# The influence of attitudes to local food and authenticity on tourist behaviour

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# Abstract

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Tourists are travelling to destinations in search of food experiences which are considered local and authentic.

This study investigates tourist attitudes to local food interest on destination choice, travel motivation, satisfaction and perceived object-related and existential authenticity. Additionally, the mediating effects of authenticity on these relationships is also examined.

A quantitative survey (n = 368) by questionnaire was conducted. Data analysed using factor analysis and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) suggests that tourist attitudes to local food influence destination choice ($\beta$ = 0.136; $p < 0.001$), satisfaction ($\beta$ = 0.320; $p < 0.001$) and perceptions of object-related ($\beta$ = 0.542; $p < 0.001$) and existential authenticity ($\beta$ = 0.629; $p < 0.001$). Additionally, it was found that tourist attitudes to local food had no influence on travel motivation ($\beta$=-0.89; $p = < 0.100$). Results from mediation show that existential authenticity, rather than object-related authenticity has a greater impact on the relationships between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice ($\beta$ = 0.618; $p < 0.001$), travel motivation ($\beta$ = 0.817; $p < 0.001$) and satisfaction ($\beta$ = 0.386; $p < 0.001$).

This research concludes that destination choice, satisfaction and perceived object-related and existential authenticity of the local food experience are conditioned by tourists' local food interest. Additionally, this study finds that object-related authenticity influences the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation. Furthermore, existential authenticity mediates the relationship between attitudes to local food and destination choice, travel motivation and satisfaction.

Drawing on these findings, practical advice to tourist stakeholders, food producers and destination marketers, looking to entice tourists interested in local food, can be offered. Destinations should emphasise unique regional specialities while highlighting the experiential value of local food. Thus, giving the tourist an opportunity to not only consume the local food but also to actively participate in the local food experience.

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# Postgraduate Thesis Declaration

- I declare that all material in this thesis submission is entirely my own work except where duly acknowledged.

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Supervisor(s) Signature(s): _____

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**Table of contents**

# List of figures

# List of tables

# Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| AMOS | Analysis of Moment Structures |
| CFA | Confirmatory factor analysis |
| CFI | Comparative Fit Index |
| CR. | Construct Reliability |
| EFA | Exploratory factor analysis |
| FSAI | Food safety authority of Ireland |
| eWOM | Electronic word of mouth |
| GFI | Goodness of Fit Index |
| KMO | Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin |
| PDO | Protected Designation of Origin |
| PGI | Protected Geographical Indication |
| RMSEA | Root Mean Square Error of Approximation |
| SEM | Structural Equation Modeling |
| SLR | Systematic literature review |
| SPSS | Statistical Package for the Social Sciences |
| UNESCO | United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation |
| UNWTO | United Nations World Tourism Organization |
| WFTA | The World Food Tourism Association |
| WOM | Word of Mouth |

# Chapter 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present a brief overview of this piece of research. The chapter begins by providing a background to the study and gives a rationale for the thesis by highlighting the research gap. Also, within this context research questions and hypotheses are presented. Subsequently, the methodology employed to examine the research problem of interest is presented. The definitions assigned to each key concept associated with this study are then provided. Finally, the chapter concludes by outlining the boundaries that apply to the overall scope of the research.

## 1.2 Background to the research

Consumers are increasingly interested in local food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016; Hjalager and Richards, 2012; Mirosa and Lawson, 2012). This growing interest has been explained by Pearson et al., (2011) who contends that individuals are influenced by issues related to the environment, ethics, sustainability and a desire to support local food networks. Local food products are also perceived as healthier (Pearson et al., 2011) with fewer chemicals required in their preservation as warehousing and transport time is shorter (Mirosa and Lawson, 2012). Logically it can be supposed that this inherent interest in local food may affect tourists also (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014). Therefore, it can be argued that tourist attitudes to local food can influence their travel behaviour.

In general, food tourism is a form of travel where the primary motivation is to experience the food or drink of a place (Hall and Mitchell, 2005; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Sims, 2009). It is an experiential trip where, rather than just observing, the tourist takes an active part in the food experience, (Lopez-Guzman and Sanchez-Canizares, 2012). In recent years, food tourism has become economically significant, accounting for 35% of overall visitor spend (Fáilte Ireland, 2018, p. 9). Such is the significance of food in the tourism experience, recent studies suggest that food tourism should be considered a distinct sector in its own right (Everett, 2016; Stone and Migacz, 2016) rather than a niche tourism market.

Further research shows that tourists are searching for experiences related to local food (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Canizares, 2012; Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014). Local food is recognised by tourists as simple and traditional (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013; Mirosa and Lawson, 2012; Sims, 2009) and an important part of the tourist experience (Fáilte Ireland, 2018). As such, the uniqueness of a region's local food offers the tourist a gateway to a region's culture and traditions (Mak et al., 2012). The idea of local food culture is well known, with most countries characterised by their national or regional dishes (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). Indeed, recent studies highlight that local food can be an attraction in its own right (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; 2017; Henderson, 2009) appealing to those seeking novel experiences (Okumuş et al., 2007; Sims, 2009). Thus, tourists may be attracted to a destination due to the food experiences available. For instance, tourists may be enticed to a particular place to experience the local dishes such as moussaka in Greece or cuisses de grenouille in France. As such local food can represent a determinant in tourist destination choice (Cohen and Avieli, 2004). Additionally, the literature highlights that local food is important for tourist satisfaction (Cetin and Bilgihan, 2015) and can influence revisit intention and positive WOM (Ryu and Jang, 2006). Therefore, it can be argued that local food has become an important factor in the overall tourist experience.

A review of the literature also indicates that tourists are increasingly looking for authentic experiences (Okumuş et al., 2007). Local food embodies authenticity and as such appeals to tourists' desire for authenticity on holiday (Sims, 2009).

## 1.3 Research objective

Despite the growing interest in local food, few studies have examined whether tourist-attitudes to local food can influence travel behaviour (Sims, 2009). Particularly, the inter-relationships between tourist attitudes towards local food, destination choice, motivation and satisfaction remain relatively unexplored (Henderson, 2009; Sims, 2009). Yet it is argued that attitudes are a critical factor in understanding tourist motivation and behaviour (Gnoth, 1997). Furthermore, studies support the idea that tourists perceive local food as authentic products symbolising the culture and heritage of a place (Sims, 2009). However, the link between attitudes to local food and authenticity remains relatively unexplored. Studies suggest that the mediating role of authenticity in food consumption experiences warrants further attention (Robinson and Clifford; 2012).

2

Taking the above points into consideration, this research has one overall objective:

- To investigate if attitudes to local food and authenticity influence tourist behaviour

To answer this, five relevant sub-questions were posed as presented in Table 1.1 which follows.

| Table 1.1 Research questions and their corresponding hypotheses | |
|---|---|
| **Research questions** | **Corresponding hypotheses** |
| **Q1**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence destination choice? | **H1**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence destination choice |
| **Q2**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence travel motivation? | **H2**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence travel motivation |
| **Q3**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence holiday satisfaction? | **H3**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence holiday satisfaction |
| **Q4**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence the perception of authenticity? | **H4:** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence the perception of (a) object-related authenticity and (b) existential authenticity |
| **Q5**: Can authenticity influence the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction? | **H5.1:** Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction<br><br>**H5.2:** Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction |

The research hypotheses presented in Table 1.1 essentially originated from a systematic literature review (SLR). Hence, the deduction and development of each one is documented in Chapter 2 (Section 2.9).

## 1.4 Overview of research methodology

In order to investigate the research questions and each of the corresponding hypotheses, as presented in Table 1.1, this study utilised a purely quantitative approach. The population of interest was identified as food tourists, defined as those:

> … who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy" (UNTWO, 2012, p. 7).

Therefore, to target the population of interest a non-probability sampling strategy was employed. This led the researcher to adopt a purposive criterion sampling technique (Patton, 2001). Scales were developed using items identified from an SLR. Subsequently, a questionnaire was developed which underwent pre-testing and pilot testing. Two methods of data collection were utilised; face-to-face and online. For face-to-face data collection, the researcher approached respondents at three food festivals; the Kilmore Quay Seafood Festival (11th-14th July), The Harvest Festival, Waterford (7th- 8th September 2018) and The Savour Kilkenny Festival (26th -28th October 2018). The questionnaire was circulated online with potential respondents identified through an online search of food interest groups, for example, Slow Food Ireland, The Irish Food Guide and The Wexford Food Family. The final response rate was 368; face-to-face data collection n = 101 and online n = 253.

Scales were tested using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM), including confirmatory factor analysis, and using IBM's SPSS AMOS. The research methodology implemented in this study is detailed in full throughout Chapter 3, where its justification and limitations are also presented.

## 1.5 Outline of the thesis

This research consists of six chapters; Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Findings, Discussion and Conclusion. Subsequent to presenting the current chapter, this thesis progresses as follows:

*Chapter 2: Literature Review*

This chapter provides an in-depth review of the literature relevant to this piece of research. As such the subjects of food tourism, tourist segmentation, authenticity, local food, tourist satisfaction and tourist motivation are explored. Various definitions of terms are offered, and theories and concepts provided by various authors are investigated. The literature review enabled for the identification of a research gap and the formation of a number of relevant hypotheses.

*Chapter 3: Methodology*

Chapter three outlines the methodology used for this piece of research. The chapter begins by explaining the philosophical stance and subsequently justifies the methodological approach taken to investigate the identified research gap. It then goes on to fully document and justify the methodological procedures used, as previously outlined in section 1.4.

*Chapter 4: Presentation of findings*

In chapter four the analysis of the data is presented and key findings relating to each hypothesis discussed.

*Chapter 5: Discussion*

The fifth chapter discusses the findings of this piece of research. Firstly, each research question is discussed individually (Table 1.1) before presenting a discussion on the two overall research questions**.**

*Chapter 6: Conclusion*

The sixth and final chapter highlights the various the theoretical, methodological and managerial implications emanating from the findings. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the overall study and suggestions for future research

## 1.6 Definitions of concepts used in this research

Definitions help to create a basic understanding of the key elements that form the foundations upon which the research is built. Furthermore, definitions allow for a clearer understanding of how the study in question relates to its existing body of associated literature, thus allowing for fairer and more accurate comparisons to be made (Perry, 1998).

There are a number of definitions and concepts associated with this study, thus it is important to clarify how each definition is interpreted in this particular piece of research. This section sets out to define the key terms as they are used in his study. Chapter 2 gives a more detailed discussion of each of these terms.

### 1.6.1 Food tourism

The first key concept associated with this study is 'food tourism'. There is no universally accepted definition for the term food tourism, with even the term contested. With words such as 'food', 'culinary' and 'gastronomy' often used interchangeably (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012; Okumuş et al., 2007; Wolf, 2014). Debates surrounding each of these terms are detailed in chapter 2. For this study, the term 'food tourism' is used throughout for two reasons. Firstly, it captures the commonalities present in all definitions presented in tourism literature. Secondly, the term is free from any connotations which can be associated with the terms 'culinary' (Wolf, 2014) and 'gastronomy' (Robinson and Getz, 2013).

Additionally, this study adopts an experiential definition of the term 'food tourism', as purposed by Hall and Mitchell (2005) who state that:

> Food tourism may be defined as 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 region are the primary motivating factor for travel (Hall and Mitchell (2005, p. 74).

Further justification for the use of this definition is presented in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2).

### 1.6.2 Local food

The second key concept associated with this particular research is that of 'local food'. As with food tourism, this concept has been assigned many different definitions. In part, local food is a geographical concept and is predominately related to the distance between producers and consumers (Hingley et al., 2010; Martinez, 2010; Pearson et al., 2011). Additionally, local food can be defined with reference to political boundaries (Food Safety Authority of Ireland, 2015). The most widely used definition is offered by Enteleca Research and Consultancy (2000, p. 11), who have defined local food "as food which is produced or grown in the local area". This definition has been adopted by many farmers' markets throughout the world (Hall et al., 2003).

In this study, local food refers to food served at a destination, including food prepared from local ingredients as well as regional specialities (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen,

2014). The rationale for the use of this definition is further expanded upon in Chapter 2 (Section 2.4).

### 1.6.3 Motivation

The third key concept utilised in this research is motivation. The term motivation refers to a complex set of needs and wants that integrate an individual's actions or behaviours (Park, et al., 1993; Uysal and Hagan, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). The disparity in the central meaning of the concept remains obscure and no universally accepted definition exists (Page, 2015).

For the purposes of this study, motivation is "state of mind" causing an individual to travel "which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision" (Dann, 1981, p. 211). Furthermore, it encompasses a "dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants)" producing a "state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals" (Crompton and McKay 1997, p. 427). The basis for the use of this definition is presented in Chapter 2 (Section 2.7).

### 1.6.4 Satisfaction

The fourth concept used in this study is satisfaction. Satisfaction can be defined as an evaluation of a product or service and is determined by a set of criteria formed by an individual. These criteria are then used to perform an evaluation (Correia et al., 2008). In tourism, satisfaction is dependent on the extent to which a destination fulfils a tourist's criteria (Correia et al., 2008).

Tourist satisfaction has been conceptualised as a multifaceted concept, determined by many different factors (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017). For instance, satisfaction with local food on holiday can be influenced by the overall experience, including the place and people (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017). However, tourists have varying levels of satisfaction dependant on their expectations and as such the concept is highly subjective (Sfandla and Björk, 2013) and unique to individuals (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017). As such the evaluation of tourist satisfaction must be considered from multiple dimensions.

7

Throughout this particular piece of research, the term satisfaction is described as how well an experience meets a tourist's expectations. The rationale for the use of this definition is further expanded upon in Chapter 2 (Section 2.5).

### 1.6.5 Authenticity

A wide range of attempts have been made in an effort to define the concept of authenticity. As a result, "there are at least as many definitions of authenticity as there are those who write about it" (Taylor, 2008, p. 8). In this thesis, authenticity is associated with terms of genuineness, truth, realness, accuracy, trustworthiness, honesty, timelessness, uniqueness, originality and differentness (Özdemir and Seyitoğlu, 2017). In food tourism the concept of authenticity is studied from two perspectives; object-related authenticity and existential authenticity. These are defined as follows:

*Object-related authenticity*: refers to whether something can be conveyed and interpreted as authentic or not (Wang, 1999). It is based on the genuineness of objects and is verified by an expert.

*Existential authenticity:* where the tourist forms an understanding of authenticity based on their beliefs, expectations or previous experiences (Sims, 2009; Walter, 2017).

The concept of authenticity in relation to food tourism is outlined in Chapter 2 (Section 2.5)

## 1.7 Delimitations of scope

As is the case when undertaking any piece of research, there are particular boundaries that apply to the overall scope of this study, according to which the generalisability of its findings is limited (Perry, 1998).

These boundaries were firstly defined by the research problem at hand. From the research questions and corresponding hypotheses (Table 1.1), five variables were identified; attitudes to local food, motivation, satisfaction, object-related authenticity and existential authenticity. As such, the examination of each of these variables was strongly influenced by the definition assigned to each one, as presented in section 1.7, as well as the reviewed literature. Nevertheless, the items used to measure each of these variables are by no means a complete inventory of these concepts.

Further, the research objective in this study not only determined the specific aspects of travel behaviour which will be investigated but also the research methodology which will be employed. As previously mentioned, (Section 1.4), a purely quantitative methodological strategy was adopted. This strategy has been fully justified throughout Chapter 3. Resultantly, no qualitative examination was undertaken by the researcher.

The overall scope of this study was bound by the chosen sample group which included those at The Kilmore Quay Seafood festival, The Harvest Festival Waterford and The Savour Kilkenny Festival. Additionally, potential respondents were identified through an online search of food interests' groups. Based on the nature of the sample it can be concluded that results are intended to be generalised in an Irish setting.

## 1.8 Conclusion

The purpose of this introductory chapter was to lay the foundations for this particular research. Thus, the chapter began by providing a background to the research. Subsequently, a gap of interest was identified, and its associated research questions and corresponding hypotheses outlined.

The chapter proceeded with an outline of the adopted research methodology adopted. Subsequently, the structure of the thesis was outlined, and relevant definitions and concepts presented. The chapter concluded by highlighting the delimitations of the overall scope of this research.

The next chapter describes the synthesis and evaluation of the relevant literature from which this study's hypotheses are subsequently deduced and developed.

# Chapter 2 Literature Review

## 2.1 Introduction

The core aim of this chapter is to present an overview of the research conducted to date in relation to local food tourism. It accumulates evidence to show that local food can be a determining factor in holiday destination choice, travel motivation, and can contribute to the overall holiday satisfaction. Food is an integral component of the overall tourist experience (Hjalager and Richards, 2002). Despite this, relatively little research has been devoted to the influence of attitudes to local food on travel motivation, destination choice, satisfaction (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014) or perception of authenticity. Therefore, this study serves as a step in addressing this gap.

In order to fulfil this purpose, a systematic literature review (SLR) was undertaken. A keyword search approach was adopted ensuring literature was evaluated in a rigorous, transparent and reproducible manner (Gomezelj, 2016). The search was limited to peer-reviewed journals and books, ensuring that all articles had been subjected to approval from those knowledgeable in the subject investigated (Jesson et al., 2011). Additionally, policy documents relating to tourism or food tourism were also consulted. This enabled the identification of key authors, findings and current developments in the field of food tourism.

The chapter begins with an overview of food tourism and will attempt to summarise the vast range of debates concerning the definitions and descriptions that characterise it. Consequently, a review of the different types of food experiences is presented. The chapter continues by exploring the various issues and theories concerning local food and authenticity, with special attention focused on the role of each in food tourism. Subsequently, various tourist typologies are explored followed by a specific look at typologies relating to food tourism. Consequently, theories concerning satisfaction and motivation in relation to tourism and food tourism are investigated. The chapter concludes with the identification of research gaps and the development and justification of a number of research hypotheses aimed at addressing this gap.

## 2.2 A systematic literature review

The aim of a literature review is to "establish what is already known about a topic" (Bryman, 2015, p. 90) and "to specify a research question to develop the existing body of knowledge" (Tranfield et al., 2003, p. 208). Thus, a literature review forms the background and justification for a study. There are two main types of literature review; narrative reviews and systematic reviews (Bryman, 2015). Narrative reviews are traditional reviews providing an account of the literature as an end in itself. Whereas, SLRs use explicit procedures which aim to synthesise and analyse a body of literature. This method is based on the use of a keyword search of the literature in selected databases (Gomezelj, 2016). Traditionally SLRs have been applied to research in disciplines favouring positivist and quantitative approaches (Tranfield et al., 2003), such as medicine or healthcare. However, SLRs are increasingly used in tourism studies (Veal, 2017).

This study adopted the SLR process as it offers a more objective (Bryman and Bell, 2015) and transparent alternative to the traditional narrative review method (Dixon-Woods et al., 2006). Additionally, it allowed the researcher to review and interpret the literature in order to identify gaps in the knowledge and determine opportunities for further study (Petticrew and Roberts, 2006). This research implemented the six-step SLR process as suggested by Tranfield et al., (2003) which is summarised in Appendix A. NVivo was utilised to conduct a thematic analysis of 202 relevant peer-review articles and books. Subsequently, the following themes were identified; concepts and definitions, food experiences, local food, authenticity, segmentation of tourists, tourist motivation and satisfaction. What follows is a detailed analysis of the literature based on each of these themes.

## 2.3 Concepts and definitions

The role of food and food experiences in tourism has dramatically gained importance among tourism researchers in the last decade (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2017; Everett and Slocum, 2013; Stone et al., 2018; Wolf, 2014). While earlier studies focused on food tourism as a niche tourism market (Kivela and Crotts, 2008; Okumuş, et al., 2007), recent literature suggests that, such is the increase in tourists actively participating in a wide variety of food experiences that food tourism should be considered a distinct sector in its own right (Everett, 2016; Stone and Migacz, 2016).

Despite the extensive literature surrounding food tourism, no clear definition of the term exists, with words such as 'food', 'culinary' and 'gastronomy' often used interchangeably (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012; Okumuş et al., 2007; Wolf, 2014). Indeed, it is argued that these terms are often used inconsistently (Karim and Chi, 2010). However, to understand why various studies use the terms 'food', 'culinary' and 'gastronomy' it is essential to investigate the vast range of debates concerning the definitions and descriptions that characterise these terms within the tourism field. The following section will look at each term and will conclude with justification for the term 'food tourism' which as stated in Chapter 1, (Section 1.7.1), is used throughout this study.

### 2.3.1 Food tourism

Narrowly defined food tourism can be described as a form of travel where the primary motivation is to experience the food or drink of a place (Hall and Mitchell, 2005; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Sims, 2009). It is an experiential trip where the tourist actively takes part in the food experience, rather than just observing (Lopez-Guzman and Sanchez-Canizares, 2012). This can involve visiting food or beverage producers, food fairs, farmers markets or partaking in food-related activities linked to a particular culture (Hall et al., 2003).

Everett and Aitchison, (2000) expand on this definition by adding that food is acknowledged by tourists as more than sustenance and is, in fact, a cultural artefact which can be enjoyed in a myriad of locations. It can be considered part of local culture, used in tourism promotion and a potential component of local agricultural and economic development (Tikkannen, 2007).

### 2.3.2 Culinary tourism

The term 'culinary tourism' is extensively used in tourism literature (Ignatov and Smith, 2006; Long, 1998; Kivela and Crotts, 2009; Smith and Xiao, 2008; Williams et al., 2013). The appropriateness of the term was first put forward by Long (1998), who defines the concept as:

> … an exploratory relationship with the edible world… the nature of the encounter is what defines a food experience as culinary (Long, 1998, p. xi).

Expanding on this definition Williams et al., (2013, p. 4) add that culinary tourism also "encompasses authentic food traditions and the social context of food" and implies "the passing on of these traditions and cultures" to the tourist. Subsequently creating memorable food and drink experiences (Ignatov and Smith, 2006).

A more cohesive definition of culinary tourism, and one which is gaining widespread acceptance (Lopez-Guzman and Sanchez- Canizares, 2012), has been put forward by Smith and Xiao (2008). They characterise culinary tourism as:

> Any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources. Furthermore, culinary tourism is when culinary experiences occur, though these are not the primary motivation for the trip. (Smith and Xiao, 2008, p. 289)

Consequently, culinary travel is not only about "exploration and adventure" (Kivela and Crotts, 2009, p. 164) but also represents a "cultural encounter" (Kivela and Crotts, 2009, p. 181) as tourists seek out local foods, restaurants and food experiences unique to a place.

However, the suitability of the term is contested, as in etymological terms, the word culinary derives from the word cuisine, meaning to cook. Therefore, using this term can imply that all culinary tourists cook (Robinson and Getz, 2013) which is not the case. It is further suggested by Wolf (2014), that the term culinary tourism may imply high-end experiences. Consequently, organisations such as The World Food Tourism Association no longer use the term 'culinary tourism' preferring instead to use the term 'food tourism' (WFTA, 2012).

### 2.3.3 Gastronomy tourism

A further expression found in tourism literature describing this sector is gastronomy tourism (Robinson and Getz, 2013). Gastronomy is defined as the art of eating and drinking and this term is considered by some researchers to be a more suitable description (Kivela and Crotts, 2006). In common with culinary tourism, gastronomy tourism can refer to consuming local cuisines, visiting food producers, observing the production of food and travelling in pursuit of a local food experience (Hall and Mitchell 2000, 2005; Hall et al., 2003). However, in contrast to culinary tourism, Ignatov and Smith (2006) associate gastronomy tourism with the enjoyment and appreciation of food and drink, linking it to an aesthetic lifestyle.

However, the appropriateness of this term is often disputed as gastronomy and the related terms of gourmand and gourmet have disparaging connotations and often imply an elitist or intellectualised view of food preparation and dining (Robinson et al., 2016).

For the purpose of this study, aligned with, Hall and Mitchell's (2005), Kivela and Crotts' (2006) and Sims' (2009) interpretations the term 'food tourism' is adopted, for two reasons. Firstly, the term captures the commonalities that are present in the various definitions found. Secondly, the term is free from any connotations such as those already highlighted, which are associated with the terms 'culinary' (Wolf, 2014) and 'gastronomy' (Robinson and Getz, 2013).

As the focus of this study is primarily related to the influence of attitudes towards local foods on tourist motivation, destination choice and tourist satisfaction, this study adopts an experiential definition as purposed by Hall and Mitchell (2005), who state that:

> Food tourism may be defined as 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 motivating factor for travel. (Hall and Mitchell, 2005, p. 74)

Such a definition suggests that not all food consumed on holiday relates to food tourism. Additionally, this definition differentiates between tourists who consume food as part of the travel experience and those who actively seek out food and food experiences influenced by an interest in food.

However, if food tourism is essentially experiential in nature then the question of what constitutes a food experience needs to be understood. As such the next section explains various tourist food experiences.

## 2.4 Food experiences

Food can be an important tourist attraction and regardless whether or not food is a travel motivator (Kivela and Crotts, 2006) eating can play an integral role in the overall holiday experience (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; Henderson, et al., 2012; Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Wijaya, et al., 2013).

However, it is important to note that all experiences, including those related to food, have inherent qualities that make them unique (Sfandla and Björk, 2013) and specific to

individuals (Helkkula, 2011). Thence it is recognised that the concept of the tourist food experience is complex and consequently difficult to define (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014).

An indicative typology of food experiences is provided below, Table 2.1, adapted by the researcher from Smith and Xiao (2008, p. 290). The table shows the multidimensional nature of the experiences which can be associated with food tourism.

| Table 2.1: Typology of food tourism experiences | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Buildings or structures** | **Events** | **Activities** | **Organisations** |
| Food processing facilities<br>Wineries and breweries<br>Local food shops<br>Local food markets<br>Food-related museums<br>Restaurants<br>Orchards<br>Wine routes<br>Food trails<br>Farms | Food and drink shows<br>Cooking demonstrations<br>Food festivals<br>Wine/beer festivals<br>Harvest festivals | Dining in local restaurants<br>Picnics using local food<br>Wine/beer tasting<br>Pick your own operations<br>Reading food magazines or cookbooks | Restaurant classification i.e. Michelin<br>Food/wine classification systems<br>Associations e.g. Wexford Food Family, Slow food Ireland |

Adapted by the researcher from Smith and Xiao, 2008, p. 290

### 2.4.1 Food experiences and the stages of travel

Experiences are referred to as processes wherein single experiences occur in various phases (Helkkula, 2011) and in different places (Mossberg, 2007). Mitchell and Hall (2004), state that there are potentially five key phases in tourist food experiences. Table 2.2 illustrates that food experiences can occur even before a tourist leaves on holiday. For example, they may have experience with different foods at home and or in restaurants (stages 1 and 2). These experiences can shape tourists' expectations of food-related experiences when travelling. Stages 3 and 4 represent the food experiences the tourist has while travelling. Lastly, stage 5 occurs after the holiday, as the tourist dines at home

influenced by food experienced while travelling (Mitchell and Hall, 2004) or by consuming food souvenirs (Oviedo-García et al., 2016).

| Table 2.2: Food tourism and the stages of the travel experience | |
| --- | --- |
| **Stages of travel** | **Food experience** |
| Pre-visit (eating at home and in restaurants prior to the trip) | Food from the region consumed at home or in local restaurants in anticipation of the travel experience |
| Travel to the destination | Encountering produce en-route |
| At the destination | Partaking in food and tasting experiences while on holiday |
| Travel from destination | Encountering produce en-route home |
| Post-visit (eating at home and in local restaurants after the trip) | Experiencing the food from the region at home, reinforcing recollections of experiences and memories of the destination experience |

Adapted by the researcher from Mitchell and Hall, 2012, p. 56.

To summarise, the literature concerning food experiences reveals two main points. Firstly, food experiences are multidimensional in nature and thus difficult to define (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014). Secondly, food experiences can occur before, during and after a holiday (Mitchell and Hall, 2004; Oviedo-García et al., 2016).

Local food can provide a food tourism experience (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014). The following section will detail the role of local food in contributing to these touristic food experiences.

## 2.5 Local food

Research shows that there is an ongoing movement in food-related behaviour that encompasses consumers interest in local food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016; Hjalager and Richards, 2012; Mirosa and Lawson, 2012). This growing interest in local food products has been explained by Pearson et al (2011) who contend that individuals are influenced by issues related to the environment, ethics, sustainability and a desire to support local food networks. Furthermore, local food is recognised by tourists as authentic, simple and traditional (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013; Sims, 2009; Mirosa

and Lawson, 2012). Local products are also perceived as healthier (Pearson et al., 2011) with fewer chemicals required in their preservation as warehousing and transport time is shorter (Mirosa and Lawson, 2012). Additionally, local food products are often produced without additives and often involve a degree of manual work. This artisanal character is often viewed as creative (Sidali et al., 2013).

Despite the growing interest, there is no universally accepted definition of the term local food (Martinez et al., 2010; Pearson et al., 2011) with many studies focusing on the ambiguity that surrounds it (Morris and Buller, 2003). However, Sims (2009) argues that it is not possible to assign a single definition to the term local food as the term 'local' is equated with a number of attributes including social, environment and quality.

### 2.5.1 Issues with defining local food

As evident from the literature, the most common approach to defining the term focuses on local food as a geographical concept and is predominately related to the distance between producers and consumers (Hingley et al., 2010; Martinez et al., 2010; Pearson et al., 2011). Yet, definitions using geographical proximity can be subjective and as a result, consumers are left deciding themselves what constitutes regional or local food (GRACE Communications Foundations, 2014). In some instances, local food is defined with reference to political boundaries. For example, within The European Union, each member state was advised to provide a definition for the term local, as used within their own local market. To this end The Department of Health introduced into Irish Law a definition for a local retail establishment, defining it as:

> A retail establishment that is not more than 100 km from the place of
> manufacture of the food product (Department of Health, 2016 as cited
> in FSAI 2016, p. 2).

It is argued that local products are often sold beyond the area of production, so using a concept of a bounded region could be considered a weak interpretation of the term (Watts et al., 2005). Additionally, local products may have used raw materials sourced from outside the area (Enteleca Research and Consultancy, 2000). Yet as these products are produced locally their local identity is still retained. Dunne and Wright (2017, p. 8), explored Irish consumers understanding of the term 'local food' and found that 63.8% of respondents consider local food to mean food made in Ireland. While 22.3% believe that local food means produced "within close proximity to where they live".

17

Likewise, various definitions of local food may also extend to who produced the food. For instance, products that are home-grown or produced by friends or family (Wägeli and Hamm, 2015), or food produced by smaller companies for localised markets (Sims 2009).

The foregoing discussion has highlighted that there is an increased interest in local food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016; Hjalager and Richards, 2012). Moreover, local food is perceived as healthier and appeals to individuals who are influenced by issues related to the environment, ethics, sustainability and a desire to support local food networks (Pearson et al., 2011).

The literature further highlighted that there is no universally accepted definition of local food. However, research shows that all definitions share common attributes including; tradition, geography, culture and heritage (Du Rand and Heath, 2006). Research suggests that these aspects are also related to another component of tourism; authenticity (Rinaladi, 2016). Thus, authenticity in tourism and how it relates to local food are discussed in the next section.

## 2.6 Authenticity

The section which follows discusses the concept of authenticity in tourism and how it relates to local food. It begins with an overview of the concept in tourism and continues by highlighting the associated theories and current understandings of authenticity. A brief overview of studies related to authenticity and local food is then presented, followed by an outline of object-related and existential authenticity regarding local food.

