data were normally distributed and deemed as satisfactory for further analysis.

Table 6.4 Normality test results (n=335)

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
PUSH FACTORS (PUS)		
PUS1_To taste local food in traditional setting at a destination	-1.318	1.563
PUS2_To experience a variety of different types of food	-1.386	2.204
PUS3_To find special food at a food tourism destination	-1.119	0.919
PUS4_To develop cooking skills through food-related activities at destination	-0.356	-0.411
PUS5_To increase food knowledge	-0.607	0.041
PUS6_To develop an interest in food	-1.035	1.097
PUS7_To increase friendship in a food tourism destination	-0.512	0.141
PUS8_To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	-0.322	-0.313
PUS9_To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events	0.058	-0.67
PUS10_To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination	-0.169	-0.762
PUS11_To share experiences with people in food tourism destination	-0.699	0.006
PUS12_To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination	-1.261	1.694
PUS13_To see how other people live in a food tourism destination	-1.112	1.125
PUS14_To increase my knowledge about different cultures	-1.521	2.366
PUS15_To have an authentic food experience in a destination	-1.298	1.172
PULL FACTORS (PUL)		
PUL1_Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	-0.641	-0.224
PUL2_Traditional food villages	-0.969	0.914
PUL3_Visitor-friendly food markets	-1.227	1.88
PUL4_Food tours	-0.632	0.005
PUL5_Cooking classes	-0.361	-0.481
PUL6_Food festivals and events	-0.841	0.436
PUL7_Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	-0.201	-0.72
PUL8_Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	-0.953	1.198
PUL9_Traditional farmers' markets	-1.241	2.246
PUL10_Speciality shops and markets selling local farm produce	-1.08	1.297
PUL11_Local artwork and crafts for sale	-0.615	-0.125
PUL12_Authentic rural environment	-0.752	0.332

FOOD INVOLVEMENT (FI)		
FI1_Shopping for ingredients for cooking is one of the most enjoyable things	-0.56	-0.123
FI2_Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life	-0.482	-0.301
FI3_I spend a great deal of my disposable income on dining out	-0.329	-0.565
FI4_Food experiences prompt me to learn about other cultures	-1.149	1.48
FI5_People know me as a gourmet	-0.522	-0.435
FI6_ I often reminisce about food experiences with family and friends	-1.165	1.713
ATTITUDE (ATT)		
AT1_The food trip will be enjoyable	-0.902	0.79
AT2_The food trip will be worthwhile	-1.061	1.33
AT3_The food trip will be satisfying	-0.919	0.571
AT4_The food trip will be rewarding	-0.848	0.702
SUBJECTIVE NORMS (SN)		
SN1_I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have heard about from friends/ family	-0.639	0.037
SN2_I want to visit a food tourism destination that is popular among friends/ family	-0.434	-0.615
SN3_I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have been recommended by most people who are important to me	-0.712	-0.128
SN4_I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media	-1.017	0.920
PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL CONTROL (BC)		
BC1_I have enough money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	-1.247	1.66
BC2_I have enough time to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	-1.015	0.812
BC3_Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want	-0.625	-0.46
BEHAVIORAL INTENTION (BI)		
BI1_I intend to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	-0.889	0.26
BI2_I want to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	-0.824	-0.178
BI3_I will make a effort to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	-0.926	0.617
BI4_I am willing to save money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	-1.07	0.883

Table 6.5 provides descriptive statistics including maximum, minimum, mean and standard deviation values of all the variables after the procedure of data screening.

Table 6.5 Descriptive statistics for variables of constructs in the proposed model (n=335)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PUSH FACTORS (PUS)				
PUS1_To taste local food in traditional setting at a destination	3	7	6.39	0.792
PUS2_To experience a variety of different types of food	3	7	6.31	0.843
PUS3_To find special food at a food tourism destination	2	7	5.98	1.078
PUS4_To develop cooking skills through food-related activities at destination	1	7	4.62	1.564
PUS5_To increase food knowledge	1	7	4.96	1.446
PUS6_To develop an interest in food	1	7	5.80	1.198
PUS7_To increase friendship in a food tourism destination	1	7	4.76	1.412
PUS8_To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	1	7	4.57	1.485
PUS9_To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events	1	7	3.65	1.586
PUS10_To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination	1	7	4.21	1.602
PUS11_To share experiences with people in food tourism destination	1	7	4.97	1.455
PUS12_To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination	2	7	6.11	1.000
PUS13_To see how other people live in a food tourism destination	1	7	5.74	1.229
PUS14_To increase my knowledge about different cultures	3	7	6.35	0.865
PUS15_To have an authentic food experience in a destination	3	7	6.30	0.913
PULL FACTORS (PUL)				
PUL1_Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	1	7	4.81	1.434
PUL2_Traditional food villages	3	7	6.02	0.920
PUL3_Visitor-friendly food markets	2	7	5.92	1.041
PUL4_Food tours	1	7	5.16	1.322
PUL5_Cooking classes	1	7	4.41	1.525
PUL6_Food festivals and events	1	7	5.45	1.227
PUL7_Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	1	7	4.13	1.544
PUL8_Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	1	7	5.68	1.101
PUL9_Traditional farmers' markets	1	7	5.90	1.070

PUL10_Speciality shops and markets selling local farm produce	1	7	5.74	1.151
PUL11_Local artwork and crafts for sale	1	7	4.93	1.438
PUL12_Authentic rural environment	1	7	5.48	1.198
FOOD INVOLVEMENT (FI)				
FI1_Shopping for ingredients for cooking is one of the most enjoyable things	1	7	5.12	1.398
FI2_Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life	1	7	4.87	1.421
FI3_I spend a great deal of my disposable income on dining out	1	7	4.50	1.612
FI4_Food experiences prompt me to learn about other cultures	2	7	6.04	1.002
FI5_People know me as a gourmet	1	7	4.84	1.591
FI6_ I often reminisce about food experiences with family and friends	1	7	5.68	1.215
ATTITUDE (ATT)				
AT1_The food trip will be enjoyable	3	7	6.22	0.781
AT2_The food trip will be worthwhile	2	7	6.05	0.908
AT3_The food trip will be satisfying	3	7	5.96	0.955
AT4_The food trip will be rewarding	2	7	5.79	1.022
SUBJECTIVE NORMS (SN)				
SN1_I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have heard about from friends/ families	2	7	5.73	1.040
SN2_I want to visit a food tourism destination that is popular among friends/ families	3	7	5.47	1.137
SN3_I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have been recommended by most people who are important to me	2	7	5.65	1.166
SN4 - I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media	1	7	5.42	1.308
PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL CONTROL (BC)				
BC1_I have enough money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	7	5.72	1.274
BC2_I have enough time to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	7	5.65	1.250
BC3_Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want	1	7	5.10	1.567
BEHAVIORAL INTENTION (BI)				
BI1_I intend to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	2	7	5.91	1.081

BI2_I want to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	2	7	6.02	0.985
BI3_I will make a effort to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	7	5.88	1.110
BI4_I am willing to save money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	7	5.81	1.237

6.3 Profiles of respondents

6.3.1 Background profile of respondents

The sample of 335 respondents, who plan to travel for food – related experiences as the primary reason in the future, represented a diversity of demographics in terms of age group, marital status, occupation, educational and economic levels and country of origin (*Table 6.6*). There were more female respondents (60%) than male respondents (40%) participating in the survey. Nearly half of respondents were aged from 25 to 35 years old, making up the highest percentage of the total (43.9%). By contrast, the lowest percentage of respondents (3.9%) was recorded for the elderly group from 65 years old and above. However, if the age groups of 36-44 years old, 45-54 years old, 55-64 years old and above 65 years old were combined into one group of above 36 years and above, it constituted nearly half of total respondents (46.8%). This implies that there was a fair division of groups of younger and older respondents in this study.

The proportion of people, who reported that they were married, was highest at 49%, followed by the single group (31.9%). More than 90% of respondents had an undergraduate or postgraduate university degree, implying that food tourists have high levels of education. The majority of respondents were employed or self-employed (73.7% of total). Very few people were retired or jobless, making up 2.7% and 3.3% of the total, respectively. Regarding annual income, the highest income earners, with over USD 50,000 per year, were the largest group making up one-fifth of the respondents (21.8%). The second largest group were the lowest income earners (16.7%) who earned less than USD 5,000 per year. Other groups fairly shared the remaining percentage of respondents. Noticeable, a high proportion of respondents (26.2%) did not report their income.

The foodies, who participated in the survey, came from 47 countries and territories. The detail figures for respondents in each country are shown in *Appendix 6*. From a wide range of responses of living country, they were regrouped into five major continents (Europe,

America (North and South America), Asia, Oceania (Australia and Pacific) and Africa). Accordingly, just over one-third of the respondents (35.2%) were from Asia, constituted the highest percentage of the total. By contrast, only five respondents came from Africa. There were quite similar proportions of respondents from Europe, America and Australia which were 20.6%, 22.7% and 20.0% of the total respondents, respectively.

Table 6.6 Demographic profile of respondents for main study

	Group	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	201	60.0
	Male	134	40.0
Age	18-24	31	9.3
	25-35	147	43.9
	36-44	53	15.8
	45-54	49	16.6
	55-64	42	12.5
	65 or above	13	3.9
Marital status	Single	107	31.9
	Married	164	49.0
	In a relationship but not married	53	15.8
	Prefer not to say	11	3.3
Education	Primary/Elementary	0	0.0
	Secondary/High school	20	6.0
	Undergraduate university degree	219	65.3
	Postgraduate university degree	96	28.7
Occupation	Employed	175	52.2
	Unemployed	11	3.3
	Retired	9	2.7
	Self-employed	72	21.5
	Student	57	17.0
	Other	11	3.3
Annual income (USD)	<5,000	56	16.7
	5,000 - 9,999	24	7.2
	10,000 -19,999	30	9.0
	20,000 - 29,999	28	8.4
	30,000 - 39,999	27	8.1
	40,000 - 49,999	16	6.8
	>=50,000	73	21.8

	Would rather not to say	81	26.2
Origin by continent	Europe	69	20.6
	North and South America	76	22.7
	Oceania	67	20.0
	Asia	118	35.2
	Africa	5	1.5

6.3.2 Travel profile of respondents

Regarding the travel profile of respondents, the respondents were asked three questions: (i) "Have you ever traveled for food and food-related activities before?", (ii) "Which country you intend to travel to for food-related experiences?" and (iii) "When you are planning a trip, what sources of information do you typically use?".

Table 6.6 summarizes the descriptive statistics for responses of these three questions. Accordingly, the majority of foodies (83%) travelled for food in the past. In Europe, France and Italy were the favorite countries for the respondents' food trips in the future, with 31.0% and 27.8% of respondents selecting respectively. In Asia, Vietnam and Thailand were selected by the higher percentages of respondents that were 26% and 26.2% respectively. Another favorite destination for food-related experiences of foodies were the United States of America with 26.9% of the total respondents.

It is interesting to understand about the source of information that foodies intend to use for their future food trip. Friends and relatives were the most selected sources of information by 75.8% of the respondents, followed by online reviewers of destinations (68.4%) and general web search likes google, yahoo and so on (67.5%). Social media likes Facebook, LinkedIn and so on and website of destinations were also widely-selected with over 50% of respondents using each. In contrast, sources like travel agents/ tour operators and destination printed information were less attractive with only 18.8% and 13.1% of respondents respectively.

Table 6.7 Travel profile of respondents for main study

	Group	Frequency	Percentage
Food travel experience	Yes	278	83.0
	No	57	17.0
Country for future food travel	United States of America	90	26.9
	Mexico	36	10.7
	Australia	54	16.1

	England	50	16.9
	France	104	31.0
	Italy	93	27.8
	Spain	67	20.0
	India	31	9.3
	Japan	54	16.1
	South Korea	27	8.1
	Taiwan	22	6.6
	Thailand	81	26.2
	Vietnam	87	26.0
	Other	84	25.1
Source of information	Friends/ Relatives	254	75.8
	Travel agents/ Tour Operators	63	18.8
	Guidebooks	144	43.0
	General web search	226	67.5
	Travel for food magazines	138	41.2
	Social media	181	56.0
	Online reviewers of destination	229	68.4
	Website of destinations	168	50.1
	Destination printed information	44	13.1
	Other source	17	5.1

6.4 Exploratory factor analysis

In the current research, before the evaluation of measurement models, it is necessary to conduct an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for the identification of the factors involved the proposed conceptual framework. The EFA was separately run for the scales of push factors and pull factors to identify the underlying motivational dimensions. In addition, the scale of other variables was examined using EFA to identify the theoretical established constructs (food involvement, attitude, subjective norms, perceive behavioral control and behavioral intention) in the proposed model.

6.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis of push factors

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on fifteen measurement items of push factors using the extraction method of principal axis factoring and varimax rotation. The criteria for conducting EFA were carefully examined for the analysis (see *Table 6.8*). First, the KMO value was 0.873, which was well above the minimum criterion of 0.6 as suggested by Kaiser (1974) and categorized into the range of ‘meritorious’ (Field, 2013, p.685). Hence, it is believed that the sample size was enough for factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

($\chi^2(105) = 2007.110$, $p<0.001$) satisfied the criteria suggested by Bartlett (1954). The communalities of all items were above 0.3, satisfying the minimum requirement suggested by Kaiser (1974).

The EFA result indicated that the factor loadings of 14 measurement items were higher than the required minimum value of 0.4 as suggested by Churchill (1979), ranging from 0.407 to 0.796. However, item PUS6 was deleted as its factor loading was below 0.4. There was no cross loadings found among items. These items were extracted into three components, which had eigenvalues greater than 1 and explained 48.868% of the total variance. The number of sub-constructs was found to be lower than four as theoretically proposed. The three dimensions of push factors were labeled as socialization, cultural experiences and taste of food.

The Cronbach's alphas were computed for testing the internal consistency. Although Cronbach's α of 0.7 or higher was suggested by Nunnally (1978), in such an exploratory study, a value of 0.6 was deemed as acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Accordingly, socialization and cultural experiences had the α value above the 0.7 standard, indicating that variables consistently loaded on the same factor. The Cronbach's α of 'taste of food' construct was 0.608 that could be acceptable because it was considered as a new motivational dimension in the context of food tourism. In addition, the examination of Cronbach's α if item deleted shows that the deletion of item PUS5 and PUS3 could improve the reliability of their corresponding constructs, socialization and taste of food. However, as the change of Cronbach's α of these dimension was not significant, thus they were retained for next stage. For all other constructs, none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted because all the values were lower than the overall reliability values. The values of item-total correlation were all above 0.3 for all variables compared to the minimum 0.3 (Churchill, 1979).

Table 6.8 EFA results of push factors

Component/ Item*	Factor loading	Eigen-value	% variance explained	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha (α)	α if item deleted
Push factors' dimension 1: Socialization		5.195	31.392		0.868	
PUS4_ To develop cooking skills through food-related activities	0.647			0.613		0.854
PUS5_To increase food knowledge	0.457			0.442		0.875
PUS7_To increase friendship	0.719			0.696		0.843
PUS8_To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	0.779			0.727		0.838
PUS9_To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events	0.754			0.676		0.845
PUS10_To exchange with local chefs	0.796			0.732		0.836
PUS11_To share experiences with people	0.640			0.617		0.853
Push factors' dimension 2: Cultural experience		2.576	14.035		0.800	
PUS12_To understand the local culture	0.614			0.633		0.741
PUS13_To see how other people live	0.636			0.614		0.764
PUS14_To increase my knowledge about different cultures	0.714			0.682		0.726
PUS15_To have an authentic food experience	0.465			0.569		0.771
Push factors' dimension 3:Taste of food		1.018	3.441		0.608	
PUS1_To taste local food in traditional setting	0.731			0.498		0.415
PUS2_To experience a variety of different types of food	0.601			0.457		0.456
PUS3_To find special food	0.407			0.333		0.676
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) = 0.873, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-Square = 2007.110, df = 105, p <0.001 Total variance explained = 58.596						

**Full items labels are presented in table 4.9*

6.4.2 Exploratory factor analysis of pull factors

A similar procedure of EFA employing the extraction method of principal axis factoring and varimax rotation method was also conducted on the twelve pull motivational items and the results were shown in *Table 6.9.* First, KMO value (KMO = 0.827) and Bartlett's test (χ^2=1243.296, p<0.001) indicated that the sample size was sufficient for factor analysis. The communalities of all items satisfied the minimum requirement, with all the values above 0.3 (Kaiser, 1974).

The twelve items with factor loadings greater than 0.4 were extracted into three components which had eigenvalues greater than 1 and accounted for 45.156% of the total variance. The number of sub-dimensions was found to be more than two as theoretically proposed. They were labeled as core food-tourism appeals, local destination appeals and traditional food appeals. The Cronbach's alpha of two constructs (core food-tourism appeals and local destination appeals) were higher than the threshold value of 0.7, indicating acceptable internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978). The Cronbach's α of traditional food appeals (0.625) was deemed as acceptable reliability as suggested by Hair et al., (2006) as it was initially explored in the literature of food tourism. In addition, the results of Cronbach's α if item deleted showed no significant improvement of α values in the case of deleting any of the items. The values of item-total correlation were all above 0.3 for all variables that satisfied the requirement suggested by Churchill (1979).

Table 6.9 EFA results of pull factors

Component/Item*	Factor loading	Eigen-value	% variance explained	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha (α)	α if item deleted
Pull factors' dimension 1: Local destination appeals		4.361	31.872		0.759	
PUL8_Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	0.504			0.469		0.735
PUL9_Tradiditional famers' markets	0.739			0.626		0.685
PUL10_Speciality shops and markets selling local farm produce	0.628			0.588		0.694
PUL11_Locall artwork and crafts for sale	0.478			0.466		0.747
PUL12_Authentic rural environment	0.570			0.521		0.717
Pull factors' dimension 2: Core food-tourism appeals		1.454	7.920		0.767	
PUL1_ Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	0.444			0.409		0.768
PUL4_Food tours	0.542			0.558		0.719
PUL5_Cooking classes	0.654			0.596		0.703
PUL6_Food festivals and events	0.539			0.504		0.737
PUL7_Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	0.769			0.633		0.688
Pull factors' dimension 3: Traditional food appeals		1.181	5.364		0.625	
PUL2_Traditional food villages	0.729			0.458		n/a
PUS3_Visitor-friendly food markets	0.534			0.458		n.a
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) = 0.827 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-Square = 1243.296, df = 66, p <0.001 Total variance explained = 58.301						

**Full items labels are presented in table 4.9, n/a: not available*

6.4.3 Exploratory factor analysis of food involvement, attitude, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms and behavioral intention

A similar procedure of EFA using the extraction method of principal axis factoring and varimax rotation method was conducted on the 21 measurement items to identify the other five constructs (food involvement, attitude, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms and behavioral intention) involved in the proposed conceptual framework and the results are shown in *Table 6.10.* First, KMO value (KMO = 0.883) and Bartlett's test (χ^2=4239.501, $p<0.001$) indicated that the sample size was sufficient for factor analysis. The communalities of all items satisfied the minimum requirement, with all the values above 0.3 (Kaiser, 1974).

The 21 measurement items with factor loadings greater than 0.4 were extracted into five constructs that accounted for 57.869% of the total variance. Two items FI3 and FI4 were deleted with factor loading below 0.4. Although Kaiser (1960) suggested that eigenvalue was greater than 1, the construct with eigenvalue 0.943 (approximately 1) was still kept in this study. The reason is because the extracted numbers of factors met the required number of factors as hypothetically proposed in the model. The Cronbach's alphas of these constructs were then computed. As these constructs were adapted from the well-developed research instruments in previous studies, the threshold α value of 0.7 was suggested by Nunnally (1978). Accordingly, all the Cronbach's alphas of the five constructs satisfied the requirement, indicating acceptable internal consistency. In addition, the results of Cronbach's α if item deleted showed no significant improvement of α values in the case of deleting any of the items. The values of item-total correlation were all above 0.3 for all variables that satisfied the requirement suggested by Churchill (1979).

Table 6.10 EFA results of food involvement, attitude, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms and behavioral intention

Component/Item*	Factor loading	Eigen-value	% variance explained	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha (α)	α if item deleted
Attitude		7.764	35.357		0.902	
AT1_ The food trip will be enjoyable	0.749			0.775		0.880
AT2_ The food trip will be worthwhile	0.819			0.815		0.861
AT3_ The food trip will be satisfying	0.825			0.824		0.857
AT4_ The food trip will be enjoyable	0.680			0.735		0.895
Behavioral Intention		2.468	10.191		0.904	
BI1_Intend in the next two years	0.721			0.781		0.877
BI2_ Want the next two years	0.807			0.799		0.874
BI3_ Make an effort in the next two years	0.762			0.839		0.856
BI4_ Willing to save money in the next two years	0.634			0.740		0.897
Subjective norms		1.845	6.955		0.850	
SN1_ Heard from friends/family	0.743			0.688		0.813
SN2_ The food destination is popular among friends/family	0.898			0.781		0.771
SN3_ Have been recommended by important people	0.807			0.754		0.782
SN4_ Be suggested by foodies on social media	0.592			0.567		0.870
Food involvement		1.594	5.846		0.785	
FI1_Shopping for ingredients for cooking	0.687			0.606		0.724
FI2_Acquiring food for domestic meals	0.742			0.630		0.711
FI5_Known as a gourmet	0.657			0.614		0.723
FI6_Reminisce about food experiences with family/friends	0.500			0.527		0.763

Perceived behavioral control		0.943	2.728		0.798	
BC1_ Have enough money	0.669			0.711		0.660
BC2_ Have enough time	0.768			0.752		0.622
BC3_Nothing prevents	0.541			0.507		0.898
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) = 0.883						
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-Square = 4239.501, df = 210, p <0.001						
Total variance explained = 58.301						

**Full items labels are presented in table 4.9*

In summary, the EFA of push factors, pull factors and the other five constructs indicated that push factors and pull factors were identified as multi-dimensional constructs. Push factors included three dimensions: taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences. Pull factors also involved three components: core food-tourism appeals, local destination appeals and traditional food appeals. Five constructs (food involvement, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral controls, and behavioral intention) were identified as first-order constructs as hypothetically proposed in the model. All these constructs were reported to be adequate, reliable and valid for further analyses. After the EFA, three observed variables were removed from the measurement instrument of study (see *Table 6.11)* and 48 items were retained for the first and second-order measurement model evaluation (see *Table 6.12)*.

Table 6.11 Eliminated indicators in measurement model evaluation

Construct	Item code	Item label
Push factors	PUS6	To develop an interest in food
Food involvement	FI3	I spend a great deal of my disposable income on dining out
	FI4	Food experiences prompt me to learn more about other cultures

Table 6.12 Indicators used in reflective model estimation

Items	Item label
Attitude (AT)	
AT1	The visit to a food tourism destination will be enjoyable
AT2	The visit to a food tourism destination will be worthwhile
AT3	The visit to a food tourism destination will be satisfying
AT4	The visit to a food tourism destination will be rewarding
Subjective norms (SN)	
SN1	I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have heard about from friends/ family
SN2	I want to visit a food tourism destination that is popular among friends/ family
SN3	I want to visit a food tourism destination that has been recommended by most people who are important to me
SN4	I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media
Perceived behavioral controls (BC)	
BC1	I have enough money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
BC2	I have enough time to take a holiday to a food tourism destination in the next two years
BC3	Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want to
Behavioral intention (BI)	
BI1	I intend to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
BI2	I want to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years

BI3	I will make an effort to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
BI4	I am willing to save money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years
Food involvement (FI)	
FI1	Shopping for ingredients for cooking is one of the most enjoyable things in my life
FI2	Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life
FI5	People know me as a gourmet
FI6	I often reminisce about food experiences with family and friends
Push factor 1: Taste of food (TF)	
PUS1	To taste local food in traditional setting at destination
PUS2	To experience a variety of different types of food at a destination
PUS3	To find special food in a food tourism destination
Push factor 2: Socialization (SO)	
PUS4	To develop cooking skills through food-related activities at destination
PUS5	To increase food knowledge
PUS7	To increase friendship in a food tourism destination
PUS8	To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers
PUS9	To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events
PUS10	To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination
PUS11	To share food experiences with people in food tourism destination
Push factor 3: Cultural experiences (CE)	
PUS12	To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination
PUS13	To see how other people live in a food tourism destination
PUS14	To increase my knowledge about different cultures
PUS15	To have an authentic food experience in a food tourism destination
Pull factor 1: Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	
PUL1	Fine dining and gourmet restaurants
PUL4	Food tours
PUL5	Cooking classes
PUL6	Food festivals and events
PUL7	Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers
Pull factor 2: Traditional food appeals (TA)	
PUL2	Traditional food villages
PUL3	Visitor-friendly food markets
Pull factor 3: Local destination appeals (LA)	
PUL8	Cultural events featuring food and other traditions
PUL9	Traditional farmers' markets
PUL10	Specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce
PUL11	Local art work and crafts for sale
PUL12	Authentic rural environment

6.5 The evaluation of measurement models

The EFA results indicated an eleven-factor structure comprising of more than one level. Taste of food (TF), socialization (SO) and cultural experiences (CE) were expected to form a second-order construct, namely push factors (PUS). Core food-tourism appeals (CA), traditional appeals (TA) and local destination appeals (LA) were supposed to form a second-order construct, namely pull factors. Attitude (AT), perceived behavioral control (BC), subjective norms (SN), food involvement (FI) and behavioral intention (BI) formed first-order constructs. Therefore, it is critical to separately examine each level of constructs. The factors identified by EFA were evaluated for the first-order measurement model and the second-order measurement model.

6.5.1 First-order measurement model evaluation

The first-order measurement model with eleven factors, which were formed by 45 measurement items after EFA, were tested. The results were concluded based on the criteria set for reflective measurement model evaluation in *Table 6.13*

Firstly, composite reliability (CR) was examined for internal consistency reliability of the latent construct. It can be seen from *Table 6.13*, the CR value for each of eleven constructs TF, SO, CE, CA, TA, LA, AT, BC, SN, FI, BI was higher than the recommended value 0.7 (Henseler et al., 2009). As a result, it could be believed that all eleven constructs were well measured by their assigned items.

The outer loadings of all indicators are also shown in *Table 6.13.* Findings show that most factor loadings of measurement items were greater than the threshold value of 0.7 (Hulland, 1999). The factor loadings of two items PUS5 and PUL1 were 0.525, 0.584 respectively, that were much lower than the minimum requirement value of 0.7. The deletion of these two items increased both CR and AVE values of their associated constructs (SO and CA). Other items PUS3, PUL11, PUL12, and BC3, which had outer loadings above 0.6, were retained in the measurement scale because the deletion of these items did not make a significant change to both the CR and AVE values of their associated constructs. In summary, after deleting PUS5 and PUL1, all of the indicators for the eleven constructs had the acceptable level of outer loadings that met the first criterion of convergent validity. Another criterion is average variance extracted (AVE) which should be 0.5 at minimum (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Results show that the AVE values of all constructs were higher

than 0.5, ranging from 0.517 to 0.783. As a result, the measures of all eleven first-order constructs were concluded to have high levels of convergent validity.

Table 6.13 Results of first-order measurement model evaluation

Reflective construct	Indicator	Loading	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Taste of food (TF)	PUS1	0.833		
	PUS2	0.773	0.803	0.579
	PUS3	0.667		
Socialization (SO)	PUS4	0.733		
	PUS5	0.525		
	PUS7	0.798		
	PUS8	0.821	0.898	0.561
	PUS9	0735		
	PUS10	0.837		
	PUS11	0.749		
Cultural experiences (CE)	PUS12	0.808		
	PUS13	0.789	0.874	0.635
	PUS14	0.802		
	PUS15	0.788		
Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	PUL1	0.584		
	PUL4	0.781		
	PUL5	0.775	0.841	0.517
	PUL6	0.709		
	PUL7	0.730		
Traditional food appeals (TA)	PUL2	0.850	0.843	0.729
	PUL3	0.858		
Local destination appeals (LA)	PUL8	0.737		
	PUL9	0.823		
	PUL10	0.770	0.841	0.517
	PUL11	0.600		
	PUL12	0.643		
Attitude (AT)	AT1	0.877		
	AT2	0.903	0.934	0.781
	AT3	0.902		
	AT4	0.851		

Perceived behavioral control (BC)	BC1	0.920	0.890	0.733
	BC2	0.933		
	BC3	0.694		
Subjective norms (SN)	SN1	0.850	0.903	0.699
	SN2	0.875		
	SN3	0.858		
	SN4	0.757		
Food involvement (FI)	FI1	0.731	0.858	0.602
	FI2	0.760		
	FI5	0.809		
	FI6	0.800		
Behavioral intention (BI)	BI1	0.885	0.935	0.783
	BI2	0.890		
	BI3	0.913		
	BI4	0.851		

Regarding the evaluation of discriminant validity, the square root of AVE using the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the cross-loadings of all indicators were checked. Accordingly, the square root of AVE for each construct was highest compared to its correlation values with other factors (see *Table 6.14*). In addition, loading of each indicator on its corresponding factor was greater than all of its cross loadings with other constructs (See *Table 6.15*).

Table 6.14 Fornell- Larcker Criterion

Construct	AT	BC	BI	CA	CE	FI	LA	SN	SO	TA	TF
AT	**0.883**										
BC	0.511	**0.856**									
BI	0.527	0.686	**0.885**								
CA	0.302	0.295	0.288	**0.765**							
CE	0.415	0.281	0.329	0.261	**0.797**						
FI	0.474	0.337	0.473	0.378	0.325	**0.776**					
LA	0.408	0.361	0.36	0.525	0.478	0.374	**0.757**				
SN	0.315	0.268	0.247	0.426	0.272	0.23	0.267	**0.836**			
SO	0.271	0.237	0.233	0.613	0.352	0.438	0.41	0.335	**0.784**		
TA	0.414	0.287	0.25	0.338	0.409	0.232	0.464	0.264	0.247	**0.854**	
TF	0.479	0.257	0.352	0.166	0.553	0.284	0.332	0.244	0.176	0.425	**0.761**

Note: The bold diagonal elements are calculated by the square root of the AVEs and non- non-bold off-diagonal elements are latent variable correlations

Table 6.15 Cross-loading analysis

Indicator	AT	BC	BI	CA	CE	FI	LA	SN	SO	TA	TF
AT1	0.877	0.401	0.458	0.392	0.319	0.412	0.333	0.278	0.204	0.209	0.447
AT2	0.903	0.436	0.472	0.396	0.369	0.413	0.320	0.286	0.233	0.197	0.457
AT3	0.902	0.442	0.461	0.377	0.400	0.405	0.375	0.265	0.234	0.198	0.388
AT4	0.851	0.524	0.472	0.402	0.379	0.443	0.413	0.284	0.284	0.216	0.401
BC1	0.516	0.920	0.653	0.275	0.267	0.308	0.302	0.257	0.174	0.233	0.269
BC2	0.517	0.933	0.662	0.327	0.282	0.331	0.330	0.226	0.218	0.242	0.268
BC3	0.214	0.694	0.403	0.248	0.150	0.209	0.277	0.207	0.241	0.258	0.081
BI1	0.461	0.623	0.885	0.292	0.271	0.451	0.309	0.133	0.213	0.168	0.323
BI2	0.538	0.553	0.890	0.299	0.283	0.399	0.293	0.210	0.156	0.166	0.387
BI3	0.454	0.640	0.913	0.269	0.282	0.432	0.271	0.237	0.200	0.217	0.276
BI4	0.416	0.608	0.851	0.270	0.333	0.388	0.339	0.297	0.256	0.256	0.264
PUL4	0.349	0.246	0.241	0.713	0.359	0.172	0.355	0.230	0.200	0.224	0.443
PUL5	0.358	0.243	0.187	0.774	0.340	0.224	0.427	0.221	0.223	0.233	0.285
PUL6	0.271	0.228	0.250	0.705	0.219	0.251	0.395	0.387	0.392	0.464	0.188
PUL7	0.240	0.205	0.228	0.590	0.232	0.411	0.406	0.257	0.621	0.516	0.093
PUS12	0.345	0.279	0.301	0.291	0.808	0.238	0.378	0.172	0.272	0.110	0.425
PUS13	0.333	0.196	0.237	0.387	0.789	0.300	0.399	0.263	0.365	0.193	0.366
PUS14	0.245	0.138	0.182	0.292	0.802	0.231	0.388	0.208	0.227	0.128	0.405
PUS15	0.372	0.254	0.302	0.360	0.788	0.259	0.355	0.224	0.246	0.181	0.545
FI1	0.309	0.130	0.259	0.238	0.138	0.731	0.327	0.126	0.291	0.201	0.136
FI2	0.310	0.223	0.299	0.306	0.243	0.760	0.316	0.242	0.376	0.249	0.184
FI5	0.347	0.253	0.379	0.277	0.246	0.809	0.215	0.117	0.372	0.181	0.219
FI6	0.463	0.377	0.473	0.287	0.337	0.800	0.316	0.219	0.327	0.242	0.299
PUL8	0.300	0.253	0.254	0.424	0.362	0.358	0.770	0.268	0.308	0.386	0.291
PUL9	0.216	0.145	0.102	0.297	0.240	0.200	0.600	0.194	0.298	0.332	0.062
PUL10	0.213	0.138	0.198	0.305	0.269	0.178	0.643	0.052	0.198	0.207	0.131
PUL11	0.357	0.343	0.323	0.457	0.429	0.275	0.737	0.255	0.369	0.546	0.263
PUL12	0.339	0.316	0.293	0.480	0.363	0.302	0.823	0.191	0.335	0.287	0.291
SN1	0.320	0.244	0.225	0.360	0.278	0.202	0.275	0.850	0.351	0.291	0.242
SN2	0.228	0.175	0.145	0.270	0.155	0.157	0.201	0.875	0.306	0.336	0.146
SN3	0.237	0.204	0.184	0.307	0.214	0.170	0.232	0.858	0.233	0.301	0.212
SN4	0.246	0.253	0.248	0.310	0.235	0.223	0.206	0.757	0.216	0.352	0.196
PUS4	0.212	0.149	0.181	0.406	0.249	0.402	0.360	0.183	0.725	0.352	0.154
PUS7	0.224	0.177	0.164	0.324	0.312	0.264	0.323	0.292	0.797	0.353	0.161
PUS8	0.187	0.183	0.176	0.329	0.287	0.398	0.331	0.246	0.832	0.408	0.117
PUS9	0.100	0.164	0.089	0.363	0.123	0.240	0.262	0.358	0.735	0.504	0.055
PUS10	0.269	0.232	0.213	0.459	0.245	0.411	0.390	0.264	0.844	0.465	0.140
PUS11	0.211	0.192	0.224	0.320	0.375	0.295	0.304	0.289	0.762	0.340	0.159
PUL2	0.236	0.288	0.257	0.419	0.187	0.213	0.496	0.338	0.357	0.924	0.146
PUL3	0.142	0.162	0.098	0.410	0.139	0.296	0.337	0.322	0.566	0.772	0.045
PUS1	0.414	0.185	0.270	0.312	0.429	0.211	0.252	0.143	0.107	0.092	0.833
PUS2	0.340	0.182	0.210	0.313	0.459	0.182	0.244	0.212	0.131	0.078	0.773
PUS3	0.333	0.225	0.327	0.250	0.376	0.259	0.206	0.212	0.173	0.117	0.667

In summary, the above discussion indicates that all evaluation criteria for first-order measurement models were met, providing the support for the reliability, convergent and discriminant validity of all measures. Two indicators (PUS5 and PUL1) were therefore deleted in this stage.

6.5.2 Second-order measurement model evaluation

As discussed in *Section 5.3.4,* there are four major types of hierarchical component models (HCMs), reflective-reflective type, reflective-formative type, formative-reflective type and formative-formative type (Hair et al., 2014). The decision of which type of HCM is based on different relationships between higher-order component (HOC) and the lower-order components (LOCs), and relationships between the LOCs and their indicators. In this study, the higher-order construct push factors (PUS) was formed by three lower-order components, taste of food (TF), socialization (SO) and cultural experience (CE). In addition, three constructs, core food-tourism appeals (CA), traditional food appeals (TA) and local destination appeals (LA) were identified as three LOCs representing the higher-order construct pull factors (PUL). Indeed, respondents of this study were asked about their perceptions of internal and external factors motivating them toward a food tourism trip. Therefore, considering the nature of construct recommended by Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, and Venaik (2008), PUS and PUL were defined by their associated motivational dimensions. The conceptual meaning of PUS and PUL could be changed if deleting any motivational dimension. Thus, both PUS and PUL were indicated as formative rather than reflective models. Moreover, the relationship between lower-order constructs and their indicators were found to be reflective after the first-order measurement models evaluation discussed in *Section 6.5.1.* As a result, based on the guideline suggested by Hair et al. (2014), two second-order constructs, PUS and PUL were categorized into the type of reflective-formative model (see *Figure 6.1* and *Figure 6.2)*

Two commonly used approaches to assess higher-order constructs are the repeated indicator approach and two-stage approach. While the former is better with the same number of indicators per lower-order constructs, the latter is suggested for the reflective-formative or formative-formative higher-order constructs. As a result, a two-stage approach was applied for the evaluation of the two HCMs (push factors and pull factors) in this study. In particular, Smart PLS 3.0 was applied to estimate the scores of the first-order latent variables. Then, they were used as indicators for measuring the second-order latent variable.