### 2.6.1 The concept of authenticity in tourism

The issue of authenticity is a central point of discussion in tourism studies (Cohen, 1988, 2002; Chhabra et. al., 2013; Heitmann, 2011). However, with the widespread use of the concept, its ambiguity and limitations have become exposed (Wang, 1999), "as what one person may consider genuine may be completely unrealistic to another" (Sigala and Leslie, 2005, cited in O'Riordan and Ward, 2014, p. 44). Taylor (2008, p. 8) further highlights this fact stating that "there are at least as many definitions of authenticity as there are those who write about it".

Resultantly, debates about the meaning and validity of authenticity have played a central role in tourism literature (Cohen, 2002; Chhabra, 2013; Heitmann, 2011; Sims, 2009;

Taylor, 2001). However, despite the numerous definitions of the concept, common themes are recognised, with authenticity associated with history, tradition, heritage, culture and locality (Du Rand and Heath, 2006; Özdemir, and Seyitoğlu, 2017).

Traditionally there is one key debate on authenticity found in tourism literature; namely that between Boorstin's (1961) understanding of authenticity versus MacCannell's (1973) interpretation of the concept (Heitmann, 2011). Taking what they both deemed as the superficiality and inauthenticity of modern life as a starting point, they argue that tourists are influenced by "a contrived and illusory modern society" which has resulted in a standardisation of tourism products across the world (Heitmann, 2011, p. 46). As a consequence, Boorstin (1961), in his seminal article *The Image: A Guide to Pseudo-Events in America*, claims that tourists do not experience reality but thrive on pseudo-events often isolated from the locals. He deemed that tourism providers in conjunction with the media help reinforce these contrived ideas and together produce an illusion to the tourist which is often far from authentic. Boorstin (1961) further argues that it is a 'traveller', rather than a 'tourist', who seeks out the authentic.

Conversely, MacCannell (1973) disagrees with Boorstin's account arguing that there is no distinction between traveller and tourist. Instead, MacCannell likened the tourist to a pilgrim on a quest for authenticity (Urry, 2005). However, unlike the pilgrim who pays homage to one sacred place, the tourist pays homage to an array of attractions and experiences. He notes that:

> … anything is potentially an attraction, it simply awaits one person to take the trouble to point it out to another, that it is simply noteworthy (MacCannell, 1973, p. 192).

Expanding on this idea MacCannell (1973), developed the term 'staged authenticity' based on Goffman's (1959) structural division of social establishments into back and front regions. A place where tourists strive to move from the front to back regions in their quest for authenticity. Zerva (2015) describes the two poles of MacCannell's continuum:

> The front represents the "scenery", a managed setting characterized by surface and visibility, where tourists (audience) meet the hosts (performers) … The backstage is the region closed to outsiders (audience), and where the other lives comfortably its reality in secrecy and intimacy (Zerva, 2015, p. 517).

Some criticism exists towards Boorstin and MacCannell views. For instance, Cohen (1988) further suggests that there are many understandings of the term authenticity and proposes that authenticity is "a socially constructed concept" (Cohen, 1988, p. 374). Adding to this debate, Wang (1999) argues that Boorstin and MacCannell both applied an objectivist conception of authenticity and their theories do not capture the full complexity of the tourist experience.

Chhabra (2010) identifies the terms 'negotiated' and 'constructed' authenticity, believing that some tourist experiences are modified to meet the expectations of the tourist. This view is similar to an earlier study by Fields (2002) who suggests that to meet certain preconceived expectations of the tourist many larger resorts are constructing authentic or traditional foods. As such, dishes not traditional to a place are supplied. To illustrate his point, Fields (2002) uses the example of the Valencian dish of paella which is now served all over Spain as tourists perceive it as a national Spanish dish.

Thus, it is argued that object-related authenticity depends on whether something can be proved authentic or not, while constructive authenticity focuses on the way attractions are 'staged' for tourists (Sims, 2009). Wang (1999) has extended the discussion on authenticity by arguing for a third type of authenticity referred to as existential authenticity. Wang (1999) argues that objectivist and constructivist authenticity are limited as they relate to the nature of the attraction being visited. Wang (1999) further contends that existential authenticity becomes:

> … a projection of tourists' own beliefs, expectations, preferences, stereotyped images, and consciousness onto toured objects (Wang, 1999, p. 355).

Therefore, an understanding of authenticity as an existential phenomenon attached to the constructions of personal identity then emerges as Sims (2009) describes:

> Existential authenticity … describes the way in which tourists, by participating in holiday activities, can construct their identity to experience a more authentic sense of self (Sims, 2009, p. 324).

Wang (1999) further suggests two dimensions of the concept; intrapersonal and interpersonal. Firstly, intrapersonal authenticity consists of two dimensions. Primarily it involves sensations, for instance, relaxation and recreation. Secondly, intrapersonal authenticity consists of 'self-making', that is where individuals on holiday can act spontaneously, in line with their true feelings and authentic self (Wang, 1999).

Interpersonal authenticity is the second dimension of existential authenticity. Similar to intrapersonal authenticity, it is divided into two components; family ties and communities. Per se tourists are not just seeking an authentic, or a 'true' self but rather an "authenticity among and between their fellow travellers" (Wang, 1999, p. 364). Thus, the existentially authentic tourism experience is not only a result of seeing sights of socially constructed importance (MacCannell 1999) but it is also about collectively performing and experiencing the journey (Rickly-Boyd 2012).

As such, three types of authenticity have emerged, clustered into two main groups: object-related and existential authenticity (Wang, 1999). The concepts of authenticity are summarised in Table 2.3 as follows.

| Table 2.3: The three concepts of authenticity | |
| --- | --- |
| **Object-related authenticity** | **Existential authenticity** |
| *Objectivism authenticity*<br>• Whether something can be conveyed and interpreted as authentic or not (Wang, 1999)<br><br>• Where the tourist understands a place and culture, it can be expressed in a tangible form and often represents a heritage or natural place (O'Donovan, et al., 2015) | *Existential authenticity*<br>• An understanding of authenticity that the tourist has developed themselves as a response to a tourism experience (Sims, 2009)<br><br>• The tourist using their own set of values and beliefs, activity seeks what they determine to be a real experience (O'Donovan, et al., 2015) |
| *Constructive authenticity*<br>• Projected on to objects or places by tourists, who using "beliefs, perspectives, or powers" construct their own interpretation of authenticity (Wang, 1999, p. 356)<br>• It is expressed as a perception or the narrative of a place (O'Donovan, et al., 2015). | |

Adapted by the researcher from Wang 2000, p. 49.

In light of the literature, it is clear that authenticity plays a critical role in tourism (Sims, 2009). Consuming local food ties into the quest for authenticity, appropriating the culture, heritage, tradition and identity of a place (Bessiere, 1998). As such, local food can represent an amalgamation of objective-related and existential authenticity; affording the

opportunity for the tourist to absorb and experience the culture and engage with its people. Drawing on this concept, the following section will detail the role of authenticity within food tourism.

### 2.6.2 Authenticity and local food

Studies show that an increasing number of tourists are travelling to destinations seeking foods and food experiences considered traditional or local (Enteleca Research and Consultancy Ltd, 2000; Okumuş et al., 2007). This pursuit can also be viewed as a search for authenticity (Gilmore and Pine, 2007; Sims, 2009). Similarly, Fáilte Ireland stresses that the authenticity of food offerings is a vital component of the visitor experience (Fáilte Ireland, 2013). Taylor (2001) suggests that tourists' increased desire for authenticity arises from a world where everyday life is viewed as inauthentic. Taylor (2001) observes that:

> Authenticity is valuable only where there is perceived inauthenticity…
> the modern consciousness is instilled with a simultaneous feeling of
> lack and desire erupting from a sense of loss felt within our world of
> mass culture (Taylor 2001, p. 10).

The origin of food is a fundamental aspect of authenticity (Du Rand, et al., 2006) and studies show that tourists have a growing interest in food provenance (Hall and Sharples, 2003). As such it can be argued that the use of local food products in places of consumption can increase the perceived authenticity of the food experience (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016).

Studies show that the link between authenticity and food is important to many consumers. Beverland (2005, p. 1003), in his study regarding luxury wine, maintains that authenticity is "one of the cornerstones of contemporary marketing".  DeSoucey (2010) maintains that authenticity and tradition can be a way of protecting food producers against imports from abroad.

However, the term 'authentic food' remains disputed. The contested nature of authenticity in relation to food has led to the rapid development of EU regulations linking food and food traditions to designated places of origin. The European Commission (2006, p. 5) maintains that this link helps "share the common goal of furthering authenticity". These regions are based on the concept that geographic conditions give food and drink a unique character (Spielmann and Charters, 2013). As a consequence, certain foods and culinary traditions are now protected and guaranteed. Such initiatives are frequently used

in relation to wine with Application d'Origine Controlee (AOC) used in France, and Denominazione di Origine Controllata (DOC) used in Italy (Brulotte and Giovine, 2016).

Further legislation set out by the EU to protect food authenticity include:

- PDO (Protected Designation of Origin) for products with a strong link to the defined geographical area where they are produced
- PGI (Protected Geographical Indication) for agricultural products and foods linked to a geographical area where at least one production step has taken place
- Traditional Specialities Guaranteed (TSG) emphasise traditional composition and mode of production of products (proven usage on the domestic market for at least 25 years), (The European Commission, 2006)

These regulations ensure products cannot be separated from their geographical origin. In this way, the authenticity of a product is protected for both the producer, the consumer and the tourist (Spielmann and Charters, 2013).

However, the appropriateness of the term authenticity in relation to food has been questioned by some researchers, especially regarding its frequent and indiscriminate use in the promotion of restaurants and food products (Jackson, 2013). In an early essay on culinary authenticity, Appadurai (1986) expressed his doubts over whether the term should be used in relation to food. He argues that authenticity denotes a norm or what ought to be. Appadurai, (1986) further queries the source of these norms, by questioning the authoritative voice and argues is it

> … the professional cook, the average consumer, the gourmand… the consumer of exotic food (or) the tourist (Appadurai, 1986, p. 25).

A further point that Appadurai (1986) makes is that the term does not account for the inevitable evolution which occurs with cultures and their cuisine.

Further research suggests that labelling food as authentic can increase its status (Freedman and Jurafsky, 2012) and often such food commands a premium price (Caputo et al., 2018). However, as highlighted by Bourdieu (1984) and De Vault (1994) it is often the lower socio-economic groups who are more likely to cook food based on tradition.

In a similar way, it is suggested the tourist's presence, in a restaurant, for example, negates the authenticity of a place. Thus, paradoxically as Heldke (2005, p. 390) points out the

tourist's "discovery of a truly authentic restaurant contains the very seed of the destruction of its authenticity".

Food tourism can be an amalgamation of object-related, and existential authenticity, as foods which are authentic to an area afford the opportunity for the tourist to absorb and experience the culture and engage with its people (O'Donovan, et al., 2015). So far, this section has discussed the relationship between authenticity and food tourism. The next section will describe how object-related and existential authenticity relate to local food.

**2.6.3 Object-related authenticity and local food**

Object-related authenticity is comprised of two types of authenticity; objective and constructed authenticity. The sections which follow details each of these two types of object-related authenticity in relation to local food.

*2.6.3.1 Objective authenticity and local food*

Objective authenticity consists of a static understanding of place and culture (Sims, 2009), conveyed and interpreted as true and honest in nature (Wang, 1999). Thus, objective authenticity only exists after a tangible evaluation with reference to certain criteria (Ebster and Guist, 2005). For example, the European Union's 'Quality Schemes for Agricultural Products and Foodstuffs' (EU Reg 1151/2012) policy which protects food and traditional production methods, in particular, those linked to their geographical origin. This legislation is further underpinned by a number of scientific and analytical methods including evidence of the place of origin. With objective authenticity, the tourist is simply a passive observer (O' Donovan, et al., 2015).

*2.6.3.2 Constructed authenticity and local food*

Constructed authenticity refers to an approach where tourists judge how authentic something is based on their own experiences (Wang, 1999) and as such is a subjectively social construction (Ebster and Guist, 2005). Thus, this results in "various versions of authenticities regarding the same object" (Wang, 1999, p. 352). Additionally, this form of authenticity can be 'constructed' or 'staged' for the benefit of tourists (Sims, 2009).

As already mentioned, Chhabra (2011) argues that authenticity can be often constructed or negotiated with experiences altered to suit tourist expectations. Regarding local food, for instance, this could be as simple as changing an ingredient to suit a tourist's palate or changing a production method to be more efficient (Cohen and Avieli, 2004). Studies show that in the case of ethnic restaurants tourists believe not only what they taste but

also what they see. Thus, the ethnic costumes, the decoration of the restaurants may define for the tourist whether the restaurant is authentic or not (Peterson, 2005).

Additionally, Johnson and Baumann (2007, p. 179) emphasise that "certain qualities are framed to create the perception of authenticity", and as such authenticity is a social construction. Their study identified four qualities pertaining to food used to frame food as authentic; geographic specificity, simplicity, personal connections and historicism. Geographic references relate to provenance which can donate cultural and ethnic origin. Simplicity embodies concepts of handmade or traditional and rusticity. Personal connotations denote 'food with a face' i.e. a celebrity chef or a food's connection to a creative talent or family artisanal tradition. Historicism refers to food traditions and the test of time, as opposed to a trend (Johnson and Baumann, 2007). Similar to objective authenticity the tourist is a passive observer, only occasionally interacting with a place and its culture (O' Donovan, et al., 2015).

### 2.6.4 Existential authenticity and local food

Existential authenticity relies on personal experiences and perceptions (Rickly-Boyd, 2013; Wang, 1999). It is based on the idea of the authentic self. That is

> … being in touch with one's inner self, knowing one's self, having a sense of one's own identity and then living in accord with one's sense of oneself (Reisinger and Steiner, 2006, p. 300).

Unlike objective and constructive authenticity, with existential authenticity, the tourist takes an active part in affirming authenticity based on past experiences (O' Donovan, et al., 2015). In this context, the tourist develops an understanding of authenticity in response to previous experiences (Cohen, 2010; Sims, 2009).

In summary, tourists are increasingly searching for an authentic experience (Okumuş et al., 2007). The evidence presented here suggests that local food can appeal to a tourist's desire for authenticity. Furthermore, the literature shows that local food can appeal to a tourist's desire for authenticity on a number of levels. Firstly, it appeals to those searching for object-related and constructive authenticity by offering typical food products as a taste of place. Secondly, it can appeal to those looking for an existential authenticity by allowing the tourist to have a meaningful connection to the people and the place where the food is produced (Sims, 2008). As such the search for an authentic local food experience could influence destination choice, travel motivation and holiday satisfaction.

## 2.7 Segmentation of tourists

In his 1972 seminal article, *Towards a Sociology of International Tourism,* Erik Cohen was the first to suggest that there are different types of tourists. His model attempted to define the continuum of possible combinations of familiarity and novelty sought by different tourists while on holiday (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2011). Cohen's model was a reaction to earlier attempts at classification, specifically that used by historian Boorstin (1961), who introduced the dichotomy of traveller/tourist. According to Boorstin (1961), the traveller is active and seeking adventure while the tourist is passive and "expects everything to be done to him and for him" (p. 85).

However, several serious criticisms were advanced against Boorstin's (1961) position (Cohen, 1988; Sharpley, 1994). It was suggested that Boorstin was not a detached observer and that his views were mildly held prejudices against mass tourism (Cohen, 1988). Additionally, it was argued that Boorstin ignored any variation in the motivation, the conduct or the experiences of the different types of tourists (Sharpley, 1994) and did not represent a balanced "picture of modern tourism" (Cohen, 1988, p. 31). Consequently, Cohen (1972) developed a tourist typology, grounded in sociological theory, which suggests that four different types of tourists can be discerned.

### 2.7.1 Cohen's tourist typology

According to Cohen (1972), tourist experiences are made up of varying degrees of familiarity and novelty seeking. By organising the variations of novelty/familiarity, Cohen identified four tourist groups. Firstly, the organised mass tourist, who seeks familiarity and show a preference for all-inclusive tours with pre-arranged itineraries (Mehmetoglu, 2004). The second typology identified by Cohen is the individual mass tourist. These tourists are not bound to a group by pre-scheduled plans. However, this tourist will ensure that most travel arrangements are pre-arranged before leaving home often using a tour operator (Mehmetoglu, 2004). Cohen's (1972) third segment is referred to as the explorer, described as those who arrange their holiday independently but demand more novelty than the previous two segments. Finally, Cohen identifies the drifter, who constitute the opposite of the mass tourist, and desire to be immersed in the local culture venturing away from the familiar.

Although the taxonomy advanced by Cohen (1972) presented a more complex array of tourists than that offered by Boorstin (1964), it was still subject to criticism (Yiannakis

and Gibson, 1992). It is argued that Cohen's theory does not allow for changes in tourist behaviour over time (Sharpley, 1999) additionally no reference is made to the motives underpinning that behaviour (Ryan, 1991). Despite these criticisms, Cohen's (1972) model of tourist typologies is at the foundation of many studies seeking to explain tourist behaviours and motivations (Prince, 2017). Furthermore, the model has been used in the segmentation of food tourists (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Hjalager, 2003; Mitchell and Hall, 2003).

**2.7.2 Segmentation of food tourists**

The previous section has shown that tourists hold varying attitudes toward holiday experiences. Additionally, studies suggest an interest in local food and food experiences are valid constructs for segmenting tourists (Kivela and Crotts, 2009; McKercher et al., 2008; Smith and Costello, 2009).

Various attempts have been made to classify food tourists. It has been proposed by Cohen and Avieli (2004) that food tourists can be classified in terms of their neophilic (those who like new experiences) or neophobic (those who hate new experiences) tendencies with food. Adopting a typology previously proposed by Cohen (1972), the notion that food is a simple attraction is challenged and it is suggested that food can in fact function as an impediment to travel. It is suggested that the neophilic tourist seeks local, traditional and authentic foods whereas the neophobic tourist's demands familiar food (Cohen and Avieli, 2004). The study also acknowledges that each segment will approach food and food experiences differently at destinations (Cohen and Avieli, 2004).

Cohen's (1972) categorisation of tourists is also used by Hjalager (2003) who builds on the same fundamental understanding of tourist motivation, presenting a phenomenological model of the food tourist. This model is based on tourist's attitudes towards food and their experiences with food and dining behaviour. Hjalager (2003) recognises four variations of food tourist; the existential, the experimental, the recreational and the diversionary.

As stated by Hjalager (2003), the existential tourist seeks food and drink experiences that foster in-depth learning about local cuisine and a regions culture. This type of tourist actively seeks out simple, authentic cuisine prepared in the traditional way and is likely to be found in a restaurant frequented by locals. Seeking authentic experiences these

tourists actively involve themselves with working farms, vineyards and cooking classes (Kivela and Crotts, 2006).

The second category of food tourist defined by Hjalager (2003) is the experimental food tourist. These tourists, often guided by epicurean literature, actively seek out fashionable food. Food and drink are considered symbols of lifestyle and are key motivating factors when selecting holiday destinations.

On the other hand, the recreational tourist will seek out the familiar when on holiday, often bringing food from home to their holiday destination (Hjalager, 2003). For these tourists, the social activity of eating a meal is paramount with the food only of secondary importance.

Finally, the diversionary tourist seeks to escape everyday life and wants to enjoy a hassle-free holiday experience. Similar to the recreational tourist, food is not of paramount importance. Instead, it is the social aspect of the dining experience which is imperative. This tourist dislikes exotic foods and prefers large multinational chain restaurants (Hjalager, 2003).

A further adaptation of Cohen's (1972) segmentation was conducted by Mitchell and Hall (2003) and considers the level of interest and involvement of tourists in food. Four segments were identified based on tourists' interest in food. These are "gastronomes, indigenous foodies, tourist foodies and familiar foods" (Mitchell and Hall, 2003, p. 80). Table 2.4, which follows, describes the behaviours of each of these segments, describing food experiences which might unfold for each.

| Table 2.4: Tourist typologies as proposed by Mitchell and Hall | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Category** | **Level of interest** | **Food experiences** |
| Gastronomes | High level of interest and involvement | Cooking schools, Food education, Haute cuisine and traditional authentic food, Food markets – with emphasis on farmers' markets, Local growers and suppliers |
| Indigenous Foodies | High and moderate interest or involvement in food | Cooking schools, Local restaurants, Traditional food, Food markets an attraction because of produce - with no substantial differentiation between farmers' and public markets |
| Tourist Foodies | Moderate and low interest or involvement in food | Menus designed with tourists in mind, Westernised hotels or resorts, International shops and restaurants, Food market as a component of local culture - food not an attraction in its own right |
| Familiar Foodies | Low interest or involvement in food | Package tour foods, International fast-food chains |

Adapted by the researcher from Mitchell, R. and Hall, C.M. (2003), Consuming tourist: food tourism consumer behaviour, in Hall, C.M., Mitchell, R., Sharples, R., Cambourne, B., and Macionis, N. (eds.), *Food tourism around the world: development, management and markets*. Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford, pp. 60-80.

This section attempted to provide a brief understanding of tourist segmentation. On reviewing the literature concerning the segmentation of tourists it is clear that certain typologies can be discerned by analysing varying degrees of novelty/familiarity. This theory was first introduced by Cohen (1972) who identified four tourist groups: the organised mass tourist, the individual mass tourist, the explorer and the drifter. Although it is argued that Cohen's (1972) theory does not allow for changes in tourist behaviour (Sharpley, 1999), it is still the most widely followed model used in tourism studies.

Furthermore, the model has been used in the segmentation of food tourists (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Hjalager, 2003).

This section has demonstrated that tourists are not a homogenous group and display varying degrees of interest in food and food experiences. For some tourists, local food and food experiences may be a prime reason for visiting a destination (Getz et al., 2014; McKercher, et al., 2008). However, not all tourists are as committed to food experiences and instead take a more casual attitude towards local food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2014). Yet, for these tourists, local food can still represent an important part of their holidays, although it may not necessarily determine destination choice (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Canizares, 2012) or influence motivation to travel.

## 2.8 Tourist Motivation

Motivation is recognised as a multifaceted construct which can influence tourist food consumption (Mak, et al., 2012) and travel motivation. However, to understand motivation regarding food consumption it is necessary to understand and explain relevant theories in tourism motivation studies. As such this section will explore definitions and relevant theories associated with tourist motivation, and subsequently food tourism motivation.

### 2.8.1 Defining motivation

The term motivation has been defined in different ways, but essentially refers to a complex set of needs and wants that integrate an individual's actions or behaviours (Park, et al., 1993; Uysal and Hagan, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). It is a motivation that can drive individuals to travel and experience new things (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola 1982) and is fundamental to tourism development itself (Wahab, 1975), as it represents the reason individuals travel to certain destinations (Crompton, 1979). Individuals travel for different reasons. For example, as outlined in Section 2.3.1, food tourists are motivated to travel to experience the food or drink of a place (Hall and Mitchell, 2005; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Sims, 2009).

In the field of tourism, several definitions concerning motivation have been proposed. For instance, Dann (1981, p. 211) has described it as a "state of mind" causing an individual to travel "which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision". A further definition is offered by Crompton and McKay (1997, p. 427), who contend that motivation can be theorised as a "dynamic

process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants)", which "produces a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals". As tourism motivation is an amalgamation of complex psychological factors and behaviours, no universally agreed theoretical or conceptual framework exists (Page, 2015).

However, on reviewing the literature it was found that a number of prominent frameworks or theories have been utilised (Park et al., 2008). The four main theories include; Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, Dann's (1977) push and pull theory, Iso-Ahola's (1991) escape seeking theory and Pearce's (1988) travel career ladder model.

By gaining insight into tourist motivation it is possible to understand tourist satisfaction (Crompton and McKay, 1997). The following section will describe these four theories in detail.

### 2.8.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Tourist motivation embraces psychological as well as physiological facets because travel is expected to satisfy different levels of needs such as psychological and physiological needs (Mak et al., 2009; Witt and Wright, 1992). Consequently, tourist motivational theories have developed from psychological principles (Boluk et al., 2017) with Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs frequently utilised. (Page, 2015; Tikkanen, 2007). This classic psychological theory identifies a ranking of five sets of goals which are referred to as basic needs. These are listed as follows, in ascending order; physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation. Maslow (1943) argued that if the lower needs in the hierarchy are not met then these would dominate an individual's behaviour. Once these needs are satisfied the individual is motivated by the needs of the next level of the hierarchy (Page, 2015). Maslow (1943) maintained that all individuals aspire to self-actualisation.

The main weakness of Maslow's theory is that needs are not, in reality, hierarchical and can occur simultaneously (Witt and Wright, 1992; Page, 2015). As such since its inception, many researchers have adapted and modified Maslow's theory (Boluk et al., 2017). For instance, Crompton (1979), expanded on Maslow's ideas by emphasising the socio-psychological motives as to why tourists undertake certain types of travel.

### 2.8.1.2 The travel career ladder

Pearce (2005) has suggested that individuals have a career in their travel behaviour. Pearce (2005) argues that a travel career is dynamic depending on life-cycle, money, health. Individuals also have the option of retiring from taking holidays or indeed not take

holidays at all. Building on Maslow's hierarchical system Pearce (2005) firstly distinguished five motivational levels; biological needs, safety and security needs, relationship development and extension needs, special interest and self-developing needs, fulfilment or self-actualisation. This was later simplified into three layers:

- Layer 1: novelty, escape relaxation, enhancing and maintaining human relationships

- Layer 2: represents a core level, self-actualisation, interaction with the environment

- Layer 3: an outer layer representing nostalgia and social status.

### 2.8.1.3 Push-Pull Factors

A common paradigm for testing and measuring tourist motivation is the push and pull theory (Crompton 1979; Dann 1977, 1981). The concept of push and pull motivations distinguishes between two main groups of factors; internal and external. Firstly, internal (or push) factors, which motivate an individual to seek a holiday (Dann, 1977, 1981; Guttentag et al., 2018). For example, individuals may travel with the sole purpose of experiencing and learning about food experiences. Secondly, external (or pull) factors, which persuade an individual to choose a particular destination,(Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977, 1981; Page, 2015). For instance, food tourists are attracted to destinations renowned for their local food and culinary traditions. Push factors are more aligned with tourist motivation (Dann, 1981), and give an understanding of the tourist decision-making process. In contrast, pull factors are often considered from a supply standpoint and can be fulfilled by a variety of different activities (Crompton 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1990).

A review of the literature enables the identification of a number of different push and pull factors, making it possible to divide into five categories; relaxation (Crompton 1979), heritage and culture (Uysal and Jurowski 1993), education (Crompton 1979; Yoon and Uysal 2005), escape (Crompton 1979; Uysal and Jurowski 1993; Yoon and Uysal 2005) and health (Mak et al., 2009; Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017). As discussed in section 2.8.2 the push and pull theory is frequently used in food tourism studies.

### 2.8.1.4 Seeking and Escape

Building on Dann's (1981), push and pull motivation paradigm, Iso-Ahola (1980) proposed a theory of tourism motivation based on escaping and

seeking personal and interpersonal opportunities (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991). This theory further proposed that this dichotomy of motives could occur simultaneously (Iso-Ahola 1983, 1990). Four push factors were suggested including personal seeking, personal escape, interpersonal seeking, and interpersonal escape.

As previously mentioned, definitions for food tourism, gastronomy tourism and culinary tourism all consider food as a primary motivating factor to travel (Boniface, 2003; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Hall and Sharples, 2003). Previous studies have shown that tourists have differing attitudes and motivations towards food. In a conceptual model on the tourist experience presented by Quan and Wang (2004), it was found that food could be framed as a primary or secondary motivation for destination selection. It would represent a primary motivation, for those wishing to visit a region to experience its food and food experiences. On the other hand, it would represent a secondary motivation, for those who do not consider food as important when planning a trip.

In food tourism research, the push-pull theory remains the most widely applied for explaining tourist motivations given its simplicity and intuitive approach (Klenosky, 2002). Food tourists are pushed by an emotional need to travel and pulled by a destination attributes (Yoon and Uysal, 2005).

The section which follows will provide detail of current studies and theories regarding motivation and food tourism.


**2.8.2 Motivational factors in food tourism**

A number of studies have attempted to shed light on the specific motivational factors underlying tourist food consumption. For example, Fields (2002) adopts a typology of four motivational factors to elaborate on the relationship between food and tourism. These are food, physical, cultural, interpersonal and status and prestige motivators. Food firstly is a physical motivator, tourists need sustenance. Secondly, food can be a cultural motivator as the tourist experiences new food experiences and traditions. The third factor that Fields (2002) describes is that food can serve as an interpersonal motivator as meals taken on holiday can strengthen social bonds and enable a tourist to meet local people. Finally, sampling local delicacies and taking part in unique food experiences can be a status and prestige motivator. However, Field's (2002) typology, lacks empirical evidence and merely suggests a theoretical connection between tourist motivation and motivational factors underlying food consumption in tourism (Mak, et al., 2011).

More recently, aware of the complex nature of food tourism, studies are adopting an interpretive approach (Mak, et al., 2017). For instance, drawing on data collected from a series of qualitative interviews Kim et al., (2009) identified nine motivational factors including, an exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, learning knowledge, authentic experience, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal, and physical environment.

Additionally, using Field's (2002) and Kim's et al., (2009) research, Mak, et al., (2012) classified motives concerning food tourism into five key constituents: symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension, and pleasure. However, while Mak et al.'s (2012) framework provides an insight into motivations underlying tourist motivations its development was based on a small-scale survey and as such is not generalisable.

### 2.8.3 Local food as a motivating factor

Tourists who are motivated to travel for food are essentially looking for an authentic experience (Sims, 2009). Local food can provide an authentic experience in two ways. Firstly, it offers both a geographical component, i.e. locality. Secondly, it addresses the culture and traditions of the local community (Hillel, et al., 2013). As such destination local food offers tourists:

> … products and experiences that faithfully communicate an intimate
> link between food, place and community (Hillel, et al., 2013, p. 202)

Studies show that local food is a critical tourism resource (Henderson, 2009; Quan and Wang, 2004) with studies highlighting that local food can be an attraction in its own right (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; Hall, et al., 2003; Henderson, 2009; Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Kim, et al., 2009).

Additionally, studies show that local food can be a significant motivating factor in destination choice (Cohen and Alvieli, 2004; Hall and Mitchell, 2003). In fact, certain segments of tourists may choose a region simply based on the local food it serves and the anticipated food experiences they can participate in (Bessiere, 1998; Urry, 1990).

In summary, it can be deduced that food can be related to a wide range of motivations for inspiring a tourist to visit a particular destination (Fields, 2002). Furthermore, the search for authenticity has been highlighted as being central to tourism motivation and local food provides an opportunity for many authentic experiences (Sims, 2009). However, tourists hold varying attitudes towards food (Hjalager, 2004), which means that motivations

towards food and food experiences vary (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2015). In the next section, it will be argued that if tourist's hold varying motivations towards food then correspondingly tourists can have varying perceptions of satisfaction.

## 2.9 Tourist satisfaction

In broad terms, satisfaction is determined by a set of criteria formed by an individual. These criteria are then used to perform an evaluation (Correia et al., 2008; UNTWO, 2002). The concept of customer satisfaction is key for a successful business and can help achieve a competitive advantage by generating benefits such as increased WOM and customer retention (Yüksel and Rimmington, 1997). Correspondingly, in tourism depending on the degree of satisfaction, a tourist may return and recommend a destination or conversely, may not return and express negative comments towards a destination (Pearce, 1988). In a tourism setting, satisfaction is dependent on the extent to which a destination fulfils a tourist's criteria (Correia et al., 2008) and often depends on pre-travel and post-travel experiences (Yoon and Uysal, 2005).

Tourist satisfaction has been conceptualised as a multifaceted concept, determined by many different factors (Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Rimmington and Yüksel, 1998). For instance, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017) state that perceived quality and perceived experience are essential components of satisfaction. A similar study undertaken by Rimmington and Yüksel (1998) provides evidence to suggest that there is a relationship between tourist satisfaction and expectations and experiences.

Additionally, tourism literature has attempted to assess satisfaction using various theories (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). For example, Oliver (1980), developed the expectation/disconfirmation theory, which suggests that if performance differs from expectation it may cause dissatisfaction. Conversely, if the tourist has a favourable or better than expected experience, it can lead to a positive disconfirmation, meaning the tourist is highly satisfied (Oliver, 1980).

The holiday experience is an amalgamation of various tangible and intangible characteristics. Thus, tourist satisfaction will accumulate through numerous experiences throughout the holiday (Rimmington and Yüksel, 1998). Hence, dissatisfaction with one component can lead to dissatisfaction with the overall holiday experience and vice versa (Rimmington and Yüksel, 1998). Within this context, food experiences may contribute to tourist satisfaction (Henderson 2009; Neild et al., 2000; Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán, 2012). The following section provides a more detailed account of tourist satisfaction regarding food and food experiences.

### 2.9.1 Satisfaction studies in food tourism

A considerable amount of literature has been published assessing tourist satisfaction with food and food experiences (Correia et al., 2008; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Remmington and Yuskel, 1997; Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán, 2012), with much of the literature focused on tourist satisfaction with the food service experience (Nield et al., 2000). Whereas other research has attempted to draw correlations with satisfaction and local food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; Kivela and Crotts, 2006), tourists satisfaction with food in relation to the overall holiday experience (Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Wolf, 2006) and tourist satisfaction with food festivals (Cole and Chancellor, 2009; Mason and Nassivera, 2013) However, it is important to note that satisfaction with the overall food experience is transient in nature often changing over time (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017).

Tourists can place considerable interest in how they feel and experience a destination based on their selection of restaurants and choice of food (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012). As an illustration of this point, Rimmington and Yüksel (1998) found that, when analysing the factors contributing to the satisfaction of tourists, food was the fourth most important factor contributing to tourist satisfaction. Interestingly it was also found that tourists who were satisfied with their overall holiday experience highly rated their satisfaction with food and vice versa. In the same vein a study from Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012), focusing on food tourists in Cordoba, further provides evidence to support the interrelationship between tourist satisfaction with the food and satisfaction with a destination.

A similar study carried out by Kivela and Crotts (2006), examining the contribution of food and food experiences to overall holiday satisfaction, found that food ranked as one of the top three tourist activities. However, the study only used eight attributes and fails to explore the validity of the scale (Correia et al., 2008).

In a further study, Mak et al., (2012) propose that there are three underlying factors which can affect tourist satisfaction with food-related experiences. These include; the tourist themselves, the food at the destination, and the destination environment. Components of the tourist related factors include cultural or religious influences, food-related personality traits, past-experience, socio-demographic factors and motivational factors. Included within the destination factor are food content, methods of food preparation and cooking, food availability and food cost. Finally, the destination environment includes the food image, seasonality and the food service (Mak et al., 2012).

A similar study by Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., (2013), found that food experiences hold five multidimensional aspects in relation to satisfaction and food. These include the food, the individual, the place, the context and finally the time (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013). A further study by Andersson and Mossberg (2004), which focused on restaurant customers' experiences, further expands on these attributes, suggesting that service also impacts satisfaction with overall food experience.

The authenticity of local food and how it is presented can also influence the satisfaction of tourists who are motivated to travel for food (Sims, 2009). However, authenticity is as much about meeting expectations as it is about providing a true representation of an experience (Jayne et al., 2012). Thus, if the experience is not corresponding to the tourists' perception then a sense of authenticity can be lost (Sims, 2009). Therefore, as previously highlighted, it is important to understand the tourist's concept of what constitutes local food.

Research suggests that the perceived authenticity of a restaurant setting can increase tourist satisfaction (Jang et al., 2012). Further research also highlights the importance of the overall food experience, for example; the perceived authenticity of places of consumption, employees, décor, music and costume, as well as food and drink, can affect overall satisfaction levels (Ebster and Guist, 2005; Kim and Baker, 2017). Further highlighting the complex nature of the local food experience and how it is shaped by a diverse range of concepts (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014).

### 2.9.2 Satisfaction and authenticity

To summarise, whether or not food is the main attraction to an area it can be an important source of enjoyment during the course of a holiday (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012). It is also clear from reviewing the literature that the positive experiences with food can have a positive effect on the satisfaction of the overall holiday, and vice versa.

However, tourists have varying levels of satisfaction dependant on their expectations and as such are highly subjective (Sfandla and Björk, 2013) and unique (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017). Additionally, satisfaction with food experiences is holistic in nature. This means that satisfaction with food on holiday is influenced by the overall experience, including the place and people (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017).

As such the evaluation of tourist satisfaction must be considered from multiple dimensions.

## 2.10 Development of research hypotheses

From the literature review, it was clear that there is a growing interest among tourists in local food products (Okumuş et al., 2007). However, tourists are not homogeneous and can have different attitudes and motivations to local food. For instance, local food may attract foodies (Robinson and Getz, 2014), those tourists who are committed to food and explicitly search for extraordinary local food experiences (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Kivela and Crotts, 2009; McKercher et al., 2008; Mitchell and Hall, 2003; Smith and Costello, 2009). However, some tourists take a casual interest in food. For these tourists, local food and food experiences are not an essential part of their holiday (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Canizares, 2012; Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014). Yet food is an integral part of tourists' behaviour and constitutes a major portion of their travel expenses (Hjalager and Corigliano, 2000; McKercher et al., 2008).

Attitudes are a critical factor when understanding tourist motivation and behaviour (Gnoth, 1997). Despite a growing interest in food tourism (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017, 2016; Chandralal and Valenzuela, 2013; Robinson and Getz, 2016) few studies have examined whether tourist attitudes to local food can influence their travel behaviour (Sims, 2009). Particularly, the inter-relationships between tourist attitudes towards local food, destination choice, motivation and satisfaction remain relatively unexplored (Henderson, 2009; Sims, 2009).

Studies support the idea that tourists perceive local food as authentic products symbolising the culture and heritage of a place (Sims, 2009). However, the link between attitudes to local food and authenticity remains relatively unexplored. Furthermore, Robinson and Clifford (2012), suggest that the mediating role of authenticity in food consumption experiences warrants further attention.

It is against this background that the researcher wishes to propose, and test, five hypotheses aimed at addressing the identified research gaps as presented in Table 2.5 which follows.

| Table 2.5: Proposed Hypotheses | |
|---|---|
| **H1** | Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence destination choice |
| **H2** | Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence travel motivation |
| **H3** | Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence holiday satisfaction |
| **H4** | Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence (a) object-related authenticity and (b) existential authenticity |
| **H5.1** | Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction |
| **H5.2** | Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction |

Evidence from the literature that lends support to each of these five hypotheses is now provided.

### 2.10.1 Hypothesis 1: Tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice

Evidence from a number of studies suggests that tourist interests in local food can have a significant influence on their destination choices (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017; Hall and Sharples, 2003). For some tourists, food experiences may be a primary reason for visiting a destination (Getz et al., 2014; McKercher, et al., 2008). However, not all tourists are as committed to food experiences to this extent and instead take a more casual attitude towards local food (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2014). However, for these tourists, local food can still represent an essential part of their holidays, although it may not necessarily determine destination choice (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Canizares, 2012).

It can be determined that for some tourists local food represents a 'pull' factor and a reason to choose a specific destination. Tourists may be drawn to a region to sample a Michelin starred restaurant, such as Noma in Denmark. Additionally, tourists may be attracted to a destination based on regional specialities, for example, tapas in Seville or moules-et-frites in Belgium. In contrast, foods such as paella in Valencia or pizza in Naples may be perceived as an essential part of the holiday experience but may not entice tourists to choose a specific destination (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). In a similar manner, tourists who have a casual interest in food may value local food at a destination as a traditional and authentic part of its culture and heritage (Hjalager, 2004; Pesonen et al., 2011; Sims, 2009).

Previous research has demonstrated that the consumption of local food is determined by attitudes and behavioural intentions. For instance, Ryu and Han (2010) observed a

positive relationship between attitudes and intentions to consume local cuisine in New Orleans. Thus, it can be established that the consumption of local food at a destination is influenced by attitudes. Therefore, based on the above arguments it is hypothesised that:

H1: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence destination choice

### 2.10.2 Hypothesis 2: Tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation.

Definitions for food tourism, gastronomy tourism and culinary tourism all consider food as a primary motivating factor to travel (Boniface, 2003; Hall and Sharples, 2003). For example, Smith and Costello (2009, p. 49) define food as being a "principle resource", which encourages "individuals to travel and visit a destination specifically for the unique food products offered". Similarly, Su (2013, p. 574) claims that tourists can be "partly or largely" motivated by the food experience. From this perspective, food can also be positioned as an important secondary motivation. As such food represents one-factor motivating factor to travel, but not necessarily the primary reason.

According to Dann (1977) 'push' factors are the factors that influence an individual to travel. Previous research in food tourism illustrates that local food can be a 'push' factor motivating individuals to travel. From the literature, a number of push factors can be identified. Firstly, the sensory experience of local food can be a primary motivation for travelling (Boniface, 2003; Kim and Eves, 2012). Secondly, local food can represent an interpersonal motivator as meals taken on a holiday have a social function including building new social relations and strengthening social bonds (Crompton, 1979; Fields, 2002). Thirdly, local food provides a cultural experience, providing an individual with the opportunity to learn about different countries and traditions (Kim and Eves, 2012) and a chance to engage in authentic experiences related to a place. Fourthly, local food can appeal to those looking for an exciting and different experience (Kim and Eves, 2012). Finally, tourism and gastronomy are often regarded as hedonic products (Kivela and Crotts, 2006), for which fun, pleasure, or enjoyment is a primary benefit (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). Hence, the 'pleasure' factor can be an inherent motivating factor in food tourism.

Previous research suggests that attitude and intentions are positively influenced by food involvement and motivation (Levitt et al., 2017). For example, neophilic and neophobic classifications are particularly significant for the study of food in tourism (Cohen and

Avieli, 2004). A neophobic tendency refers to a natural predisposition for people to dislike new and unfamiliar foodstuffs, whereas a neophilic tendency is the inclination to seek out unusual and unfamiliar foods (Fischler, 1988). Neophobic tendencies influence an individual's motivation to seek out new or exciting experiences; thus, an adventurous person will generally be more neophilic (Pliner and Hobden, 1992).

The preceding discussion presents tourist motivation as a multi-faceted concept. Tourist motivation is recognised as an important construct in understanding tourist choice and behaviour (Crompton and McKay, 1997). Studies highlight that tourist motivation comprises of physiological (e.g. food, shelter, safety, health, and fitness) as well as psychological facets (e.g. intrinsic, personal, and interpersonal rewards) (Mak et al., 2009; Witt and Wright, 1992). Moreover, tourist motivation exerts a significant influence on tourist behaviour (Fields, 2002). Therefore, the desire to experience food or food-related experiences is an important motive for travel (Hall and Sharples, 2003; Smith and Costello, 2009; Su et al., 2013). However, tourists are not a homogenous group and as such have different attitudes and motivations towards local food.

Based on the above arguments it is hypothesised that:

> H2: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence travel motivation

**2.10.3 Hypothesis 3: Tourist attitudes to local food and holiday satisfaction.**
Satisfaction is considered the outcome of a subjective evaluation of whether something meets or exceeds the needs of the individual (Oliver, 1997). It is argued that local food and local food experiences are an important source of enjoyment during a holiday (Kivela and Crotts, 2006), having a positive effect on overall holiday satisfaction (López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012; Henderson, 2009). However, tourist satisfaction is a multifaceted concept and influenced by various attributes; including perceived value, the destination environment and the tourist themselves (Andersson and Mossberg, 2004; Mak et al., 2012; Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013). In addition, local food experiences can also determine tourist satisfaction (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; Neild et al., 2000). Furthermore, local food experiences can add to the holistic or overall holiday experience (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017).

Tourist satisfaction significantly influences future behavioural intentions (Oliver and Burke, 1999; Jones et al., 2006) such as revisit intention and positive word-of-mouth.

Therefore, it can be argued that positive local food experiences may influence revisit intention and encourage positive WOM (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2013; Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán, 2012). On the other hand, negative experiences with local food may cause the opposite behaviour.

Moreover, studies suggest that tourist attitudes towards local food can be predictors and determinants of satisfaction (Bell and Marshall, 2003; Cohen and Avieli, 2004). For example, in a study carried out by Kim et al., (2010), it was identified that food neophobia was negatively associated with tourist satisfaction, revisit intention and positive word of mouth. In a similar vein, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017), concluded that consumers' attitudes to local food affect travel satisfaction and overall holiday experience. Consequently, it is hypothesised that:

H3: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence holiday satisfaction.

### 2.10.4 Hypothesis 4: Tourist attitudes to local food and perceived (a) object-related and (b) existential authenticity

The literature shows that a wide range of attempts has been made in an effort to define the concept of authenticity. As a result, "there are at least as many definitions of authenticity as there are those who write about it" (Taylor, 2008, p. 8). However common themes emerge with words such as original, real, genuine, true, and honest often used (Özdemir and Seyitoğlu, 2017). Authenticity is an important aspect of the food tourism experience (Ellis et al., 2018) with local food recognised as part of the culture, heritage and traditions of a place (Sims, 2009).

The pursuit of authenticity affects the degree to which tourists imbue themselves with food experiences (Anton et al., 2018). However, while many tourists pursue authentic local food experiences, they may in fact be averse to unfamiliar food (Anton et al., 2018). In this regard, tourists with strong neophobia (fears for tasting new food) may avoid local food while tourists with neophilic tendencies (the desire to taste new foods) may actively seek out and sample new and novel local food (Özdemir and Seyitoğlu, 2017). Consequently, tourists who actively search for local food in a destination will enjoy a far more authentic food experience than those who are opposed to unfamiliar food.

However, authenticity is as much about meeting expectations as it is about providing a true representation of an experience (Jayne et al., 2012). Thus, if the experience is not corresponding to the tourists' perception then a sense of authenticity can be lost (Sims, 2009). However, the term an 'authentic experience' is almost always open to interpretation. Therefore, it is necessary to understand what factors influence tourists' perceptions of authenticity. It is argued that object-related and existential based authenticity can significantly influence tourist attitudes and purchase intention of local food (Sidali and Hemmerling, 2014). As such, it can be argued that a high level of perceived authenticity is likely to lead to a more positive attitude and a higher level of purchase intention among tourists.

Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence the perception of (a) object-related (b) existential authenticity.

### 2.10.5 Hypothesis 5: The influence of authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction.

Research suggests that the quest for authenticity can act as an underlying driver in tourist destination choice (Beer, 2008; Richards, 2012), travel motivation (Mak et al., 2016; McKercher et al., 2008) and satisfaction (Jayne et al., 2012). Furthermore, it was highlighted that tourists' increasing demand for local food can be linked to the search for authenticity (Sims, 2009).

Yet there is a lack of research seeking to understand the indirect effects of authenticity on the relationships between tourist attitudes to local food with destination choice, travel motivation and satisfaction. As authenticity is measured from two perspectives, object-related and existential, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5.1: Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction.

| H5.2: Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction |
| --- |

## 2.11 Conclusion

Upon reviewing the literature, it is clear that there has been a major surge in interest in food tourism (see Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2017; Everett and Slocum, 2013; Stone et al., 2018; Wolf, 2014). Furthermore, studies show that tourists are increasingly looking for an authentic experience (Okumuş et al., 2007), which local food can provide (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014).

The body of evidence reviewed in this chapter highlights that food can be an important tourist attraction and regardless whether or not local food is a travel motivator (Kivela and Crotts, 2006) eating can play an integral role in the overall holiday experience (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2013). However, as discussed in the literature, it is important to note that all experiences, including those related to food, have inherent qualities that make them unique to individuals (Sfandla and Björk, 2013). As such, it is recognised that tourists are not a homogenised group and have different attitudes towards local food.

Yet despite the surge of interest in food tourism the links between attitudes to local food and destination choice, travel motivation, satisfaction and perception of authenticity, remain relatively unexplored. Additionally, the indirect influence of authenticity on each of these relationships warrants further attention (Robinson and Clifford, 2012). It is against this background that five hypotheses were presented in Table 2.5, which are aimed at addressing this identified research gap.

The next chapter outlines the methodology and the associated philosophical foundations, underpinning this research project.

# Chapter 3 Methodology

## 3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to outline the methodology used to investigate the research problems as identified in the literature review. This chapter has two distinct sections. Firstly, the chapter begins by outlining the research gap and highlighting the research questions and hypotheses aimed at addressing this gap. Subsequently, an appropriate research methodology is developed, and a refined questionnaire tool aimed at addressing the research gap is presented. A discussion of the operationalisation of variables and scale development then follows. A summary of the data collection methods used are then presented, followed by a discussion on pre-testing and piloting the questionnaire.

The second part of the chapter is concerned with data preparation and preliminary data analysis. A discussion of the processes employed to analyse the data, namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), are presented. Finally, the chapter concludes by acknowledging the limitations of the research methodology.

## 3.2 Research gap

After conducting a systematic review of the literature focusing on food tourism an existing gap was identified. The literature highlights that there is an increasing interest in food tourism within tourism literature (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017, 2016; Chandralal and Valenzuela, 2013; Robinson and Getz, 2016). Yet the apparent synergy between local food, authenticity and tourism remains relatively unexplored (Sims, 2009). Little attention has been given to the influence of attitudes towards local food on tourist behaviour. It is this research gap that the researcher wishes to address in this piece of research.

## 3.3 Research questions and hypotheses

Defining the goals and objectives of a research project is one of the most important steps in the research process as clearly stated goals keep a research project focused (Walonick, 2012). Additionally, developing research questions determines the choice of research techniques utilised (Rubin and Rubin, 2012).

In light of the identified research gaps, five key questions were established. Each question was operationalised by developing corresponding hypotheses. Operationalisation refers to the process whereby theoretical concepts are translated into measures suitable for empirical investigation (Bryman, 2012).

| Table 3.1 Research questions and their corresponding hypotheses | |
|---|---|
| **Research questions** | **Corresponding hypotheses** |
| **Q1**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence destination choice? | **H1**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence destination choice |
| **Q2**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence travel motivation? | **H2**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence travel motivation |
| **Q3**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence holiday satisfaction? | **H3**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence holiday satisfaction |
| **Q4**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence the perception of authenticity? | **H4:** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence (a) object-related authenticity and (b) existential authenticity |
| **Q5**: Can authenticity influence the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction? | **H5.1:** Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction<br><br>**H5.2:** Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction |

Hypotheses 1 to 4 are referred to as direct hypotheses i.e. the researcher predicts there will be a relationship between the variables, and in addition, the direction of that relationship (Polit and Hungler, 1999). Whereas Hypotheses 5 is an indirect hypothesis i.e. there is an intervening factor which accounts for a relationship between the variables. This intervening factor is referred to as a mediator (Gaskin, 2012). In Hypothesis 5.1 object-related authenticity is the mediating factor. Whereas in Hypothesis 5.2 existential authenticity is the mediating factor.

The following is a diagrammatic representation of the aforementioned hypotheses, which will form the basis of a conceptual framework for this thesis.
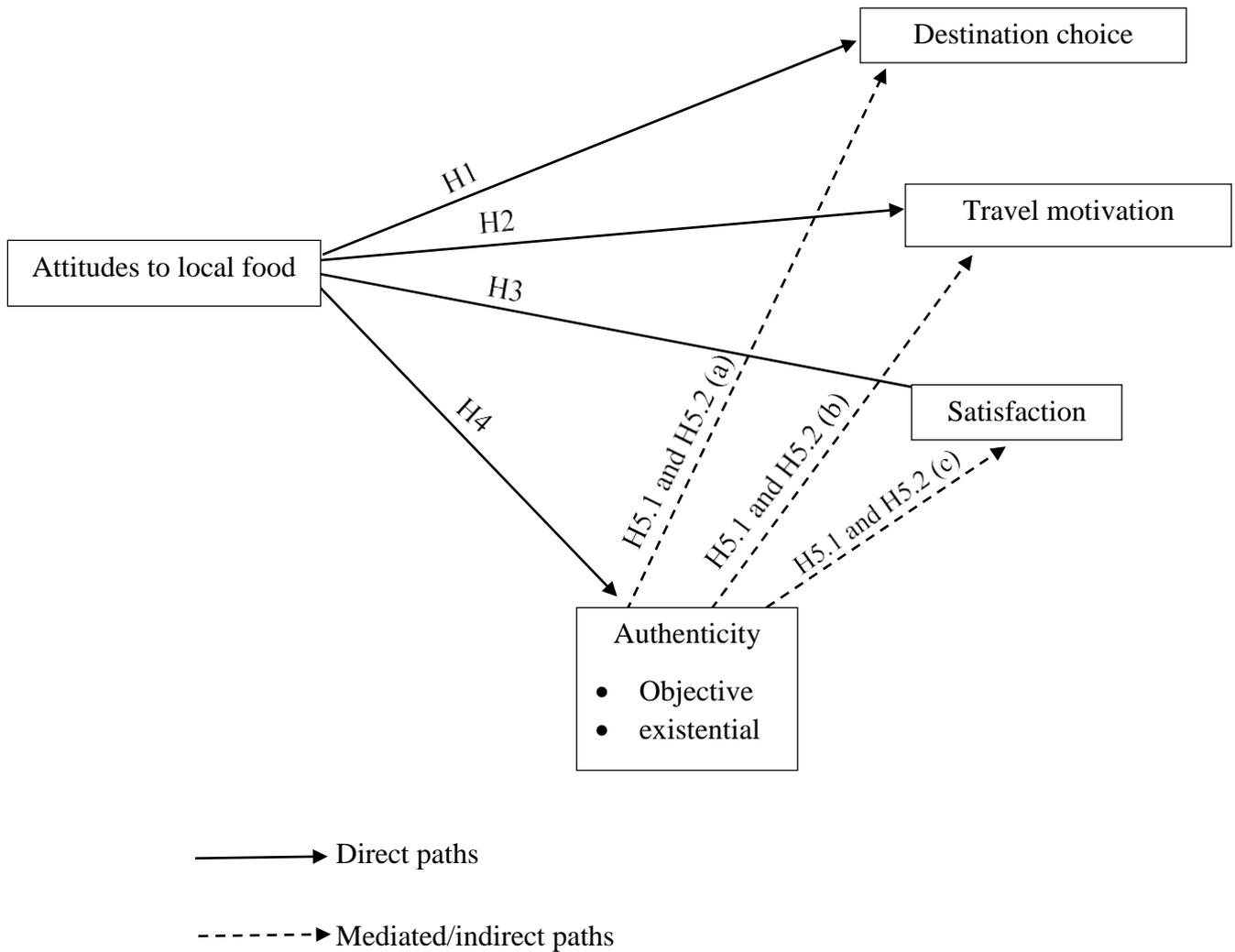
Figure 3.1: Proposed conceptual framework highlighting the hypotheses aimed at addressing the identified research gaps.

Having identified the research questions and corresponding hypotheses the following section will now discuss the theoretical and philosophical underpinnings which guides this research.

## 3.4 Theoretical and philosophical underpinnings of research

For effective research, it is essential to have an appropriate research paradigm (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). A research paradigm can be defined as a "basic set of beliefs that guide action" (Guba, 1990, p. 17) or as "… a worldview, together with the various philosophical assumptions associated with that point of view" (Teddie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 84).

Research paradigms help make sense of our thinking and enable us to understand what is possible to achieve from our research. Additionally, research paradigms "guide the investigator … in choices of method" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p. 105).

Paradigms are made up of the following components; ontologies, epistemologies, methodologies and methods (Scotland, 2012). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), there are four major paradigms that are utilised to structure and organise research namely; positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism. Each paradigm is based upon its own ontological and epistemological assumptions. Thus, each paradigm inherently contains differing assumptions of reality and knowledge, underpinning their particular research approach (Scotland, 2012). Positivists determine if hypotheses can be proved or disproved and include an emphasis on scientific method and statistical analysis (Mack, 2010). However, post-positivists assert that knowledge "established in research is always imperfect and fallible" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7) and "absolute objectivity" (Crotty, 1998, p. 29) does not exist. On the other hand, critical theorists consider the effects of race, gender and class in research results (Creswell, 2012). Finally, constructivists hold the belief that realities are constructed and dependant on individuals.

Before research can begin it is essential to understand the different components of a paradigm. Additionally, the "directional, and logical, relationship between the key components of research" (Grix, 2002, p. 176) must be clearly understood. This interrelationship is illustrated in Figure 3. 2 as follows.

| Ontology | Epistemology | Methodology | Methods | Sources |
|---|---|---|---|---|

| What's out there to know? | What and how can we know about it? | How can we go about acquiring that knowledge? | Which precise procedures can we use to acquire it? | What data can we collect? |
|---|---|---|---|---|
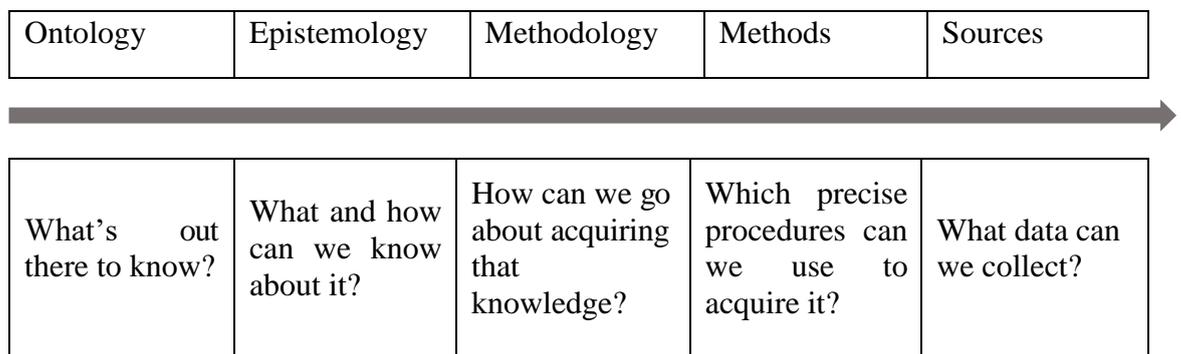
Figure 3.2: The interrelationship between the components of the research. (Adapted by the researcher from, Daniel and Harland, 2018, p. 23; Hay, 2002, p. 64; Grix, 2002, p. 180).

Crotty (1998) argues that research can begin at any stage; ontological, epistemological, methods or methodology. However, other authors stress that research must be conducted by identifying an ontological position first (Mack, 2012). This chapter will be guided by Grix (2004) who argues that:

> Setting out clearly the relationship between what a researcher thinks can be researched (her ontological position) linking it to what we can know about it (her epistemological position) and how to go about acquiring it (her methodological approach), you can begin to comprehend the impact your ontological position can have on what and how you decide to study (Grix, 2004, p. 68).

Furthermore, Grix's model follows a logical progression as illustrated in Figure 3.2. That is "ontological assumptions inform epistemological assumptions which inform methodology and therefore the methods employed to collect data" (Mack, 2012, p. 6). Consequently, the following section will begin by exploring the researcher's ontological position.

### 3.4.1 Ontology

Ontology is the starting point of research (Grix, 2002, Mack, 2010), and is defined as:

> Claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other (Blaikie, 2000 quoted by Mack, 2010, p. 5).

As such, ontology relates to the nature of reality (Daniel and Harland, 2018). It is this reality that forms the cornerstone to all other assumptions. Furthermore, what is "assumed here predicates the researcher's other assumptions" (Holden and Lynch, 2004, p. 5). There are four main ontological positions; realism, critical realism, historical realism and relativism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). These ontological positions are compared and contrasted in Table.3.2 which follows.

| Table 3.2: Comparison of four ontological positions | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Realism** | **Critical realism** | **Historical realism** | **Relativism** |
| Based on the values of truth and reason | Based on an understanding that multiplicity and complexity exist | Reality is shaped by social, political, cultural economic, ethnic values over time | Constructed realities |
| Knowledge is objective and absolute. Findings are true | Claims a certain level of objectivity rather than absolute objectivity. Findings are probably true | Value mediated findings | Created findings |
| Uses deductive reasoning | Uses deductive reasoning | Uses inductive reasoning | Uses interpretation |
| Researcher detached | Researcher detached | Researcher not detached | Researcher not detached |

Created by the researcher from Bryman; 2012; Guba and Lincoln 2004; Scotland, 2012.

*3.4.1.1 Chosen ontological position*

The researcher holds a critical realist ontological position. Therefore, the researcher "claims a certain level of objectivity rather than absolute objectivity" (Crotty, 1998, p. 29). As such the researcher recognises the complexity that life and experience can have an overall truth (Ryan, 2006). Ultimately, the critical realist's goal is to uncover the truth about reality while acknowledging that this goal will never be fully attainable (Social Research Methods, 2006).

However, like realism, critical realism uses a deductive methodology and therefore is underpinned by quantitative methods. As such the hypotheses presented in this particular piece of research, are quantifiable.

### 3.4.2 Epistemology

Epistemology refers to how knowledge is acquired (Bryman, 2008; Mack, 2010). It can be defined as:

> An epistemology ... is a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know (Crotty, 1998, p. 3).

There are three main epistemological positions; objectivism, modified objectivism, interpretivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Objectivism advocates the application of the natural sciences to the study of social reality (Bryman, 2001). It assumes that patterns and

regularities exist in the social world as in the natural world (Denscombe, 2003) and that an "objective reality" exists (Crotty, 1998, p. 29). Modified objectivism is considered a variant of objectivism (Guba and Lincoln, 2012). On the other hand, interpretivism considers the assumption that there is a subjective meaning in social action (Bryman, 2001). It asserts that people construct and interpret social actions to actively create order to their existence (Denscombe, 2003). The three perspectives can be compared as follows:

| Table 3.3: A comparison of three epistemological positions | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Objectivism** | **Modified objectivism** | **Interpretivism** |
| Based on the values of truth and reason | Based on an understanding that multiplicity and complexity exist. A move away from a dualistic way of thinking | Based on assumptions |
| Knowledge is objective and absolute | Claims a certain level of objectivity rather than absolute objectivity | Knowledge arises from experiences |
| Realist | Critical realist | Historical realism/Relativism |
| Uses deductive reasoning | Uses deductive reasoning | Uses Inductive reasoning |

Adapted by the researcher from Bryman, 2015; Creswell, 2014; Crotty, 1998; Mack, 2010; Scotland; 2012; Ryan, 2006.