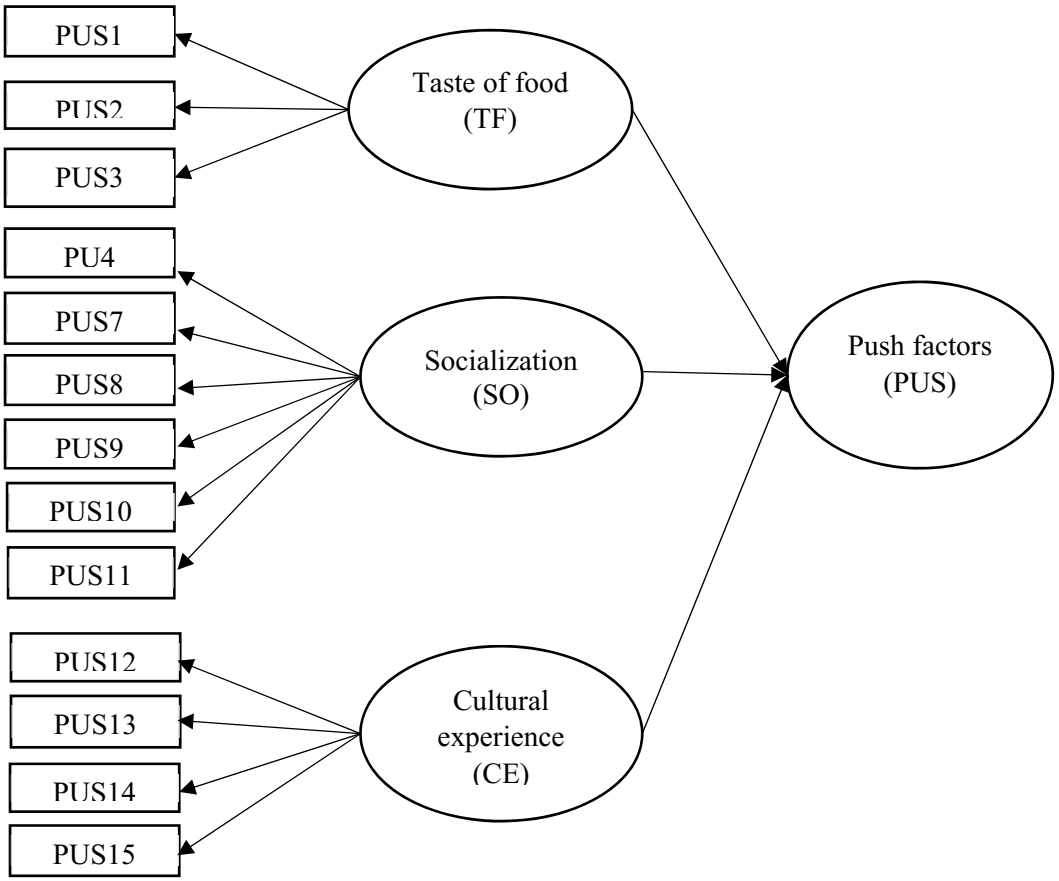


Figure 6.1 Reflective – formative measurement model of push factors

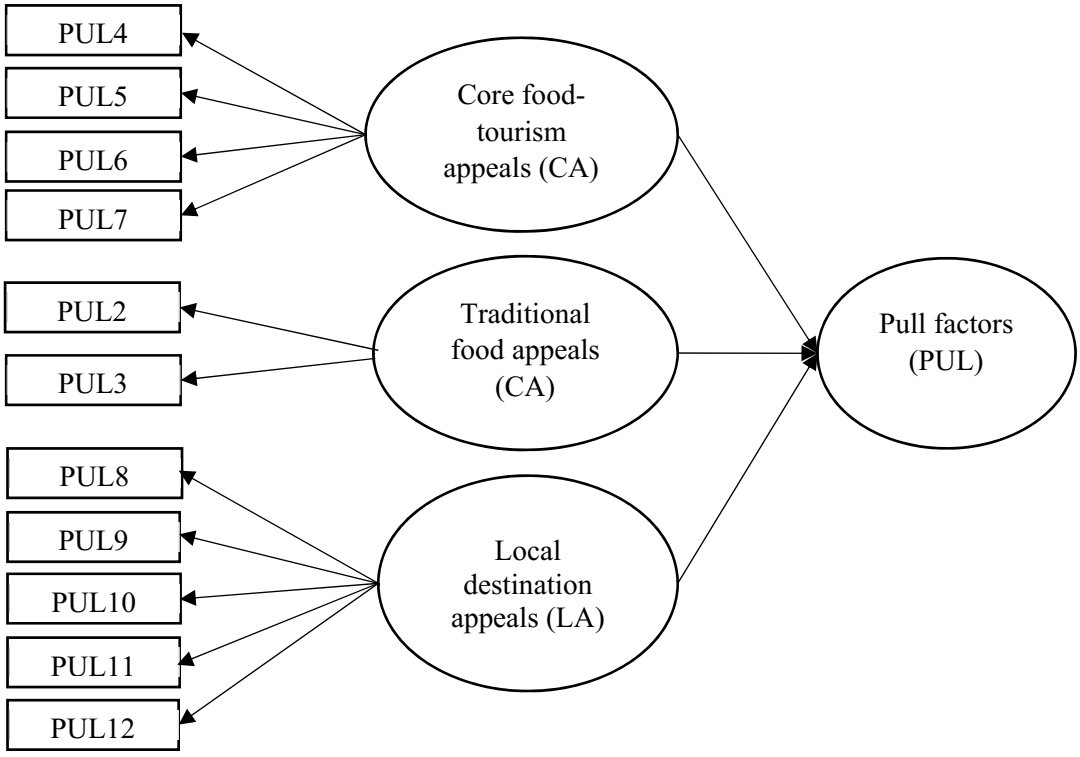


Figure 6.2 Reflective – formative measurement model of pull factors

6.5.2.1 Second-order measurement model - Push factors

The evaluation procedure of the second-order formative constructs was based on the same guidelines as for first-order formative construct assessment. The evaluation included three steps with specific criteria as discussed below

First, the Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix (MIMM) was created by a formulation suggested by Loch et al. (2003). In effect, a weighted score for each lower-order construct was recorded using SmartPLS 3.0 and then a composite score for each formative construct was computed. Using these values, a matrix of correlations among first-order constructs (taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences) and the second-order construct (push factors) was created and presented in in *Table 6.16*. It can be seen that all of the first-order constructs (TF, SO, CE) highly correlated with each other and correlated with its second-order construct (PUS) as initially proposed. Therefore, the result of MTMM matrix leads to the inference of convergent validity for the PUS construct.

Table 6.16 Correlation among first- and second-order construct push factors

Construct	TF	SO	CE	PUS
Taste of food (TF)	1			
Socialization (SO)	.173**	1		
Cultural experiences (CE)	.548**	0.343**	1	
Push factors (PUS)	.624**	0.790**	0.805**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.17 Results of validity for formative second-order model of push factors

Second- order construct	First - order construct	VIF	Outer weights	t-value	Significance level	p-value
Push factors	Taste of Food (TF)	1.429	0.672	7.116	***	0.000
	Socialization (SO)	1.134	0.294	2.955	***	0.003
	Cultural Experiences (CE)	1.572	0.314	3.564	***	0.001

**p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01*

The next step was to analyze the significance of outer weights of first-order constructs (taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences) for assessing their relative contribution to the second-order construct, push factors. Findings shown in *Table 6.17* revealed that all the three dimensions, TF, SO and CE had t-values above the critical t-value of 2.57 at significant level of 1%, indicating the significance of their path weights ($p<0.01$). As the result, the

significance and relevance of the three first-order constructs, taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences represent their formative push factors construct.

6.5.2.2 Second-order measurement model - Pull factors

By applying the similar procedure of assessing push factors as presented above, the second-order construct, pull factors was evaluated with the same criteria. The matrix of correlations among first-order constructs (core-food tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals) and second-order construct pull factors were created and shown in *Table 6.18*. Accordingly, the three first-order constructs (CA, TA and LA) had significant correlations with each other and with second-order construct pull factors. It is concluded that convergent validity was achieved for the pull factors construct.

Table 6.18 Correlation among first- and second-order construct pull factors

Construct	CA	TA	LA	PUL
Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	1			
Traditional food appeals (TA)	.331**	1		
Local destination appeals (LA)	.530**	.456**	1	
Pull factors (PUL)	.809**	.636**	.893**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.19 shows that these three dimensions, CA, TA and LA had t values above the critical t-value 1.65 at significant level of 10%, that revealed the significance of their outer weights ($p<0.1$). In summary, the significance and relevance of three first-order constructs, core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals were sufficient to represent the construct pull factors.

Table 6.19 Results of validity for formative second-order model of pull factors

Second- order construct	First - order construct	Outer weights	t-value	Significance level	p-value
Pull factors	Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	0.224	1.875	*	0.061
	Traditional food appeals (TA)	0.482	4.984	***	0.000
	Local destination appeals (LA)	0.534	5.089	***	0.000

**p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01*

In summary, after the measurement model evaluation, two items, PUS5 labeled 'To increase food knowledge' and PUL1 labeled "Fine dining and gourmet restaurants' were deleted from the measurement scales. The first-order and second-order measurement model evaluation confirmed that eleven first-order measurement constructs (TF, SO, CE, CA, TA, LA, AT,

SN, BC, FI, and BI) and two second-order measurement constructs (PUL and PUS) were reliable and valid for the next stage of the structural model evaluation.

6.6 Evaluation of structural model

As presented in *Section 5.3.5*, the assessment of the structural model includes the examination of predictive capabilities of the proposed model as well as the examination of relationships between measurement constructs. The evaluation procedure of the structural model involved five steps, with results being discussed in the following Sections.

6.6.1 Step 1: Collinearity Assessment

The assessment of collinearity for structural model is necessary because the highs levels of inter-correlations between exogenous variables have an impact on the estimation of path coefficients and their statistical significance (Hair et al., 2014). Based on the guidelines recommended by Hair et al. (2014), each set of predictor constructs associated with an endogenous construct in the structural model was checked separately for collinearity issues. There were two following sets of predictor constructs that were evaluated, (i) PUS, PUL, FI and SN as predictors of AT, and (ii) PUS, PUL, FI, SN, and BC as predictors of BI. *Table 6.20* shows the tolerance values (VIF) of the predictor constructs of two sets. It can be seen that all the VIF values were all below the threshold value 3.3 suggested by Petter et al. (2007). Therefore, multicollinearity among the predictor constructs was not problematic in the proposed structural model.

Table 6.20 Collinearity assessment

First set (AT)		Second set (BI)	
Predictor constructs	**VIF**	**Predictor constructs**	**VIF**
PUS	1.896	PUS	1.945
PUL	1.810	PUL	1.890
FI	1.340	FI	1.474
SN	1.239	AT	1.716
		BC	1.429
		SN	1.263

6.6.2 Step 2: Evaluation of structural model path coefficients

Each path relationship shown in the proposed framework was examined through regression coefficient (β). The path coefficient (β) provides information on the strength of the relationship between an exogenous variable and endogenous variable. The evaluation of significance of β value is based on a t-value, which was obtained using the Smart PLS 3.0 Bootstrap procedure with 335 cases and 5000 resamples. The path coefficient is considered significant if the empirical t-value is greater than critical t-value of 1.65 at a significant level of 10%, 1.96 at a significant level of 5% and 2.57 at a significant level of 10% (Hair et al., 2014). *Table 6.21* summarizes results of path coefficients, the corresponding t-values, significant levels and p-values. Findings indicated that seven out of ten hypotheses of direct relationships between constructs were statistically supported with t-value over the critical t-value 1.96 at significant level of 5%. In particular, both push factors (PUS) and pull factors (PUL) had positive influences on attitude ($\beta_{PUS\rightarrow AT}$ = +0.180, t = 2.561, p < 0.05 and $\beta_{PUL\rightarrow AT}$ =+ 0.169, t = 2.527, p < 0.05). However, these two constructs were not predictors of behavioral intention with t-values lower than 1.65 at significant level of 10%. Food involvement (FI) was found to be a predictor of both attitude and behavioral intention with the corresponding t-values 4.713 and 4.557 at significant level of 1%.

Regarding direct effects between three original constructs of the theoretical planned behavior model, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, both attitude (AT) and perceived behavioral control (BC) served as antecedents in predicting behavioral intention (BI) toward visiting a food tourism destination, particularly attitude ($\beta_{AT\rightarrow BI}$ = +0.142, t = 2.716, p < 0.01) and perceived behavioral control ($\beta_{BC\rightarrow BI}$ = +0.535, t = 11.574, p < 0.01). In addition, while subjective norms positively affected attitude ($\beta_{SN\rightarrow AT}$ = +0.110, t = 2.219, p < 0.05), there was no a direct relationship between subjective norms and behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination ($\beta_{SN\rightarrow BI}$ = +0.001, t = 0.039, p > 0.1).

In summary, the direct causal links from push factors, pull factors, food involvement and subjective norms to attitude toward a food trip were found to be significant. The strength of direct relationships associated with attitude was compared based on the path coefficient (β). Accordingly, food involvement had the strongest effect on attitude (β = 0.291), followed by push factors (β = 0.180) and pull factors (β = 0.169). The link between subjective norm and attitude was weakest with the β value of 0.110. Similarly, the direct relationships linked to behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination were also compared. Out of

three predictors of behavioral intention, perceived behavioral intention (β = 0.535) was found to better predict behavioral intention than food involvement (β = 0.214) and attitude (β = 0.142) in the context of food tourism.

Table 6.21 Results of path significance of structural model

Path relation (Hypothesis)	Path coefficient	t-value	Significance levels	p-values
H1: Push factors -> Attitude	+0180	2.561	**	0.010
H2: Pull factors -> Attitude	+0.169	2.527	**	0.012
H3: Push factors -> Behavioral intention	+0.044	0.913	ns	0.361
H4: Pull factors -> Behavioral intention	+0.023	0.452	ns	0.651
H5: Food involvement -> Attitude	+0.291	4.713	***	0.000
H6: Food involvement -> Behavioral intention	+0.214	4.557	***	0.000
H7: Subjective norms -> Attitude	+0.110	2.219	**	0.027
H8: Subjective norms -> Behavioral intention	+0.002	0.039	ns	0.969
H9: Attitude -> Behavioral intention	+0.142	2.716	***	0.007
H10: Behavioral Control -> Behavioral intention	+0.535	11.574	***	0.000

Note: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

ns: non-significant

6.6.3 Step 3: Coefficient of determination (R^2 value)

Table 6.22 Results of coefficient of determination R^2

Endogenous constructs	R^2 value
Attitude (AT)	0.325
Behavioral intention (BI)	0.543

The coefficient of determination (R^2) of two endogenous latent variables (attitude and behavioral intention) in the proposed model were examined. According to Byrne (2001), the value of R^2 means that the percentage of the endogenous variable's variance that can be explained by the exogenous variables. The results of R^2 is therefore an important criterion for the evaluation of a structural model. Henseler et al. (2009) suggested a rule of thumb for the acceptable R^2 level as substantive (0.67), moderate (0.33) and weak (0.19). However, the acceptable level of R^2 should be dependent on the context of research. *Table 6.22* presents the results of R^2 for two endogenous latent variables, attitude and behavioral intention in the proposed model. In particular, the four variables, push factors (PUS), pull factors (PUL), food involvement (FI) and subjective norms (SN) accounted for 32.5% of the total variance associated with attitude. The dependent variable behavioral intention had 54.3% of the variance explained by three exogenous constructs including food involvement (FI), attitude

(AT) and perceive behavioral control (BC). Following the rule of thumb suggested by Henseler et al. (2009), the R^2 values of both attitude and behavioral intention reported a moderate level of predictive accuracy.

Although R^2 is "a measure of the model's predictive accuracy" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 174), the selection of a model should not totally be dependent on it. The reason is because the value of R^2 can be changeable in case of adding or deleting non-significant constructs to explain the dependent variable in the structural model. For example, the addition of non-significant constructs to explain an endogenous variable always increases its R^2 value (Hair et al., 2014, p.76). The R^2 values were therefore evaluated considering other criteria to assess the predictive capability of the model. The next section discusses the change in R^2 values for the purpose of checking whether there is the substantive influence of exogenous construct(s) on an endogenous construct when eliminating a specified exogenous construct from the structural model.

6.6.4 Step 4: Evaluation of effect sizes f^2

Table 6.23 Results of effect size f^2 analysis

Endogenous construct	Exogenous construct	Effect size (f2)	Inference
Attitude (AT)	Push factors (PUS)	0.026	Small effect
	Pull factors (PUL)	0.024	Small effect
	Food involvement (FI)	0.095	Small effect
	Subjective norms (SN)	0.015	Small effect
Behavioral intention (BI)	Food involvement (FI)	0.069	Small effect
	Attitude (AT)	0.026	Small effect
	Behavioral control (BC)	0.447	Large effect

Table 6.23 presents the results of f^2 estimate which measures the impact of independent variables on two dependent variables, attitude and behavioral intention in the proposed model. According to the guideline suggested by Cohen (1988) , the value of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 respectively indicated small, medium and large effect of an exogenous construct on an endogenous construct. As a result, out of the four predictors of attitude, push factors, pull factors and food involvement had small effects on attitude with effect size f^2 values between 0.02 and 0.15. The effect size of subjective norms was 0.015 considering approximately 0.02. Therefore, subjective norms also showed a small effect on the endogenous variable attitude. Regarding three predictors of behavioral intention, food involvement and attitude had small effects on behavioral intention with f^2 value 0.069 and 0.026, respectively.

Perceived behavioral control predicted behavioral intention with a large effect size (0.447). Although the exogenous variables had different levels of effect on predicting their associated dependent variables (attitude and behavioral intention), the results indicated that the endogenous latent variables were explained quite well in the model.

6.6.5 Step 5: Evaluation of predictive relevance Q^2 and the q^2 effect sizes

By the blindfolding procedure in SmartPLS 3.0, the results of Q^2 for the assessment of predictive relevance associated with endogenous variables in the theoretical model is shown in *Table 6.24*. As suggested by Hair et al. (2014), the Q^2 value was greater than 0, indicating the model's predictive relevance. The results show that the Q^2 values of attitude (0.319) and behavioral intention (0.536) were both greater than zero, demonstrating the sufficient predictive relevance of the proposed model. However, the evaluation of q^2 effect size using a similar procedure to evaluating f^2 effect size was conducted to determine the changes in Q^2 value if deleting the exogenous variable. *Table 6.24* presents the results of q^2 effect size that is to assess the impact of exogenous variables on model's predictive relevance. Accordingly, pull factors and food involvement indicate the weak predictive relevance of attitude with the q^2 values of 0.023 and 0.088, respectively. Other two predictors of attitude (push factors and subjective norms) were also considered to have the weak predictive relevance although their q^2 values were slightly lower than 0.02.

Both food involvement and attitude had small effect on the predictive relevance associated with behavioral intention with the q^2 values 0.058 and 0.020, respectively. However, perceived behavioral control indicated a large effect on the predictive relevance for behavioral intention ($q^2 = 0.444$).

Table 6.24 Results of predictive relevance (Q^2) and q^2 effect size

Dependent constructs	Independent constructs	Q2 included	Q2 excluded	Effect size (q^2)	Inference
AT	PUS	0.319	0.307	0.018	Small effect
	PUL	0.319	0.303	0.023	Small effect
	FI	0.319	0.259	0.088	Small effect
	SN	0.319	0.311	0.012	Small effect
BI	FI	0.536	0.509	0.058	Small effect
	AT	0.536	0.527	0.020	Small effect
	BC	0.536	0.330	0.444	Large effect

6.7 Analysis for mediating effect

Based on the guidelines for mediator analysis presented in *Section 5.3.6*, a bootstrapping method suggested by Zhao et al. (2010) was performed to assess the mediation effect of attitude (AT) in the relationships of four constructs, push factors (PUS), pull factors (PUL), food involvement (FI), subjective norms (SN) associated with behavioral intention (BI). Accordingly, the first step was to examine the significance of indirect relationships which refer to the relationships between independent variables (PUS, PUL, FI, and SN) and a mediator (AT), and between a mediator (AT) and a dependent variable (BI). As shown in the *Table 6.25*, all indirect effects of the relationships between PUS and BI, PUL and BI, FI and BI, and SN and BI were significant with t-values above 1.65 at significant level of 10%, indicating that the relationships between PUS and BI, PUL and BI, FI and BI, and SN and BI were mediated by Attitude. As a result, all four proposed hypotheses H11a, H11b, H11c, and H11d were supported in this study.

The next step was to classify the type of mediation by examining the significance of direct effects for the relationships between independent variables (PUS, PUL, FI and SN) and dependent variable (BI) without a mediator (AT). The findings shown in *Table 6.25* indicated that PUS, PUL and SN were not the predictors of BI without a mediation attitude with t-values below 1.65 at the significant level of 10%. Consider the significance of indirect and direct effect, the causal relationships of push factors, pull factors and subjective norms associated with behavioral intention were found to be fully mediated by attitude. In addition, FI had significant direct influence on BI ($\beta_{FI \rightarrow BI} = 0.247$, $t = 5.523$, $p < 0.01$). The effect of FI on BI was found to drop in the strength with the β value decreasing from 0.247 to 0.186 when the mediator was added. This result indicated a partial mediation of attitude on the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention. In summary, the mediating effects of attitude was found to be significant in the proposed model.