*3.4.2.1 Chosen epistemological position*

Objectivists assert that absolute truth is an essential element of research. Furthermore, this stance believes that bias in research can be eliminated by testing attributes such as validity and reliability (Creswell, 2014). However, a modified objectivist may "claim a certain level of objectivity rather than absolute objectivity" (Crotty, 1998, p. 29). For this reason, the researcher holds a modified objectivist epistemological position.

As indicated in Table 3.3, modified objectivism is linked to critical realism and therefore, corresponds with the researcher's ontological position. Table 3.4 displays the characteristics of a post-positivist paradigm as utilised in this study.

### 3.4.3 Overarching paradigm

As outlined above, the researcher holds a critical realist ontology and a modified objectivist epistemology. These beliefs correspond with a post-positivist paradigm as represented in Table 3.4 which follows.

| Table 3.4: Characteristics of a post-positivist paradigm | |
|---|---|
| **Feature** | **Description** |
| Ontology | <ul><li>Reality is external to the researcher and is represented by objects</li><li>Objects have meaning independently</li></ul> |
| Epistemology | <ul><li>A level of objectivity is recognised</li><li>Knowledge is generated inductively</li><li>Emphasises the ethical aspects of research</li><li>Thinking can be studied through the scientific method</li><li>Recognises that observations may involve error (Critical realism)</li><li>Reality cannot be known with certainty</li></ul> |

Created by the researcher from Crotty, 1998; Mack, 2010; Ryan, 2006.

## 3.5 Reasoning in research

There are two main methods of reasoning employed in research; deductive and inductive. Both methods can be compared as follows:

| Table 3.5: Characteristics of two methods of reasoning used in research | |
|---|---|
| **Deductive** | **Inductive** |
| An accepted truth | No acceptance of the truth |
| No alternative conclusions drawn | Alternative conclusions can be drawn |
| Single reality | Multiple realities |
| Atomistic experience | Holistic experience |

Created by the researcher from DePoy and Gilson, 2008; Saunders et al., 2009.

### 3.5.1 Chosen reasoning method

The researcher has utilised a deductive approach in this research hypotheses were developed considering existing theories in the field of food tourism. According to Saunders et al., (2009), deduction allows for a highly structured methodology to facilitate replication and ensure reliability. Additionally, deductive reasoning is objective in nature

and corresponds to the researcher's ontological and epistemological positions and subsequently the overarching paradigm.

In summary, our ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies set the parameters of our research design and each, in turn, guide the researcher's actions (Holden and Lynch, 2004). The researcher has chosen a post-positivist paradigm with a corresponding objective ontology, as described in Table 3.4. From an examination of the research philosophy, it was decided that a deductive research method was the most appropriate approach. Following on from establishing a philosophical approach to research, the next logical step in the research process is to determine an appropriate methodological strategy.

## 3.6 Methodological research strategy

A researcher's methodological approach is linked to their specific ontological and epistemological assumptions (Grix, 2002). However, first, it is important to differentiate between the terms methodology and research methods. Although logically linked, both terms are often confused (Grix, 2002). A methodology is the strategy or plan of action which lies behind the choice and use of particular methods (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). Whereas methods can be defined simply as "the techniques or procedures used to collate and analyse data" (Blaikie, 2000, p. 8). Methods, unlike methodology, should be guided by research questions and as such "free from ontological and epistemological assumptions" (Grix, 2002, p. 180).

There are three approaches to research; quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods. Quantitative approaches emphasise objective measurements and focus on gathering numerical data and generalising it across groups of people (Babbie, 2010). On the other hand, qualitative approaches involve "questions … typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis ... and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data" (Creswell, 2014, p. 146). Finally, a mixed approach "involves combining or integration of qualitative and quantitative research and data in a research study" (Creswell, 2014, p. 15).

These approaches can be compared as follows:

| Table 3.6: Comparison of approaches to research | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Quantitative** | **Qualitative** | **Mixed approach** |
| • Seeks facts<br>• Controlled, measured<br>• Reliable, hard and replicable data<br>• Researcher a detached observer<br>• Generalisable | • Concerned with understanding behaviour<br>• Uncontrolled observation<br>• Process orientated<br>• Researcher closely involved with respondents<br>• Ungeneralisable | • This is a mix of both qualitative and quantitative research |

Adapted and modified by the researcher from Blaxter et al., 2010; Gray, 2009.

### 3.6.1 Chosen research approach

A quantitative approach has been used in this study for the following reasons. Firstly, quantitative research seeks facts and truths and as such "emanates from an objectivist position" (Gray, 2009, p. 201) and offers a more independent approach to testing verifiable hypotheses (Sekaran, 2003). Thus, corresponding with the researcher's ontological position.

Secondly, by taking a quantitative approach, the researcher is a detached observer, therefore results are "less likely to be tainted by bias" (Gray, 2009, p. 201). Fourthly, a quantitative approach follows deductive reasoning and thus corresponds with the researchers ontological and epistemological perspectives.

Finally, a quantitative research approach allowed for the gathering and analysing of data from a large sample size. Thus, enabling the analysis of variations in attitudes among tourists (Finn, et al., 2000; Veal, 2011).

### 3.6.2 Previous research

After conducting a systematic literature review it was evident that in recent years a quantitative approach has become an increasingly common strategy used to investigate tourist motivation and tourist satisfaction in food tourism studies. This is illustrated in Table 3.6 which follows.

| Table 3.7: Previous research methods utilised in food tourism as identified in the literature review | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Researcher(s)** | **Year** | **Focus of study** | **Nature of study/method(s) used** | **Data analysis used** | **Sample size** |
| Kim and Eves | 2012 | Construction and validation of a scale to measure tourist motivation to consume local food | Quantitative | EFA[1], CFA[2] | 482 |
| Mason and Paggiaro | 2012 | Investigating the role of festivalscape in culinary tourism | Face-to-face quantitative | SEM[3] | 380 |
| Geng-Qing, Chua, Othman, Ab Karim | 2013 | Structural relationships between food image, food satisfaction, culinary quality, and behavioural intentions | Quantitative | SEM and EFA | 245 |
| Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen | 2014 | Exploring the multi-dimensionality of travellers' culinary-gastronomic experiences | Quantitative - face-to-face questionnaire | Sample t-test, analysis of variances and EFA | 158 |
| Senegal, Karagoz, Cetin, Dincer, Ertugr | 2015 | Tourists' approach to local food | Quantitative-face-to-face questionnaires | Analysis of variance | 105 |
| Frisvoll et al. | 2016 | Investigation of tourists' consumption of local food in rural tourism | Mixed method-fieldwork, interviews | Logistic regression analyses | 447 |
| Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen | 2017 | How food affects travel satisfaction and the overall holiday experience | Quantitative - face-to-face questionnaire | SmartPLS | 243 |
| Su, Johnson O'Mahony | 2018 | Push and pull factors in food travel motivation | Quantitative – online foodie groups questionnaire | EFA CFA SmartPLS | 335 |

As highlighted in Table 3.7 a quantitative method was the most prominent tool used for exploring tourist's motivation and satisfaction. As a result, this table provides further support for the use of a quantitative approach by highlighting its popularity in food tourism studies.

---

[1] EFA- Exploratory factor analysis
[2] CFA- Confirmatory factor analysis
[3] SEM- Structural equation modeling

## 3.7 Methodological design

The next step is to determine the most appropriate methodological design (Blaxter et al., 2006). The four most common methodological designs used in research are action research, case studies, experiments and cross-sectional surveys (Blaxter et al., 2006). Action research involves the collaboration of a researcher and a client in "the diagnosis of the problem and in the development of a solution based on the diagnoses" (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p. 413). Case studies "entail detailed and intensive analysis of a single case" (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p. 59). On the other hand, experiments test research hypotheses using controlled procedures (Blaxter et al., 2006). Finally, cross-sectional surveys "entail the collection of data from more than one case at a single point in time" (Bryman, 2012, p. 56). When deciding on an appropriate research method for this study, the main advantages and disadvantages of each methodological design were examined and tabulated as follows:

| Table 3.8: Advantages and disadvantages of four methodological designs | |
|---|---|
| **Action research** | **Case Studies** |
| *Advantages* <br> • Collaborative and adaptive research design <br> • Solution-driven research; outcomes rather than testing theories <br> • Can be regarded as a learning cycle <br><br> *Disadvantages:* <br> • Extensive fieldwork needed <br> • Personal over-involvement of the researcher may bias research <br> • Time-consuming and complex | *Advantages* <br> • Can apply to a variety of methodologies <br> • Suited to the needs and resources of the small-scale researcher <br> • Simplifies complex ideas <br><br> *Disadvantages* <br> • Not generalisable <br> • Intense exposure to the study of a case may bias a researcher <br> • Cases can be hard to interpret |
| **Experiments** | **Cross-sectional surveys** |
| *Advantages* <br> • Gives researcher control of the situation <br> • Permits the researcher to identify cause and effect relationships between variables <br> • Provides the highest level of evidence for single studies <br> *Disadvantages* <br> • The design is artificial, and results may not be generalisable <br> • Artificial settings of experiments may alter the behaviours <br> • Can be costly | *Advantages* <br> • Allows for the measurement of reliability and validity <br> • Often replicable and generalisable <br> • Generally easier to conduct than experiments <br><br> *Disadvantages* <br> • Can have poor internal validity <br> • Data can lack depth <br> • The researcher often is not present for data collection there may be a lack of understanding and/or accuracy from participants |

Created by the researcher from Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Holden and Lynch, 2004.

### 3.7.1 Chosen research approach

On consideration of the advantages and disadvantages of each research approach, as illustrated in Table 3.8, the researcher selected to use a cross-sectional survey. There are two categories of cross-sectional surveys, namely: descriptive and analytical (Gray, 2009). A descriptive survey design adopts an inductive approach and, so, uses open-ended questions to explore participants' differing perspectives with regard to the research problem. On the other hand, an analytical survey design adopts a deductive approach, so, aims to test theory and generalise results (Gray, 2009). For this study, the researcher adopted an analytical cross-sectional survey corresponding to the researcher's ontological and epistemological positions.

By using a cross-sectional approach for this study, it ensured a clear snapshot of the outcome at a specific point in time. Additionally, unlike an experimental approach, it allowed for studying and drawing inferences from existing differences between people. Furthermore, it allowed for the identification of purposely selected groups, that is tourists, rather than a random sample. A cross-sectional approach also enabled the collection of data from a large number of tourists by an inexpensive means.

However, the limitations of cross-sectional survey methods are also acknowledged. For instance, results are static with no temporal context. Additionally, as the results only offer a snapshot of analysis, there is the possibility that results could be different if another time frame was chosen (Bryman, 2015).

The next step was to consider the precise data collection tool to use for this study. Bryman (2012) states that the term survey is reserved for research that employs a cross-sectional design and where data is collected by means of a questionnaire. Therefore, this study used a questionnaire survey instrument tool. Further justification for this chosen collection tool follows in the next section.

### 3.7.2 Questionnaires

Questionnaires provide a convenient way of collecting data (Blaxter et al., 2009). A questionnaire is completed independently by a respondent and for this reason are often referred to as "self-completion questionnaires" or "self-administered questionnaires" (Bryman, 2012, p. 216). The advantages and disadvantages of using self-administered questionnaires were considered and presented in Table 3.9.

| Table 3.9: Advantages and disadvantages of using self-administered questionnaires | |
|---|---|
| *Advantages* | *Disadvantages* |
| • Quick and cheap to administer | • Cannot prompt or probe respondents |
| • Convenience for respondent | • Cannot collect additional data |
| • Potentially information can be collected from a large portion of a group | • Open-ended questions can generate large amounts of data that can take a long time to process and analyse |
| • The responses are gathered in a standardised way, so questionnaires are more objective | • Respondents may answer superficially especially if the questionnaire takes a long time to complete |

Created by the researcher from Bryman, 2012; Gray, 2009.

Upon consideration of the advantages of using self-administered questionnaires, as illustrated in Table 3.9, it was decided that this method was the most appropriate for data collection for this particular study. Furthermore, the use of a questionnaire provides the means to:

> Gather and record simple information on the incidence of attitudes, meanings and perceptions among the population as a whole (Veal, 2009, p. 239).

An appropriate and well-considered questionnaire design ensures response rates, reliability and validity can be maximised (Saunders, et al, 2009). This method also corresponds with the most prominent data collection tool used in tourism and leisure studies, as presented in Table 3.7 (Veal, 2017).

Having selected an appropriate research approach with corresponding data collection tool the next logical step was to design the overall format of the questionnaire.

## 3.8 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire used in this study offered the researcher only one chance of collecting the data from respondents. Therefore, it was essential that adequate time was spent considering the overall layout and design of the questionnaire. Based on the research questions and hypotheses, and previous studies on food tourist motivation and satisfaction, it was concluded that the questionnaire would consist of three sections:

1. Local food and motivation, destination choice, authenticity and satisfaction
2. Attitudes towards local food
3. Tourist demographics

It is necessary to ensure adequate time was spent planning what data needed to be collected and how it would be analysed to ensure the research objective could be achieved (Saunders et al., 2009). Thus, an effective questionnaire must answer the research questions (Bryman, 2008; Saunders et al., 2009). To ensure that this was the case, the hypotheses, as presented in section 3.3, were considered. Bryman and Cramer (2005) contend that hypotheses contain certain concepts which express common characteristics. These characteristics are the variables "that collectively define the concept and make its measurement possible" (Hair et. al., 2011). Therefore, by consulting the hypotheses the researcher identified five key concepts which could be operationalised:

1. Local food
2. Attitudes
3. Motivation
4. Satisfaction
5. Authenticity

Once formulated, consideration was then given to how each concept would be operationalised (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Kumar, 2012).

These five concepts can be referred to as latent constructs. A latent construct can be defined as a psychological characteristic which cannot be measured or observed directly (Field, 2009). Instead, latent constructs are measured using a scale of items. Therefore, it was necessary to develop scales for each of the five concepts. The next section will discuss the development of each of these scales.

## 3.9 Developing scales

When developing scales for this particular research, the researcher followed the following stages:
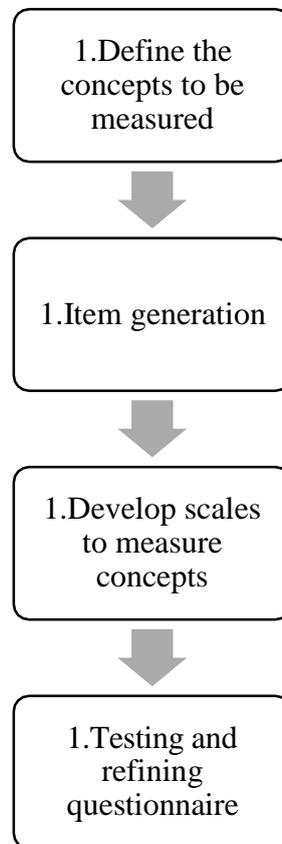


Figure 3.3: Steps utilised when developing scales for this research. Adapted and developed by the researcher from DeVellis, 2017, Hair et al., 2011 and Hinkin, 1998.

The following sections will now describe each of these stages in detail.

### 3.9.1 Define the concepts to be measured

The first stage in developing scales for this piece of research was to define the concepts. Scales for this research were developed using a deductive approach (Hinkin, 1998), and therefore, was consistent with the researcher's ontological position (critical objectivist) and epistemological position (post-positivist). Following Hair et al., (2011), an SLR was undertaken to develop theoretical definitions of the concepts; local food, attitudes, motivation, satisfaction and authenticity as presented in Table 3.10 which follows.

Each definition was then used to identify items which would represent the concept being measured (Schwab, 1980, cited in Hinkin, 1998).

| Table 3.10 Definitions of concepts used in this research | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Concept** | **Definition as used in this research** | **Source** |
| **Local food** | Food grown or produced in close physical proximity to the consumer | Aprile et al., (2016); Bord Bia (2017); Coelho et al., (2018) |
| **Attitudes** | Consists of beliefs about the consequences of performing the behaviour multiplied by his or her valuation of these consequences | Ajzen and Fishbein (1975) |
| **Motivation** | A set of needs and wants that integrate an individual's actions or behaviours. It can drive individuals to travel and experience new things | Crompton, (1979) Iso-Ahola (1982); Park, et al., (1993); Uysal and Hagan, (2008); Yoon and Uysal (2005) |
| **Satisfaction** | An evaluation of a product or service based on a set of criteria formed by an individual. These criteria are used to perform an evaluation. These criteria can generate benefits such as increased WOM and revisit intention | Correia et al., (2008); Pearce, (1988); Yüksel and Rimmington, (1997); UNTWO, (2002) |
| **Authenticity** | The real, unique, unmanipulated tourism experience. | Özdemir and Seyitoğlu, (2017), Sims, (2009), Taylor, (2008) |

### 3.9.2 Item generation

The second stage in scale development was the creation of an item pool to measure each concept under examination. This would ultimately allow the researcher to test the research hypotheses. Generally, a minimum of three items are necessary to measure each concept, although there is no defined correct amount (Swanson and Holton III, 2005).

Methods for the initial generation of an item pool can be classified as inductive or deductive. Deductive methods involve item generation based on an extensive literature review and pre-existing scales (Hinkin, 1998). Whereas, inductive methods are based on qualitative information obtained from, for example, focus groups, interviews or expert panels (Kapuscinski and Masters, 2010). For this study, the researcher used a deductive process for item generation. The SLR, Chapter 2, conducted for this study provided the theoretical foundation for the development of concept definitions and enough information to generate a set of items (Hinkin, 1998).

**3.9.3 Develop scales to measure concepts**

The third stage in scale development was to develop scales which could be used to measure each concept. Five scales were required representing the concepts of perceptions of local food, attitudes towards local food, travel motivation for local food, local food as a determinant of destination choice, satisfaction with local food and local food as an authentic experience. The section which follows details the development of each of these scales.

*3.9.3.1 Measuring perceptions of local food*

There is no universally agreed-upon definition for the term 'local food' (Dunne and Wright, 2017). As a result, consumers are often left to decide what exactly the term means to them (Grace Communications Foundation, 2014). To measure respondents' level of understanding of local food, this research used items from two scales developed by the Irish National Food Board, An Bord Bia (2012; 2017). These scales reflected a number of definitions found in the literature (Hingley et al., 2010; Martinez et al., 2010; Pearson et al., 2011). Respondents were asked to choose one statement which best described local food. Minor word changes were made to improve its overall flow and understanding as tabulated in Table 3.11 which follows.

| Table 3.11: Scales development for the perception of local food | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Which of the following best describes what you consider to be Local Food?* | | |
| **Original** | **Changes made** | **Source** |
| Produced in the ROI | Food produced in the country I live | Irish National Food Board, An Bord Bia (2012) |
| Made in the county in which I live | Food produced in the county I live | Irish National Food Board, An Bord Bia (2012) |
| Made within the province in which I live | Food produced within the province I live | Irish National Food Board, An Bord Bia (2017). |
| Produced or grown by local people | Food produced or grown by local people | Irish National Food Board, An Bord Bia (2017). |
| From small producers/mass produced | Food from small producers that is not mass produced | Irish National Food Board, An Bord Bia (2017). |

*3.9.3.2 Developing scales for attitudes towards local food*

The second concept measured in this research was attitudes towards local food. From the literature, it was apparent that there is an ongoing movement in food-related behaviour that encompasses consumers' increasing interest in local food (Mirosa and Lawson, 2012). Most of the literature on local food consumption has investigated mainly consumers' preferences for local food products by evaluating consumers' willingness to pay for the 'locally grown' produce. However, Aprile et al., (2017) developed scales to evaluate consumer's attitudes and purchase behaviour regarding local food. Seven-items from this scale were used to measure attitudes towards local food as presented in Table 3.12 which follows.

| Table 3.12: Scale development for attitudes towards local food | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Original** | **Changes made** | **Source** |
| I think its important buying locally grown foods | I think it's important to buy locally grown foods | Aprile et al., (2017) |
| I think it's important to know the production place of foods | I think it's important to know where local food is produced | Aprile et al., (2017) |
| I choose foods closely linked to a specific place | Unchanged | Aprile et al., (2017) |
| Do you make an effort to buy local food products? | I make an effort to buy local food | Aprile et al., (2017) |
| I am not interested in the origin of food (R) | Unchanged | Aprile et al., (2017) |
| I seek out foods with natural ingredients | Unchanged | Aprile et al., (2017) |
| I like foods based on traditional recipes | Unchanged | April et al., (2017) |

R- This item was negatively worded and subject to reverse coding

*3.9.3.3 Developing scales for the influence of tourist attitudes to local food on motivation*

The third concept measured in this research was motivation. From the literature, it was ascertained that tourists hold varying attitudes towards local food (Hjalager, 2004), which means that motivations towards local food and local food experiences vary (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014). For some tourists, local food is a primary motivator for travel, but for others, it represents a secondary motivation (Quan and Wang, 2004). Therefore, not all travellers are committed to food experiences (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2015). Additionally, on reviewing the literature it was determined that for some tourists, local food may be a motivating factor when choosing a destination (López-

Guzmán and Sánchez-Canizares, 2012). On the other hand, for some tourists, food may not be decisive for destination choice (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014).

Therefore, two scales were needed to measure motivation; one scale to measure local food as a motivator for travel and a second to measure local food as a motivating factor when choosing a destination.

Consequently, travel motivation for local food was measured using five-items from a scale developed by Andersson and Mossberg (2017) and one item from a scale developed by Levitt et al., (2017), as illustrated in Table 3.13.

| Table 3.13 Scale for attitudes to local food and its influence on travel motivation | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Original** | **Changes made** | **Source** |
| I am taking more trips because of my interest in food | I am taking more trips because of my interest in local food | Andersson and Mossberg, (2017) |
| Within the next 12 months, I intend to travel for a food experience | Unchanged | Andersson and Mossberg, (2017) |
| I will travel anywhere in the world for a really good food experience | I will travel anywhere in the world for a good food experience | Andersson and Mossberg, (2017) |
| I will travel at any time of the year for the right food experience | Unchanged | Andersson and Mossberg, (2017) |
| When I travel, one of the things I anticipate most is eating the food there | When I travel, one of the things I look forward to most is eating the local food | Levitt et al., (2017) |

Additionally, local food as a motivating factor in destination choice, was measured using a one item from a scale developed by Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017), three items from a scale developed by Anderson and Mossberg (2017) and a final item developed the researcher informed by the literature, as presented in Table 3.14.

| Table 3.14: Scale development for the influence of attitudes to local food on destination choice | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Original** | **Changes made** | **Source** |
| How important are local food experiences when choosing a destination | Local food experiences are important when choosing a destination | Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, (2017) |
| My choice of travel destinations is often influenced by my food interests | My choice of travel destinations is often influenced by my interest in local food | Andersson and Mossberg, (2017) |
| I love the challenge of seeking out new food experiences while travelling | I love the challenge of seeking out new local food experiences | Andersson and Mossberg, (2017) |
| When on holiday I prefer to eat food products I am familiar with (R) | Unchanged | Scale item developed by researcher informed by previous literature including; Björk and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2014); Levitt et al., (2017) and Andersson and Mossberg (2017) |
| Touring on a food trail would make a good holiday | Unchanged | Andersson and Mossberg, (2017) |

R- This item was negatively worded and subject to reverse coding

### *3.9.3.4 Developing scales for the influence of tourist attitudes to local food on satisfaction*

From the literature review, it was evident that satisfaction is dependent on the extent to which a destination fulfils a tourist's perceptions (Correia et al., 2008) with tourists often forming expectations before a travel experience (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Additionally, studies show that satisfaction with food on holiday can be influenced by the overall experience, including the place and people (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017).

Moreover, the holiday experience is an amalgamation of various tangible and intangible characteristics. As such, tourist satisfaction can accumulate through numerous experiences throughout the holiday (Rimmington and Yüksel, 1998). Hence, dissatisfaction with one component can lead to dissatisfaction with the overall holiday experience and vice versa (Rimmington and Yüksel, 1998). Furthermore, the expectation/disconfirmation paradigm, suggests that if the actual experience exceeds the tourist expectation, this results in a positive disconfirmation, with the tourist highly satisfied (Oliver, 1980). Therefore, the evaluation of tourist satisfaction was considered from multiple dimensions (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Including, how important local food was to the overall holiday experience, WOM and revisit intention.

To evaluate local food's influence on overall holiday satisfaction one item from a study developed by Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017) was added to the scale. However, the statement was adapted to include the term 'local food' rather than 'food'. Five items from a scale developed by Stone et al., (2018), measuring memorable experiences were also included. Additionally, informed by previous research, two further scale items were developed to measure WOM and revisit intention. The development of this scale is presented in Table 3.15.

| Table 3.15: Scale development local food's influence on overall holiday satisfaction | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Original** | **Changes made** | **Source** |
| How important are food and eating for travel satisfaction? | When on holiday I enjoy local food experiences | Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017) |
| When I think back on trips I have enjoyed, dining, food, and drink experiences are an important part of the memories | When I think back to holidays I have enjoyed local food experiences are an I important part of the memories | Stone et al., (2018) |
| My food and drink experiences are important to the overall satisfaction of my trip | My local food experiences are not important to the overall satisfaction of my holiday(R) | Stone et al., (2018) |
| When at home, I buy food and drinks that I first encountered while on a trip | When at home I buy food that I first encountered while on holiday | Stone et al., (2018) |
| I recommend holiday destinations to others | Unchanged | Scale item developed by researcher informed by previous literature including; Björk and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2014); Rimmington and Yüksel (1998); Yoon and Uysal (2005) |
| Having positive food and drink experiences on a trip makes me more likely to return to the destination | Having positive food experiences on holiday makes me more likely to return to a destination | Stone et al., (2018) |
| I intend to revisit a place where I have had a good food experience | Unchanged | Scale item developed by researcher informed by previous literature including; Björk and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2014); Rimmington and Yüksel (1998); Yoon and Uysal (2005) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Having positive food and drink experiences on a trip makes me more likely to recommend the destination | Having positive food experiences on holiday makes me more likely to recommend a destination | Stone et al., (2018) |

R- This item was negatively worded and subject to reverse coding

*3.9.3.5 Developing scales for the influence of tourist attitudes to local food on perceived authenticity*

On conducting a review of the literature, it was determined that authenticity is intrinsically linked to the culture, heritage and traditions of a place. Moreover, it was clear that local food can provide an authentic experience in two ways. Firstly, it offers both a geographical component, i.e. locality. Secondly, it addresses the culture and traditions of the local community (Hillel, et al., 2013). In this study authenticity is investigated from two perspectives; object-related and existential. Therefore, to operationalise authenticity it was necessary to use two scales.

Object-related authenticity was measured using four items from a scale developed by Sidali and Hemmerling (2014). From the literature, it was found that labelling and certification are one aspect of object-related authenticity. Therefore, informed by previous research, an additional item was developed by the researcher pertaining to food labelling. The list of items used to develop this scale is presented in Table 3.16 which follows.

| Table 3.16: Scale development for object-related authenticity | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Original** | **Changes made** | **Source** |
| When on holiday I buy food labelled as local | Unchanged | Scale item developed by researcher informed by previous literature including; Everett, (2016); Sims (2009) |
| This product is artisanal | On holiday I know the food I buy or eat is not mass produced | Sidali and Hemmerling, (2014) |
| I am sure that all the ingredients come from the (the local) region | On holiday I am sure that the local food I buy or eat uses ingredients found locally | Sidali and Hemmerling, (2014) |
| I can imagine where this (product) is produced | When I eat local food on holiday I understand its origin | Sidali and Hemmerling, (2014) |
| This product is trustworthy | When on holiday I feel I can trust the quality of the local food | Sidali and Hemmerling, (2014) |

Informed by previous research (Sims, 2009; Wang, 1999), it was ascertained that existential authenticity is determined by a tourist using their own values, beliefs and experiences. This type of tourist is actively seeking real experiences and are keen to gain knowledge about different cultures. According to Fields (2002), local food can be viewed as a cultural motivator because "when experiencing new local cuisines, we are also experiencing a new culture" (Fields, 2002, p. 38). A review of the literature indicated that there is no scale which measures perceptions of existential authenticity regarding local food. Therefore, a combination of items from three scales were used. This included one item from a scale developed by Sidali and Hemmerling (2014), two items from a scale developed by Kim and Eves (2012) and one item from a scale developed by Andersson and Mossberg (2017). The list of items used to develop this scale is presented in Table 3.17 which follows.

| Table 3.17: Scale for existential authenticity | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Original** | **Changes made** | **Source** |
| Experiencing local food gives me an opportunity to increase my knowledge about different cultures | When on holiday local food gives me the opportunity to learn about different cultures | Kim and Eves (2012) |
| Experiencing local food helps me see how other people live | Experiencing local food on holiday helps me see how other people live | Kim and Eves (2012) |
| To me, food has to be part of the broader cultural experience | To me, food is part of the broader cultural experience | Andersson and Mossberg (2017) |
| Tasting local food in an original place is an authentic experience | Eating local food on holiday is an authentic experience | Sidali and Hemmerling, (2014) |

### 3.9.4 Measurement of each scale

Having developed scales for each of the five concepts the next step was to determine how each scale would be measured. For this particular study, a Likert scale was considered the most appropriate. A Likert scale is "a multiple item measure of a set of attitudes related to a particular area" (Bryman, 2016, p. 154), where respondents indicate their level of agreement with a statement based on a five or a seven-point scale (Bryman and Cramer, 2005; Bryman, 2008). Thence, as this study is concerned with tourist attitudes it was determined that the use of the Likert scale would ensure that the research objective of this study would be achieved. However, it is important to note that a Likert scale does not

measure attitude per se, rather it places "respondents in relation to each other in terms of the intensity of their attitude towards an issue" (Kumar, 2014, p. 204). Although ordinal in nature (Kumar, 2014), "Likert type data is consistently treated as interval data" (Hagen, 2016, p. 77).

Before the construction of the Likert scale the following three factors were considered:

- The items must be statements, not questions
- The items must relate to the same object
- The items which make up the scale must be interrelated (Bryman, 2016, p. 154)

This study adopted a five-point Likert scale as this increased the range of possible answers. It also allowed for a wide array of statistical tests to be performed during data analysis (Pallant, 2005). Additionally, a Likert Scale allowed for the pre-coding of each statement which assisted data entry (Bryman and Cramer, 2005).

This study utilised 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). The scale was balanced on both sides and anchored by a central, neutral option to reduce measurement bias (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

Fig. 3.4 Likert scale used in this research.

Additionally, to avoid 'acquiescence bias', three negatively worded statements were dispersed throughout the questionnaire. 'Acquiescence bias' is where participants tend to consistently agree with a given set of statements regardless of the content (Bryman, 2008; Taras et al., 2009). This form of response bias is especially relevant to multiple-indicator measures, where respondents reply to a battery of related questions or items, of the kind found in a Likert scale (Bryman, 2008). This allowed the researcher to identify

participants who exhibited bias (Bryman, 2008). Negatively worded statements were measured using a reverse coded 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree).

| **5** | **4** | **3** | 2 | **1** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Agree | Agree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

Fig.3.5: Likert scale used in this research for negatively worded statements

### 3.9.5 Developing a scale for demographics

The final section of the questionnaire collected demographic information from respondents. Similar to the other sections of the questionnaire, this section was developed systematically using the guidelines set out by Hair et al., (2009). Following this process, relevant studies in the areas of food tourism were investigated in order to identify demographic factors applicable to this study.