Table 6.25 Results of mediation analysis

Hypothesis	Indirect effect model						Direct relationship			Total effect	Type of mediation
	Path a	Path b	β_a	β_b	β_{ab}	t-value	Path c	β_c	t-value		
H11a	PUS -> AT	AT -> BI	0.469	0.450	0.211***	5.690	PUS -> BI	0.067^{ns}	1.359	0.278	Full mediation
H11b	PUL -> AT	AT -> BI	0.452	0.454	0.205***	5.837	PUL -> BI	-0.010^{ns}	0.851	0.195	Full mediation
H11c	FI -> AT	AT -> BI	0.474	0.391	0.186***	5.693	FI -> BI	0.247***	5.523	0.433	Partial mediation
H11d	SN -> AT	AT -> BI	0.315	0.499	0.089*	1.760	SN -> BI	0.012^{ns}	0.280	0.101	Full mediation

Note: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

^{ns} non-significant

$\boldsymbol{\beta_a}$: path coefficient of relationship between an independent variable and a mediator

$\boldsymbol{\beta_b}$: path coefficient of relationship between a mediator and a dependent variable

$\boldsymbol{\beta_c}$: path coefficient of relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable without mediator

$\boldsymbol{\beta_{ab}}$: path coefficient of indirect relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable via a mediator

6.8 Analysis of moderating effects of age

The study proposed six hypotheses (H12a, H12b, H12c, H12d, H12e and H12f) to examine the moderating effects of age on the relationships associated with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. The data set of 335 respondents was divided into two subgroups. With six arrows pointing at the endogenous construct (behavioral intention), the recommended sample size in PLS-SEM for each subgroup was at least 103 to achieve a minimum R^2 value of 0.25 at the significant level of 1% (Hair et al., 2014). Accordingly, the group aged 35 and under and above 35 had 178 and 157 respondents, respectively which had enough sample size to meet statistical power guidelines.

As the nature of age was a categorical variable, PLS-SEM multi-group analysis (PLS-MGA) approach was employed to test the moderating effects. However prior to the comparison of structural relationships between group aged 35 and under and above 35, it is important to test for measurement invariance using the measurement invariance of composite models (MICOM) procedure suggested by Henseler et al. (2016). Based on the guideline proposed in *Section 5.3.7,* the MICOM procedure included three steps to test "configural invariance, compositional invariance, and the equality of composite mean values and variances" (Henseler et al., 2016, p.412). The results of each step of MICOM are presented as below

Configural invariance

In the proposed model of study, attitude (AT), subjective norms (SN), perceived behavioral control (BC), food involvement (FI), push factors (PUS) and pull factors (PUL) explained behavioral intention (BI). While PUS and PUL represent composites that build formative measurement models, AT, SN, BC, FI and BI were composites with reflective measurement models. The evaluation of configural invariance involved the measurement models evaluation for both two group aged 35 and under and aged above 35. The results shown in *Table 6.26* and *Table 6.27* indicated the fulfillment of the criteria of convergent validity and discriminant validity of measurement models in both groups. In particular, the composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) of all constructs were higher than 0.7 in the model tested for both groups. The square root of AVEs for each construct were higher compared its correlation values with other latent variables. In addition, the coefficient of determination (R^2) in the model of group aged 35 and under and above 35 was 51.6 and 55%,

respectively, indicating a moderate acceptable level as suggested by Chin (1998). As a result, the configural invariance was established across two groups of age.

Table 6.26 Measurement model evaluation with two groups aged 35 and under and aged above 35

Measurement model evaluation (Group aged 35 and under)				
	CR	**AVE**	**R^2**	**Q^2**
AT	0.924	0.754		
SN	0.906	0.706		
BC	0.894	0.740		
BI	0.937	0.789	0.516	0.396
FI	0.835	0.561		
PUL	Formative	Formative		
PUS	Formative	Formative		
Measurement model evaluation (Group aged above 35)				
	CR	**AVE**	**R^2**	**Q^2**
AT	0.946	0.813		
SN	0.912	0.721		
BC	0.916	0.786		
BI	0.951	0.829	0.550	0.431
FI	0.848	0.583		
PUL	Formative	Formative		
PUS	Formative	Formative		

Table 6.27 Inter-construct correlation in the model with two groups aged 35 and under and above 35

Correlation among the construct (Group aged 35 and under)							
Construct	**AT**	**BC**	**BI**	**FI**	**PUL**	**PUS**	**SN**
AT	**0.868**						
BC	0.503	**0.860**					
BI	0.499	0.661	**0.888**				
FI	0.392	0.293	0.421	**0.749**			
PUL	0.453	0.352	0.314	0.399	**Formative**		
PUS	0.566	0.319	0.382	0.418	0.514	**Formative**	
SN	0.338	0.245	0.243	0.159	0.400	0.285	**0.840**
Correlation among the construct (Group aged above 35)							
Construct	**AT**	**BC**	**BI**	**FI**	**PUL**	**PUS**	**SN**
AT	**0.902**						
BC	0.491	**0.887**					
BI	0.433	0.643	**0.911**				
FI	0.170	0.188	0.386	**0.763**			
PUL	0.403	0.243	0.406	0.378	**Formative**		
PUS	0.432	0.201	0.407	0.376	0.354	**Formative**	
SN	0.491	0.273	0.229	0.209	0.412	0.255	**0.849**

Note: The bold diagonal elements are calculated by the square root of the AVEs and non-non-bold off-diagonal elements are latent variable correlations

Compositional invariance

The second step of MICOM was to examine the compositional invariance which was to test whether the equality of composite scores of constructs across the group (Henseler et al., 2016). This test of MICOM was executed running permutation at 5,000 with the two-tailed default at the significant level of 0.05 in SmartPLS 3.0. As stated by Henseler et al. (2016, p.421), "a permutation test reveals if the correlation is significant different from one or not". *Table 6.28* reported the results of compositional invariance test. All original correlation values were closer to one, ranging from 0.950 to 1.000 and greater than 5% quantile correlations. As a result, compositional invariance was established for all composites in the proposed model.

Table 6.28 Result of compositional invariance

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.00%	Permutation p-Values	Compositional invariance
AT	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.764	Yes
SN	0.996	0.988	0.964	0.736	Yes
BC	1.000	0.999	0.995	0.985	Yes
FI	0.998	0.995	0.984	0.695	Yes
PUS	0.962	0.936	0.818	0.574	Yes
PUL	0.950	0.919	0.771	0.555	Yes
BI	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.246	Yes

The equality of composite mean values and variances

Having established configural and compositional invariance, the third step of MICOM was to assess the composites' equality of mean values and variances across the groups. *Table 6.29* showed the results of step 3 of MICOM. It can be seen from *Table 6.29* that majority of composites have no equality mean values as their mean original difference did not fall within the range of 95% confidential interval, except food involvement (FI). However, variance original difference values of constructs fell within 95% confidence interval (see *Table 6.29*). It is also noted that subjective norms (SN) failed both tests of equality of mean values and variance, then this construct was removed from the next analysis. With the results found in three steps of MICOM, only partial variance was established, however due to the increasing complexity of the model, the partial measurement invariance was acceptable for conducting multi-group analysis (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989).

Table 6.29 The equality of composite mean values and variances

Different of the composites' mean value				
Composite	**Mean - Original Difference (35 and under-Above 35)**	**Mean - Permutation Mean Difference (35 and under-Above 35)**	**95% confidential interval**	**Equal mean values**
AT	-0.414	0.001	[-0.224; 0.219]	No
BC	-0.340	-0.001	[-0.222; 0.215]	No
BI	-0.326	-0.001	[-0.215; 0.218]	No
FI	-0.148	0.001	[-0.213; 0.210]	Yes
PUL	-0.279	-0.002	[-0.216; 0.216]	No
PUS	-0.485	-0.001	[-0.222; 0.216]	No
SN	0.295	-0.001	[-0.217; 0.217]	No
Different of the composites' variance ratio				
Composite	**Variance - Original Difference (35 and under-Above 35)**	**Variance - Permutation Mean Difference (35 and under-Above 35)**	**95% confidential interval**	**Equal variances**
AT	0.243	-0.004	[-0.356; 0.345]	Yes
BC	0.150	-0.001	[-0.355; 0.343]	Yes
BI	0.126	0.000	[-0.286; 0.277]	Yes
FI	-0.237	0.001	[-0.366; 0.371]	Yes
PUL	0.091	0.004	[-0.331; 0.331]	Yes
PUS	0.148	0.005	[-0.391; 0.396]	Yes
SN	-0.349	0.003	[-0.298; 0.295]	No

After the measurement invariance was established, path coefficients of all relationships of AT, BC, FI, PUS and PUL associated with BI were compared using the permutation-based PLS-MGA. The group-specific bootstrapping was first run and the results are shown in *Table 6.30.* Accordingly, the causal links from perceived behavioral control (BC) and food involvement (FI) to behavioral intention (BI) were significant for both group aged 35 and under and above 35, with t-values above 1.65 at the significant of 10%. The strength of these two relationships were greater for the group aged above 35 than the group aged 35 and under. Attitude (AT) had a significant effect on BI for only group aged 35 and under ($\beta_{AT \rightarrow BI}$ = +0.124, t = 1.815, p < 0.1). On the contrary, the direct effects of push factors (PUS) and pull factors (PUL) on BI were only significant for the group aged above 35, with the t-values of 1.836 and 1.800, respectively.

Table 6.30 Bootstrapping results for group aged 35 and under and aged above 35 separately

Hypothesis	35 and under				Above 35			
	Path coefficient	t-value	p-value	Significant level	Path coefficient	t-value	p-value	Significant level
H12a: PUS -> BI	+0.071	1.022	0.307	ns	+0.131	1.960	0.050	**
H12b: PUL -> BI	+0.138	1.839	0.066	*	+0.087	1.441	0.150	ns
H12c: FI -> BI	+0.244	4.057	0.000	***	+0.160	2.390	0.017	**
H12d: AT -> BI	+0.135	1.736	0.083	*	+0.094	1.326	0.185	ns
H12e: BC -> BI	+0.551	8.408	0.000	***	+0.527	8.657	0.000	***

Note: ns: not significant

Table 6.31 Permutation test path coefficient results

	Path coefficient original (35 and under)	Path coefficient original (Above 35)	Path coefficient original difference (35 and under -Above 35)	Path coefficient permutation mean difference (35 and under-Above 35)	95% confidential interval	Permutation p-value
H12a: PUS -> BI	0.131	0.071	0.060	-0.001	[-0.186; 0.180]	0.522
H12b: PUL -> BI	0.087	-0.138	0.224	0.002	[-0184; 0.181]	0.013
H12c: FI -> BI	0.160	0.244	-0.083	-0.000	[-0.174; 0.181]	0.372
H12d: AT-> BI	0.094	0.135	-0.041	0.002	[0.217; 0.222]	0.700
H12e: BC -> BI	0.527	0.551	-0.024	-0.000	[-0.000; 0.182]	0.811

In addition, the permutation test results are shown in *Table 6.31*. Based on the guidelines suggested by Matthews (2017), there is a significant difference of path coefficients between the two groups if a permutation p-value is lower or equals to 0.10. As a result, only the relationship between pull factors and behavioral intention indicated a significant difference between group aged 35 and under and above 35. The hypothesis H12f was supported.

6.9 Summary of hypothesis testing

From the above discussion, twenty proposed theoretical hypotheses were examined by the different analysis techniques. First, the hypotheses of direct effects (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H9, and H10) were tested by examining the significance of path coefficient between an exogenous construct and an endogenous construct. Second, the hypotheses of mediating effects (H11a, H11b, H11c, and H11d) were evaluated by a bootstrapping technique to compute and test significance of indirect effects from an exogenous construct to an endogenous construct via a mediator. Last, the hypotheses of moderating effects (H12a, H12b, H12c, H12d, H12e, and H12f) were tested by PLS – Multi-group Analysis technique to evaluate the path coefficient from an exogenous construct to an endogenous construct for two different groups aged 35 and under and aged above 35. As a result, half of proposed hypotheses were found to be supported by the empirical data. *Table 6.32* summaries the findings of hypotheses testing.

Table 6.32 Summary of hypothesis testing

	Hypothesis	Results
H1	Push factors have a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.	Supported***
H2	Pull factors have a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.	Supported***
H3	Push factors have a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visit a food tourism destination.	Not supported
H4	Pull factors have a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visit a food tourism destination.	Not supported
H5	Food involvement has a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.	Supported***
H6	Food involvement has a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visit a food tourism destination.	Supported***
H7	Subjective norms has a direct effect on attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination.	Supported**
H8	Subjective norms has a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination.	Not supported
H9	Attitude has a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination.	Supported***
H10	Perceived behavior control has a direct effect on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination.	Supported***
H11a	Push factors indirectly influence behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by attitude	Supported***
H11b	Pull factors indirectly influence behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by attitude	Supported***
H11c	Food involvement indirectly influences behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by attitude	Supported***
H11d	Subjective norms indirectly influences behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, mediated by attitude	Supported*

H12a	Age moderates the relationship between attitude and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination	Not supported
H12b	Age moderates the relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination	Not supported
H12c	Age moderates the relationship between subjective norms and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination	Not supported
H12d	Age moderates the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination	Not supported
H12e	Age moderates the relationship between push factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination	Not supported
H12f	Age moderates the relationship between pull factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination	Supported**

Note: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

6.10 Analysis of t-tests and ANOVA

6.10.1 Comparison of push factors and pull factors

The independent t-test was applied to examine the differences of push factors (taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences) and pull factors (core food-tourism appeals, traditional appeals and local destination appeals) by travel experience and gender. By using a question "have you ever traveled for food and food-related activities as a major travel reason before?", travel experience referred to a division between experienced food tourists and inexperienced food tourists. *Table 6.33* shows the results of comparison of travel food motivation between these two groups. Accordingly, regarding push factors, the significant differences of mean were found for all three intrinsic motivation factors: taste of food ($t(333) = -2.185$, $p = 0.030$), socialization ($t(333) = -3.001$, $p = 0.003$) and cultural experiences ($t(333) = -2.828$, $p = 0.05$). In particular, those having previous experiences of food travel were more highly motivated for food tasting, socialization and cultural experiences than their counterparts as the mean values of experienced food tourist group were higher than the

figures for inexperienced food tourists group. However, there was no difference in mean scores for three attributes of a food tourism destination (core-food tourism appeals, traditional appeals and local destination appeals) between these groups (p>0.05).

Table 6.33 Comparison of food travel motivation across groups of travel experience

		Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	p-value
Push factors					
Taste of food (TF)	Food tourists	6.263	0.682	-2.185	0.030
	Non-food tourists	6.047	0.665		
Socialization (SO)	Food tourists	4.552	1.189	-3.001	0.003
	Non-food tourists	4.038	1.175		
Cultural experiences (CE)	Food tourists	6.181	0.739	-2.828	0.005
	Non-food tourists	5.855	0.802		
Pull factors					
Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	Food tourists	4.835	1.102	-1.823	0.069
	Non-food tourists	4.548	0.962		
Traditional food appeals (TA)	Food tourists	6.004	0.833	-1.690	0.092
	Non-food tourists	5.798	0.850		
Local destination appeals (LA)	Food tourists	5.581	0.870	-1.682	0.093
	Non-food tourists	5.372	0.763		

The second test was between male and female group (*see Table 6.33*). Interestingly, these two groups were only differently motivated by cultural experiences (p = 0.029). Male respondents were less motivated by cultural motivator than their counterpart as the mean value of male group was 6.009, lower than the figure for female group (Mean = 6.204). There were no differences for all other food travel motivators between male and female tourists (p>0.05)

Table 6.34 Comparison of food travel motivation across groups of gender

		Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	p-value
Push factors					
Taste of food (TF)	Male	6.151	0.682	1.661	0.098
	Female	6.277	0.681		
Socialization (SO)	Male	4.480	1.161	-0.203	0.840
	Female	4.453	1.214		
Cultural experiences (CE)	Male	6.009	0.823	2.195	0.029
	Female	6.204	0.777		
Pull factors					
Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	Male	4.761	1.063	0.342	0.732
	Female	4.803	1.100		
Traditional food appeals (TA)	Male	5.944	0.852	0.434	0.665
	Female	5.985	0.830		
Local destination appeals (LA)	Male	5.480	0.867	1.145	0.253
	Female	5.589	0.847		

The one-way ANOVA was utilized to examine the differences of food travel motivation by respondents' age and their region of residence and results are shown in *Table 6.34* and *Table 6.35.* First, in this study, the age of respondents was categorized into six groups, including 18-24, 25-35, 36-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65 and over. As can be seen from *Table 6.34,* the group aged from 36 to 44 was found to had highest motivation for taste of food and cultural experiences, whereas the eldest group (65 years old or above) had strongest motive for socialization. The group aged from 35 years old had higher food travel motivation for attractive features of a food destination rather than the young group aged 35 and under. However, the significant difference of mean scores was found in only a dimension of push factors (socialization) among age groups ($F(5,329) = 4.832$, $p = 0.000$). A similar result was reported for the traditional food appeals dimension of pull factors ($F(5,329) = 4.984$, $p = 0.000$). By contrast, there were no statistically significant differences of mean scores between age groups for other two push factors (socialization and cultural experiences) and other two pull factors (core-food tourism appeals and local destination appeals).

Table 6.35 Comparison of food travel motivation across age groups

		Mean	Std. Deviation	F-value	p-value
Push factors					
Taste of food (TF)	18-24	6.054	0.621	4.832	0.000
	25-35	6.077	0.713		
	36-44	6.522	0.474		
	45-54	6.415	0.665		
	55-64	6.270	0.752		
	65 and above	6.256	0.530		
Socialization (SO)	18-24	4.446	1.132	2.224	0.052
	25-35	4.290	1.215		
	36-44	4.418	1.197		
	45-54	4.687	1.202		
	55-64	4.659	1.073		
	65 and above	5.192	1.056		
Cultural experiences (CE)	18-24	6.137	0.880	1.150	0.334
	25-35	6.014	0.802		
	36-44	6.259	0.737		
	45-54	6.209	0.830		
	55-64	6.238	0.783		
	65 and above	6.135	0.740		
Pull factors					
Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	18-24	4.806	1.046	1.835	0.106
	25-35	4.716	1.066		
	36-44	4.646	0.999		
	45-54	4.908	1.215		
	55-64	4.804	1.098		
	65 and above	5.577	0.954		
Traditional food appeals (TA)	18-24	5.468	0.948	4.984	0.000
	25-35	5.874	0.813		
	36-44	6.226	0.609		
	45-54	6.204	0.835		
	55-64	5.976	0.943		
	65 and above	6.269	0.665		
Local destination appeals (LA)	18-24	5.316	0.876	1.077	0.373
	25-35	5.514	0.873		
	36-44	5.513	0.837		
	45-54	5.710	0.819		
	55-64	5.600	0.850		
	65 and above	5.769	0.808		

Table 6.36 presents the results of comparison of food travel motivation across groups coming from four different regions, including Asia, Europe, America (North America and South America) and Australia/ Oceania. The Africa group was not included in the ANOVA test as only 5 respondents were recorded in this group. The results showed that America group had highest motivation for taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences while the lowest internal motivation for food tourism was reported for Asian group. The groups from Europe and America were more strongly motivated by pull factors (core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals) than Asian and Australian groups. However, the significant difference was only found in the intrinsic motive for taste of food between the four groups ($F(4,330) = 3.987$, $p = 0.004$). There was an equality of mean for other push and pull factors between groups coming from different countries ($p>0.05$).

Table 6.36 Comparison of food travel motivation across countries of residence

		Mean	Std. Deviation	F-value	p-value
Push factors					
Taste of food (TF)	Asia	6.121	0.634	3.987	0.004
	Europe	6.271	0.815		
	America	6.413	0.646		
	Australia	6.237	0.603		
Socialization (SO)	Asia	4.398	1.113	0.396	0.812
	Europe	4.512	1.202		
	America	4.597	1.201		
	Australia	4.421	1.306		
Cultural experiences (CE)	Asia	6.051	0.760	1.793	0.130
	Europe	6.225	0.837		
	America	6.239	0.757		
	Australia	6.095	0.832		
Pull factors					
Core food-tourism appeals (CA)	Asia	4.786	1.060	0.202	0.937
	Europe	4.804	1.016		
	America	4.821	1.131		
	Australia	4.717	1.153		
Traditional food appeals (TA)	Asia	5.903	0.752	0.526	0.647
	Europe	6.072	0.900		
	America	6.007	0.947		
	Australia	5.928	0.799		
Local destination appeals (LA)	Asia	5.542	0.786	1.671	0.156
	Europe	5.719	0.785		
	America	5.588	0.833		
	Australia	5.361	1.008		

6.10.2 Comparison of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

The behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination was compared between groups of travel experience, gender, age and region of residence (see *Table 6.35.*). Accordingly, there was inequality of mean in behavioral intention for the group of experienced food tourists and inexperienced food tourists (t (333) = -5.831, p = 0.000). The similar result was reported across groups of regions of residence (F (4,330) = 2.498, p=0.043). America group had the strongest likelihood to visit a food tourism destination. Regardless of gender and age, there was no significant difference of mean in behavioral intention between groups (p>0.05). However, the group aged above 35 years old had more intention toward a food trip than the younger group.

Table 6.37 Comparison of behavioral intention between groups of travel experience, gender, age and region of residence

	Mean	Std.Deviation	t-value/F-value	p-value
Groups of travel experience				
Food tourists	6.039	0.921	-5.831	0.000
Non-food tourists	5.250	0.976		
Groups of gender				
Male	5.844	1.015	0.926	0.355
Female	5.945	0.947		
Groups of age				
18-24	5.589	1.009	2.146	0.060
25-35	5.798	0.988		
36-44	6.090	0.849		
45-54	6.051	0.978		
55-64	6.137	0.941		
65 and above	5.807	1.114		
Groups of living region				
Asia	5.761	0.932	2.498	0.043
Europe	5.891	0.978		
America	6.205	0.958		
Australia	5.901	0.987		

6.11 Conclusion

This chapter provides a comprehensive report of results and findings from data analysis techniques that were introduced in Chapter 5. In the first step of analysis, statistical techniques such as missing data, outliers, normality were used to screen the data collected from main survey. Out of 352 cases completed the survey, 17 cases were deleted for outliers checking. The data set of 335 cases was then concluded to be normally distributed at

univariate level. After the data screening, the chapter presents the demographic profile and travel profile of respondents. The highest percentage of respondents were employed, in the age group between 25 and 35 and got the undergraduate university degree. Most of them had experiences for food travel in the past.

After an exploratory factor analysis was used to purify the measurement scales, the evaluation of first-order and second-order measurement models produced findings as the response to the first objective of study. In particular, taste of food, socialization and cultural Experiences were identified as three dimensions of push factors while pull factors of a future trip to visit a food tourism destination include core food-tourism appeals, tradition food appeals and local destination appeals.

Turn to the second objective of study, the results of structural model evaluation showed that food involvement, attitude and subjective norms had direct effects on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Push factors, pull factors and subjective norms indirectly influenced behavioral intention via a full mediator attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination. Attitude also partially mediated the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention toward a food trip.

In addition, the study investigated the moderating effects of age on all the causal links from push factors, pull factors, food involvement, attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control to behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. As a result, there was a significant difference in the relationship between pull factors and behavioral across various groups of age. However, other causal relationships associated with behavioral intention toward a food trip were not moderated by age. Lastly, the results of independent t-test and one-way ANOVA demonstrated the differences of food travel motivation and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination across groups of travel experience, gender, age and region of residence.

In conclusion, these results found in this chapter produced the responses to all the research questions proposed in this study. The following chapter provides a discussion of these results and findings in detail.

CHAPTER 7
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the results of the study along with the theoretical and managerial implications, the limitations of the research and suggestions for future research. First, the results and findings are discussed in the sequence in which the research objectives and questions were presented in the introduction to this thesis. The chapter commences with a discussion of the push and pull factors of foodies visiting a food tourism destination and, within this discussion, research question 1 is answered. The results are linked with previous research found within the literature to highlight why push and pull factors are important to foodies and, how foodies are motivated to visit food tourism destinations (*Section 7.2*). The reliability of the motivational dimensions of the constructs is also discussed. This provides insights that become more relevant later in the chapter when details of the overall model performance are presented (*Section 7.3*). In this section, the justification for direct and indirect relationships associated with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination are discussed in the context of the results related to research questions 2a and 2b.

The moderator effects of age on the causal links with behavioral intention are then described in order to answer research question 2c and this is followed by a comparison of food travel motivation and behavioral intention. This comparison is discussed between groups of travel experiences and demographic variables (gender, age and region of residence) and serves to answer research question 3 *(Section 7.4).* How the study achieves the research objectives and research questions is then presented to summarize the previous discussions (*Section 7.5*). *Section 7.6* presents the implications of the research highlighting both theoretical and managerial implications. Finally, limitations and suggestions for further research are proposed (*Section 7.7*) and the thesis is rounded off with a concluding statement.

7.2 Push factors and pull factors that motivate foodies to visit a food tourism destination

As noted in the earlier chapters of this thesis, the rise of food tourism is a relatively recent phenomenon but it is gaining importance globally and has been predicted to continue to grow in the future (Getz et al. 2014). As a result, this study sought to provide a comprehensive understanding of this contemporary niche market selecting foodies, who have a passion for food, to respond to the study. The two tried and tested perspectives on travel motivation (push factors and pull factors) were included to address the first objective of the study, which was to identify motivations of foodies who indicated a propensity for a future food trip. Push and pull factors have been used to provide a robust theoretical framework for tourism motivation in many contexts and the findings of the current study have also demonstrated the utility of the push-pull framework as a valid motivational theory to identify foodies' motivations to visit a food tourism destination. In order to answer the first research question "Which push factors and pull factors motivate foodies to visit a food tourism destination", therefore push factors (the demand dimensions of tourists) and pull factors (the supply dimensions of a tourist destination) are discussed individually in detail below.

7.2.1 Push factors

In the previous chapter, the analysis of measurement models (*see Section 6.5.2*) indicates that foodies are motivated to visit a food tourism destination by three internal factors; taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences. Each factor is now discussed in detail based on the results of this study.

In this study, taste of food was identified as the most important internal factor that motivates foodies to take a food trip. Indeed, foodies who participated in the study expressed their desire to taste local food in a traditional setting, experience a variety of different types of food and find "special food" in a food tourism destination. The need to taste new foods could be considered as one of physical motivators proposed by Fields (2002). Taste of food has also been validated as an exciting part of experience related motivation in previous studies. For example, Kim and Eves (2012) contended that the basic element to describe the exciting experiences of food travel is to experience local food in its original place. However, in this study, the taste of food emerge as a separate dimension of push factors that provide a full understanding of food travel motivation. Indeed, taste of food is no longer seen as a

component of physiological motivator or exciting experience. The motive to travel for taste of food positions food travel motivation as a sociological construct. That is, it relates to the two sociological tendencies in taste: 'neophobic' and 'neophylic' (Fischler, 1988). These terms have been adopted to explain tourist' food consumption behavior in the tourism literature where it was found that many tourists show a neophobic tendency described as a fear of tasting unfamiliar food or trying local varieties of food at a destination (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). On the other hand, a neophylic tendency which is expressed as an interest in exploring new foods or traditional food (Fischler, 1988) provides an explanation for the taste of food motivation among potential food tourists found in this study.

The second most important intrinsic motive stated by respondents was cultural experiences. These respondents showed a strong desire to understand local culture and increase their knowledge about different cultures. Differences in preparation styles, cooking and serving within various food destinations were found to motivate food lovers to visit those destinations to learn traditional culture such as what and how local people have meals at the table. The authenticity of the food was found to be central to this experience because it was through their food-related experiences at a destination that they interpreted local culture. The study identifies cultural experience, which earlier research has found can be an integration of two nominated motivational factors (authentic experience and learning) (Chang et al., 2010; Mak et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2009). This finding is also consistent with past research into motivation for the consumption of local food by Kim & Eves (2012). In this study, the motivation for cultural experience can be explained based on the classification of types of foodies suggested by Getz et al. (2014). Accordingly, foodies were classified into three segments, dynamic foodies, active foodies and passive foodies. Getz et al. (2014) found that the segment, which had not previously traveled for food experiences were categorized into passive foodies. Foodies who had past food travel experiences could be classified into active or dynamic foodies. While passive foodies expressed interest in good food experiences, dynamic foodies were previously found to have a passion for learning and authentic experiences related to food activities (Johnston & Baumann, 2007). As a result, with most foodies in this study (278 out of the 335 respondents) having past food travel experiences, the current study provides empirical evidence to confirming that potential food tourists have the motivation not only for local, new and special food consumption, but also for cultural experiences associated with food. The food destination experiences they were seeking were found to be the combination of food and food-related culture.

The third most important intrinsic motivation that was uncovered in this study is socialization, which was described by respondents as the desire to increase friendship in a food tourism destination. The social interaction between foodies in sharing meals and other food-related activities motivates them to travel to a food tourism destination where many like-minded food tourists gather. This finding of the study is in line with previous research, such as Kim et al. (2013) who regarded the motive for interpersonal relationships as increasing friendship or talking to everybody about local food experiences. However, the current study reveals a new aspect of socialization motivation related to the needs of food tourists to develop their cooking skills, increase their food knowledge, familiarize themselves with cooks and food producers, meet with celebrity chefs and engage with local chefs through food-related activities at a food destination. This finding emerges as a noticeable difference in our current understanding of food travel motivation when compared with travel motivation in general. While the motive for socialization connects with previous work which has also shown that one of the key dimensions of being a foodie is social bonding (Getz et al., 2014), the notion of bonding that emerged in this thesis is enhanced not only by the cultural dimension of sharing meals and food-related experiences with local people at a destination, but also by the connection between other foodies and with food experts (i.e., cooks, food producers, chefs). In the current study, this presents the opportunity to enhance the cultural authenticity of the experience and further tap into the primacy of culture as a motivator for taking a food related trip and this issue can be optimized by marketers and Destination Management Organizations.

To sum up, the above discussion has presented three push factors and highlighted their importance in motivating foodies to visit a food tourism destination. The discussion has concluded that food tourists are primarily motivated by the desire for the taste of food, followed by cultural experiences and socialization. Although the emerging factors share a number of similarities with previous findings, the unique aspects discovered in this study provide a more comprehensive understanding of the intrinsic motivation of foodies and how these motives push foodies towards a destination. The extrinsic motivation related to food destination attractiveness is now discussed below.

7.2.2 Pull factors

In addition to the three push factors discussed above, three pull factors were identified based upon respondents' consideration of the attractive attributes of a food destination when they

made food travel decisions. The three attributes rated by respondents in this study include core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals. These three pull motivational dimensions are unique to this present study, making a significant contribution to our knowledge of food travel motivation from a destination perspective. These details are discussed in relation to each pull factor below.

The first pull factor identified by respondents is core food-tourism appeals. This factor was found to be an important, attractive feature of a food tourism destination in terms of food-related activities (food tours, cooking classes, food festivals and events, and celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers). For food travelers, culinary activities were not only a key motivator for their food trip, but also a determinant for them to choose between potential destinations. In this research, the destination-related motivational factor were similar to the convergence of the 'core wine product' and 'core wine experience' identified in previous studies within the literature on wine tourism (Getz & Brown, 2006; Sparks, 2007), although the wine tourism experience and wine regions are different. The dimension, core food-tourism appeals also differs considerably from the findings related to 'food product' in a study on travel motivation toward a culinary event (Smith et al., 2010). In the Smith et al.'s (2010) study, the main feature of the food product were confined to food cooking techniques, product recipes and cooking demonstrations. In this thesis, the pull factor, core food-tourism appeals presents a more holistic approach to the attractiveness of a food destination where the availability of various culinary activities was found to be important. Core food-tourism appeals reflect opportunities for potential food tourists to engage in food-related activities to satisfy their needs such as tasting food, socializing and learning about food-related culture as discussed above, where the socialization and learning elements are key to the overall experience.

The second attribute of a food tourism destination that is considered to be attractive to foodies is traditional food appeals. Two attractive features were reported by respondents in this dimension of pull factors, including traditional food villages and visitor-friendly food markets. These attributes were proposed as components of the core food-tourism product or the cultural product. These attributes were also found to be critical success factors for wine tourism regions by Getz and Brown (2006), for example, elements of tradition, authenticity and friendliness. However, the findings in this study show that they grouped as a separate determinant of an attractive food destination. The traditional food appeals demonstrated that

potential food tourists are motivated particularly by the traditional features food-tourism attractions as opposed to food-related activities in general. As a result, this dimension implies a differentiation of potential food tourist markets based on food-related activities which they are motivated by. This comes out more clearly when the typology of foodies suggested by Getz et al. (2014) is introduced. This typology classified food lovers into dynamic, active and passive foodies. In this thesis, core food-tourism appeals were found to be attractive for passive foodies, dynamic and active foodies who visit a food destination because of the traditional food appeals. This attractive dimension is also found to be aligned with the intrinsic motive for cultural experiences among potential food tourists.

The third dimension of pull factors uncovered in this study is local destination appeals, encompassing cultural events featuring food and other traditions, traditional farmers' markets, specialty shops and markets selling local farm product, local artwork and crafts for sale and an authentic rural environment. The exploration of this external factor was found to be consistent with marketing research of culinary travelers profiles by the Travel Industry Association of America (2006), which mentioned the tendency of food tourists to participate in a wide variety of activities at a destination including cultural and heritage activities. In a previous study of wine tourism, Getz and Brown (2006) found that 'core destination appeal' and 'the cultural product' were key features constituting a wine tourism region. However, in this study, items relating to core destination appeal and the cultural product were grouped as one factor, local destination appeals. This pull dimension demonstrated that diverse cultural activities were an imperative element of a food destination, contributing to motivate a food tourism vacation. Indeed, the current research determined that the authentic and cultural attributes are at the forefront of an attractive food destination. This is further supported by the results related to the motive for cultural experience that respondents reported (discussed in *Section 7.2.1* above). As a result, potential food tourists involved in the present study were seeking the food-related experiences together with culture-related experiences that position them as culture-related food tourists.

The preceding discussion indicates three unique dimensions of pull factors that motivate foodies to travel to a food destination. Core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals demonstrate the attractiveness of a food tourism destination for potential food tourists. It is therefore concluded that foodies are likely to choose a destination

with a range of specific attractions from food-related attractions to cultural and heritage attractions, as well as opportunities to engage directly in a hands on way with these factors.

In conclusion, the study uncovered six factors that motivate food lovers to take a food trip to a destination. Three factors, uncovered from the tourist perspective, are taste of food, cultural experiences and socialization (push factors). Three other factors, core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals are identified from the perspective of a food destination (pull factors). Although the findings share similarities with previous studies in food and in wine tourism, several dimensions of food travel motivation were found to be unique to the present study.

7.3 Overall model performance

This study proposed an extended theory of planned behavior model to examine factors which have influences on foodies' behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Accordingly, three constructs (attitude, perceived behavioral control and subjective norms) were hypothesized to have direct effects on behavioral intention as was the case in the original TPB model. In this study, three new constructs (push factors, pull factors and food involvement) were added as new predictors of behavioral intention toward a trip to a food tourism destination. These three constructs and subjective norms were also assumed to have influences on attitude, which is an important antecedent of behavioral intention towards visiting a food tourism destination. All the relationships associated with behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination were also likely to be moderated by the demographic variable (age). As a result, the extended TPB model of the study included seven main constructs. While four constructs (attitude, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms and food involvement) were proposed as first-order constructs, two constructs (push factors and pull factors) were formed a second-order constructs. As discussed above in section 7.2, push factors and pull factors were identified with three dimensions (taste of food, cultural experiences and socialization), and three dimensions (core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals), respectively. The study proposed a total of 20 hypotheses to investigate the relationships among constructs in the model. The evaluation of measurement models and the structural model provided the empirical findings to support the proposed model. Consequently, attitudes, perceived behavioral control and food involvement were found to have direct and positive influence on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. However, three direct effects from push factors, pull

factors, and subjective norms to behavioral intention were not significant. Instead, the indirect effects from push factors, pull factors, subjective norms and food involvement to behavioral intention were shown to be mediated by attitude. In addition, the multi-group analysis indicated that the direct relationships associated with behavioral intention differ across age groups. Pull factors were found to have direct influence on behavioral intention for the group aged 35 and under while this relationship was not significant for the older group. The moderating effect of age was demonstrated to be significant in the direct causal link from pull factors to behavioral intention. Finally, the results show that 54.3% of the total variance of behavioral intention was explained by exogenous variables (attitude, perceived behavioral control and food involvement), indicating that the proposed structural model has the statistical ability to predict behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. *Figure 7.1* represents the final model of behavioral intention in the context of food tourism based on the empirical findings. The following sections provide a detailed discussion regarding relationships among constructs relevant to behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination to answer research questions 2a, 2b and 2c proposed in the first chapter.

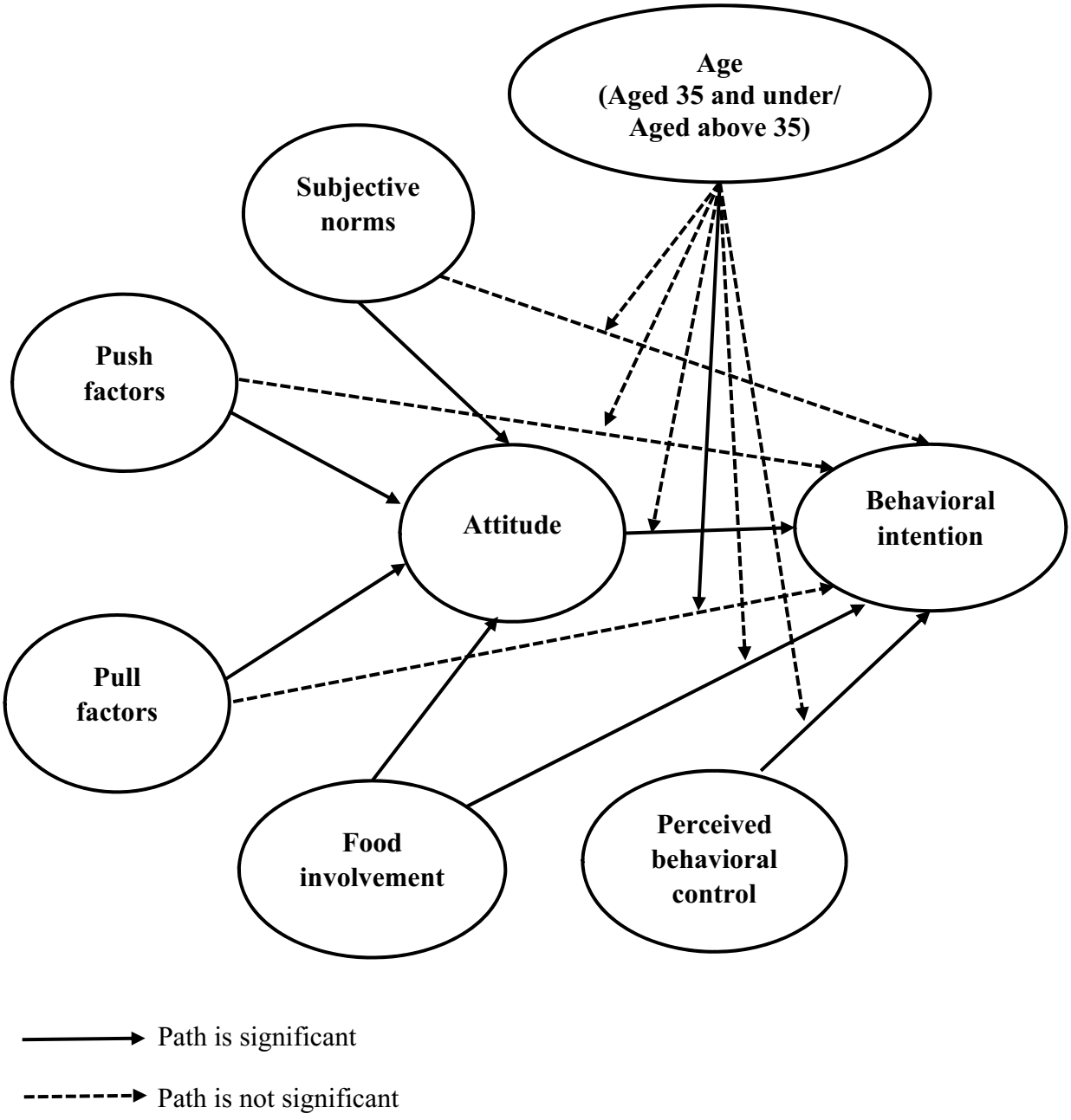


Figure 7.1 The final model of behavioral intention towards visiting a food tourism destination

7.3.1 Determinants of behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination

This part of the discussion provides a response to research question 2a, "what are the determinants of behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination?" Out of six proposed predictors of behavioral intention, only three factors, attitude, perceived behavioral control and food involvement were identified to have direct influences on foodies' intention to visit a food tourism destination (see *Section 6.6.2)*. The study also found that perceived behavioral

control was a better predictor of behavioral intention than attitude and food involvement in the context of food tourism. Each significant relationship is discussed as follows.