To measure travel behaviour, this particular study used a scale developed by Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, (2017). Five pieces of demographic information were sought, namely: gender, age, travel behaviour, perceived travel experience, the frequency of travel (in terms of domestic and international holiday trips) and travel companion (in terms of who they travelled with). The purpose of obtaining these data allowed the researcher to gain an understanding of the respondent's answers in context. Additionally, it also helped identify the sample group i.e. tourists.

## 3.10 Testing and refining questionnaire

Having developed the scales for this research the next step was to test and refine the questionnaire. Additionally, content validity and face validity assessments were needed to ensure the items used reflected each desired concept as presented in Table 3.10 (Hair et al, 2012). Content validity tests are based on the judgements of experts in the field, whereas face validity tests are based on the judgements of non-experts (Leavy, 2017). Furthermore, these tests enabled the researcher to identify any potential problems and/or

ambiguity with the initial questionnaire (Appendix B). Two tests were completed; a pre-test and a pilot test.

### 3.10.1 Pre-test

In order to ensure content validity, the researcher conducted a pre-test using an "expert panel approach" (Czaja, 1998, p. 59). This approach involves distributing the questionnaire to a small number of people, who are knowledgeable about the survey area, have experience in survey design (Czaja, 1998) or represent a small sample of typical respondents (Hair et al, 2012). As such the questionnaire (Appendix B) was administered to five academic staff and three postgraduate students.

Taking the feedback from the pre-test into consideration, a number of changes were required. Firstly, the researcher addressed the issue of repetitive statements. Peterson (2000, cited in Johnson and Morgan, 2016, p. 49), suggests that respondents might perceive repetitive statements as irrelevant. Additionally, repetition can lead to a "higher nonresponse rate and lower quality responses" (Leavy, 2017, p. 269). Following DeVellis, (2012), suggestion, all items with an undesirable similarity to the other items were removed.

Additionally, to improve and therefore increase both face validity and content validity minor word changes were required. This reduced the number of Likert statements from 49 items to 35 items. Finally, revisions were made to improve the introduction and layout of the questionnaire.

The resulting questionnaire is presented in Appendix C.

### 3.10.2 Pilot test

Prior to administering the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted. The purpose of a pilot study is to ensure that the survey questions and research instrument as a whole performed well (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2009). Pilot studies are particularly crucial when using self-administered questionnaires since the interviewer is not present to explain any questions or statements which may cause confusion (Bryman, 2012). Furthermore, it allows the researcher to assess the validity and reliability of the collected data and ensure that the data collected answers the research questions (Saunders et al., 2009).

Generally, pilot testing involves administering the questionnaire to a small number of participants comparable to those who will be used in the actual study (Bryman, 2008; Phellas et al., 2011; Pallant, 2011). Resultantly, the questionnaire was piloted at The Kilmore Quay Seafood Festival in County Wexford, which took place on the 13th July 2018. A total of fourteen respondents participated in the research.

Based on the feedback received, it was decided to group all Likert statements into one section. The final questionnaire used in this study is presented in Appendix D. Once all scales were developed, tested and refined the next step was to administer the questionnaire and complete data collection.

## 3.11 Data collection

### 3.11.1 Identifying participants

Upon refinement and completion of the questionnaire, the next logical step was the collection of data. However, before data can be collected it was essential to identify the population of interest, that is, to whom the research instrument that was devised should be administered (Bryman and Cramer, 2005) and establish where the data should be sourced (Grix, 2002).

The population of interest for this research was identified as food tourists. However, in order to target food tourists, it was first necessary to establish an exact definition for a tourist. The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2012) defines food tourists as those:

> ... who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine
> of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy (UNTWO)
> (2012, p. 7).

### 3.11.2 Determining sample of interest

Having defined the population of interest it was then necessary to select an appropriate sample needed to participate in the study. A sample is defined as a subset of the population, which is used to represent the overall population (Gray, 2009; Field, 2009). There are two methods employed to determine a sample; a probability sampling strategy or a non-probability sampling strategy (Bryman, 2008; Gray, 2009).

A probability sampling strategy is any method of sampling that utilises some form of random selection (Social Research, 2018). On the other hand, a non-probability sampling strategy is a method of sampling where certain units in a population have a greater chance of being selected than others (Bryman, 2008; Gray, 2009).

For the purpose of this piece of research, a non-probability sampling strategy was employed, and a purposive criterion sampling technique adopted (Patton, 2001). Consequently, the following inclusion criteria were used to identify eligible respondents:

1. All respondents must have had an interest in food and food experiences
2. All respondents must have experience of domestic or international holidays
3. All respondents must have been 18 years old and over

By employing these criteria, it ensured that the respondents had an acceptable interest in travel, food and food experiences to answer the questionnaire. Furthermore, a similar sampling strategy was employed in previous food tourism studies (for example, Boesen et al., 2017; Everett, 2012; Mak et al., 2016).

### 3.11.3 Sample size

In order to provide meaningful results, there must be a large enough sample of respondents used in the analysis (Pallant, 2012). By ensuring a large enough sample, results can be generalisable, i.e. can be repeated. There is considerable debate surrounding the ideal sample size for multiple regression. For instance, Stevens (1996, cited in Pallant, 2012, p. 150) suggests that "for social science research, about 15 subjects per predictor are needed for a reliable equation". While Saunders et al., (2012) noted that for most non-probability sampling techniques, there are no rules for determining the sample size. Instead, Saunders et al., (2012) recommend that the choice of sample size should be governed by several aspects, namely: level of confidence on the data collected; tolerable margin of error; types of analyses; and the size of the total population.

To determine the appropriate sample size for this research, it was important to consider the type of statistical analyses which would be undertaken. To evaluate and test scales factor analysis was used. While structural equation modeling (SEM) was utilised for hypotheses testing.

Factor analysis allows the researcher to examine the inter-relationships among constructs (Hair et al., 2011). Factor analytic techniques can typically be classified as either exploratory or confirmatory. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), is primarily used in the early stages of research to gather information about (explore) the inter-relationships among a set of variables. Whereas, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a more complex and sophisticated set of techniques used to test specific hypotheses or theories relating to the structure underlying a set of variables (Pallant, 2009).

The ideal sample size for conducting SEM and factor analysis has been the subject of much debate (Hair et al., 2006). SEM is derived from asymptotic or large-sample theory, and therefore the sample size must be large enough to produce trustworthy parameter estimates and test statistics (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996). Hair et al., (2006) suggest that when research deals with factor analysis, a sample size minimum of 100 or more should be attained. Hair et al., (2010) further contend that some of the statistical algorithms used by SEM programs are unreliable with a small sample size. Additionally, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) advise a sample size greater than 300 is required when employing SEM. Additionally, resources constraints such as limited timeframes and budgets to complete the study are also important and should be considered before making the decision (Malhotra, 2010).

Malhotra (2010) suggests that when determining the sample size of a study, the average size of samples in similar studies should be considered. Table 3.7 presents a summary table of the samples employed in studies that focused on research areas related to this study. Additionally, a number of these studies employed SEM in analysing the data. As evident from Table 3.7, these studies had samples ranging in size from 105 to 447 respondents. The average size of the sample from these studies is 299 respondents. Therefore, the minimum sample size and the number of fully completed surveys needed for this research was set at 300 respondents.

## 3.12 Ethical considerations

Having identified the appropriate respondents it was then necessary to acknowledge any ethical considerations which may have arisen. Ethical consideration is an integral part of the research process (Bryman and Bell, 2015) and as such, it was necessary to consider ethical concerns associated with this piece of research.

For this study, all respondents were over eighteen years of age, thus meeting the first criterion. Additionally, all respondents could;

> … fully assess the costs and benefits of participating, and [were] freely able to give their consent to participate without feeling coerced (Hesse-Biber, 2016, p. 64).

Four key ethical concerns for respondents were identified and considered before the research commenced. These were; harm to participants, lack of informed consent, invasion of privacy and deception (Bryman and Bell, (2015, p. 135). The section which follows details each of these key concerns and outlines the controls put in place aimed at minimising them.

### 3.12.1. Harm to participants

Bryman and Bell, (2015), argue that harm consists of several facets:

> Physical harm to participants … development of self-esteem; stress; harm to career prospects or future employment and inducing subjects to perform reprehensible acts (Bryman and Bell, 2015 p. 135).

In relation to this study, harm to participants can be caused by a breach of confidentiality and stress to the participants caused by the research itself. Therefore, the following controls were put in place to eliminate these concerns:

- The researcher was guided by the code of ethics for research from IT Carlow's Policies and Procedures on Ethics in Research (2015).
- The researcher maintained integrity throughout the research process in order to gain the trust of the participants.
- The researcher showed fairness in all aspects of the research.
- Participants were consulted throughout the research to ensure they are comfortable with the responses submitted.
- Participants were given the opportunity to withdraw from the research at any point throughout the process and without any consequences.

### 3.12.2 Lack of informed consent

Every participant has the right to give informed consent to participate in research (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Therefore, the following procedures were used to obtain valid consent from the respondents:

- All participants were given an information sheet.
- All participants were informed that there was no obligation to consent nor any repercussions for not participating.

### 3.12.3 Invasion of privacy

Researchers must ensure that adequate safeguards are in place to protect the privacy of individuals participating in the research and the confidentiality of their personal data (Bryman, 2008). To ensure participants privacy was protected the following controls were put in place:

- The names of participants were not used therefore, their identity was not made public.
- All data collected was treated carefully and stored in a secure place.
- All electronic data was password protected.
- An information sheet was given to all participants informing them of confidentiality and how all data would be treated.

### 3.12.4 Deception

Bryman and Bell (2015) explain that:

> Deception occurs when the researcher represents their research as something other than what it is (Bryman and Bell, 2015 p. 144).

By adhering to the controls made in relation to each of the key concerns, as highlighted above, the risk of deception to participants was minimal.

In summary, it was considered that the research would not present respondents with any stress beyond what is experienced in their everyday lives (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). As such the study carried a minimal risk to participants. However, the researcher ensured the ethical policies and procedures as set out by IT Carlow (2017) were followed throughout the study.

Additionally, this research underwent an independent institutional ethical review and was subsequently granted ethical approval.

## 3.13 Administering the Questionnaire

Having identified and mitigated any ethical considerations it was necessary to decide how the questionnaire would be administered. To ensure that the sample was large enough to conduct the factor analysis, the questionnaire utilised two methods of data collection; face-to-face and online.

For face-to-face data collection, the researcher approached respondents at two food festivals; The Waterford Harvest Festival and The Savour Kilkenny Festival. The Waterford Harvest Festival is a city-wide festival celebrating food heritage and culture in Waterford. The festival incorporates cookery demonstrations, tastings, workshops and food markets. Over three days, the festival has an average footfall of 60,000 (Waterford County Council, 2017). Data collection took place on the 7th and 8th September 2018. Similar to The Waterford Harvest Festival, the Savour Kilkenny Festival consisted of events, cookery demonstrations and a farmer's market. This festival takes place over four days and has an average footfall of 25,000 (Kilkenny County Council, 2017). Data collection at The Savour Kilkenny Festival took place between the 26th and 28th October 2018. These data collection points were deemed suitable as people who visit these events can be described as food tourists, as defined by the UNTWO. Additionally, each food festival had varying demographic profiles.

As a sample size >300 was required to conduct factor analysis, the same survey was transposed into an online survey format, using the Qualtrics software platform and circulated using email. Potential respondents were identified through an online search of food interests' groups. Examples of such groups include, Slow Food Ireland (14 nationwide groups), Food on the edge, Food for Thought, Irish Food Tours, Irish Food Guide, A Taste of West Cork, Irish Feast, Tourroir, Irish Food Writers Guild, Galway European Region of Gastronomy 2018, Irish Foodies, Irish Republic of Foodies, Irish Foodies Cook Along, and Foodies of Ireland. Additionally, the email asked the recipient to share the link to the survey with other members of their respective groups. The initial email invite (Appendix F), was sent out to 425 recipients on the 12 November 2018 with a follow-up reminder sent on 18th November 2018. The online survey was active for two weeks from the 12th – 26th November 2018.

### 3.13.1 Response Rate

To ensure a high response rate, research literature was consulted, and the following strategies were put in place.

- Length of the Questionnaire: The length of the questionnaire was kept as short as possible as not to discourage potential respondents (Veal, 2017). Implementing this step also ensured 'respondent fatigue' was kept to a minimum (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

- Questionnaire Design: Care was taken to in the overall design of the questionnaire, with consideration taken regarding colour, typesetting and overall layout. An attractive layout is likely to have an enhanced response rate (Dillman, 1983, as cited in Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 245). Clear instructions were given throughout the questionnaire to guide respondents (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Furthermore, all statements were worded using simple language to avoid ambiguity (Blaxter et al., 2005; Veal, 2017).

- Pre-Test and Pilot Test: The questionnaire was pilot tested resulting in a number of refinements aimed at improving overall response rate (Gray, 2009; Creswell, 2014).

- Administering the questionnaire: When administering the face-to-face questionnaire, the researcher was within easy reach if respondents had questions concerning the questionnaire.

- Affiliation: The researcher's affiliation with a well-known third-level organisation was communicated to participants for both methods of data collection. This added trust and credibility to the survey (O'Rourke, 1999).

- Appreciation: All respondents were thanked for their time and informed that their responses would play a valuable contribution to this study.

By implementing these strategies, it was hoped that a high response rate could be achieved.

### 3.13.2 Final response rate

This research employed two methods of data collection; face-to-face and online. The response rate for the face-to-face data collection was 101 respondents. While the response rate for the online survey data collection was 253. Subsequently, it was decided that the

pilot test participants, (n=14), could also be included in the actual study as no significant changes had been made to the questionnaire. Therefore, the final response rate was 368.

## 3.14 Data preparation

Subsequent to achieving a satisfactory response rate the next step was to analyse the data. IBM's SPSS 22 was used to produce descriptive statistics and exploratory factor analysis (EFA). While confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed using with IBM's SPSS AMOS 24.

In this research, the questionnaire was distributed using face-to-face and online methods. The section which follows will examine how the data for each data collection method was prepared for data analysis.

### 3.14.1 Face-to-face data preparation

The first step for preparing the data obtained using the face-to-face method was to create a file in SPSS. Responses were coded prior to collection of data. The numbers 1-5 were assigned to each response in ascending order with number 1 assigned to 'Strongly Disagree' and the number 5 assigned to 'Strongly Agree'. To prevent acquiescence bias three items were negatively worded and were subject to reverse coding. In that case, the numbers 1-5 were assigned to each response in descending order with number 1 assigned to 'Strongly agree' and the number 5 assigned to 'Strongly disagree'.

All responses were assigned an identification number and all data were entered manually into an SPSS file. Subsequently, the data were examined to ensure its validity and completeness (Hair et al, 2010). Firstly, to ensure the validity of the data, each entry was cross-checked by displaying their assigned value labels, thus allowing the researcher to confirm their accuracy. Additionally, the file was checked for errors by generating a frequency table in SPSS. This enabled the researcher to check all numbers were within the expected range i.e. between 1 and 5. Additionally, using a systematic, random sampling process, ten per cent of the questionnaires were selected and checked for data entry errors; further ensuring data validity (Hair, et al, 2010).

### 3.14.2 Online survey data preparation

The online survey was developed in Qualtrics. Responses were coded prior to collection of data. The numbers 1-5 were assigned to each response in ascending order with number 1 assigned to "Strongly Disagree" and the number 5 assigned to 'Strongly Agree'. Negatively worded statements were subject to reverse coding. In that case, the numbers 1-5 were assigned to each response in descending order with number 1 assigned to 'Strongly Agree' and the number 5 assigned to 'Strongly Disagree'. Controls were put in place to force respondents to answer all scale questions. When the survey had expired all data was exported from Qualtrics as an SPSS file.

Finally, the results from both data collection methods were combined into one file for data analysis. Finally, each item was assigned a corresponding code which would be used in data analysis, as presented in Table 3.18.

| Table 3.18: Items used in this research and corresponding codes | |
|---|---|
| **Item** | **Item code for data analysis** |
| I think it's important to buy locally grown foods | ALF1 |
| I think it's important to know where local food is produced | ALF2 |
| I choose foods closely linked to a specific place | ALF3 |
| I make an effort to buy local food | ALF4 |
| I am not interested in the origin of food (R) | ALF5 |
| I like foods based on traditional recipes | ALF6 |
| I seek out foods with natural ingredients | ALF7 |
| Local food experiences are important when choosing a destination | MDC1 |
| My choice of travel destinations is often influenced by my interest in local food | MDC2 |
| When I travel, one of the things I look forward to most is eating the local food | MDC3 |
| Touring on a food trail would make a good holiday | MDC4 |
| I love the challenge of seeking out new food experiences while travelling | MDC5 |
| When on holiday I prefer to eat food products I am familiar with (R) | MT1 |
| I am taking more trips because of my interest in local food | MT2 |
| I will travel anywhere in the world for a good food experience | MT3 |
| Within the next 12 months, I intend to travel for a food experience | MT4 |
| I will travel at any time of the year for the right food experience | MT5 |
| When I think back to holidays I have enjoyed local food experiences are an I important part of the memories | SAT1 |
| My local food experiences are not important to the overall satisfaction of my holiday (R) | SAT2 |
| When at home I buy food that I first encountered while on holiday | SAT3 |
| When on holiday I enjoy local food experiences | SAT4 |
| Having positive food experiences on holiday makes me more likely to return to a destination | SAT5 |
| I recommend holiday destinations to others | SAT6 |
| Having positive food experiences on holiday makes me more likely to return to a destination | SAT7 |
| I intend to revisit a place where I have had a good food experience | SAT8 |
| When I eat local food on holiday I understand its origin | OBA1 |
| On holiday I know the food I buy or eat is not mass produced | OBA2 |
| On holiday I am sure that the local food I buy or eat uses ingredients found locally | OBA3 |
| When on holiday I feel I can trust the quality of the local food | OBA4 |
| When on holiday I feel I can trust the quality of the local food | OBA5 |
| To me, food is part of the broader cultural experience | EXA1 |
| When on holiday local food gives me the opportunity to learn about different cultures | EXA2 |
| Experiencing local food on holiday helps me see how other people live | EXA3 |
| Eating local food on holiday is an authentic experience | EXA4 |

## 3.15 Preliminary data analysis

For an accurate analysis of the dataset and to avoid statistical problems later, four data checks were completed prior to the analysis; screening for missing values, identifying unengaged respondents, assessing the normality of data and checking for outliers.

### 3.15.1 Missing data

To conduct full data analysis in SPSS AMOS it is essential to have complete data. Malhotra (2010) suggests that there are three main reasons for missing data. Firstly, the data were not collected due to a skip question function in the survey. Secondly, the respondent did not know how to answer a question. Thirdly, the respondent did not want to answer a question.

To ensure completeness, a check was made for blank responses by employing descriptive statistical analyses and checking the frequencies. On assessing the missing data, it was found that no one individual case had high levels of missing data. Furthermore, it was clear that the missing data for each of these cases occurred in a random fashion.

Following guidelines as set out by Hair et al., (2014), all missing values were imputed using the Replace Missing Values function in SPSS.  In this case, the imputation method used was Mean Substitution. This method replaces missing values with the mean value of that variable calculated from all valid responses. The rationale of this approach is that the mean is the best single replacement value (Hair et al., 2014).

### 3.15.2 Unengaged respondents

The second data screening method utilised was a check for unengaged respondents. An unengaged respondent was defined as a respondent whose response pattern was without any noticeable variation. This check was completed using the standard deviation check (STDEV.P) in Microsoft Excel. On inspection of the standard deviation results, all respondents scored above 0.5 and as such deemed adequate (Hair et al, 2012). Therefore, all respondents were included in the final data analysis.

### 3.15.3 Normality of data

Finally, the data were checked for normality i.e. the degree to which the distribution of the sample data corresponds to a normal distribution (Hair, et al., 2014). To assess the normality of the data, skewness and kurtosis values were calculated in SPSS for each scale. These provide information about "the shape of the distribution" (Coakes et al., 2010, p. 42). Skewness is concerned with symmetry, while kurtosis is concerned with 'peakedness'. If the data were perfectly normally distributed, then both of these values would be zero (Pallant, 2011, p. 57; Field, 2009; Coakes et al., 2010; Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012). The results of these tests are presented in Appendix E.

Overall, the results of the skewness and kurtosis tests indicated that the distribution was not normal. However, skewness and kurtosis values can be over-sensitive when large samples are involved (Pallant, 2011). Consequently, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test was used to further assess the distribution. The K-S test takes the actual scores obtained in the study and compares them to a set of normally distributed scores that possess the same mean and standard deviation. If the significance value, that is $p => 0.05$ then the test is said to be non-significant. This implies that the sample's distribution is similar to a normal distribution. However, a result of $p =< 0.05$ indicates that the test is significant. This means that the sample's distribution differs significantly from a normal distribution (Field, 2009). All K-S test results were found to be significant ($p =< 0.05$) indicating that the distribution was not normal. However:

> … in large samples, these tests can be significant even when the scores are only slightly different from a normal distribution (Field, 2009, p. 148)

A large sample has been described as one that contains more than 30 or 40 cases (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2011; Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012). Therefore, as the final sample exceeded 40 cases (n = 368), visual tests were deemed more decisive than statistical tests when assessing normality (Field, 2009). Resultantly, histograms were used to visually assess the shape of the distribution. For a normal distribution, the histogram would be symmetrical (Field, 2009; Coakes et al., 2010; Pallant, 2011). As documented in Appendix F the visual outputs identified some deviation away from normality. However, for the most part, the data appeared to be reasonably normally distributed. Furthermore:

> … in large samples (> 30 or 40), the sampling distribution tends to be normal, regardless of the shape of the data (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012).

This sentiment is echoed by both Field (2009) and Pallant (2011). Therefore, as the final sample for this study exceeded 40 cases (n = 368), the data were considered to be normally distributed.

### 3.15.4 Presence of outliers

Outliers can be defined as values which "are substantially lower or higher than the other values in the data set" (Pallant, 2012, p. 115). Outliers can impact results when conducting statistical analysis. To identify outliers' boxplots were generated for each scale. None of these boxplots contained any extreme outliers i.e. points "that extend more than three box-lengths from the edge of the box" (Pallant, 2011, p. 64). Therefore all cases were retained.

Furthermore, the 5% trimmed mean was calculated for all scales. To generate this figure, SPSS omits the top and bottom 5% of scores and recalculates the mean accordingly. No significant differences were found between the mean, median and the 5% trimmed mean values. Therefore, it was concluded that outliers would not be an issue (Coakes et al., 2010; Pallant, 2011).

## 3.16 Evaluating the scales

In this study, scales were developed to answer the research questions and corresponding hypotheses. Before analysing the data and testing the hypotheses it was essential to evaluate the performance of each set of items to determine whether they adequately constitute each scale. This was achieved using factor analysis (Hinkin, 1999).

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique used to examine the inter-relationships among constructs that are not readily apparent (Hair et al., 2011). In factor analysis, the term 'factor' refers to the group of related items (Pallant, 2009). The strength of the relationship between the item and the construct is expressed by factor loading. Factor analytic techniques can typically be classified as either exploratory or confirmatory.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), is primarily used in the early stages of research to gather information about (explore) the inter-relationships among a set of variables. It is an unguided technique, employed to detect discriminant validity issues, whereby constructs are refined into usable sets of "coherent subscales" (Pallant, 2007, p. 179). EFA is normally the first step when developing scales and is used to identify which variables go together (Yong and Pearce, 2013). Whereas, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a more complex and sophisticated set of techniques used to test specific hypotheses or theories relating to the structure underlying a set of variables (Pallant, 2009). In this research, EFA was utilised to explore how well each item correlates and group together. Whereas a CFA was conducted to confirm the framework structure (Gaskin, 2010).

### 3.16.1 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

Before conducting an EFA it was necessary to assess a number of assumptions (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2011). Failure to satisfy these assumptions ultimately restricts the ability to make accurate generalisations from the sample to the population (Field, 2009).

*3.16.1.1 Suitability of sample*

Firstly, the researcher determined if the dataset in this particular study was suitable for EFA. There are two main issues to consider: sample size, and the strength of the inter-correlations among the items. As already mentioned in 3.11.3 there is considerable debate concerning the ideal sample size when conducting factor analysis. As a general rule, Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) and Yong and Pearce (2013) suggest that the sample size should exceed 300. Therefore, as the total respondents for this study was 368 the sample size was considered satisfactory to conduct EFA

*3.16.1.2 Appropriateness of data (adequacy)*

The second issue to be addressed was the strength of the inter-correlations among the items. To test the strength of the inter-correlations among the items two statistical measures were generated by SPSS, namely Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Pallant, 2009).

It is recommended that results for Bartlett's Test of sphericity should be significant i.e. $p < 0.05$ (Pallant, 2009). Whereas, for KMO, a result $< 0.6$ indicates that the data is sufficient for factor analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). Results of both tests are presented in Table 3.19 which follows.

| Table 3.19: Results of KMO and Bartlett's Test | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | | 0.914 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 5520.007 |
| | df | 253 |
| | Sig. (p) | .000 |

Results for both tests were above the minimum threshold; the KMO =0 .914 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was significant (p =.000). Thus, the data were deemed appropriate for EFA.

### 3.16.1.3 Linearity

As EFA is based on correlation the relationships between variables must be linear (Field, 2009). Pallant (2009) suggests when using multiple items that it is not possible to check scatterplots of all variables with all other variables. Thus, following guidelines set out by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) a spot check of some combination of variables was conducted. The results of these tests are provided in Appendix F.

As there was no evidence of a curvilinear relationship between any of the variables, the data were considered to have satisfied the linearity assumption.

### 3.16.1.4 Presence of outliers

EFA can be sensitive to outliers (Pallant, 2009). A check, using boxplots, was made for outliers in the initial data screening process. It was deemed that there were no extreme outliers and as such the data were considered suitable for EFA.

### 3.16.2 Factor extraction

Having met the relevant statistical assumptions, the next step in the EFA process was factor extraction. Factor extraction involves "determining the smallest number of factors that can be used to best represent the interrelation among a set of variables" (Pallant, 2007, p. 181). The number of factors selected can be based on a range of criteria. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommended that a variety of approaches are used when making this decision. Furthermore, they add that this stage should take an exploratory

approach by experimenting with the different numbers of factors until a satisfactory solution is found.

The most popular method for retaining factors is Kaiser's criterion. This rule suggests retaining all factors that are above the eigenvalue >1 (Kaiser, 1960). However, it has been argued that this method tends to overestimate the number of factors to retain (Zwick and Velicer, 1986). Furthermore, this method can lead to arbitrary decisions. For example, it does not make sense to retain a factor with an eigenvalue of 1.01 and then to regard a factor with an eigenvalue of 0.99 as irrelevant (Ledesma and Pedro, 2007).

Another method which overcomes some of the deficiencies inherent with Kaiser's approach is the Cattel's Scree test (Cattell and Vogelmann, 1977). This test graphically presents eigenvalues in descending order. The graph is then examined for a noticeable change in its shape, referred to as "the elbow". Only factors above and excluding this point are retained. Additionally, a priori theory can also be a driver, so if a break was found further along the Scree plot and made theoretical sense, then factor analysis could be re-run specifying the appropriate number of factors (Hooper, 2012).

An alternative criterion, when deciding the number of factors is to set the cumulative variance and to continue the factoring process until this minimum value is reached. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), the commonality is the proportion of the variance of an item that is accounted for by the common factors in the factor analysis. Ideally, factor analysis should explain at least 60% of the cumulative variance. The higher the percentage, the more the variance of the structure can be explained by the extracted factors generated from the factor analysis, rather than due to unreliability and random errors (Merenda, 1997).

Finally, upon establishing the number of factors to retain, it is strongly advised against under-factoring, i.e. having too few factors. Cattell (1978), argues that having too few factors can lead to distortions whereby two common factors are combined into a single common factor thus complicating the true factor structure.