First, the current study demonstrated that the major predictor of foodies' intentions to take a food trip was perceived behavioral control. This behavioral control variable was measured by money and time control and potential barriers that prevent respondents from taking a food trip to a destination. Prospective food tourists place greater importance on two obstacles, time and money, than their positive attitude toward their food trip to a destination. While the relationship between perceived behavioral control and intention was investigated in a study designed to understand behavior toward a travel destination (in Hong Kong) by Lam and Hsu (2004; 2006), the finding in this current study contributed to reveal that food tourists also feel similar constraints with other tourists when making a travel decision to a destination. As the food tourist market represents high-yield tourists who are willing to spend more on high-quality and diverse food-related experiences (Getz et al., 2014; UNWTO, 2012), their food trips are frequently decided on budget. As a result, the study highlights the importance of time and financial resources (time, money) for potential food tourists in their food travel decision-making. Foodies are therefore encouraged to overcome constraints such as cost and time in order to take a future food trip. In addition to these two obstacles, another statement, "nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want", given by respondents made an assumption in this study. That is, if potential food tourists have the capability to deal with travel constraints, what factors would make them "want" to travel to a food tourism destination. More questions raised from this finding will be discussed later in the section of recommendations for further research (*Section 7.7).*

The second predictor of intentions toward visiting a food destination reported by respondents is attitude, which represents the positive feelings of respondents about their future food trip to a destination. The significant causal link from attitude to behavioral intention indicates that foodies are more likely to visit a food destination if they perceive their food trips to be enjoyable, worthwhile, satisfying and rewarding. This relationship between attitude and behavioral intention lends support to previous findings in the literature of food tourism. For example, Ryu and Jang (2006) also found that attitude was a significant predictor of tourists' intention to try local foods at a travel destination. However, the finding in the current study is different from previous research in the context of wine tourism. For example, Sparks et al. (2007) did not find relationship between emotional attitude and intentions toward a wine

tourism vacation, while this study identified a significant relationship between these two psychological factors. As a result, this finding contributes to distinguish the formation of travel behavior between two special-interest segments, food and wine tourists.

Turning to the new added construct to the original TPB model, food involvement was also found to be a valid predictor of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. The more foodies are involved in food-related activities such as shopping for cooking ingredients, spending on dining out, acquiring food for domestic meals, learning about other cultures through food, and so on, the more likely they travel to a food tourism destination. It is acknowledged that the causal relationship between wine involvement and behavioral intention has been investigated in the context of wine tourism. For example, Brown and Getz (2005, p.275) stated that "consumer involvement with wine or other leisure and lifestyle pursuits will directly influence both the awareness and evoked set of preferred destinations". As a result, the hypothesis posited in the current study related to a possible positive impact of food involvement on behavioral intention was formulated based on findings of studies in the field of wine tourism. The results have shown that, this proposition of study upheld after it was empirically validated in the context of food tourism. Consequently, the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention found in the present study adds to the body of knowledge in food tourism.

In conclusion, from the foregoing discussion, three variables, attitude, perceived behavioral control and food involvement were confirmed to be significant direct predictors of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination in this study. These findings contribute to an understanding of food travel behavior based on the influences of the socio-psychological variable (attitude), personal variable (food involvement) and environmental variable (time and money constraints).

7.3.2 Indirect relationships associated with behavioral intention mediated by attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination

In this study, findings indicated that attitude played a mediating role in the relationships of four constructs (push factors, pull factors, subjective norms and food involvement) and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Particularly, the effects of push factors, pull factors and subjective norms on behavioral intention are found to be fully mediated by attitude, while a partial mediation effect of attitude was presented on the

relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention. The mediating effect of attitude on each relationship between push factors and behavioral intention, pull factors and behavioral intention, subjective norms and behavioral intention, and food involvement and behavioral intention is now discussed in detail.

First, push factors and pull factors were not identified to have direct effects on behavioral intention; however, they had direct effects on attitude toward a future food trip. As a result, attitude fully mediated the influence of these motivational factors on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. These findings imply that the intrinsic motives and destination's attractive features are likely to increase foodies' evaluation about future food trips although they do not lead to foodies' inclination to plan a food tourism vacation to a destination. Similarly, previous studies in the context of wine tourism, for example, Sparks (2007, p.1189) found that three dimensions of push and pull factors (personal development, core wine experience and destination experience) "were better predictors of emotional attitude than of intention" toward a wine tourism trip. Quintal et al. (2015) also found that the attractiveness of a winery, interpreted as winescape, had a significant effect on attitude of wine tourists toward visiting wineries. Consequently, the present study provides empirical evidence to confirm the relationship of motivation-attitude-behavior investigated in the field of wine tourism. This relationship also contributes to the understanding of food travel behavior by demonstrating that push and pull food tourism motivations are related to attitude formation, but not directly associated with future intention to visit a food tourism destination.

A similar finding revealed that attitude also fully mediated the influence of subjective norms on behavioral intention toward a trip to a food tourism destination. The influence of normative influences on attitude is consistent with previous findings of a study of destination choice behavior by Quintal et al. (2010). However, in contrast to previous findings reported by general tourists (South Korean, China and Japan) traveling to Australia (Quintal et al., 2010) or wine tourists visiting wine regions (Sparks, 2007), the notion of subjective norms-behavioral intention relationship was not confirmed by potential food tourists in the current study. The social reference source (i.e., friends, family) can only help to increase the evaluation of foodies about a future food trip, which in turn, leads to their likelihood to visit a food tourism destination. This finding demonstrated the relationship of subjective norms-attitude-behavioral intention that has not yet been studied in the context of food tourism. In

the realm of social influence, the current study makes a suggestion to understand more about the effects of other reference sources on food travel decision-making. Referring back to the results related to travel profile provided by respondents in the study in *Section 6.3.2*, friends and relatives were the most popular sources of information, followed by online reviewers of destinations, and general web search. As a result, apart from primary sources (i.e., friends, relatives), worth-of-mouth (WOM) derived from other food tourists or e-WOM (Hernández-Méndez et al., 2015) should be further investigated as other possible influential sources of information on behavioral intention toward food trips, making a contribution to the literature of food tourism.

Lastly, food involvement was found to have a direct effect on attitude that was a good predictor of foodies' behavioral intention to take a food trip. As food involvement was also affirmed to directly affect behavioral intention (see *Section 7.3.1*), attitude thus had a partial mediating effect on the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention. The study is partially consistent with a previous study in wine tourism by Sparks (2007), for example, wine involvement was found to have a significant impact on attitude toward wine trips. In fact, Sparks (2007) found that the more an individual is involved in wine and food activities, the more positive he or she has a feeling about a future wine vacation. However, while wine tourists' intention to partake in wine tourism was not affected by their attitude toward a wine trip (Sparks, 2007), in the current study, the positive feelings of food tourists about future food trips lead to their intention to visit a food destination. Consequently, the relationship of food involvement-attitude-behavioral intention is unique to the present study, contributing to the understanding of food travel behavior.

In conclusion, the above discussion indicates the indirect relationships of travel motivation (push factors and pull factors) and food involvement associated with behavioral intention via attitude toward visiting a food tourism destination. These relationships provide a new insight into the mediating role of attitude in the understanding of behavior intention toward a food tourism vacation. As a result, the findings in this section, together with those discussed in *Section 7.3.1,* provide a full answer to research question 2b, "Are there significant relationships among the constructs: attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, push factors, pull factors, food involvement and behavioral intention to visit a food tourism destination?".

7.3.3 The moderating effects of age on relationships associated with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

This section is devoted to answer research question 2c, "To what extent does age moderate the relationships associated with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination". In this study, age was categorized into two groups including a group aged 35 and under and a group aged above 35. A multi-group analysis was conducted to investigate the moderating effects of age on the direct relationships linked with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination and results were presented in *Section 6.9*. Accordingly, the findings indicated that attitude had a direct influence on behavioral intention for the only group aged 35 and under. On the contrary, push factors directly affected behavioral intention for the only group aged above 35. The influence of food involvement and perceived behavioral control were found to be significant for both age groups. The findings also revealed that the direct causal links from push factors, food involvement, attitude and perceived behavioral control to behavioral intention were not moderated by the age in the context of food tourism, indicating the rejection of hypotheses, H12a, H12c, H12d, and H12e. Age was only found to moderate the relationship between pull factor and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, indicating that the hypothesis H12b was supported. While the behavioral intention of the group aged 35 and under was significantly affected by attractive features of a food tourism destination (pull factors), this relationship was not confirmed to be significant for the older group aged above 35. Indeed, pull factors have a stronger impact on behavioral intention for the group 35 and under than for the older group. These findings show some similarities with a previous study by Ragavan, Subramonian, and Sharif (2014) who also found the moderator effect of age on the influence of destination travel attributes on tourists' satisfaction. However, in the context of food tourism, there has been a lack of research concerning the moderating role of age on the relationships associated with socio-psychological variables (e.g., attitude, intention). As a result, findings of this study have empirically confirmed the influence of a demographic variable in the formation of food travel behavior. Hence, other socio-demographic information such as gender, marital status, education level, occupation and household income can be proposed as moderators to understand food travel behavior in future research.

7.4 Comparison of motivation and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

In order to answer research question 3, "Are the push factors, pull factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination significantly different based on travel experience and socio-demographic variables (gender, age, and living region)?", the independent sample t-test and ANOVA were applied and results were presented in *Section 6.10*. The discussion of findings related to differences of food travel motivation (push factors and pull factors) and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination is now discussed in the following section.

7.4.1 Differences of motivation and behavioral intention between experienced food tourists and inexperienced food tourists

The findings indicated that foodies are attracted by three attributes (core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals) of a food tourism destination regardless of whether they had previously traveled for food or food-related activities. However, foodies, who have traveled for food-related experience, have different internal motivational factors from those who are inexperienced food tourists. In particular, the group of experienced food tourists has higher intrinsic motivation for taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences than their counterparts. The difference of push factors between two groups of respondents can be explained based on the travel career ladder (TCL) framework developed by Pearce (1982) discussed in *Section 3.2.1.* In addition, another explanation can be concluded from the classification of food tourists which divided tourists into five food tourist segments based on their food-related experiences (i.e., non-culinary tourists, unlikely culinary tourist, possible culinary tourists, likely culinary tourist and definite culinary tourist) proposed by McKercher et al. (2008). According to both the TCL model and the segmentation of food tourists, once foodies have more food-related experiences, they need to be satisfied by higher needs for their food trips. As a result, the findings of this study have empirically confirmed the TCL model in the context of food tourism and supported the classification of food tourists with regard to past food travel experiences.

Second, the findings demonstrated that foodies with past food-travel experiences have higher intention to visit a food tourism destination than their counterparts. Indeed, experienced food tourists try to fit their frequent food trips into their lifestyle. However, both groups of

experienced and inexperienced food tourists highly agree with the plan to travel for food at a destination in the next two years. A possible explanation emanates from one of the few studies about the voices of foodies and food tourists conducted by Natilli, Pavone, and Romano (2012). That is, 'food and wine tourism' is one of the main themes discussed on a wine and food blog. As a result, the study provides empirical evidence confirming the emerging trend of food travel among food lovers despite their past food-related travel experiences.

From the above discussion, it is concluded that that there are significant differences in both food travel motivation and intention toward visiting a food tourism destination between experienced and inexperienced food tourists. The group of experienced food tourists are more motivated and likely to take future food trips.

7.4.2 Differences of motivation and behavioral intention between socio-demographic groups

Findings related to differences of food travel motivation and behavioral intention among categories of gender, age and region of residence were presented in *Section 6.10.* Each of these differences is now discussed below.

The first discussion is about the differences in food travel motivation between gender groups. The findings indicated no significant differences in two dimensions of push factors (taste of food and socialization) between the male and female group. Similar findings were also found in three dimensions of pull factors (core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals) which motivated male and female food lovers to take a future food trip. These results concur with previous findings, for example, according to Jonsson and Devonish (2008), female and male groups had no significant differences in their motivations to visit a destination in a study conducted in the Caribbean Island of Barbados. Similarly, no difference was found in travel motivation to visit a nature-based resort destination in Southwest Virginia between two groups (Meng & Uysal, 2008). However, in contrast to earlier findings by Kim et al. (2013) in the context of food tourism, this current study demonstrated a difference between two gender groups with respect to the motive for cultural experiences. Female foodies were identified to be more excited about cultural experiences than their male counterparts when they travel for food in this study.

The next discussion is about the difference in food travel motivation among age groups. Age groups varied in regard to one internal motivation, that is, taste of food. A significant difference was also shown in one attractive feature, traditional food appeals among age groups. These findings can be explained by a food-related personality trait called food neophobia. As mentioned earlier, it is expressed as the fear of trying new food or local food when traveling (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Moreover, tourist' interest in local food was found to be related to health concerns (Kim et al., 2009). As there was a difference in food neophobia and health concern with age (Kim et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2013), it is understandable that age groups are motivated differently by the desire for tasting local food, special food and different types of food. In addition, the findings indicated that the older groups of foodies, aged from 45 years old had higher food travel motivation than the young groups aged from 18 to 44 years old. As a result, the study provides empirical support for a statement found in a qualitative study by Kim et al. (2009, p.429), which proposed that "mature aged individuals more often expressed their desires to understand and experience foreign cultures" through local food consumption at a travel destination.

In terms of nationality, this study also indicated that groups of Americans and Europeans have higher food travel motivation than Asian and Australian groups. This finding was consistent with the previous study by Jonsson and Devonish (2008). However, the study found that there was only a significant difference in the motivation for taste of food among groups coming from different regions. This finding differs from previous studies, for example, Park (2008) identified that the importance of taste motivator was perceived similarly across five nationality groups.

Finally, the comparison of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination among socio-demographic groups revealed that there was no difference in behavioral intention toward a future food trip among groups of gender and age. A significant difference was only found with nationality. Despite the insignificant difference of behavioral intention toward food travel across gender groups, female respondents had more intention toward food trips than males did. Moreover, the older people aged 36 and above were more likely to visit a food tourism destination than the younger. These results of study confirmed earlier findings on behavior toward food and drink event and food consumption at a destination (Alonso et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2009). Getz and Robinson (2014, p.665) also reported that "there was little difference in propensity to travel according the demographic characteristics" from their

empirical survey via networks of foodies. As a result, the current study implied that food lovers could be potential food tourists regardless of their gender and age. Some practical implications can arise from the findings that contribute to help Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) in targeting prospective food tourists.

7.5 Revisiting research objectives and research questions

This section systematically represents how the aim, research objectives and research questions were achieved in this study. The overall purpose of the study was to identify the motivational factors and determinants of behavioral intention of potential food tourists toward visiting a food tourism destination. The three objectives with five research questions were then proposed to reach the goal of study. The first objective was to examine the dimensionality of travel motivation to visit a food tourism destination from the perspective of push and pull factors, which is related to research question 1. In order to answer this question, a comprehensive review of extant literature on relevant topics of travel motivation, food and wine tourism provided an understanding of the current dimensions of motivation. The measurement items of dimensions of push factors and pull factors were then developed based on the literature and a content analysis of food travel blogs. After that, a review by a panel of academic experts and a pilot study was conducted to purify the measurement items. Through an exploratory factor analysis and measurement model evaluation, the dimensionality of travel motivation to visit a food tourism destination was confirmed to be reliable and valid, indicating the achievement of the first objective. Particularly, push factors included three dimensions (taste of food, socialization and cultural experiences) while core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals were three dimensions of pull factors.

The second objective was to construct and validate a conceptual framework to investigate influential factors of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. The existing literature was reviewed concentrating on the topics related to travel behavior, destination choice behavior and food tourism. As a result, among current theories of travel destination choice behavior, the theory of planned behavior was found to be most useful to achieve the proposed objective of this study. Considering three added constructs, the extended theory of planned behavior model included seven main constructs, namely push factors (PUS), pull factors (PUL), food involvement (FI), attitude (AT), subjective norms (SN), perceived behavioral control (BC), and behavioral intention (BI). Ten hypotheses of

causal relationships between these constructs were proposed to examine the direct effects of PUS, PUL, FI, AT, SN, and BC on BI. The results of structural equation modeling analysis confirmed the validity and reliability of measurement models and a medium level of overall fit of the proposed model. Three factors (attitude, perceived behavioral control and food involvement) were found to be significant predictors of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Out of these three factors, perceived behavioral control played the most important role in predicting behavioral intention. Food involvement was ranked as the second most important factor, followed by attitude toward a future food trip. Research question 2a related to the second objective was therefore answered.

Four hypotheses were proposed to examine the indirect effects of PUS, PUL, FI, and SN on BI via a mediator AT. The results of a bootstrapping test revealed that attitude fully mediated the effects of push factors, pull factors and subjective norms on behavioral intention, but partially mediated the effect of food involvement on behavioral intention. Therefore, research question 2b related to the second objective was answered.

Further, the study also proposed six hypotheses to examine to what extent age moderated the direct relationships associated with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Due to the categorization of two groups (i.e., one group aged 35 and under, and one group aged above 35), a multi-group analysis was performed with the result that the direct relationship of pull factors on behavioral intention was significant for the group aged 35 and under, but not significant for the older group. This direct relationship between pull factors and behavioral intention was significantly moderated by age in this study. Research question 2c related to the second objective was therefore answered.

The third objective was to examine the differences of push factors, pull factors and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination according to travel experience and socio-demographic variables (gender, age and living region). The t-test and ANOVA were adopted to analyze these differences. The results indicated that most intrinsic and extrinsic motives varied significantly across travel experience, age and region of residence, but were similar with respect to gender. Behavioral intention toward food tourism showed a difference concerning travel experiences and nationality. Research question 3 related to the third research objective was achieved.

In conclusion, the study was successful in achieving all the intended research objectives and supporting research questions. The overall findings obtained from this study provide a comprehensive understanding of push factors, pull factors and behavioral intention of potential food tourists toward visiting a food tourism destination. Indeed, the study specified the multi-dimensionality of food travel motivation and validated the extended theory of planned behavioral model in the context of food tourism yielding both theoretical and managerial implications. These are discussed in the next sections.

7.6 Implications of the study

There is a lack of study investigating foodies' destination choice behavior from the perspective of psychological motivation in the context of food tourism. As a result, this study aimed to provide an understanding of food travel motivation and behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. With the findings discussed in the preceding sections, the study has several theoretical and managerial implications.

7.6.1 Theoretical implications

The academic research on food and tourism has increased over the years but is still comparatively scant. This is particularly the case in terms of the demand-side approach to food tourism which is essential for tourism investment and promotion (Getz et al., 2014). This thesis contributes to a growing body of food tourism literature by enhancing the findings of existing studies, confirming the importance of elements that have been discovered in other niche tourism area (such as wine tourism) to the food tourism experience and by providing a more comprehensive understanding of food travel motivation and behavioral intention in the following three aspects.

First, adapting from the push-pull framework, the multi-dimensionality of food travel motivation was validated with three push factors (taste of food, socialization, and cultural experiences) and three pull factors (core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals). While some aspects of intrinsic motivation have previously been studied, the pull factors provide a new insight into food travel motivation from the perspective of food destination attractiveness. These motivational factors therefore offer a solid foundation for future empirical studies into travel motivation toward visiting a specific food tourism destination.