To extract factors for this particular piece of research, EFA using Principal Axis Factoring with a Promax rotation was conducted to determine the factor structure of the data. Kaiser's criterion was used to determine the number which would be retained. This method identified five factors accounting for 62.8% of the cumulative variance, as presented in Table 3.20 which follows.

| Table 3.20: Total variance explained | | | | | | |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| **Factor** | **Initial eigenvalues** | | | **Extraction sums of squared loadings** | | |
| | **Total** | **%variance** | **Cumulative%** | **Total** | **%variance** | **Cumulative%** |
| 1 | 8.847 | 40.213 | 40.213 | 8.478 | 38.538 | 5.969 |
| 2 | 2.348 | 10.674 | 50.887 | 2.013 | 9.150 | 47.688 |
| 3 | 1.814 | 8.247 | 59.134 | 1.502 | 6.929 | 54.517 |
| 4 | 1.463 | 6.649 | 65.782 | 1.122 | 5.102 | 59.619 |
| 5 | 1.131 | 5.141 | 70.923 | .704 | 3.202 | 62.821 |
| 6 | .777 | 3.532 | 74.455 | | | |
| 7 | .594 | 2.699 | 77.154 | | | |
| | | | | | | |

Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring


However, the conceptual framework proposed for this study, informed by a SLR identified six factors, which reflect the six scales developed. Therefore, a Cattel's Scree test was also conducted to see if six factors could be identified. The Scree plot generated from the EFA in SPSS is presented in Fig. 3.6.
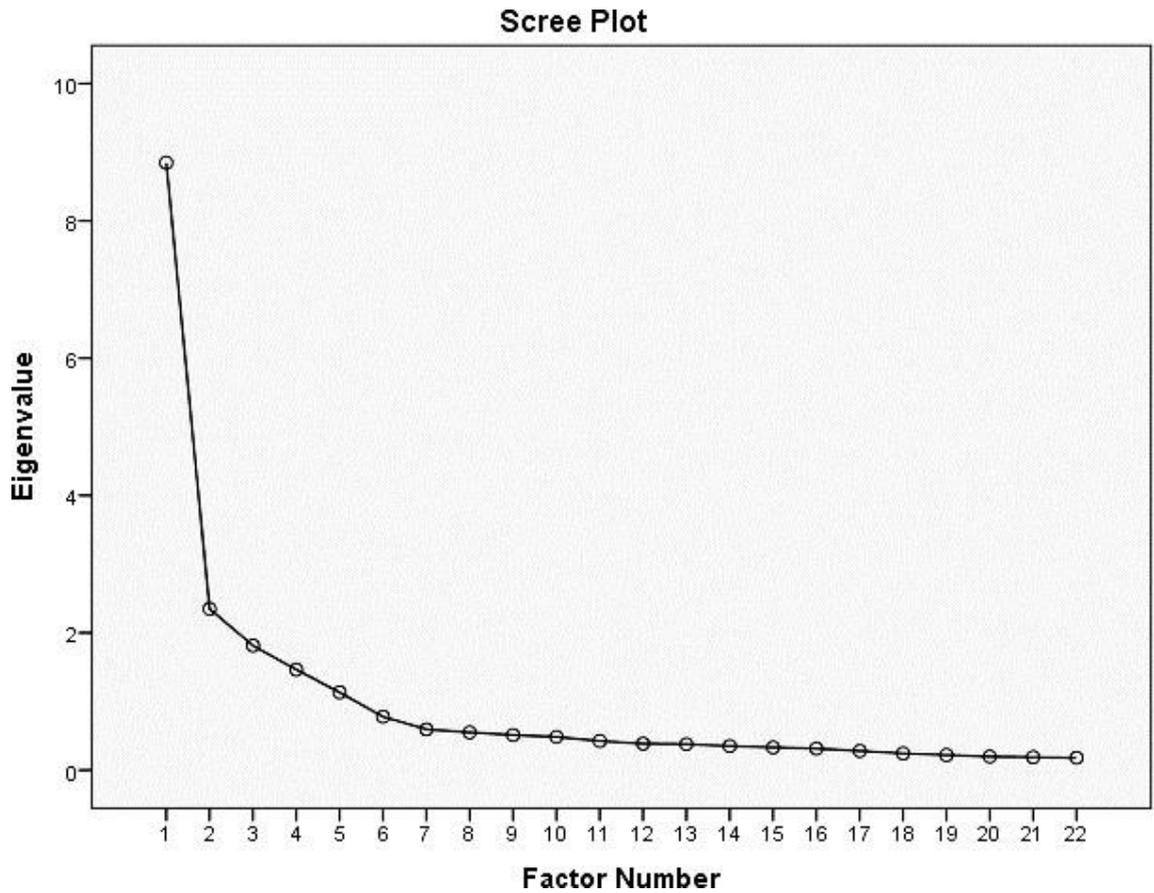
Fig 3.6 Cattell's scree plot generated using SPSS 22

The scree plot was examined to determine the point of inflexion, referred to as an 'elbow'. Each elbow or change in the plot represents a factor. On examining the graph, it is evident that the most obvious break is at Factor 2. However, there were further changes at factors 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7. Following Cattell and Vogelmann, (1977), it can be determined that there are six factors above factor seven. This suggests that a six-factor solution is appropriate. Therefore, the EFA was conducted again, based on a fixed number of six factors. The results of this second EFA are presented in Table 3.21.

| Table 3.21: Total variance explained | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Factor | Initial eigenvalues | | | Extraction sums of squared loadings | | |
|  | Total | %variance | Cumulative% | Total | %variance | Cumulative% |
| 1 | 8.847 | 40.213 | 40.213 | 8.503 | 38.651 | 38.651 |
| 2 | 2.348 | 10.674 | 50.887 | 2.029 | 9.221 | 47.872 |
| 3 | 1.814 | 8.247 | 59.134 | 1.507 | 6.850 | 54.722 |
| 4 | 1.463 | 6.649 | 65.782 | 1.139 | 5.177 | 59.899 |
| 5 | 1.131 | 5.141 | 70.923 | .742 | 3.373 | 63.272 |
| 6 | .777 | 3.532 | 74.455 | .407 | 1.851 | 65.123 |
| 7 | .594 | 2.699 | 77.154 | | | |
|  | | | | | | |
|  | | | | | | |

Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

The results show that a six-factor solution accounts for 65.123% of the cumulative variance. This is a preferable situation to the five-factor solution as when too few factors are included in a model, a substantial error is likely (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

### 3.16.3 Factor rotation and interpretation

The next stage when conducting an EFA is to interpret the factors. A distinct cluster of interrelated variables defines each factor. Each variable is assigned a factor loading which determines the strength of the relationships between each variable. The larger the loading the more important the loading is in interpreting the factor matrix. Hair et al., (2014) state that:

> … factor loadings greater than ± .30 are considered to meet the minimal level; loadings of ± .40 are considered more important; and if the loadings are ± .50 or greater, they are considered practically significant (Hair et al., 2014, p. 116).

However, many researchers set a cut-off point of 0.40 for factor loading (Brown, 2009; Hair et al., 2006). Taking these perspectives into account, items in this study with a loading score < 0.40 were excluded from the analysis.

Additionally, it was necessary to conduct two further checks. The first determined if there were any items with low or no factor loadings. Secondly, items were examined for cross-loadings i.e. items which load highly on two or more factors. If items are cross-loading or not loading at all this would suggest that those items are unreliable and may need to be removed from the analysis.

On examining the pattern matrix, it was clear that three items had a low factor value <0.4. While eight factors had high cross-loadings. Following Brown (2009) and Hair et al. (2006), these items were considered unreliable and were removed from the EFA. These items are detailed in Table 3.22 which follows.

| Table 3.22: Items removed from data analysis | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Items** | **Factor loading** | **Interpretation** |
| **SAT1** -When I think back to holidays I have enjoyed local food experiences are an I important part of the memories | .530 | High cross loading |
| **SAT2** -My local food experiences are not important to the overall satisfaction of my holiday (R) | .173 | Removed as factor score <.4 |
| **SAT3** - When at home I buy food that I first encountered while on holiday | .284 | Removed as factor score <.4 |
| **ALF5**- I am not interested in the origin of food (Reverse coding) | .252 | Removed as factor score <.4 |
| **MDC4**- Touring on a food trail would make a good holiday | .511 | High cross loading |
| **MDC5**- I love the challenge of seeking out new food experiences while travelling | .595 | High cross loading |
| **EXA4**- Eating local food on holiday is an authentic experience | .492 | High cross loading |
| **OBA4**- When on holiday I feel I can trust the quality of the local food | .464 | High cross loading |
| **ALF6**- I Like foods based on traditional recipes | .633 | High cross loading |
| **MT1**- When on holiday I prefer to eat food products I am familiar with (R) | .128 | Removed as factor score <.4 |
| **SAT4**- When on holiday I enjoy local food experiences | .487 | High cross loading |

Subsequently, the EFA was conducted again with these items removed. The results of this third and final EFA are presented in Table 3.23 which follows.

| Table 3.23 Final pattern matrix | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Factor** | | | | | | |
| **Item** | **Mot_Travel** | **Attitudes_LF** | **Satisfaction** | **Obj_A** | **Exa_A** | **Mot_Des** |
| MT5 | .899 | | | | | |
| MT3 | .835 | | | | | |
| MT4 | .804 | | | | | |
| MT2 | .701 | | | | | |
| ALF1 | | .905 | | | | |
| ALF2 | | .822 | | | | |
| ALF4 | | .819 | | | | |
| ALF3 | | .653 | | | | |
| ALF7 | | .567 | | | | |
| SAT5 | | | .922 | | | |
| SAT7 | | | .805 | | | |
| SAT6 | | | .766 | | | |
| SAT8 | | | .653 | | | |
| OBA3 | | | | .924 | | |
| OBA2 | | | | .892 | | |
| OBA1 | | | | .646 | | |
| EXA2 | | | | | .762 | |
| EXA3 | | | | | .642 | |
| EXA1 | | | | | .473 | |
| MDC1 | | | | | | .737 |
| MDC2 | | | | | | .708 |
| MDC3 | | | | | | .590 |

Henson and Roberts (2006) note that although the researcher may have some conceptualisation of what factors may be present in the data, such as when items are developed to measure expected constructs, EFA does not generally result in a strong *a priori* theory. In light of this view, factors that emerged from the utilisation of EFA in this study were then compared with the proposed factors as presented in the conceptual framework in Figure 3.1. On examination of the factors produced using the EFA, they were in accordance with the factors set out in the conceptual framework.

Subsequently, each the six factors were defined as follows: motivation to travel was represented by **Mot_Travel**, attitudes to local food was denoted by **Attitudes_LF**, while tourist satisfaction was represented by **Satisfaction**, **Mot_Des**   defined motivation for destination choice, finally **Obj_A** represented objective authentictiy while **Exa_A** characterised existential authenticity. Before these factors could be  used in  data analysis, each had to be tested for validity and reliability.

## 3.17 Validity and reliability assessment

To evaluate the factors generated from the EFA the next step was to assess the validity and reliability of each of the six factors (Gaskin, 2010).

### 3.17.1 Validity

Validity is concerned with whether the research instrument measures the construct it purports to measure (Bryman, 2008; Field, 2017). This property is essential as a lack of validity leads to questionable data which in turn affects the overall integrity of the research (Bryman, 2008). In this research, construct validity was assessed. Construct validity assess what the scale is actually measuring (Hair et al., 2011). To assess construct validity in this study two checks were performed, namely convergent and discriminant validity (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Hair et al., 2011).

#### 3.17.1.1 Convergent validity

Convergent validity assesses the degree to which variables within a single factor are correlated (Hair et al., 2014). Convergent validity is assessed by factor loadings. However, sufficient factor loadings depend on sample size. Generally, the smaller the sample size, the higher the required loading. Hair et al, (2012) suggest that with a sample size >250 a factor loading of .4 is significant. The sample size in this research was 368 and all variables with factor loadings above 0.40 were deemed significant. From the pattern matrix, as illustrated in Table 3.23, all factor loading values are > 0.474. Therefore, results supported convergent validity.

#### 3.17.1.2 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity assesses the degree to which factors are distinct and uncorrelated. In this study, discriminant validity was assessed by firstly examining the pattern matrix. Variables should only load onto one factor. If variables load onto more than one factor this is referred to as cross loading. If there are cross-loadings, then the difference between the cross-loadings must be greater than 0.2. As all significant cross-loadings were removed this was not an issue.

Secondly, the factor correlation matrix was examined. To satisfy discriminant validity, correlations between factors must not be greater than 0.7.

| Table 3.24: Factor correlation matrix | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Factor** | **Mot_Travel** | **Attitudes_LF** | **Satisfaction** | **Obj_A** | **Exa_A** | **Mot_Des** |
| Mot_Travel | 1.00 | .360 | .528 | .499 | .540 | .536 |
| Attitudes_LF | .360 | 1.00 | .462 | .412 | .515 | .649 |
| Satisfaction | .528 | .462 | 1.00 | .357 | .577 | .468 |
| Obj_A | .499 | .412 | .357 | 1.00 | .438 | .349 |
| Exa_A | .540 | .515 | .577 | .438 | 1.00 | .632 |
| Mot_Des | .536 | .649 | .468 | .349 | .632 | 1.00 |

Extraction method: Principal axis factoring

Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation

As evident from Table 3.24, all factor loadings were > 0.4 and all factor correlations were < 0.7. Therefore, discriminant validity was supported.

### 3.17.2 Reliability

The second property used to evaluate the six factors created in the EFA was that of reliability. Reliability concerns the consistency or stability of the research findings and is considered of critical importance where multi-item scales are used (Hair, et al., 2011). In this research, reliability was tested by measuring internal consistency reliability.

### 3.17.2.1 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is primarily concerned with the degree to which each scale measures an individual concept (Bryman, 2008; Field, 2009) and is particularly important in this study employs a multi-item scale (Bryman and Cramer, 2005). There are two types of internal consistency reliability; split-half reliability and Cronbach's alpha. In split–half reliability testing the group of scale items are randomly divided and then correlates each set of items (Hair et al., 2011). A high correlation indicates high reliability. Internal consistency reliability can also be measured using a statistical technique known as Cronbach's alpha (α) (Bryman, 2008; Field, 2009).

This study assessed internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's alpha, which is considered the most widely used objective measure of reliability (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Tavakol and Dennnick, 2011). Cronbach's alpha measures internal consistency by determining how well a set of items are inter-related (Field, 2009; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). This is achieved by calculating the average coefficients from all possible

combinations of split halves (Hair et al., 2011). Cronbach's alpha is presented as a value from zero to one as illustrated in Table 3.25 (Field, 2009). A Cronbach alpha coefficient of above 0.7 is generally considered to be have a 'good' reliability value (DeVellis, 1991).

| Table 3.25: Interpretation of Cronbach's alpha coefficient size | |
|---|---|
| **Alpha coefficient** | **Strength of association** |
| <.6 | Poor |
| .6 to <.7 | Moderate |
| .7 to <.8 | Good |
| .8 to <.9 | Very Good |
| >.9 | Excellent |

Created by the researcher from Tavakol and Dennick, 2011.

However, it is important to note that generally, the value for Cronbach's alpha (α) increases for factors with more variables, and likewise decreases for factors with fewer variables (Gaskin, 2010).

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each of the six factors using SPSS, the results of which are presented in Table 3.26 which follows.

| Table 3.26: Results of Cronbach's alpha | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Scale** | **No of items** | **Cronbach's Alpha** | **Interpretation** |
| Attitudes toward local Food (Attitudes_LF) | 5 | .872 | Very Good |
| Travel motivation for local food (Mot_Travel) | 4 | .906 | Excellent |
| Local food and destination choice (Mot_Des) | 3 | .833 | Very Good |
| Satisfaction | 4 | .871 | Very Good |
| Local food and object-related authenticity (Obj_A) | 3 | .859 | Very Good |
| Local food and existential authenticity (Exa_A) | 3 | .735 | Good |

All six scales achieved and/or surpassed α value of 0 .7, consequently, all factors were deemed to be reliable.

In summary, EFA was utilised to check if each of the variables loaded cleanly onto its specified factor. It also allowed for the identification and removal of any problematic items from further analysis. The next step in the scale development was to confirm the factor structure using CFA. While EFA and CFA share some similarities, they are philosophically quite different (Hair et al., 2012). The process followed in conducting CFA and SEM is outlined in the following section.

## 3.18 Confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling

The next step in scale development was to perform a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The primary function of CFA is to confirm the factor structure of the framework from the EFA. CFA is applied after the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and used to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with a researcher's understanding of the nature of that construct (or factor). SEM refers to a collection of related statistical methods that takes a confirmatory approach to the examination and explanation of the set of relationships between variables (Kline, 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

In conducting CFA and SEM, the researcher specified the relationships between the observed and latent constructs and then tested these relationships to determine their validity (Byrne, 2010). Unlike EFA, in conducting CFA the researcher assigned the variables to factors before any results could be acquired from the data. Therefore, instead of allowing the statistical method to determine the number of factors and loadings as with EFA, CFA determined how well the specification of the factors matched the actual data (Hair et al., 2012). This allowed the researcher to confirm the predetermined theory, examine internal consistency and establish the validity of the scales (Hair et al., 2012)

Conducting CFA also provided a confirmatory test of the measurement theory used in this study. Measurement theory refers to "how measured variables logically and systematically represent constructs" involved in a framework (Hair et al, 2014, p. 603). The researcher used the measurement theory to deduce the number of factors in the data and the variables that loaded onto these factors (Hair et al., 2006). A model specified in CFA is then termed a 'measurement model' as the CFA model focuses exclusively on the connection between factors and measured variables (Byrne, 2010).

### 3.18.1 Measurement model

The measurement model explains the relationship between the observed variables and the latent constructs (Hair et al., 2012). Three criteria should be considered in order to assess the measurement model:

1. Assessment of fit
2. Significance of parameter estimates
3. Validity and reliability

### 3.18.2 Assessment of fit

There are specific measures which can be calculated using CFA to determine 'goodness of fit'. These measures indicate "how well the specified model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among the indicator items" (Hair et al., 2012). However, goodness of fit can be inversely related to sample size and the number of variables within a model. The threshold for each of these measures is presented in Table 3.27.

| Table 3.27. Characteristics of different fit indices demonstrating goodness of fit | |
|---|---|
| **Measure** | **Threshold** |
| Chi-square/df (cmin/df) | <3 good; <5 sometimes permissible |
| CFI | >.95 good; >.90 traditional; > .8 sometimes permissible |
| GFI | >.95 |
| AGFI | >.80 |
| SRMR | <.09 |
| RMSEA | <.05 good; .05-.10 moderate; > .10 bad |

Created by the researcher from Hu and Bentler, 1999.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using SPSS AMOS. The CFA was employed in order to fit the model to the data using maximum likelihood estimation. To improve model fit two items were removed from the CFA due to poor factor loading, EXA1 and MDC3. Additionally, the modification indices were consulted to determine if there was an opportunity to improve the model. Accordingly, the error terms between SAT5 and SAT6, SAT7 and SAT8, OBA1 and OBA2, and OBA2 and OBA3 were covaried.

The assessment of model fit indices is presented in Table 3.28.

| Table 3.28: The assessment of model fit indices for the measurement model | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Measure** | **Fit indices** | **Threshold** | **Interpretation** |
| Chi-square/df (cmin/df) | 2.324 | Between 1 and 3 | Excellent |
| CFI | 0.955 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| SRMR | 0.003 | < 0.08 | Excellent |
| RMSEA | 0.060 | < 0.60 | Acceptable |
| PClose | 0.022 | >0.05 | Acceptable |

As shown in Table 3.28, the results from the assessment of model fit were good i.e. the overall measurement model is a good fit. Once a good fit is established the next step in the CFA is to examine the parameter of estimates.

### 3.18.3 Significance of parameter estimates

The second assessment of the measurement model examined the parameter estimates. Parameter estimates explore the relationship between the items and latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Having an item loading size of at least 0.5 and ideally, 0.7 or higher indicates that the items are performing adequately. In contrast, items are candidates for being removed if the parameter estimates are non-significant and lower than 0.5 (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

In addition, standard loadings should be between -1.0 and 1.0 as loadings that are not within this range indicate a problem with the model (Hair et al., 2010). As Figure 3.7 shows, most factor loadings were within the ideal range i.e. > 0.7., except one factor which had an acceptable loading of 0.66.

Once a satisfactory model fit and adequate parameter estimates were obtained, it was essential that the validity and reliability of the measurement model were assessed.
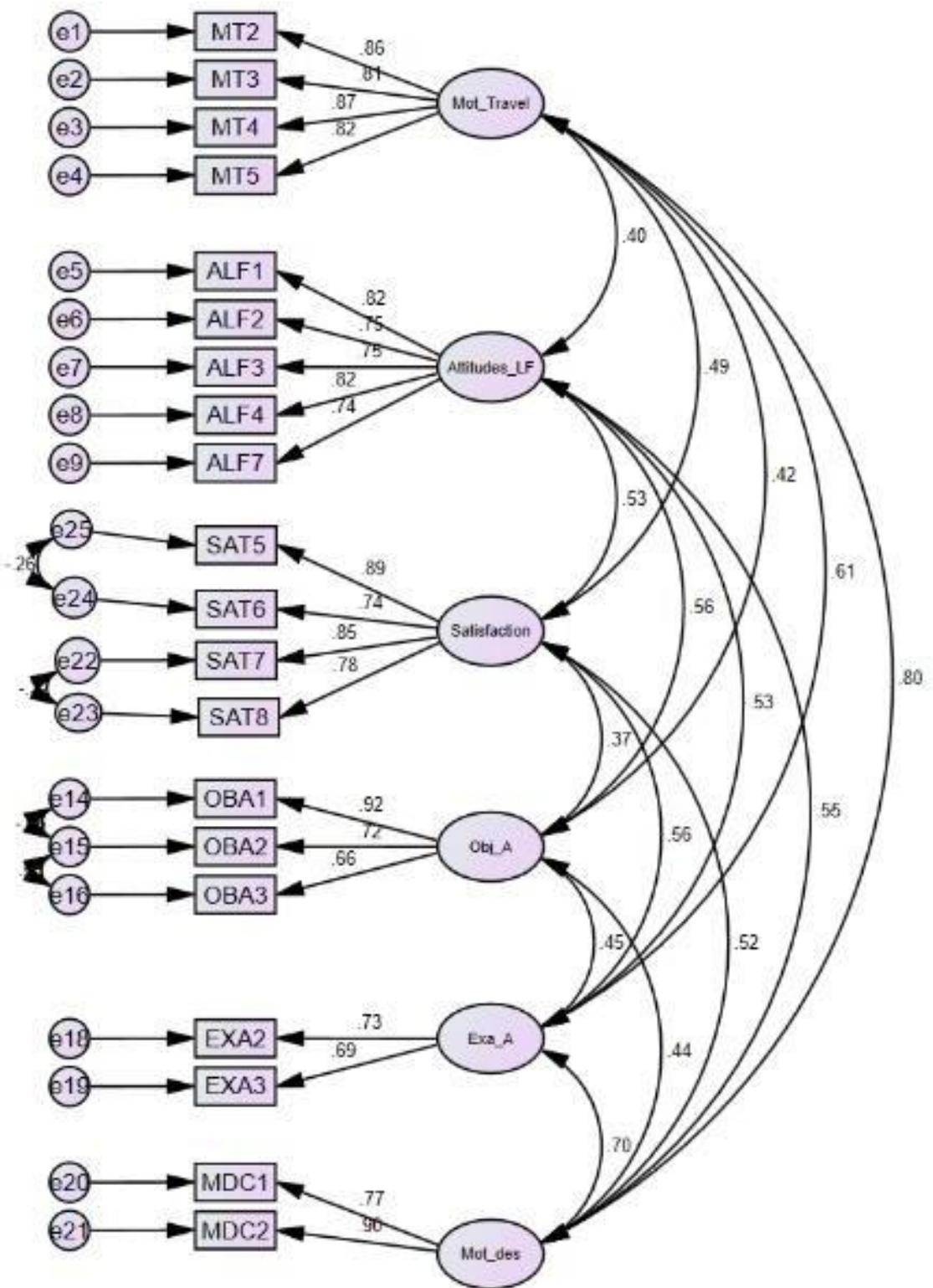
Figure 3.7: Measurement model conducted using AMOS 24 showing the factor loadings for each item.

### 3.18.4 Validity and reliability

The final assessment of the measurement model is to examine its validity and reliability. The validity of the measurement model is the primary concern when conducting CFA because, in the absence of prior measurements, no valid conclusions can exist (Hair et al., 2006). There are a number of measures used to establish validity and reliability within a measurement model: Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Maximum Shared Variance (MSV), and Average Shared Variance (ASV).

Composite reliability (CR) is similar to Cronbach's alpha coefficient, however, it is considered a more accurate test of reliability. This is because coefficient reliability is calculated based on the assumption that all the items included in the calculation are weighted equally. Whereas the composite reality is calculated on the assumption that each item should be weighted in terms of its individual item reliability. This results in different weights for individual items (Hair et al., 2016). The acceptable cut-off level of for CR is > 0.6 (Hair et al., 2012).

AVE is a strict measure of convergent validity i.e. how well items correlate with each other within their parent factor (Gaskin, 2012). The acceptable cut-off level of for AVE is > 0.5 (Hair et al., 2012).

On the other hand, discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct does not correlate with other measures designed to assess different constructs (Hair et al., 2011). Discriminant validity is calculated in two ways. Firstly, the MSV must be less than AVE. Secondly, the square root of AVE must be greater than inter-construct correlations (Gaskin, 2012).

Each of these tests were conducted using the Stats Tools Package for Microsoft Excel, as developed by Gaskin (2012). The results are presented in Table 3.29 which follows.

| | CR | AVE | MSV | Max (H) | Exa_A | Mot_ Travel | Attitud es_LF | Satisfa ction | Obj_A | Mot_D es |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exa_A | 0.668 | 0.502 | 0.494 | 0.672 | **0.709** | | | | | |
| Mot_Travel | 0.906 | 0.707 | 0.638 | 0.908 | 0.615 | **0.841** | | | | |
| Attitudes_LF | 0.833 | 0.602 | 0.304 | 0.887 | 0.528 | 0.402 | **0.776** | | | |
| Satisfaction | 0.876 | 0.640 | 0.319 | 0.894 | 0.565 | 0.502 | 0.538 | **0.800** | | |
| Obj_A | 0.863 | 0.679 | 0.238 | 0.874 | 0.371 | 0.396 | 0.488 | 0.342 | **0.824** | |
| Mot_Des | 0.824 | 0.702 | 0.638 | 0.850 | 0.703 | 0.799 | 0.551 | 0.531 | 0.381 | **0.838** |

**Table 3.29: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results of the measurement model**

From the results, the measurement model has composite reliability (CR) as evidenced by all values > 0 .6. Furthermore, it has convergent validity as evidenced by the AVE results > 0 .5. Additionally, the measurement model has discriminant validity as the MSV value is less than the AVE. Moreover, the square root of the AVE of all factors is greater than any the inter-factor correlations, as shown in bold on the diagonal of the matrix in Table 3.29.

### 3.18.5 Common method bias

Common method bias (CMB) refers to bias in a dataset caused by something external to the measures (Gaskin, 2013). For example, collecting data using a single method, such as in this study, may introduce systematic bias which could influence responses (gaskin, 2013). Therefore, it was necessary to conduct a test on the measurement model to ensure CMB was not an issue. To determine if CMB was affecting the results of the measurement model a common latent factor test (CLF) was conducted in AMOS. A latent factor was added to the AMOS CFA model and connected to all observed items. The standardised regression weights from this model were then compared to the standardized regression weights of a model without the CLF. A difference between the regression weights >0.200 indicates that CLF is an issue. In this study, the difference between the results was <0.200, therefore, it was determined that CMB was not an issue in this study.

### 3.18.6 Computing new variables

Having assessed the measurement model for adequate fit, validity and reliability the next step was to compute new variables. These new variables were then used to test the hypotheses as discussed in Chapter 4. Factor scores were calculated for each of the six factors as represented in the CFA measurement model. Factor scores are calculated directly on factor loadings (Hair et al., 2012). For this research new variables were created from factor scores using the Impute Variable Function on SPSS AMOS.

These six new variables were then used to create a structural model which was used to test the hypotheses using SEM. This is explained in detail in Chapter 4.

## 3.19 Limitations of the methodology used

Having completed the research methodology a number of limitations have been identified:

- A lack of control over respondents: The self-administered nature of the method used in this study meant that the researcher had no control over the completion of the questionnaire. In an attempt to ensure that the questionnaire was filled out by an appropriate candidate, respondents were approached in two ways. First, face-to-face questionnaires were distributed to respondents over a number of days at two food festivals. Secondly, the online version of the questionnaire was emailed to various food interest groups based in Ireland.

- Most statistical programs can easily compute factor scores for each respondent. By selecting the factor score option, these scores are saved for use in subsequent analyses. The one disadvantage of factor scores is that they are not easily replicated across studies because they are based on the factor matrix, which is derived separately in each study. Replication of the same factor matrix across studies requires substantial computational programming.

## 3.20 Conclusion

This chapter consisted of two major aspects. Firstly, using Grix's (2002, p. 180) "building blocks of research" framework as a guide, this chapter developed an appropriate research methodology aimed at addressing the research gap being examined in this study. Next, the development of the researcher's refined questionnaire tool was detailed, including a discussion on the implementation of the relevant pre-test and pilot test procedures. This

was followed by a discussion on data collection methods, issues of identifying participants, undertaking ethical considerations and detailing the administering of the questionnaire.

The second section detailed the data analysis procedures used in this study. Firstly, the researcher engaged in EFA using SPSS 22 to explore the dimensionality of the measures, to check if the scales performed well with the sample and to identify any items that may be problematic (Hair et al., 2012). Problematic items, such as those with factor scores < 0.04 and high cross-loadings, were removed (Hair et al., 2012). In total eleven items were removed.  CFA using SPSS AMOS 24 was undertaken to construct a measurement model that defined the theoretical relationships between the observed and latent variables (Byrne, 2010). After conducting a number of modifications which included removing a further two items from the analysis, the validity of the measurement model was confirmed. The final step of the CFA was to impute new variables which would be used to develop a structural model which would be used to test the hypothesised relationships using SEM. An in-depth discussion of these findings is presented in the next chapter.

# Chapter 4 Presentation of findings

## 4.1 Introduction

Having undertaken the relevant statistical tests documented in Chapter 3, this chapter proceeds to present the research findings obtained. The chapter comprises of three sections. The first section describes the respondent profiles relating to demographics, travel behaviour, perceptions of local food and attitudes towards local food. The second section presents the analysis from the structural equation model (SEM) and consequently, the results of each hypothesis are discussed. Next, a synopsis of the overall research findings is presented. The chapter concludes by revising the proposed conceptual framework used for this study in light of the findings..

## 4.2 Descriptive statistical analysis

This section provides an overview of the demographic profiles as well as the travel behaviour of the respondents thus providing the reader with an overview of the individuals that participated in the study.

### 4.2.1 Respondents demographics

Respondents provided two pieces of information about themselves: namely, their gender and their age. Table 4.1, which follows, provides a summary of the results:

| Table 4.1: Respondents demographics | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Gender** | **Number of cases** | **Valid %** |
| Male | 169 | 45.9 |
| Female | 199 | 54.1 |
| | | |
| **Age** | **Number of cases** | **Valid %** |
| 18-29 | 32 | 8.7 |
| 30-39 | 66 | 18 |
| 40-49 | 125 | 33.9 |
| 50-59 | 99 | 26.9 |
| 60-69 | 37 | 10.1 |
| >70 | 9 | 2.4 |

Table 4.1 above illustrates that there was more participation from female respondents (54.1%) compared to male (45.9%). On the basis of age, the respondents were classified into six different groups as shown in the table. Compared to the other age groups, the 40-

49 years represented the largest proportion (33.9%), followed by 50-59 years (26.9%). Together they formed 60.8% of the total respondents.

### 4.2.2 Travel behaviour

Respondents provided five pieces of information relating to their travel behaviour; namely, perceived travel experience, travel frequency(in terms of the number of annual domestic and international holidays), duration of last holiday and travel companion. Table 4.2, which follows, presents an overview of the results obtained relating to respondents travel behaviour.

| Table 4.2: Travel behaviour of respondents | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Travel experience** | **Number of cases** | **Valid %** |
| Very little | 23 | 6.3 |
| Somewhat | 129 | 35.1 |
| Experienced | 153 | 41.5 |
| Very experienced | 63 | 17.1 |
| | | |
| **Domestic holidays** | **Number of cases** | **Valid %** |
| 0 | 36 | 9.8 |
| 1-2 | 237 | 64.4 |
| 3-4 | 67 | 18.2 |
| >4 | 28 | 7.6 |
| | | |
| **International holidays** | **Number of cases** | **Valid %** |
| 0 | 28 | 7.6 |
| 1-2 | 272 | 73.9 |
| 3-4 | 56 | 15.2 |
| >4 | 12 | 3.3 |
| | | |
| **Duration of last holiday** | **Number of cases** | **Valid % of those who have taken a holiday** |
| 1-3 nights | 65 | 21.3 |
| 4-7 nights | 106 | 34.8 |
| 8-14 nights | 115 | 37.8 |
| >14 nights | 18 | 5.9 |
| | | |
| **Travelled with** | **Number of cases** | **Valid % of those who have taken a holiday** |
| Travelled alone | 15 | 4.9 |
| A spouse/partner | 106 | 34.8 |
| Family with children | 110 | 36.1 |
| Family without children | 24 | 7.8 |
| Friends | 36 | 11.8 |
| Tour/organised group | 13 | 4.2 |

As shown in Table 4.2 above, 58.6% of respondents considered themselves experienced or very experienced travellers. Additionally, a total of 304 respondents had at least one

annual holiday. Furthermore, 78.5% of respondents who have previously undertaken a holiday, indicated that their stay lasts between four and fourteen nights. It is also evident from the table that on their last holiday the majority of respondents (36.1%), travelled as part of a family group, or with a spouse/partner (34.8%), with only a small percentage travelling either alone (4.9%) or with an organised group (4.2%).

Taking these findings into consideration, the researcher was confident that the vast majority of respondents had travel experience and therefore in a position to accurately complete the questionnaire.