Second, by applying a quantitative research approach, a consumer-based model derived from the original theory of planned behavior (TPB) was constructed with the addition of two motivational constructs (push factors and pull factors) and a food involvement construct. This extended TPB model was then validated with empirical data collected from the sample of foodies. The results of the structural model indicated the direct and indirect relationships associated with behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Consequently, the study advances the relationships between personal variables (motivation and involvement), environmental variables (subjective norms and perceived behavioral control), socio-psychological variables (attitude and intention) that make a unique contribution in the field of food tourism.

A further contribution is made by investigating the differences in travel food motivation and behavioral intention across socio-demographic variables. The findings indicated that food travel motivation significantly varied across socio-demographic variables (age and nationality). The group of foodies aged from 36 years and older had stronger motivation and more intention towards food tourism vacations than the younger group. In addition, American and European food lovers had higher motivation for food travel than Asian and Australian respondents. Moreover, the comparison of motivation and intention was also made between food lovers who had or have not yet experienced food tourism. Experienced and inexperienced food tourists were found to have different food travel motivational factors. It is not surprising that the group of experienced food tourists were more likely to take food trips than non-food tourists group but this finding has thus so far not been validated in previous studies. Overall, the findings of the study make significant contributions to our understanding of potential food tourists profiles and therefore suggest managerial implications for DMOs of food tourism destinations.

7.6.2 Methodological implications

The study has methodological implications from the perspective of data collection and processing. First, the study conducted as online survey via social networking sites (Facebook and Linkedin) where hundreds of foodies groups with millions of members can be found. As there has not been another study aiming at this online foodie market, the study provides a new application in marketing data collection. Second, the theoretical model of behavioral intention toward food tourism developed in this study involved first-order constructs, second-order constructs, a moderator and a mediator. More importantly, the model also

included both reflective constructs and formative constructs, therefore a partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) approach was used to deal with the complexity of the model. As PLS-SEM is relatively new in tourism research, the procedure for applying this approach provides a methodological contribution of this study.

7.6.3 Managerial implications

From a practical perspective, this study presents two major managerial implications. The first implication is related to the understanding of the food travel motivations of potential food tourists. The second implication is proposed based on the findings related to determinants of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination. Both of these implications are discussed below.

7.6.3.1 Managerial implications from the understanding of push factors and pull factors

Foodies, who are a potential food tourist segment, were found to be motivated to visit a food destination by intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They seek activities or experiences that can facilitate their personal development and provide them a great story to talk about later. Clearly, what foodies want to buy at a food tourism destination is not merely a food or a travel package, but a food-related cultural experience. On the one hand, foodies are motivated by their desire to enjoy traditional food, while seeking opportunities to exchange and communicate with other foodies, cooks, food producers, or celebrity chefs, and learning about culture and traditions related to food. Since the human food chain encompasses cultivation, distribution, preparation, consumption and the disposal of waste (Hegarty & O'Mahony, 2001), there are a raft of opportunities for destination management organizations to tap into this thirst for authentic cultural experiences and to provide food tourists with an attractive cultural experiences that meets their needs. The development of food-related products and services is also necessary for destinations to attract food tourists. As a result, the concentration of core and traditional food-tourism products, and supplementary authentic cultural attractions are complementary and can be bundled to create the excitement required by potential food tourists that will pull them to a food destination. Thus, the empirical results of this study provide valuable information for food destination organizations to design strategies that can suit the needs and motivations of food tourists. Some examples are presented below.

Food producers or providers at a destination should create a variety of different food-related products and services to offer a package of benefits for food tourists. In particular, foodies can taste local food in traditional settings offered by authentic restaurants; or traditional food villages. To dine with locals is another great experience for food tourists to taste home-cooked food and experience local culture. Cooking classes, visitor-friendly food markets and packaged food tours can help food tourists to increase friendship with other tourists; or familiarize themselves with farmers, cooks and food producers or engage with local chefs. In addition, food festivals or events can provide food tourists with a stimulating food tourism experience and food-related activities. It is also important for destination management organizations to take actions that engage locals, food producers, food providers, and tour providers to work together. In fact, the cooperation among stakeholders is one of six key elements of a successful culinary tourism strategy (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2013) . This co-operative strategy can also help DMOs to design unique themes for tourist experiences which can be communicated with potential food tourists to an attractive food destination image.

As cultural experiences were found to be the important in creating the desire for food tourism destinations, another implication for destination organizations is to enhance cultural experiences through the food and food-related activities offered by their destinations. For instance, food culture is cultivated through the activities of food tours, cooking classes, and food festivals. In addition, cultural events featuring food and other traditions also contribute to educate food tourists about local cuisine and culture. Traditional farmers' markets, speciality shops, local markets and authentic rural environments provide the opportunity to promote local products related to the regions' identity. Indeed, each destination has a unique story about the local culture, the people and the food traditions that can be shared with visitors. Therefore, the strategy of storytelling can help destination marketing organizations to promote great travel experiences and food tourists and to develop a distinctive food destination brand and unique selling point.

Socialization was also identified as the important motivator of food tourism, therefore the DMOs should pay attention to providing opportunities for potential food tourists to communicate, exchange and connect not only with food producers, food experts and chefs but also with other food enthusiasts and fellow tourists. The strategy of establishing special food tours guided by celebrity chefs or cooking classes organized by local chefs allows some

time for participants to get to know each other in various ways such as dining together can be used to attract potential food tourists.

Finally, the comparison of motivation of foodies regarding their demographic information presents implications for destination marketing organizations. Accordingly, foodies aged from 45 years old and coming from Europe and America have higher motivation for food tourism. Therefore, the destination should pay more attention to communicating channels targeted at these segments. In addition, foodies, who have previously traveled for food tourism are motivated by the attractive features of a food destination more than inexperienced food tourists. Thus, experiences, images and messages should be tailored to segment of dynamic foodies to reach targeted food tourists.

7.6.3.2 Managerial implications from the understanding of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination

The construction and validation of a model of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination provides valuable practical implications for destination organizations. Through the focus on factors found to have direct and indirect influence on tourists' behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination in the model, some implications for destination management and marketing organizations (DMOs) are discussed below.

First, the study indicated that the more food lovers are involved in food activities such as cooking and sharing meals and food experiences, the more likely they are to become food tourists. This result provides useful information for DMOs to develop an informed marketing strategy aiming directly at the target market. Particularly, they can seek potential food tourists through online networks of foodies such as food blogs, Facebook, Linkedin groups of foodies and other foodie meet-up groups. Through the discussion about topics related to food among foodies, DMOs can analyze and evaluate the needs, demand and travel preferences of potential tourist markets. This study has shown that the core, valued experiences include markets, festivals and regional cuisines and that, highly-involved foodies expect more opportunities to attend cooking classes, meet chefs, food producers. This information can allow DMOs to craft specific advertising images that convey the diversity and attractiveness of food-related activities so that foodies are attracted to a food tourism destination.

Second, the significant effect of tourists' attitude on their engagement with food tourism requires DMOs to promote an experience marketing strategy that has the capacity to improve the positive feelings of future food trips. The attitude toward future food trips can be positively influenced by both push and pull motives as these motivational factors were identified as significant predictors of attitude by the empirical findings of this study. As discussed above, it is important for destination organizations to increase recognition of the benefits associated with food tourism such as opportunities for tasting food, socialization, and authentic and cultural experiences through advertising images on social media. Simultaneously, it is also crucial for marketing organizations to advertise the uniqueness of their destinations with attractive food-related activities (i.e., traditional restaurants, food villages, local food markets, food tours, cooking classes, food festivals and events). In fact, these core food-tourism products are associated with other cultural attractions that create a distinctive destination image. The awareness of the food-related experience value contributes to enhance the feelings of a food trip. Once foodies believe that the visit to a food tourism destination will be enjoyable, worthwhile, satisfying or rewarding, the destination organization is likely to be successful in pulling food tourists to their destinations

Third, as perceived behavioral control was found to have the strongest effect on tourists' intention to visit a food tourism destination, the study recommends that destination managers should develop strategies to deal with the possible barriers (e.g., time and traveling cost). One solution that can be suggested is that food-related services and activities should be organized as rural clusters or urban clusters. In this way, tourists can spend time in areas where there are many choices and plenty of activities. For example, the food events, festivals or cooking classes could be programmed at the same time. In addition, information (e.g., time, location, cost, and detailed programs) of these food-related activities at a destination must be communicated widely and well in advance so that tourists can organize their future food trip on their capability of time and budget. In terms of the monetary barrier, destination managers should have policies to control potential price gouging by from restaurants, shops or services to dispel tourist's fear of money loss. Advertising a food destination's value for the time and money spent might also prompt potential tourists to plan for a trip to a food tourism destination and off-peak discounts could be introduced to entice visitation.

Fourth, the references of social groups have no direct influence on behavioral intention, but directly affect the emotional evaluation about a future food trip. Therefore, it is still

important to pay attention to the 'word-of-mouth' (WOM) channels of relevant groups, such as friends and families, as a communication tool because this source of destination information can make or break a food tourism destination (Bussell & Roberts, 2014; Hall, 2004). In order to generate positive WOM communications, it is essential to provide high-quality food experiences for the current market of food tourists when they visit a destination. A tourist is willing to recommend a travel destination to their relatives or friends when he/she feels satisfaction with it (Hui et al., 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). This is important because positive or negative comments and feedback from reference groups influences the attitude of potential food tourists toward future food trips and subsequently lead to intention to visit a food destination.

In conclusion, the development of a model of behavioral intention toward food tourism provides destinations with a comprehensive understanding of factors influencing the future intentions of potential food tourists. Therefore, destination management organizations need to have insights into the relative weighting of each factor in order to propose effective marketing and management strategies. The findings of this study also show that the market segment of experienced food tourists have a higher intention toward food travel than non-experienced food tourists. In addition, tourists from South and North America are more likely to travel for food than those from other regions. As a result, DMOs should concentrate more heavily on these potential food tourist markets.

7.7 Research limitations and recommendations for future research

Although the study makes significant contributions from both theoretical and managerial perspectives, several limitations should be acknowledged and therefore provide recommendations for future research.

The first limitations are related to the sampling and data administration method. Although the sample population of the study came from five different continents, there was not a balanced number of participants in each region. For example, the study only reached few respondents from Africa. In addition, the online survey was only conducted on online networks of foodies where English is the main language used. Therefore, the study omitted online groups of foodies where other languages (i.e., Chinese, Japanese, French, Italian) are used. Finally, there was also a potential limitation from an online survey in reaching older respondents. In light of these limitations, future research should collect a larger sample that

is more representative for each cultural background with the purpose of examining the effect of cultural differences on the formation of food travel motivation and behavior. In addition, a field survey of food tourists traveling to a specific food destination is another suggestion for further research.

The second limitation is regarding the development of motivational dimensions in the context of food tourism. While push factors have been studied in previous studies of food tourism, the understanding of food travel motivation from the perspective of the attractive features of a food tourism destination (pull factors) was unique in this study. Although the pull dimensions were proposed based on the literature on food tourism and broad range of research (i.e., wine tourism, travel destination choice) and content analysis of food travel blogs, some aspects may have been overlooked. As a result, an interesting extension of this research would be to investigate food travel motivation with data collected from current food tourists in a specific food destination. Further research toward this direction will provide a better refinement of the measurement scales proposed in this study.

In addition, as the respondents were asked to evaluate their intention related to a future food trip, it is not certain that the actual trip will happen. Hence, the gap between tourist' intention and actual behavior offers guidance for future research. A longitudinal study of tourists' behavior toward food tourism would, therefore, make a significant contribution to the literature of food tourism.

Aside from the recommendations for further research based on these limitations, several research ideas were raised from the findings of this study. As discussed above, the study highlighted the importance of perceived behavioral control on food travel decision making. While time and money have been studied as two major constraints in this study, other constraints such as health-related risks, geographical distance, cultural distance, food safety-related risk can also be hidden constraints specific to food tourism. As a result, further research is needed to explore the influence of these constraints on food travel behavior.

The importance of food involvement in predicting food travel behavior would serve as another interesting idea. Further research could more specifically investigate the influence of food involvement dimensions such as food-related identity, food quality, social bonding, and food consciousness (Robinson & Getz, 2013) on food travel decision making.

Finally, the validated model of relationships between personal, environmental and psychological variables has provided a fundamental model for future research in food tourism. As Getz et al. (2014, p.197) stated: "foodies can be examined in different ways, related to their cooking and eating, behavior, self and social identities, values and attitudes, lifestyle and travel", it would be interesting for future research to include other constructs in an extended behavior model to further explain food travel behavior.

7.8 Concluding statement

Food tourism is continuously increasing as a fashionable trend for millions of tourists who seek food experiences in the same way they seek cultural experiences (UNWTO, 2017). The objective of this study was to provide an understanding of travel motivation and behavior intention of foodies - who are potential food tourists. The study identified motivational dimensions and constructed a framework of behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination from the comprehensive review of literature on relevant topics. The multi-dimensionality of travel motivation and proposed model were then empirically validated with data collected from online networks of foodies. The results of the study make significant contributions to the literature of food tourism by showing how various motivational factors work together to inspire food related travel. Practical implications were also suggested for destination organizations to assist them to develop strategies to plan, market and manage their food tourism destinations. The study has recognized several limitations which provides opportunities for future research in order to improve our knowledge about food tourists and their behavior.

In conclusion, this demand-approach study has attempted to fill the gap in the literature related to foodies and food tourism, which was identified by as stated by Getz et al. (2014, p. 199). Getz et al. asserted that

> *The study of foodies and food tourism is not only important to academics, as practitioners too should be concerned about the creation and dissemination of knowledge that can be helpful in development and marketing. Most work to date has been on the supply side, while knowledge of foodies and food tourist has lagged far behind.*

The contribution of this thesis, therefore, lies not only in the demand side approach, which adds to the body of current knowledge, but also in the implications for practitioners and the opportunity that the results may afford them in attracting food tourists to their destination.

APPENDIX 1
BLOG POSTS SELECTED IN THE CONTENT ANALYSIS

No	Blog name	Post	Posting date
1	A Global Kitchen	About A Global Kitchen	Home page
2	The Travel Bite	Markets of Myanmar – A Photo Tour A Foodie's Road Trip Guide To Nova Scotia Follow Me in Zurich: A Culinary Itinerary Follow Me in Wales: A Culinary Itinerary A Guided Food Tour of Ireland by Chef Kevin Dundon Seoul Food: A Culinary Week in South Korea Taste Louisiana-48 Hours in Covington	9 March 2015 3 May 2015 4 August 2015 18 August 2015 19 October 2015 20 February 2016 18 June 2016
3	Behind the Food Carts	Morning Street Market – Vietnam Ho Chi Minh City – A City Guide Hawker Stalls – Singapore	26 January 2015 9 April 2015 23 February 2015
4	Misadventures with Andi	Palate to Paletter – Culinary Inspirations with #ExperienceBuick Traveling the world via my stomach	20 October 2015 17 March 2016
5	The Funnelogy Channel	Culinary Travel Week 2016 About The Funnelogy Chanel	26 January 2016

APPENDIX 2
CONTENT ANALYSIS FOR FOOD TRAVEL BLOGS

Indicative quotes	Sub-theme	Theme
• There are so many specialties in the country that we've never heard of, let alone tried. It was our goal to experience as many different local dishes as we could *(Behind the Food Carts – Hawker Stalls – Singapore)*	Local food	Taste of food
• During these exploratory walks, I came across all kinds of food I still think about regularly (*Feast*) • I am always interested in learning more about the variety of local products (*A Global Kitchen*) • As an eater, I am eager to regularly try new foods from around the world (*A Global Kitchen*) • For me, it was an opportunity to explore a new country's food. A stroll through the city with the smell of street food on every corner invading your senses *(Behind the Food Carts – Ho Chi Minh City)* • These culinary moments and money more created the type of traveler I am today. Food is core to every place I go. I don't remember my travels by the dates of my trips but rather the food I ate *(Misadventures with Handi – Traveling the World via my Stomach)*	Experience different types of food	
• I am always interested in learning more about the variety of local products and cooking techniques (*A Global Kitchen*) • I am interested in the various techniques a cook uses to make the dish their own (*A Global Kitchen*)	Cooking skills Interest in food	
• What I loved most about Singapore is that you don't feel crazy about being a food lover. It truly is a country filled with like-minded food appreciators *(Behind the Food Carts – Hawker Stalls – Singapore)* • After meeting with my friends (and a surprise visit from my new friends at Sahale Snacks!), we headed off to eat, drink and be very merry! *(Misadventures with Handi – Palate to Paletter – Culinary Inspirations with #ExperienceBuick)* • The "Channel" part reflects the importance of sharing for us, be it sharing with people we meet on our journey – exchanging recipes and stories *(The Funndelogy Channel)*	Meet people having same interest	Socialization

• I love to sit and watch a cook on the street repeatedly make a dish or attend a cooking class from someone who can share their knowledge about the local cuisine and culinary customs (*A Global Kitchen*).	Meet cooks food producers	
• When visiting Hawaii, I had the change to enjoy dinner at Four Seasons Hualalai's beach front restaurant, Ulu. I had the opportunity to sit down with Chef James Babian and talk a little bit about the menu *(The Travel Bite – Plant-To-Plate Dining in Hawaii)* • After eating a bit too much, we went for a walk around city of Cardiff and the waterfront, then making our way to Holm House nearby on the coast in Pena rth. Since we had a farewell dinner planned and a meeting with their fabulous chefs (he gave me a copy of his sticky toffee pudding recipe that I still need to try!) *The Travel Bite – Follow Me In Wales: A Culinary Itinerary)*	To exchange with local chefs	
• Once I checked-in to the boutique Cathedral 73, I did one of my favorite things to do while traveling, had a tasty Welsh welcome dinner with a local family, organized by my guide (*The Travel Bite – Follow Me In Wales: A Culinary Itinerary*) • So a big thank you to Lisa, Laura and Melissa for giving us a locals perspective on food an life in Singapore that is the purpose of my trip *(Behind the Food Carts – Hawker Stalls – Singapore)* • Local foods with great history is so worth to us… I am looking for where we are going to eat, what are the local foods, and who are the people growing them and creating them. I strongly believe there is no better war to connect to a place than food. *(Misadventures with Handi – Traveling the World via my Stomach).* • Food is also one of the best representations of nature being translated into culture…our culinary journey aims to dive into the heart of local culture and everyday life *(The Funndelogy Channel)*	Local food culture	Cultural experiences
• As a traveler I seek out the cultural culinary history of the place I am visiting and living (*A Global Kitchen*) • When doing food tour, you can taste a food as well as learn the history of the place *(Behind the Food Carts – Ho Chi Minh City)* • Food is my connection to any place I visit *(Misadventures with Handi – Traveling the World via my Stomach)..*	Knowledge about different culture	
• On our last day in Seoul, we tried to visit any must-see restaurants. Itaewon was full of trendy restaurants (*The Travel Bite – Seoul Food: A Culinary Week in South Korea*).	Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	Food tourism appeals