### 4.2.3 Respondents perceptions of local food

The questionnaire asked respondents one question relating to their perceptions of local food; *In your opinion what is local food?* Table 4.3, which follows, provides a summary of the results.

| Table 4.3: Perceptions of local food | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Local food is…?** | **Number of cases** | **Valid%** |
| Food produced within the country I live | 52 | 14.1 |
| Food produced within the province I live | 77 | 20.9 |
| Food produced within the county I live | 64 | 17.4 |
| Food produced or grown by local people | 98 | 26.6 |
| Food from small producers that is not mass produced | 77 | 20.9 |

It is apparent from Table 4.3 that there is no widely accepted single definition for local food. However, the findings show that 38.3% of respondents consider local food as food produced in their own province or county, while 14.1 % define it as food produced in Ireland. Additionally, respondents link local food to local people (26.6%) and to food which is produced by small producers and not mass produced (20.9%).

### 4.2.4. Attitudes towards local food

Respondents were asked to answer seven questions relating to attitudes towards local food; six of which were positively worded and one which was negatively worded. The mean score of the respondent's attitudes towards local food is presented in Table 4.4.

| Table 4.4: Mean scores for items relating to attitudes towards local food | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Item** | **Mean** | **Std. Deviation** |
| I think it's important to buy locally grown foods | 4.42 | 0.613 |
| I think it's important to know where local food is produced | 4.41 | 0.706 |
| I choose foods closely linked to a specific place | 3.85 | 0.943 |
| I make an effort to buy local food | 4.29 | 0.727 |
| I'm not interested in the origin of food (R)[4] | 1.77 | 0.966 |
| I like foods based on traditional recipes | 3.95 | 0.840 |
| I seek out local foods with natural ingredients | 4.05 | 0.783 |

The mean responses to the positively worded items ranged from 3.85 to 4.42. While the mean response to the negatively worded item was 1.77. These results demonstrate that participants held a positive attitude toward local food.

## 4.3 Hypotheses testing

The previous section provided detailed information as to the profile of the sample group of this study pertaining to demographic and travel characteristics. Additionally, the preceding section presented the respondent's perceptions and attitudes towards local food. In this section, the hypothesised relationships as proposed in Chapter 3, are examined using SPSS AMOS. Firstly, a structural model reflecting the hypothesised relationships was developed. Secondly, this structural model was examined using Maximum Likelihood Estimation to see if the hypothesised model fitted the collected data.

The first stage when testing the hypothesised relationships in SEM was to develop a structural model (Hair et al, 2012). As detailed in Chapter 3, six new variables were created based on factor scores using the Impute Variable Function on SPSS AMOS. These six new variables were used to form a structural model reflecting the hypothesised relationships, as illustrated in Figure 4.1.

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[4] This item was negatively worded and subject to reverse coding.
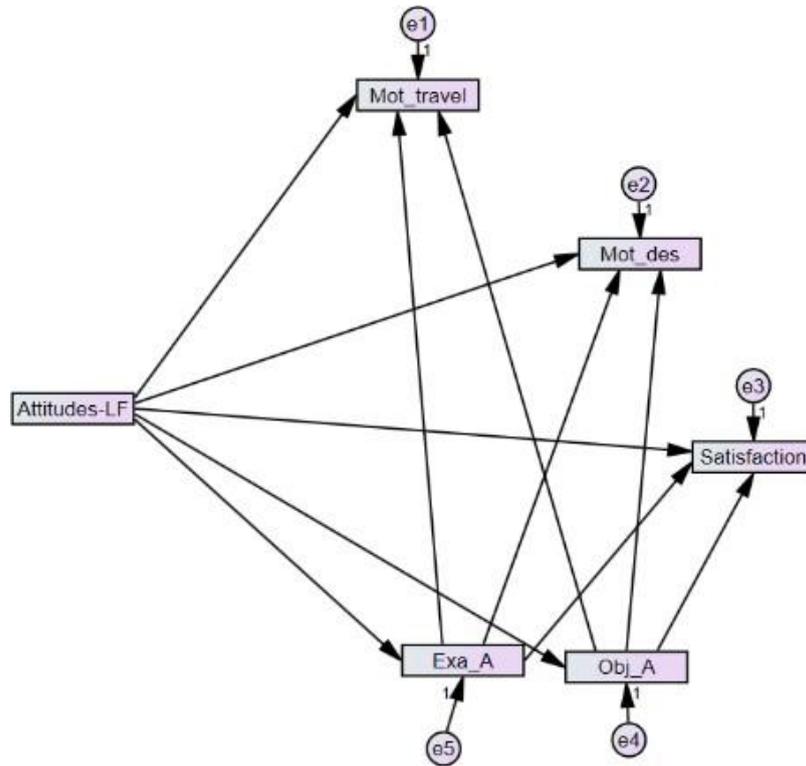
Figure 4.1: Structural model showing hypothesised relationships generated in SPSS AMOS 24

Once the structural model was specified, the researcher estimated the model and determined whether it was identified. As with the EFA, the model was estimated by employing Maximum Likelihood Estimates. As with EFA, a number of goodness-of-fit indices were employed to evaluate the validity of the structural model. In order to achieve a good model, fit, it was necessary to co-vary the error terms of the dependent variables (Gaskin, 2012), as presented in Figure 4.2.
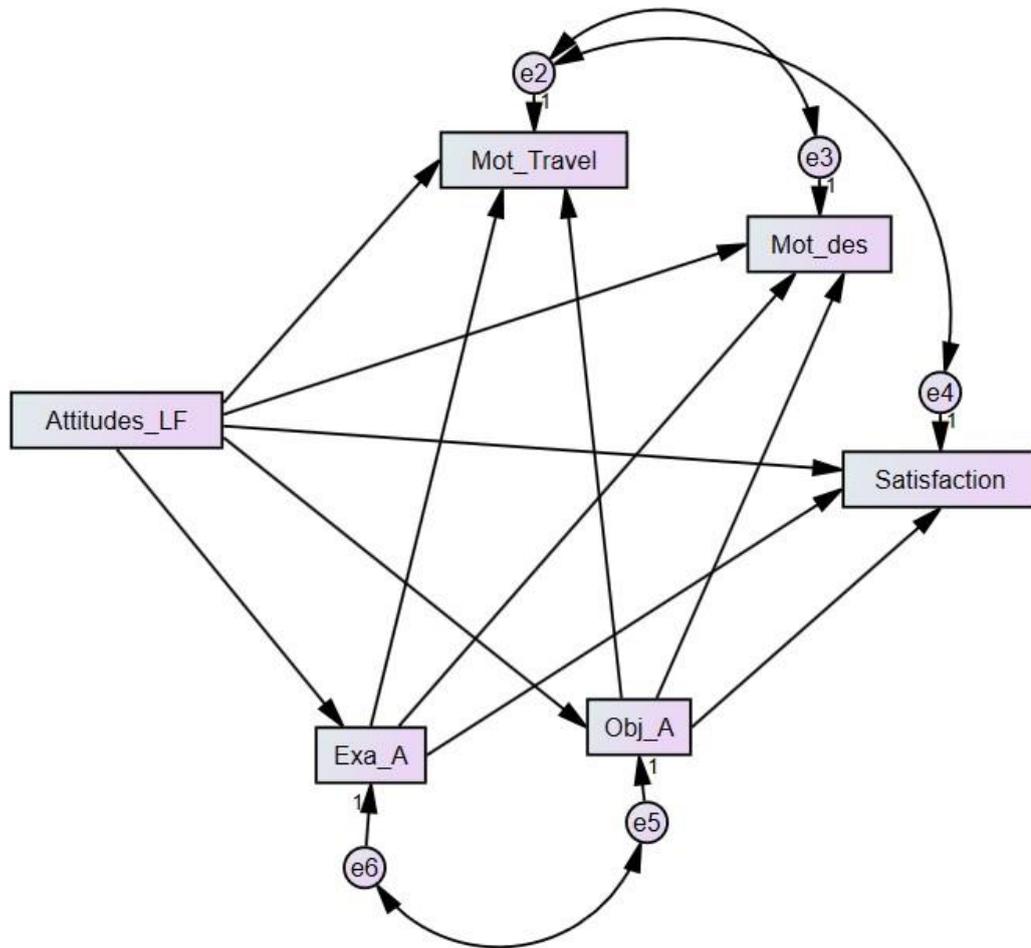
Figure 4.2: Structural model showing covaried errors generated in SPSS AMOS 24

The findings from the assessment of model fit indices after covarying the error terms are displayed in Table 4.5.

| Table 4.5: The assessment of model fit indices for the structural model | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Measure** | **Fit indices** | **Threshold** | **Interpretation** |
| Chi-square/df (cmin/df) | 0.387 | >5 | Excellent |
| CFI | 0.98 | >0.95 | Excellent |
| SRMR | 0.002 | < 0.08 | Excellent |
| RMSEA | 0.000 | < 0.06 | Excellent |
| PCLOSE | 0.688 | >0.05 | Excellent |

Having established that the structural model was a good fit to the data, the next step was to examine the hypothesised relationships. The acceptance or rejection of each hypothesised relationship was determined by evaluating the regression weights in the Standardised Estimates output generated in SPSS AMOS. For a hypothesis to be accepted, it was essential that the relationship was statistically significant. In this research, statistical significance was judged by a p-value of less than 0.05 (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2012). Additionally, the directionality of the relationship established in the SEM had to be consistent with the directionality originally assumed in the hypotheses (Hair et al., 2012).
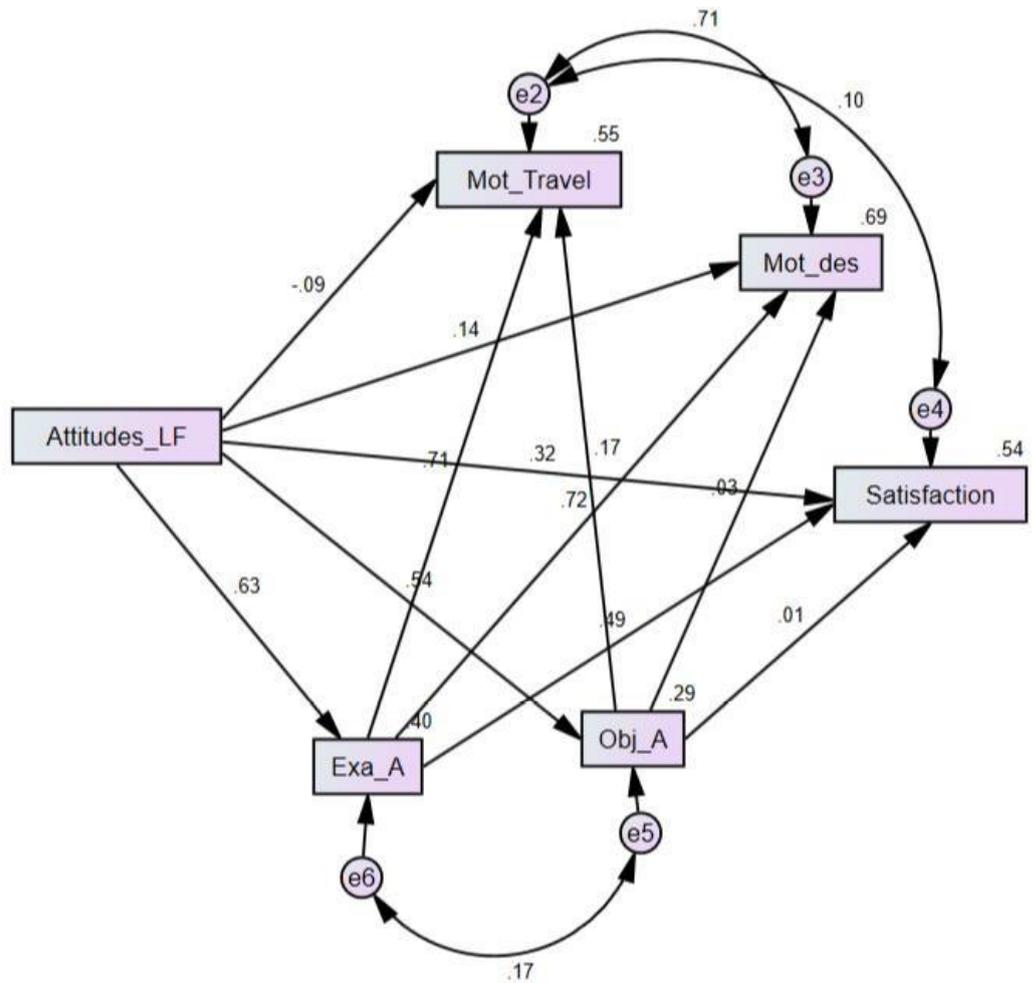


Figure 4.3: Structural model showing regression weights from the standardised estimates output

Table 4.6 provides a summary of the Maximum Likelihood Regression Weight (Std beta) results following the validation of the final structural model for each direct path. Additionally, the significance values (p values) for each direct path and the result of each hypothesis are also presented.

| Table 4.6: Framework results for direct paths | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Hypothesis** | **Predictor** | **Outcome** | **Std Beta** | **Decision on hypotheses** |
| **H1:** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence destination choice | Attitude to local food | Destination choice | 0.136*** | Accept |
| **H2:** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence travel motivation | Attitude to local food | Travel motivation | -0.89$^{\#}$ | Reject |
| **H3:** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence holiday satisfaction | Attitude to local food | Satisfaction | 0.320*** | Accept |
| **H4 (a):** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence the perception of object-related authenticity | Attitude to local food | Object-related authenticity | 0.542*** | Accept |
| **H4 (b):** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence the perception of existential authenticity | Attitude to local food | Existential authenticity | 0.629*** | Accept |

*Significance of correlations*

***$p < 0.001$
**$p < 0.010$
*$p < 0.05$
$^{\#}p < 0.100$

Hypothesis 5 related to the indirect effects or mediated effects of authenticity on the relationship between tourist attitudes towards local food and destination choice, travel motivation, and satisfaction. In SEM, mediation is used to provide a more accurate explanation for the causal effect an antecedent has on a dependent variable (Gaskin, 2012). The mediated effect of authenticity on the hypothesised relationships was examined from two perspectives; object-related and existential

Mediation was tested using 2000 bias-corrected bootstrapping resampling in SPSS AMOS and the Specific Indirect Effects plugin developed by Gaskin (2018). The results are summarised in Table 4.7 which follows.

| Table 4.7: Framework Mediators – Indirect Effects *[Bootstrap 2000 samples and 95%CI]* | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Hypotheses** | **Direct path** | **Mediator** | **Esti mate** | **Lower** | **Upper** | **p-value** | **Decision on mediation** |
| **H5.1 (a):** Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between destination choice and tourist attitudes to local food | Attitude to local food→destination choice | Object-related authenticity | 0.025 | -0.019 | 0.071 | 0.341 | Reject |
| **H5.1 (b):** Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between travel motivation and tourist attitudes to local food | Attitude to local food→Travel motivation | Object-related authenticity | 0.168 | 0.091 | 0.257 | 0.001 | Accept |
| **H5.1 (c):** Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between satisfaction and tourist attitudes to local food | Attitude to local food→Satisfaction | Object-related authenticity | 0.004 | -0.039 | 0.052 | 0.833 | Reject |
| **H5.2 (a):** Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between destination choice and tourist attitudes to local food | Attitude to local food→destination choice | Existential authenticity | 0.618 | 0.547 | 0.697 | 0.001 | Accept |

| H5.2 (b): Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between travel motivation and tourist attitudes to local food | Attitude to local food→Travel motivation | Existential authenticity | 0.817 | 0.711 | 0.930 | 0.001 | Accept |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H5.2 (c): Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between satisfaction and tourist attitudes to local food | Attitude to local food→ Satisfaction | Existential authenticity | 0.386 | 0.302 | 0.478 | 0.001 | Accept |

A description of the results of each hypothesis test in relation to each latent variable is now outlined. While a comprehensive discussion of the results of the hypotheses tests is presented in Chapter 5.

## 4.4 Research findings for direct hypotheses tests

Hypothesis 1 suggested that tourist attitudes towards local food positively influenced destination choice. This hypothesis was accepted as the relationship was statistically significant (p =< 0.001) and the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesised path ($\beta$ = 0.136).

In Hypothesis 2 a positive relationship was expected between tourist attitudes towards local food and travel motivation. This hypothesis was rejected as the relationship was not statistically significant (p = < 0.100) and the directionality of the relationship was not consistent with the hypothesised path ($\beta$ = -0.89). Therefore, the data does not support Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 proposed a positive relationship between tourist attitudes towards local food and overall satisfaction with a holiday. This hypothesis was statistically significant (p = < 0.001) and the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesised path ($\beta$ = 0.320). Consequently, Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

A positive relationship between tourist attitudes towards local food and authenticity was postulated in Hypothesis 4. This hypothesised relationship was tested from two perspectives; object-related and existential authenticity. Hypotheses 4 (a) suggested that there is a positive relationship between tourists attitude towards local food and existential authenticity. As evident in Table 4.3 this relationship was statistically significant ($p = < 0.001$). Additionally, the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesised relationship ($\beta = 0.542$). Thus Hypothesis 4 (a) was accepted.

In Hypothesis 4 (b) a positive relationship between tourist attitudes towards local food and existential authenticity was proposed. This suggested relationship was directionality consistent with the hypothesised relationship ($\beta = 0.629$) and statistically significant ($p = < 0.001$). Consequently, Hypothesis 4 (b) was accepted.

## 4.5 Research findings for mediation hypotheses

Hypothesis 5.1 (a) suggested that object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist attitudes towards local food and destination choice. As is evident in Table 4.4, even though the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesised path ($\beta = 0.025$) the result was statistically insignificant ($p = 0.341$). Thus, Hypothesis 5a was rejected.

In Hypothesis 5.1 (b) it was postulated that the relationship between tourist attitudes towards local food and travel motivation is mediated by object-related authenticity. This hypothesis was accepted as the relationship was statistically significant ($p = < 0.001$) and the directionality of the path was consistent with the hypothesised relationship ($\beta = 0.168$).

It was suggested in Hypothesis 5.1 (c) that object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist's attitude towards local food and satisfaction. This hypothesis was rejected, even though the directionality of the hypothesised path was consistent ($\beta = 0.004$), the relationship was statistically insignificant ($p = 0.833$). Therefore, the data does not support Hypothesis 5.1 (c).

Hypothesis 5.2 (a) suggested that existential authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist attitude towards local food and destination choice. This hypothesis was

accepted as the relationship was statistically significant ($p = < 0.001$) and the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesised relationship ($\beta = 0.618$).

It was proposed in Hypothesis 5.2 (b) that existential authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist's attitude towards local food and travel motivation. This hypothesis was statistically significant ($p = < 0.001$) and the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesised relationship ($\beta = 0.817$). Consequently, Hypothesis 5.2 (b) was accepted. Results show that both object-related and existential authenticity mediate travel motivation. However, as evident from Table 4.7, existential authenticity has a greater influence on the relationship between tourist attitudes towards local food travel motivation. The implications of this finding will be further discussed in Chapter 5.

It was suggested that object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between tourist's attitude towards local food and satisfaction in Hypotheses 5.2 (c). This hypothesis was statistically significant ($p = < 0.001$) and the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesised relationship ($\beta = 0.386$). Consequently, Hypothesis 5.2 (c) was accepted.

## 4.6 Refinement of the conceptual framework

In light of the key findings from this study, as discussed in section 4.5 it is necessary to make modifications to the proposed conceptual framework as presented in Figure 4.4, was revised accordingly. The new framework is presented in Figure 4.5., which follows.
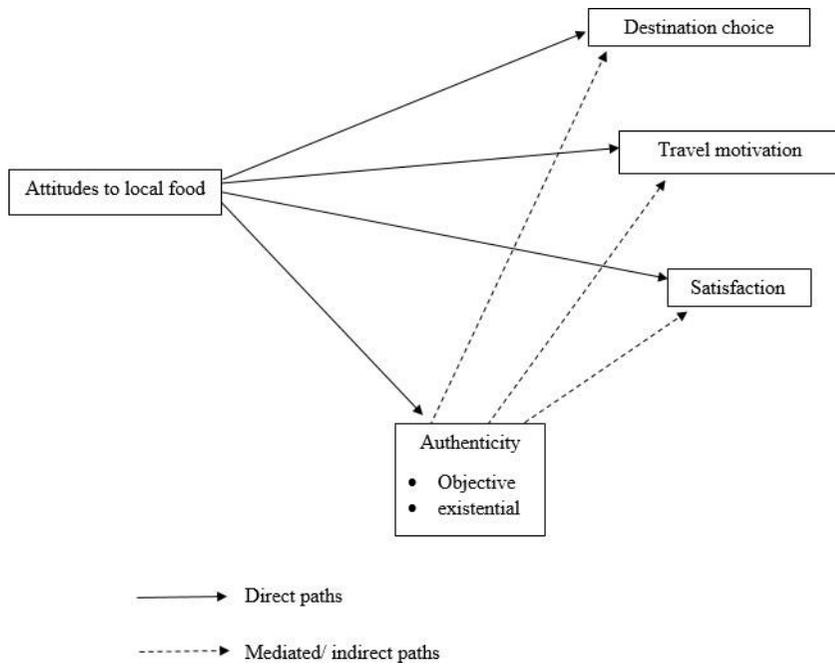
Figure 4.4: A conceptual framework showing the influence of attitudes to local food on tourist behaviour proposed by the researcher
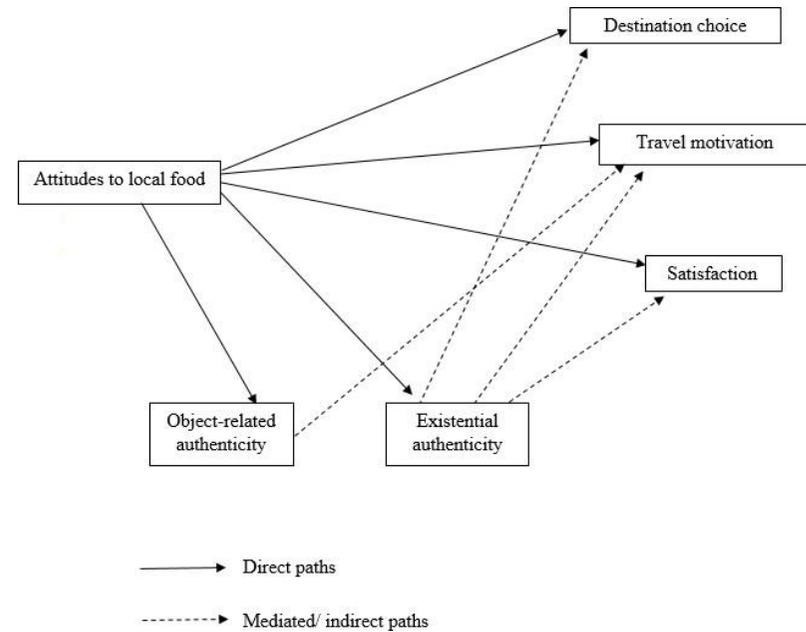
Figure 4.5: Refined framework showing the influence of attitudes to local food on tourist behaviour developed by the researcher

## 4.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented the key findings obtained in this research. The chapter was divided into three main sections; namely, descriptive statistics analysis, hypotheses testing, and an overview of the results obtained. SPSS was utilised to describe the respondent profiles relating to demographics, travel behaviour, perceptions of local food and attitudes towards local food. Subsequently, each hypothesis was tested using CFA and SEM analysis.

Overall, the results supported the idea that attitudes towards local food have a positive influence on destination choice, satisfaction and perceptions of object-related and existential authenticity. On the other hand, the findings conclude that attitudes towards local food have no influence on travel motivation. Further, central to the objective of this study was an examination of the mediating effects of authenticity on the hypothesised relationships. The results indicated that existential authenticity is found to mediate the relationship of attitudes towards local food with destination choice, travel motivation and satisfaction. Whereas, object-related authenticity did not mediate the relationships of attitudes towards local food with destination choice, or satisfaction. Nevertheless, object-related authenticity has a marginal effect on travel motivation.

Therefore, destination choice and satisfaction are influenced by attitudes towards local food. Additionally, positive attitudes towards local food increase the perception of it as an authentic experience. Furthermore, existential authenticity has a significant positive effect on the relationships between attitudes towards local food with destination choice, travel motivation and satisfaction. In light of the findings, the conceptual framework used for this study was revised accordingly.

The findings form this study are discussed in the following chapter, and the implications emanating from them are also addressed.

# Chapter 5 Discussion

## 5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an interpretation of the findings. The chapter begins with a discussion on respondents' perceptions of local food. The chapter then progresses with an examination of each individual research question. Subsequently, a discussion of the overall research objective is presented.

This study has one objective:

- To investigate if attitudes to local food and authenticity influence tourist behaviour

To investigate this research objective, five relevant sub-questions were posed. A corresponding hypothesis was then assigned to each sub-question. The findings from each of these research questions were presented throughout Chapter 4 and the results are illustrated in Table 5.1 which follows.

| Table 5.1 Research questions, hypotheses and results | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Research Questions** | **Hypotheses** | **Result** |
| **Q1**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence destination choice? | **H1**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence destination choice | Accept |
| **Q2**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence travel motivation? | **H2**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence travel motivation | Reject |
| **Q3**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence holiday satisfaction? | **H3**: Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence holiday satisfaction | Accept |
| **Q4**: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence the perception of authenticity? | **H4:** Tourist attitudes to local food positively influence the perception of:<br><br>(a) object-related authenticity<br>(b) existential authenticity | <br><br><br>Accept<br>Accept |
| **Q5**: Can authenticity influence the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction? | **H5.1:** Object-related authenticity mediates the relationship between:<br><br><br>(a) destination choice<br>(b) travel motivation<br>(c) satisfaction | <br><br><br><br>Reject<br>Accept<br>Reject |

| | H5.2: Existential authenticity mediates the relationship between: | |
| --- | --- | --- |
| | (a) destination choice | Accept |
| | (b) travel motivation | Accept |
| | (c) satisfaction | Accept |

Before the findings of each research question are discussed, tourist perceptions of local food are examined.

## 5.2 Perceptions of local food

In order to gauge respondents' understanding of local food and thus provide context for the research, it was essential to understand what respondents perceived as 'local food'. The findings of this question, as presented in Figure 5.1, show that there is no accepted single opinion of local food. In accordance with the present results, previous studies have also demonstrated that there is no universally accepted definition of local food (Martinez, 2010, Morris and Buller, 2003; Pearson et al., 2011).

| Table 5.2: Perceptions of local food | | |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Local food is…? | Number of cases | Valid% |
| Food produced within the country I live | 52 | 14.1 |
| Food produced within the province I live | 77 | 20.9 |
| Food produced within the county I live | 64 | 17.4 |
| Food produced or grown by local people | 98 | 26.6 |
| Food from small producers that is not mass produced | 77 | 20.9 |

However, the findings of this study show that the link between local and place is strong (Sims 2009). Consistent with previous research (Coelho et al., 2018; Dunne and Wright, 2017; Hingley et al., 2010; Martinez, 2010; Pearson et al., 2011), 52.4% of respondents define local food as products grown or produced within their own region. This suggests that over half of the respondents identify local food as that which originates within certain political or geographical boundaries (Aprille et al., 2017). Specifically, respondents perceive the county (17.4%), province (20.9%) and to a lesser degree country (14.1%) as definitions of being local.

However, political or geographical boundaries are not able to fully capture definitions of local food. In fact, 47.5% of respondents consider local foods as products grown or produced by local people and not mass-produced. This suggests that the concept of local food also extends to producers (Martinez et al., 2010).

Having considered the research findings in light of the literature, this study concludes that such different interpretations of the term 'local food' might present a challenge for those wishing to use local food as part of a tourism offering. Additionally, not comprehending the term could lead to its potential misuse of food products. Therefore, it is imperative that food producers and local food markets ensure that all claims regarding the provenance of food products must be true and genuine. Should labelling not be honest, there is a risk that consumers will lose confidence in a brand. Therefore, by fully understanding what local food means, producers and marketers can ensure the integrity of their product and ensure the consumer can trust their brand.

Having established what respondents perceived as local food, the chapter will now progress to discuss the findings and implications of each research question.

## 5.3 Discussion of research questions

### 5.3.1 Research question 1: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence destination choice?

The purpose of the first research question was to establish if tourist attitudes to local food influence destination choice. To gather evidence aimed at answering this research question, its corresponding hypothesis (Table 5.1) was examined using the multivariate statistical technique of SEM. In this research, statistical significance was judged by a p-value of less than 0.05 (Hair et al., 2006). Additionally, the directionality of the relationship established in the SEM had to be consistent with the directionality originally assumed in the hypotheses (Hair et al., 2006). The data supported the hypothesis (p =< 0.001; β=0.136), implying that there is a significant and positive relationship between attitudes to local food and destination choice.

This significant 'attitudes to local food – destination choice' relationship reasons that local food functions as a destination trigger. As such tourists may choose a particular destination due to the local food it serves and for the anticipated food experiences it

provides. According to the findings of this research, it can be inferred that local food can no longer be viewed as just a supporting resource or as an extension of a tourist's daily routine. Rather, local food is a destination attraction in its own right. Hence, it could be argued that local food and various food-related experiences are critical factors in enticing tourists to a destination. Consequently, it can be inferred that local food can represent a 'pull factor' motivating tourists to travel to specific destinations.

The emergence of local food as a determinant of destination choice confirms the proposition put forward by Bessiere (1998), Cohen and Avieli, (2004), Hall and Mitchell (2001), Hall and Sharples (2003), that an interest in food can act as an antecedent which influences destination choice. For example, Kivela and Crotts, (2006), found that food has an increasingly decisive role in the way tourists select a destination. Although their findings were based on an analysis of respondents' perceptions about their dining-out experiences in Hong Kong. However, only a few studies have examined the role of attitudes to local food as a determinant of destination choice. For example, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2014, 2017) carried out two quantitative surveys among attendees of a travel fair in Finland. Results show that those with an interest in local food used it as a determining factor in their destination choice. As such, findings from this research corroborate Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen's studies and therefore adds to existing research examining local food and destination choice.

The result of this research question has important implications for destination marketing and place development. Firstly, if destination choice is centred on attitudes to local food then destinations and marketing campaigns, must focus on the local food available, rather than food in general. Secondly, local food offers a means for destinations to develop unique, region-specific food products or experiences. For example, if a destination produces or grows a unique food it should be used at the heart of a tourism campaign. Countries such as Italy, Spain, China and Peru have built successful reputations as food destinations by integrating local food into tourism marketing campaigns.

A further implication of this finding is that local food offerings at a destination must be promoted during the pre-stage of travel. Before making any decisions, tourists must search for information about potential destinations. Positive attitudes toward local food can influence tourist destination search behaviour (Ryu and Han, 2010). Thus, tourists who are more interested in local food will spend more time considering different holiday

destinations. Additionally, prior research suggests that tourists with high levels of interest in food plan their food-related activities early. These activities are then used to determine destination choice (Havitz and Dimanche, 1999). Therefore, by acknowledging the importance of researching information before a holiday, destination marketers can strategically target tourists interested in local food. Consequently, promoting the distinctive local food offerings of a destination in brochures, websites and social media (Okumuş et al., 2007) can increase the attractiveness of a region and may persuade tourists to choose one destination over another. Subsequently, marketing destinations through local food can also bring a range of benefits for a region through complementary activities, such as local agriculture, food processing and retailing.

In summary, this research adds to and expands on existing food tourism literature by recognising that local food, rather than food in general, represents a 'pull factor' attracting tourists to specific destinations. Therefore, it can be concluded that tourist attitudes to local food are an essential factor in destination choice.