• For our first dinner in Ireland we enjoyed a special treat - a multi-course tasting menu at L'Ecrivain. This Michelin star restaurant owned by award-winning Chef Derry Clarke is a true demonstration of Irish hospitality as I've never felt more welcomed or at ease in a fine dining restaurant (*The Travel Bite - A guided food tour of Ireland by Chef Kevin Dundon*) • That night, we made it down to Ynys Hir All Hotel… And the multi-course dinner at their in-house Michelin Star restaurant was a special treat (*The Travel Bite – Follow Me In Wales: A Culinary Itinerary*)		
• Our first stop on my journey to discover Welsh food was breakfast at Bodnant Food Center…After breakfast, we explored the food center which included the cafe as well as wine shop, fresh local food market and cooking school. They have rooms available to stay overnight too and it is definitely a place I'd love to come back and spend a leisurely afternoon (*The Travel Bite – Follow Me In Wales: A Culinary Itinerary*) • The first thing to know about Singapore is that you're not going to fing "street food" on the street anymore. Instead, you head to your local hawker centre where you'll find an abundance of stalls selling dishes *(Behind the Food Carts – Hawker Stalls – Singapore)*	Food villages	
• No matter where I am, I love exploring food markets. My body feels a gravitational pull towards a market, much the same as when I enter a bookstore (*A Global Kitchen*) • We went for a stroll through the night market at Gwangiang. Filling with food stalls carrying everything from vegetables, to meats, and handmade dumplings. Gwangiang Market is also the place locals go for a causal dinner with friends.We definitely worked up an appetite walking through the market (*The Travel Bite – Seoul Food: A Culinary Week in South Korea*). • For dessert, we visited another night market, Myeondong Market. Throughout the market, there where there is all sorts of street foods (*The Travel Bite – Seoul Food: A Culinary Week in South Korea*). • Visiting food markets is one of my favorite things to do when I travel… It's the hustle and busltle of everyday life around the world, of families gathering ingredients to make dinner and friends meeting up to indulge in some coffe and local gossip *(The Travel Bite – Markets of Myanma – A Photo Tour)* • Visiting local food markets in any city you visit is the best way to get to know not only the local products of a region but also their inhabitants and their customs. That's why when traveling I always like to spend some time visiting these places *(Misadventures with Handi – Food Markets in Budapest)*	Food markets	

• As you walk around and explore the city, you can't help but notice how many markets there are. You can turn a corner and down a small alley there could be a vibrant morning market filled with fresg veggies, meats, sea food, and freshly cooked meals *(Behind the Food Carts – Morning Street Market – Vietnam)*		
• Our first full day in the city includes dining in an elegant restaurant that was built as Zurich's first cinema, Restaurant Razzia. Then we head on a guided tour of some fine Swiss chocolate shops including Laderach, Sprungli and Schober. (*The Travel Bite – Follow Me in Zurich: A Culinary Itinerary*) • Travel is now sometime only for food. Holiday destination are picked based on the best street food selections; food tours are an increasingly popular way of exploring a city (*The Funnelogy Channel – A Culinary Travel Week 2016)*	Food tours	
• We spent the morning at Korea House, a cultural center that offers cooking lessons…we walked into their classroom kitchen for a kimchi making lesson (*The Travel Bite – Seoul Food: A Culinary Week in South Korea*). • After a full day road trip with many delicious stops between Dublin and County Wexford, we arrived at Chef Dundon's Dunbrody House, a boutique hotel and cooking school (*The Travel Bite - A guided food tour of Ireland by Chef Kevin Dundon*)	Cooking classes	
• When it comes to travel food is what inspires me to choose one destination over another. One city over the next. I definitely explore the world through my stomach…We's been togerther in Detroit, in Indianapolis, in Los Angeles and now in New York and 90% of our conversation is around food!. I have been to few food festination, but New York is one of the majors and I spent 36 hour just eating! *(Misadventures with Handi – Palate to Paletter – Culinary Inspirations with #ExperienceBuick)* • The next day we headed to the Grand Tasting event… They call it a 130.000-square-food culinary wonderland, I call it heaven *(Misadventures with Handi – Palate to Paletter – Culinary Inspirations with #ExperienceBuick)*	Food festivals and events	
• I'm a huge fan of Create TV and the cooking shows on PBS, so spending a majority of the day taking cooking lessons from Chef Kevin Dundon in the familiar kitchen set I've seen on TV was a dream come true (*The Travel Bite - A guided food tour of Ireland by Chef Kevin Dundon*) • I didn't have to go far to find a delicious dinner, as the Southern Hotel's signature restaurant is lead by acclaimed Chef Jeffrey Hansell, once nominated as Food & Wine' Best New Chef in 2014 and more recently named Chef to Watch by	Celebrity chefs	

Louisiana Cookin' magazine and the New Orleans Times-Picayune. *(The Travel Bite – Taste Louisiana – 48 Hours In Covington)*		
• I flew headed to the Blue Moon Burger Bash… It was an charity event featuring about 30 chefs or restaurants*(Misadventures with Handi – Palate to Paletter – Culinary Inspirations with #ExperienceBuick)*	Cultural events featuring food	Destination appeals
• Halifax is a big city with a diverse food scene. It is a city with a diverse food scene. You can taste everything from fresh seafood, locally crafted beer, and even Lanese cuisine… Also worth checking out is the Halifax Seaport Famer Market at the whaft… *(The Travel Bite - A Foodies' Road Trip Guide to Nova Scotia)* • If you stay in Convington for a few nights, you'll have time to take advantage of exploring their legendary farmers' market, visiting local breweries, and just getting a taste of the variety of restaurants they offer. It is the perfect place for active foodies to relax and unwind (*The Travel Bite – Taste Louisiana – 48 Hours In Convington)*	Farmers' markets	
• We went to Dongdaemun Design Plaza, better known locally as the DDP… with all kinds of unique items including funky unicorn horn shaped cork screws and elegant hand-dyed silk scarves. The DDP is another fabulous place to shop for unique souvenirs and gifts to bring home *(The Travel Bite – Seoul Food: A Culinary Week in South Korea).* • While in Tregaron, I couldn't help but be lured into jewelry making demonstration by the town's Welsh jewelery crafter, Rhiannon. In addition to jewelry, the shop also has other local handmade cradts… I would definitely recommend setting aside a bit of your budget to take home one of her unique pieces of jewelry as a souvenir (*The Travel Bite – Follow Me In Wales: A Culinary Itinerary*) • Hole in Wall is the perfect way to dig deep into a location. This area of the country produces amazing fruit, wine, seafood (Boehm's Chocolate Bar, Chukar Cherries, Herbn's Farms NW Seattle Salt, Holmquist Orange Honey Hazelnuts, Jonboy Whiskey & Smoked Salt Caramels and Tiny's Organic Dried Bosc Pears), there is no way you can go wrong when you visit . *(Misadventures with Handi – Traveling the World via my Stomach)..*	Speciality shops and markets selling local farm produce	
• One really unique gift we found were marble stamps. Korean's used to use this as their signature instead of signing their name…We though they made a really unique girt to bring home for the holidays *(The Travel Bite – Seoul Food: A Culinary Week in South Korea).*	Local artwork and crafts for sale	

• In addition to food, I couldn't help but notice cute paper mache owls everywhere. It's symbol of luck and good fortune in Myanmar… There were also colorful textiles for making clothes, hand-sewn purses, tribal jewelry, and even some hand woven dining room pieces such as table clothes and runners (*The Travel Bite – Markets of Myanma – A Photo Tour)* • Besides the wonderful food, there are two beauty products that you are sure to love: The Fay Farm Healing Hemp Lotion and Moon Valley Organics Vanilla Lemon Lip Balm *(Misadventures with Handi – Traveling the World via my Stomach)*..		
• Located along the northern shore of Lake Pontchartain, it's just 45 minutes drive from New Orleans, making it the perfect relaxing escape from the city…. The whole Northshore has it's own culinary scene. This is, after all, where the chefs in New Orleans get most of their fresh procude from (*The Travel Bite – Taste Louisiana – 48 Hours In Convington)* • I have loved my trips to Italy, one of my favorite countries in the world, but it is not the cities the call me back, it's the dishes. Linguine vongole in Rome and a best-meal-of-my-life white truffles lunch in the Tuscan countryside *(Misadventures with Handi – Traveling the World via my Stomach)*..	Authentic rural environment	

APPENDIX 3

EXPERT PANEL REVIEW

Proposed measurement items of tourists' motivation to visit a food tourism destination

The following measurement items related to tourists' motivation will be used in an online survey with respondents being those who intend to take a trip to visit a food tourism destination within the next 12 months.

Please kindly assess the applicability and representativeness of the measurement items towards the associated construct by choosing the appropriate scale from 1 (totally inapplicable/totally unrepresentative to 5 (totally applicable /totally representative). Your further comments are highly appreciated.

Thank you very much!

1. Push motives

Measurement items	References	Applicability					Representativeness					Comment
To taste local food in traditional setting at destination	Kim and Eves (2012) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
To experience a variety of different types of food at a destination	Park et al. (2008) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
To find special food in a food tourism destination	Alant and Bruwer (2004)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
To develop cooking skills through food-related activities at destination	Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	

To increase food knowledge	Park et al. (2008)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To develop interest in food	Park et al. (2008)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To meet other people who have same interest in food at a destination	Kim and Eves (2012) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	Park et al. (2008) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events	Park et al. (2008)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination	Park et al. (2008) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To share food experiences with people in food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To exchange ideas with food experts through food-related activities	Park et al. (2008)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To see how other people live in a food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To increase my knowledge about different cultures	Kim et al. (2013) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
To have an authentic food experience in a food tourism destination	Kim et al. (2013)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

2. Pull motives

Measurement items	References	Applicability					Representativeness					Comment
Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	Brown et al. (2007) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Traditional food villages	Brown et al. (2007) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Visitor- friendly food markets	Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Food tours	Getz and Brown (2006) & Content analysis											
Cooking classes	Brown et al. (2007) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Food festivals and events	Brown et al. (2007) & Getz and Brown (2006)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	Getz and Brown (2006) & Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Traditional farmers' markets	Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce	Getz and Brown (2006)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Local artwork and crafts for sale	Getz and Brown (2006)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
Authentic rural environment	Content analysis	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	

Thank you very much for your help!

If you have further questions or concerns, kindly contact me at nsu@swin.edu.au or +61 450.690.903

APPENDIX 4

FOOD TOURISM SURVEY

Screening question:

Do you plan to travel in the future where food – related experiences are the primary reason for travel?

☐ Yes (Please continue)

☐ No (Please stop here and thank you very much!)

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Ngoc Diep Su, a PhD student at Swinburne University of Technology – Australia. I would like to invite you to participate in my PhD research project, which is to investigate tourists' motivation and intentions to visit a food tourism destination. I appreciate your willingness to spend some time to participate in this study.

Project description

In recent years, food tourism has been receiving increasing attention from researchers in the field of hospitality and tourism. The main purpose of this project is to learn more about tourists' behavior towards visiting a food tourism destination.

Expected benefits

The research outcomes will help to enrich the body of literature on food tourism and have practical and managerial contributions. This project would be meaningful for many countries, especially those that are looking for a unique product to differentiate themselves from others.

Participation

You are being asked to participate in this research because you meet criteria of respondents. You are a person who loves food and traveling for food experiences. You will be asked to complete a survey which will not take no more than 15 minutes of your time.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may decide to not begin or to stop participating at any time. If you choose not to be in this study or stop being in this study, there will be no penalty. By completing the survey, you are giving permission for the investigator to use your information for research purposes.

Risks, privacy and confidentiality

There is no risk to you in participating. Aside from your time, there are no costs for taking part in the study. No identifiers linking you to this study will be included in any report

that might be published. Your responses are not linked to you and cannot be connected to you by the researcher. Information about you will be kept confidential.

Contact Information

If you have any concerns about the research, please do not hesitate to contact us at:

Mrs. Ngoc Diep Su
Email: nsu@swin.edu.au
Tel: +61 450.690.903

Concerns/complaints regarding the conduct of the project

This project has been approved by or on behalf of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC) in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. If you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of this project, you can contact

Research Ethics Officer, Swinburne Research (H68)
Swinburne University of Technology, P O Box 218, HAWTHORN VIC 3122
Tel (03) 92145218 or + 61 9214 5218 or resethics@swin.edu.au

****** Please tick the number/the box or write-in the information which best corresponds to your answer***

PART 1: INFORMATION ON YOUR TRIP

1. Have you ever traveled for food and food-related activities before?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, please select which country you have traveled for food experiences (Check all that apply)

☐ United States of America	☐ England	☐ South Korea
☐ Mexico	☐ Australia	☐ Thailand
☐ Italy	☐ India	☐ Vietnam
☐ France	☐ Japan	☐ Other: …….
☐ Spain	☐ China	

2. Please select which country you intend to travel to for food – related experiences

☐ United States of America	☐ England	☐ South Korea
☐ Mexico	☐ Australia	☐ Thailand

☐ Italy ☐ India ☐ Vietnam

☐ France ☐ Japan ☐ Other: …….

☐ Spain ☐ China

3. When you are planning a trip, what sources of information do you typically use? (Check all that apply)

☐ Friends/ Relatives ☐ Social media (Facebook, Twitter)

☐ Travel agent/ Tour operator ☐ Online reviews of the destination

☐ Guidebooks ☐ Website of the destination

☐ General web search (google, yahoo) ☐ Destination printed information

☐ Travel for food magazines ☐ Other: ……

PART 2: REASONS TO VISIT A FOOD TOURISM DESTINATION

1. On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being *"Strongly disagree"* and 7 being *"Strongly agree",* please indicate the **level of agreement** of the following possible **reasons for visiting a food tourism destination in the future**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
To taste local food in traditional setting at a destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To experience a variety of different types of food at destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To find special food at a food tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To develop cooking skills through food-related activities at destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To increase food knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To develop an interest in food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To increase friendship in a food tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To meet celebrity chefs at food festivals and events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To exchange with local chefs through food-related activities at destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To share experiences with people in food tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To understand the local culture of a food tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To see how other people live in a food tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To increase my knowledge about different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have an authentic experience in a food tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being *"Very unimportant"* and 7 being *"Very important",* please indicate the **level of importance** of the following possible **features of a food tourism destination, which motivate you to visit it.**

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Slightly unimportant	Neutral	Slightly important	Important	Very important
Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Traditional food villages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visitor- friendly food markets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Food tours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cooking classes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Food festivals and events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Traditional farmers' markets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local artwork and craft for sale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Authentic rural environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 3: YOUR FOOD INVOLVEMENT

1. On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being *"Strongly disagree"* and 7 being *"Strongly agree",* please indicate the **level of agreement** of the following possible statements related to **your Food involvement**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Shopping for ingredients for cooking is one of the most enjoyable things in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I spend a great deal of my disposable income on dining out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Food experiences prompt me to learn more about other cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People know me as a gourmet							
I often reminisce about food experiences with family and friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 4: YOUR VISIT TO A FOOD TOURISM DESTINATION

1. On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being *"Strongly disagree"* and 7 being *"Strongly agree",* please indicate the **level of agreement** of the following possible statements related to **your visit to a food tourism destination in the future**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
The visit to a food tourism destination will be enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The visit to a food tourism destination will be worthwhile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The visit to a food tourism destination will be satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The visit to a food tourism destination will be rewarding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit a food tourism destination that I have heard about from friends/ family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit a food tourism destination that is popular among friends/ family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit a food tourism destination that has been recommended by most people who are important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will have enough money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will have enough time to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being *"Strongly disagree"* and 7 being *"Strongly agree",* please indicate the **level of agreement** of the following possible statements related to **your intention to visit a food tourism destination**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I intend to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will make an effort to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing to save money to visit a food tourism destination in the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 5: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Finally, please kindly provide us your basic personal information

1. In what country do you live? …….

2. Your gender ☐ Male ☐ Female

3. Your age ☐ 18 – 24 ☐ 25 – 35 ☐ 36 – 44 ☐ 45 – 54 ☐ 55 – 64 ☐ 65 or above

4. Your marital status ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Other

5. Your highest education school ☐ Primary/elementary ☐ Secondary/high ☐ Undergraduate University degree ☐ Postgraduate University degree

6. Your occupation ☐ Employed ☐ Unemployed ☐ Retired ☐ Self – employed ☐ Student ☐ Other

7. Your annual personal income (Please choose the most appropriate income range)

	USD	EUR	AUD
☐	< 5000	< 4,500	< 6,500
☐	5000 – < 10,000	4,500 – < 9,000	6,500 – < 13,000
☐	10,000 – < 20,000	9,000 – < 18,000	13,000 – < 26,000
☐	20,000 – < 30,000	18,000 – < 27,000	26,000 – < 39,000
☐	30,000 – < 40,000	27,000 – < 36,000	39,000 – < 52,000
☐	40,000 – < 50,000	36,000 – < 45,000	52,000 – < 65,000
☐	No regular income		

---------- End of survey----------

Thank you very much for your cooperation

APPENDIX 5

ETHICS CLEARANCE

SHR Project 2016/132 – Tourists' motivation and intentions to visit a food tourism destination

Prof. Lester Johnson, Mrs Ngoc Diep Su (student), Prof. Barry O'Mahony - FBL

Approved duration: 01-07-2016 to 01-07-2018

I refer to the ethical review of the above project by a Subcommittee (SHESC3) of Swinburne's Human Research Ethics Committee (SUHREC). Your responses to the review as e-mailed on 2 and 3 June 2016 were put to the Subcommittee delegate for consideration.

I am pleased to advise that, as submitted to date, ethics clearance has been given for the above project to proceed in line with standard on-going ethics clearance conditions outlined below.

- All human research activity undertaken under Swinburne auspices must conform to Swinburne and external regulatory standards, including the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and with respect to secure data use, retention and disposal.
- The named Swinburne Chief Investigator/Supervisor remains responsible for any personnel appointed to or associated with the project being made aware of ethics clearance conditions, including research and consent procedures or instruments approved. Any change in Chief investigator/supervisor requires timely notification and SUHREC endorsement.
- The above project has been approved as submitted for ethical review by or on behalf of SUHREC. Amendments to approved procedures or instruments ordinarily require prior ethical appraisal/clearance. SUHREC must be notified immediately or as soon as possible thereafter of (a) any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants and any redress measures; (b) proposed changes in protocols; and (c) unforeseen events which might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.
- At a minimum, an annual report on the progress of the project is required as well as at the conclusion (or abandonment) of the project. Information on project monitoring and variations/additions, self-audits and progress reports can be found on the Research Intranet pages.
- A duly authorized external or internal audit of the project may be undertaken at any time.

APPENDIX 6

Respondent of main survey by countries

No.	Country	Frequency	%
Europe		**69**	**20.6**
1	Belgium	1	**0.3**
2	Bulgaria	1	**0.3**
3	Cyprus	1	**0.3**
4	Czech Republic	1	**0.3**
5	Finland	1	**0.3**
6	France	13	**3.9**
7	Germany	2	**0.6**
8	Greece	1	**0.3**
9	Hungary	1	**0.3**
10	Italy	9	**2.7**
11	Netherlands	6	**1.8**
12	Norway	1	**0.3**
13	Romania	1	**0.3**
14	Russia	1	**0.3**
15	Portugal	1	**0.3**
16	Serbia	1	**0.3**
17	Spain	1	**0.3**
18	Sweden	2	**0.6**
19	Switzerland	1	**0.3**
20	Slovenia	5	**1.5**
21	Turkey	3	**0.9**
22	Uruguay	1	**0.3**
23	UK	14	**6.2**
Australia/Oceania		**76**	**22.7**
24	Australia	61	**18.2**
25	New Zealand	14	**4.2**
26	Papua New Guinea	1	**0.3**

No.	Country	Frequency	%
America		**67**	**20.0**
27	USA	56	**16.7**
28	Brazil	1	**0.3**
29	Canada	9	**2.7**
30	Guatemala	1	**0.3**
Asia		**118**	**35.2**
31	China	31	**9.3**
32	Malaysia	2	**0.6**
33	Korea	20	**6.0**
34	Indonesia	3	**0.9**
35	India	8	**2.4**
36	Iran	1	**0.3**
37	Pakistan	3	**0.9**
38	Japan	7	**2.1**
39	Philippine	1	**0.3**
40	Singapore	12	**3.6**
41	Sri Lanka	2	**0.6**
42	Thailand	10	**3.0**
43	Taiwan	3	**0.9**
44	United Arab Emirates	1	**0.3**
45	Vietnam	14	**6.2**
Africa		**5**	**1.5**
46	Ethiopia	1	**0.3**
47	South Africa	4	**1.2**
Total		**335**	**100**

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