### 5.3.2 Research question 2: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence travel motivation?

The second research question determined if tourist attitudes to local food influence travel motivation. Informed by the literature, a corresponding hypothesis (Table 5.1) was developed. This hypothesis proposed a positive significant relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation. This hypothesis was tested using SEM analysis, with statistical significance judged by a p-value $= < 0.05$. Results from this study indicate that the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation is not significant. Thus, the findings suggest that attitudes to local food have no influence on travel motivation.

Contrary to expectations, this study did not find the 'attitudes to local food – travel motivation' relationship to be significant. Therefore, the finding from this research question infers that interest in local food does not motivate travel. This finding conflicts with previous studies which have suggested that positive attitudes towards local food can provoke travel motivation. For instance, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2014) quantitatively investigated the influence of attitudes on local food on destination choice among attendees of a travel fair in Finland. However, the study had a relatively low

number of participants, n=158 and as such was not suitable for certain statistical tests such as SEM. A further study carried out by Kim et al., (2009), investigated a range of motivations, including local food, which influence travel motivation. This was a purely qualitative study with twenty respondents conducted in the United Kingdom. It was found that local food was one motivational factor which influenced destination choice.

One possible reason for this unexpected finding may be that motivation is recognised as a multi-faceted construct consisting of physiological and complex psychological factors and behaviours (Mak, et al., 2012). As such, the concept of motivation is difficult to define. Travel motivations surface when a tourist wants to satisfy a need or want which cannot be met at home. Therefore, it can be assumed that individuals travel for different reasons, often based on a combination of motives. Tourists may be encouraged to travel for a myriad of reasons such as excitement, escape relaxation, cultural experience, prestige, socialisation, family togetherness or for knowledge and learning (Su et al., 2018).

For destination marketers, the findings highlight the need to stress the added value provided by local food to prompt prospective tourists to travel. While local food may not be the main travel motivator, it can nevertheless be an enjoyable experience (Henderson, 2009) and represent a significant part of a holiday (Quan and Wang, 2004; Xiao and Smith, 2008). Indeed, local food has the potential to satisfy a range of travel motivations. First, tasting novel or exotic food only seen in travel brochures or on television can provide an exciting experience. Secondly, local food can be a cultural motivator as tourists experiencing new local food are simultaneously experiencing a new culture. Third, local food can function as a social motivator, as meals taken together can strengthen social bonds and further offer tourists a means to relax. Finally, local delicacies can also represent status or a prestige motivator, as tourists learn about and build their knowledge of foods their friends are not likely to encounter. As such destination marketers should create food tourism campaigns focusing on the different travel motivations food can provide. For example, destination marketers could offer opportunities related to local food such as taking traditional cooking classes or visiting local food producers to satisfy tourist desire to learn about different cultures. Additionally, marketers should emphasise that local food markets and festivals offer tourists the opportunity to interact with people who have similar interests in local food.

In summary, contrary to expectations, this study did not find a significant relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation. This finding is contrary to previous studies which have suggested that positive attitudes towards local food can influence travel motivation (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; Kim, et al., 2009). The results do not support Hypothesis 2 and find that tourist attitudes to local food, in of itself, do not influence travel motivation.

### 5.3.3 Research question 3: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence holiday satisfaction?

The purpose of the third research question was to establish if tourist attitudes to local food influence satisfaction. A corresponding hypothesis was developed which proposed a positive significant relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and satisfaction. Similar to the previous, this hypothesis was tested using SEM analysis, with statistical significance judged by a p-value = $< 0.05$. Results from this study indicate that the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and holiday satisfaction was significant (p = $< 0.001$) and the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesis (β=0.320). Thus, the finding suggests that tourist attitudes toward local food can influence overall holiday satisfaction.

This significant 'attitudes to local food – satisfaction' relationship shows that for tourists with a positive interest in local food, their local food experiences are an important contributor to overall holiday satisfaction. As already mentioned, satisfaction is based on an evaluation which meets or exceeds a preconceived expectation (Oliver, 1980). Therefore, it could be argued that local food must meet the expectations of the tourist to guarantee a satisfactory holiday experience. Equally, it can be inferred that bad local food experiences have the potential to induce levels of holiday dissatisfaction. This indicates that local food has the capacity to provide tourists with some of the highest and lowest points of their overall holiday experience. Based on these findings, local food can take a number of guises.

The emergence of local food as an important source of enjoyment during a holiday confirms the proposition put forward by Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017), López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares (2012), Henderson (2009), Kivela and Crotts (2006) and López-Guzmán and Sánchesz-Canizares (2012), that local food can have a positive effect

on overall holiday satisfaction. Prior research has also demonstrated that customer satisfaction significantly influences future tourist behaviour such as revisit intention and positive WOM (Oliver and Burke, 1999; Jones et al., 2006).

Previous studies have demonstrated that attitudes to food, rather than local food, can be a predictor of customers' satisfaction (Bell and Marshall, 2003). For instance, studies have identified that food neophobia was negatively associated with tourist satisfaction, revisit intention and positive WOM (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Kim et al., 2010). Narrowing the focus to local food, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017), concluded that consumers' attitudes to local food can affect travel satisfaction and overall holiday experience. The finding from this research question further supports the idea of Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2017) and shows that attitudes to local food are an important contributor to holiday satisfaction.

The result of this research question has important implications for local food providers in the tourist market. Previous research shows that satisfied tourists can represent an advantage in a highly competitive tourist market. Highly satisfied tourists demonstrate revisit intention and spread positive word of mouth. Increasingly, tourists interested in local food are sharing their experiences on social media platforms, such as TripAdvisor, Twitter, Facebook, Snapchat and Instagram. As a result, web-based technologies have created numerous opportunities for electronic WOM (eWOM) communication, where tourists can share both positive and negative local food experiences.

In summary, this study determined that tourist attitudes to local food can impact on holiday satisfaction. This finding confirms the work of other studies in this area linking attitudes to local food with tourist satisfaction (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017).


### 5.3.4 Research question 4: Do tourist attitudes to local food influence perceived authenticity?

The purpose of the fourth research question was to establish if tourist attitudes to local food influence opinions of authenticity. From the literature it was clear that authenticity is examined from two perspectives; object-related and existential authenticity. Therefore, to find the answer to this research question, authenticity was investigated from each of these viewpoints. Similarly, to the preceding research questions, the hypotheses were

examined using the multivariate statistical techniques of SEM. Statistical significance was judged by a p-value $= < 0.05$.

*(a) Object-related authenticity*

The first part of research question 4 examined the influence of tourist attitudes to local food on perceived object-related authenticity. The results suggested that the relationship between attitudes to local food and object-related authenticity was significant ($p = < 0.001$). Additionally, the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.542$). Thus, findings suggest that tourists with a positive interest in local food understand that local food can provide an object-related authentic experience.

This significant 'attitudes to local food – object-related authenticity' relationship infers that tourists with a positive interest in local food, understand it to be traditional and typical of a place.

There is a dearth of research focusing on food tourism in relation to object-related authenticity. However, previous research has investigated how consumers perceive object-related authenticity when buying food. For example, one study found that information about the producer and origin of the food product increased the perception of object-related authenticity in the eyes of the consumer (Sidali and Hemmerling, 2014). Thence the finding from this research question addresses the gap in the research and contributes to a better understanding of how tourists perceive the object-related authenticity of local food.

The result of this research question will help destination marketers understand that local food can represent an object-related authentic experience. Hence to appeal to tourists, the object-related authenticity aspects of local food must be promoted. For example, including a product's tradition or link to a place can increasingly enhance its object-related authenticity. Equally, stating the year the company commenced or when a product was first produced can also be an effective way to increase its object-related authenticity in the eyes of the tourist. For the tourist, the origin of the food is another important attribute when authenticating local food. Therefore, it is important that local foods are linked to physical places. This can be achieved by using traceability systems (e.g. Bord Bia quality assurance schemes) or with certification of origin initiatives (e.g. Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) labels).

*(a) Existential authenticity*

The second part of research question 4 examined the influence of tourist attitudes to local food on perceived existential authenticity. The results suggested that the relationship between attitudes to local food and existential authenticity was significant ($p = < 0.001$). Furthermore, the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesis ($\beta=0.629$). Therefore, it can be inferred that tourists with a positive attitude to local food understand that local food provides an existential authentic experience.

This significant 'attitudes to local food – existential authenticity' relationship suggests that tourists interested in local food understand how it contributes to the experience of existential authenticity. As already mentioned, existential authenticity is different from object-related authenticity in three principal ways. Firstly, existential authenticity is activity-related. Secondly, existential authenticity relates to identity formation. Finally, existential authenticity provides an opportunity to experience a meaningful connection to the world. The finding from this research question reasons that tourists with positive interests in local food, see its significance and "are also consuming the meaning behind it" (Sims, 2009, p. 333). Therefore, by consuming local food tourists are actively taking part in an existential authentic experience. In this sense, if eating food on holiday is turned into a tourist activity, rather than merely being regarded as an object, the food constitutes a form of existential authenticity.

An examination of the literature revealed that there is a paucity of quantitative research regarding how local food is perceived as an existential authentic experience. However, various qualitative studies have conducted research focusing on the links between food events, existential authenticity and culture. For instance, one study using a case study approach, discovered food events offering food and beverage services which are both culturally or geographically distinct maximises tourist perception of existential authenticity (Robinson and Clifford, 2007). There are similarities between the findings expressed by Robinson and Clifford (2007) and those described in this study.

The result of this research question will help destination marketers understand that local food can represent an existential authentic experience and an opportunity to actively take part in the culture and heritage of a place. Hence to appeal to tourists, the existential authenticity aspects of local food must be promoted. For instance,

destinations could promote the traditions and customs relating to local food, which in turn will enhance the interest of existential authenticity among tourists. Local food offerings could be linked with activities available at the destination and used to enhance the experiential aspect of the dining experience. Tourism offerings need to be developed to appeal to the existential authenticity that tourists are looking for. For example, Wild Atlantic Irish Seaweed in Kerry has developed a tourist experience centred on seaweed tastings and workshops. The experience gives tourists the opportunity to forage, gather, taste and cook with local seaweed. Thus, appealing to those who want to actively take part in the food experience.

In summary, the findings support Hypothesis 4 (a) and Hypothesis 4 (b) and conclude that tourist attitudes to local food can influence the perceived object-related and existential authenticity of the experience. Understanding, what tourists perceive or evaluate as authentic can enhance the tourist experience and as such, must be considered when developing destination marketing strategies. As such the authenticity of the local food must be interpreted not only through the food product but also in an appealing way, where the tourist has the opportunity to become actively involved in the local food experience.

### 5.3.5 Research question 5: Can authenticity influence the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction?

Research question 5 examined the influence of authenticity on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction. Authenticity was examined form two points of view; object-related and existential, therefore two corresponding mediation hypotheses were created. In mediation, an intermediate variable is considered which helps explain how or why an independent variable influences an outcome. In this research question, object-related and existential authenticity were introduced as mediators to provide a deeper understanding of the causal relationship between variables. Each hypothesis was tested using 2000 bias-corrected bootstrapping resampling in SPSS AMOS and the Specific Indirect Effects plugin developed by Gaskin (2018). Statistical significance judged by a p-value = < 0.05.

The subsequent section will discuss the effect of object-related authenticity on each of the three relationships

**Hypothesis 5.1: Can object-related authenticity influence the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice, (b) travel motivation and (c) satisfaction?**

*(a) Object-related authenticity and its influence on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice*

Hypothesis 5.1 (a) examined the mediated effect of object-related authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and destination choice. The mediation results showed that the directionality of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesis ($\beta$ = 0. 0.025). However, the value of p = 0.341, and therefore mediation was not significant. Previously, Hypothesis 1 found that tourist attitudes to local food had an influence on destination choice. However, the finding from this hypothesis shows that the relationship between the two is not significant when mediated by object-related authenticity. Hence, the findings imply that the causal relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice is not influenced by object-related authenticity.

An examination of the literature revealed that there is a lack of research investigating the influence of object-related authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and destination choice. However, various studies have investigated the influence of food activities on destination choice (Andersson and Mossberg 2004, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; Pesonen et al., 2011). For instance, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2016), concluded that tourists may be drawn to a particular region to dining at restaurants which have been awarded Michelin stars, such as The Cliff House in Dungarvan. Additionally, their study found that tourists may choose a destination based on the social aspects derived from sharing food, for example, meze in Lebanon or tapas in Spain. However, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen's (2016) concluded that traditional local dishes such as sachertorte or moussaka do not attract tourists to visit a particular site. As already noted, object-related authenticity is linked to traditional products typical of a place. Therefore, it could be contended that object-related authentic local food has no influence on destination choice. As such the results from this research are in line with Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2016, p. 10) and find those interested in local food are "lured by authenticity and participation" rather than the food itself.

Taking the above point into consideration, it would appear that tourists are selecting destinations based on the potential food experiences available and not because of the unique and traditional food offered. However, Hypothesis 4 found that tourists interested in local food understand the object-related authenticity of the local food experience. Thence it could be argued that the object-related authenticity of local food is important to this segment of tourist. As such destinations and destination marketers should still emphasise the role local food plays in tourism campaigns. For instance, campaigns could identify local restaurants, cafes or hotels who serve local food. Additionally, images of local farmers markets could strategically be used to further highlight local and traditional foods. Such promotion would help make explicit the object-related authentic value of the local food product.

*(b) Object-related authenticity and its influence on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation*

Next, the mediated effect of object-related authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation was examined. The findings suggest that object-related authenticity has a relatively low ($\beta$ = 0.168) yet still significant (p =0.001) effect on the 'attitudes to local food - travel motivation' relationship. This shows that for tourists with a propensity for local food, object-related authenticity can motivate travel.

Previously, Hypothesis 2 found that tourist attitudes to local food had no direct influence on travel motivation. However, the finding from this hypothesis shows that the relationship between the two is significant when mediated by object-related authenticity. Hence, the causal relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation becomes significant when mediated by object-related authenticity. The result from this research question shows that if destinations wish to motivate those interested in local food to travel, object-related authenticity must be considered in tourism campaigns and in destination promotion.

There is a lack of research investigating the influence of object-related authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation. Yet, studies have investigated the link between authenticity and travel motivation among food tourists. Previous studies have found that local food can appeal to tourists looking for an authentic

experience (Chhabra, 2010; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Okumuş et al., 2007; Taylor, 2001). However, these studies only broadly investigate authenticity and do not examine its various concepts. Therefore, this study aimed to address this gap, by examining the role of object-related authenticity.

This result has important implications for destination marketers as it shows the importance of object-related authenticity on tourist travel motivation. Object-related authenticity encapsulates the traditions and people of a place. As such, local food can augment the object-related authenticity of a destination. The result from this question shows that the object-related authenticity of local food represents a 'push factor' encouraging tourists to travel. Therefore, if destinations want to inspire tourists to travel, the object-related aspect of local food must be central in all tourism promotion. Consequently, marketing campaigns must highlight the tradition, culture and uniqueness of local food products available. This, in turn, will increase the competitiveness of the destination.

*(c) Object-related authenticity and its influence on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and satisfaction*

Finally, Hypothesis 5.1 (c) analysed the mediated effect of object-related authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and satisfaction. The results from mediation analysis illustrated that the direction of the relationship was consistent with the hypothesis ($\beta = 0.004$), however, the effect was not significant ($p = 0.833$). Thus, the findings imply that object-related authenticity has no indirect effect on the relationship between 'tourist attitudes to local food and satisfaction'. Earlier, Hypothesis 3 found that tourist attitudes to local food has an influence on satisfaction. However, the finding from this hypothesis shows that the relationship between the two is not significant when mediated by object-related authenticity.

As already mentioned there is a lack of research which examines object-related authenticity and its influence on satisfaction among tourists interested in local food. However, previous studies have found a link between authentic food and tourist satisfaction (Henderson, 2009; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; López-Guzmán and Sánchesz-Canizares, 2012). For example, one study found that tourist perception of authenticity with food determined a memorable experience (Sthapit, 2017). However, this study only

investigated authenticity on a general level and did not look at the varying levels of the concept. As such, the results of this research question contribute to the existing literature by examining the role of object-related authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and holiday satisfaction.

As theorised, satisfaction in a tourism setting refers to the extent to which a destination fulfils tourist perceptions and expectations. Previous studies have shown that tourist satisfaction with food is a multidimensional concept dependent on a number of different factors (Correia et al., 2008) such as quality of the local food, the service provided and the dining environment. Therefore, it could be argued that for tourists interested in local food the presentation, service and quality of local food are also important and can contribute to the overall experience of the holiday. Thus, restaurants, local shops or markets must focus on delivering genuine, quality local food in addition to a premium service.

Taking the above points into consideration, destinations need to take a holistic approach to ensure tourists object-related authentic local food experiences contribute to their overall holiday satisfaction. Research shows that one way to provide a satisfactory food experience is to adopt a collaborate approach (Ottenbacher and Harrington; 2011). Such an approach could also be followed to ensure tourists have a satisfactory object-related local food experience. For example, tourism authorities and destination managers should collectively cooperate in the enduring protection and preservation of traditional food and preparation methods. By adopting an integrated approach, destinations can develop tourism initiatives such as local food trails or food festivals. In this way, destinations can use unique local food products to build a brand which could be used to distinguish the region from its competitors. For instance, Taste Kerry, Boyne Valley Foods and The Wexford Food Family, have developed food trails which promote local food, producers, local food retailers and restaurants which serve local food. Furthermore, local food festivals could be established featuring a certain type of unique local food. Events such as The Strawberry Fair, in Wexford or The Clarinbridge Oyster Festival in Galway, enable tourists to learn about the significance of local food and how it connects to people and a place.

Improving tourist satisfaction also has the added benefits of positive WOM and revisit intention. Literature shows that satisfied tourists are more inclined to purchase souvenirs

as a reminder of an enjoyable holiday (Wolf, 2018). Local food products are particularly important as souvenirs because they are relatively cheap and easy to carry. There is considerable potential for tourism regions to develop this local food souvenir market and shows that there are market opportunities for local food products that can satisfy the visitor's desire for object-related authentic products. Additionally, souvenirs also help extend the holiday experience.

In summary, the findings for Hypothesis 5.1 did not provide support for Hypothesis 5.1 (a) or Hypothesis 5.1 (c). Therefore, the findings imply that object-related authenticity has no effect on the relationships between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice. However, the findings do support Hypothesis 5.1 (b). Thus object-related authenticity influences the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation.

The next section examines the effect of existential authenticity on each of the three relationships.

**Hypothesis 5.2: The influence of existential authenticity on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and (a) destination choice (b) travel motivation (c) satisfaction**

*(a) Existential authenticity and its influence on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice*

Hypothesis 5.2 (a) examined the mediated effect of existential authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and destination choice. The mediation results suggested that existential authenticity has statistically significant (p =0.001; $\beta$ = 0.618)) influence on this relationship. Thus, the findings advocate that existential authenticity has an indirect effect on the 'attitudes to local food - destination choice' relationship. Previously, Hypothesis 1 found that tourist attitudes to local food has an influence on destination choice. The finding from this hypothesis shows that the relationship between the two is significant when mediated by existential authenticity. Hence, the findings imply that the causal relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice is influenced by existential authenticity.

The result of this research question suggests that tourists with a high interest in local food are influenced to choose a destination because of the availability of existential authentic experiences. As such these tourists are selecting destinations based on the cultural or activity-related aspects that local food offers. Additionally, the result of this research question confirms the importance of existential authenticity in local food tourism. Thus, the finding also provides further support for Hypothesis 4(b) which showed that tourists with a positive interest in local food understand local food offers an existential authentic experience. This finding also highlights the importance of existential authenticity on tourist decision choice. As already noted, local food tourism provides the tourist with an opportunity to learn about different cultures and to gain knowledge of the behaviours and customs of a region. However, more importantly, it provides an opportunity to actively participate in a region's culture through tasting, experiencing and purchasing.

There is a lack of research investigating the influence of existential authenticity on the relationship between attitude to local food and destination choice. However, previous studies have investigated the role of food experiences on destination choice (Andersson and Mossberg 2004, Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2017; Pesonen et al., 2011). For instance, one study found that people interested in local food select destinations based on the authentic food experiences available (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017). As already noted, existential authenticity is where a tourist learns about a regions culture, heritage and traditions by actively engaging in an experience (Wang, 1999). As such by taking part in food experiences the tourist is actively engaging in existential authenticity. However, rather than take a broad approach to authenticity, this research investigated the influence of existential authenticity. Therefore, this research adds to the existing research by asserting that existential authenticity has an effect on the relationship between attitudes to local food and destination choice.

The result of this research question has important implications for destinations and destination marketers. Potential food tourists are influenced to choose a destination not only to consume the local food, but they also want to actively take part in local food experiences. Therefore, to entice tourists to a destination, there is a need to promote the experiential value of local food. For instance, tourism campaigns could highlight the various local food experiences offered at a destination. Using videos or images showing

local food producers and traditional culinary methods could help communicate the story of the local food and its significance to the traditions, culture and heritage of a place. In turn, this will encourage those tourists who are interested in the existential authentic food experience to select one destination over another.

*(b) Existential authenticity and its influence on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation*

Hypothesis 5.2 (b) examined the mediated effect of existential authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation. The mediation results suggest that existential authenticity has a substantial ($\beta$ = 0.817) and statistically significant (p = 0.001) influence on this relationship. Hence, it can be implied that existential authenticity has a direct effect on the 'attitudes to local food – travel motivation' relationship. Previously, Hypothesis 2 found that tourist attitudes to local food has no influence on travel motivation. However, the finding from this research question shows that the relationship between the two is significant when mediated by existential authenticity. Hence, it can be implied that the causal relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation is influenced by existential authenticity. Comparable to Hypothesis 5.2 (a), this finding shows the importance of existential authenticity in the travel behaviour of tourists with an interest in local food. Thus, the finding also provides further support for Hypothesis 4 (b) which showed that tourists with an interest in local food understand it as an existential authentic experience.

The result of hypothesis 5.1 (b) also showed that object-related authenticity influences the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation. However, the statistical differences for the answer to this research question revealed that existential authenticity has a greater overall effect on travel motivation. Consequently, while object-related authenticity can influence travel motivation for tourists interested in local food, existential authenticity has a greater influence.

In reviewing the literature, there was a lack of research found on the influence of existential authenticity on the relationship between attitude to local food and travel motivation. However, as already mentioned, previous studies have suggested that tourists who are interested in local food are in fact are looking for authentic experiences (Björk

and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017; Pesonen et al., 2011; Sims, 2009). Therefore, it can be suggested that those interested in local food are inspired to travel to take part in authentic food experiences. However, this research took a more focused approach by investigating existential authenticity. The result found that existential authenticity can influence the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation. Therefore, this research makes a valuable contribution and adds to the existing literature

The finding from this research question has important implications for destinations and destination managers. Existential authenticity is where the tourist forms an understanding of authenticity based on their beliefs, expectations or previous experiences and is often an activity-based approach. As such, local food augments the existential authenticity of a destination. As already noted, attitudes to local food can influence travel motivation. However, this research question shows that those interested in local food are more likely to travel if existential authentic food experiences are available. In this way, existential authentic experiences can become a 'push factor' encouraging tourists to travel. These tourists want to actively participate in the local food experience. Consequently, promotional strategies should include detailed descriptions of the unique local food experiences available. Additionally, testimonials, including photographs, videos and stories, showing tourists engaged in local food experiences should also be used. In this way, destinations can entice those tourists interested in local food and seeking an existential authentic experience to travel.


*(c) Existential authenticity and its influence on the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and satisfaction*

Hypothesis 5.2 (c) examined the mediated effect of existential authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and satisfaction. The mediation results suggested that existential authenticity has a moderate ($\beta$ = 0.386) and statistically significant (p =0.001) impact on this relationship. Previously, Hypothesis 3 found that tourist attitudes to local food has an influence on holiday satisfaction. The finding from this research question shows that the relationship between the two is significant when mediated by existential authenticity. Hence, the findings imply that the causal relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and satisfaction is influenced by existential authenticity. Like Hypothesis 5.2 (a) and 5.2 (b), this finding demonstrates the importance

of existential authenticity in the travel behaviour of tourists interested in local food. Thus, the finding also provides further support for Hypothesis 4 (b) which showed that tourists with an interest in local food understand the existential authentic value of local food.

On reviewing the literature there was a dearth of research investigating the influence of existential authenticity on the relationship between attitudes to local food and satisfaction. However, as previously mentioned studies show that local food is a source of enjoyment during a holiday (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2017; López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012; Henderson, 2009; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; López-Guzmán and Sánchesz-Canizares, 2012). However, previous studies have investigated the role of food experiences on tourist satisfaction. For instance, two studies found that local food experiences contribute to tourist satisfaction (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014; López-Guzmán and Sánchesz-Canizares, 2012). As previously noted, existential authenticity involves the tourist actively engaging in an experience. Thus, by being involved in local food experiences, the tourist is engaging in existential authenticity. Hence, this finding contributes to existing literature by asserting that existential authenticity influences the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and satisfaction.

The finding from this research question has important implications for the success of marketing destinations. In order to improve tourist satisfaction destinations must consider the importance of providing existential authentic local food experiences. As described earlier, existential authenticity relates to identity formation and the ability to develop a connection with the world around us. Therefore, tourists with an interest in local food are not just enjoying the taste of the food, but rather they find pleasure in consuming the meaning around it. This is particularly important for tourists who may be dissatisfied by what they perceive as the "inauthentic" nature of contemporary consumerism (Soper, 2007) or anxious about the growing industrialisation of agriculture (Boniface, 2003). As such, destinations must provide local food experiences where tourists can actively participate. This will further ensure the satisfaction of tourists. In addition, it can be intuitively assumed that if tourists are satisfied with their holiday experience, they may be willing to return to destinations and recommend them to others.

In summary, the findings support Hypotheses 5.2 (a), Hypotheses 5.2 (b) and Hypotheses 5.2 (c). Hence existential authenticity has a significant direct effect on the relationships between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation, destination choice and satisfaction. The statistical differences between the mediated effect of object-related authenticity and existential authenticity revealed that existential authenticity has a greater overall effect on travel behaviour.

## 5.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented a discussion on the findings in relation to each research question obtained in this research. The chapter was structured as follows. Firstly, discussion on respondents' perceptions of local food was offered. This was followed by a detailed discussion of the findings from the five research questions and the implications emanating from these findings was also presented. Subsequently, an overview of the key points relating to the overall research objective was presented.

The next and final chapter moves on to provide the theoretical, managerial and methodological contributions of this study. The study's limitations are also outlined and possible avenues for future research are presented.

# Chapter 6 Conclusion

## 6.1 Introduction

The final chapter of this research is structured as follows. Firstly, an overview of the study is presented. Next, the theoretical, methodological and managerial implications emanating from the findings are considered. Subsequently, the limitations of the overall study and suggestions for future research are presented, before, finally, bringing the thesis to a close.

## 6.2 Overview of study

The purpose of this research was to gain an understanding of the role of tourist attitudes to local food and travel behaviour and perceived authenticity of the local food experience. Based on an SLR a conceptual framework was constructed. The significance of tourist attitudes to local food on destination choice, travel motivation, satisfaction and perceived authenticity was tested. Subsequently, the role of authenticity on these relationships was tested.

This research identifies that tourist attitudes to local food positively influence destination choice, satisfaction and the perceived object-related and existential authenticity of the local food experience. Further, it provides evidence that object-related authenticity positively affects the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel motivation. Finally, this research finds that existential authenticity positively impacts the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice, travel motivation and satisfaction. Therefore, it can be concluded that attitudes to local food do influence travel behaviour. Specifically, attitudes to local food influence destination choice, satisfaction and the perceived authenticity of the local food experience. Further, it can be concluded that tourists interested in local food are wanting to be actively involved in the local food experience, essentially looking for an existential authentic local food experience.

## 6.3 Significance of the study

The major findings, as discussed in Section 5.1, offer important implications for theoretical, methodological, and managerial reasons, as discussed below.

### 6.3.1. Theoretical implications

The last two decades have seen exponential growth in food tourism. This, in turn, has aroused scholar's attention with issues surrounding food tourism explored. For instance, studies have focused on the meaning of food tourism, the benefit of food tourism to destination marketing (Cohen and Avieli, 2004) the motivation for trying the local food (Kivela and Crotts, 2005) and classification of food tourists (Ignatov and Smith, 2006). Nevertheless, even though attitudes are used to understand tourist motivation and behaviour (Gnoth, 1997), few studies have explored their significance and relationship to travel behaviour. This research aimed at addressing this gap. Consequently, the first theoretical contribution of this study is to provide a greater insightful understanding of how tourist attitudes to local food can influence travel behaviour.

Secondly, this study also contributes by examining the effect of object-related and existential authenticity on the relationships between tourist attitudes to local food and travel behaviour. The concept of authenticity is central to tourism studies. Despite this, few studies have looked at the role of perceptions of authenticity in local food tourism. This study addressed this research gap by specifically looking at how tourists with an interest in local food perceive it to be an object-related and existential authentic experience.

Additionally, by examining the mediating effects of object-related and existential authenticity on the relationships between tourist attitudes to local food and destination choice, travel motivation and satisfaction, this study adds to the existing body of knowledge within food tourism.

### 6.3.2 Methodological implications

This study also offers methodological contributions to the investigation of travel behaviour of tourists with an interest in local food from a quantitative research approach. Although recent years have seen a growth in food tourism research, the majority of studies have applied a qualitative approach (Everett and Aitchison, 2008; Harrington and Ottenbacher, 2010; Kim et al., 2009). Thus, this study contrasts with previous studies by using quantitative data.

The second methodological contribution of this study is the development of a framework examining the role of tourist attitudes to local food and travel behaviour. The framework also acknowledges the mediating effects of both object-related and existential authenticity. The conceptual framework has been refined based on the results of the investigation and offers a more solid foundation for subsequent research in other destination contexts.

### 6.3.3 Managerial implications

The findings of this study offer several practical suggestions for destination or stakeholders and marketers keen to develop, promote local food tourism or local food experiences.

Firstly, this research identified what is meant by the term 'local food'. As such, it was found that just over half (52.4%) of respondents base their definition around geography, while just under half (47.5%) link the term to a person who produced the food. Therefore, if a producer or marketer wishes to promote local food products, information about who produced the food and locality must be included in the promotion and in brand development.

Secondly, this research concluded that tourist attitudes to local food influences where they go on holiday. Furthermore, it was indicated that existential authenticity has a positive influence on this relationship. Therefore, tourists interested in local food are selecting destinations not only to consume local food but also to actively take part in the experience and learn about the story of the local food. These tourists want experiences where they can make a connection with a place. As such local food experiences offer destinations unique opportunities to attract tourists interested in local food. Local food festivals or events could be established centred on regional specialities and activities where tourists can be actively involved in the experience. Events such as The Connemara Mussel Festival in Co. Galway or The Kilmore Quay Seafood Festival in Co. Wexford, present unique opportunities for destinations to tell the story of local food and its significance to a place. Additionally, tourists have ample opportunity to take part in activities such as cooking, watching chef demonstrations or by joining a foraging trail.

Thirdly, this research shows the importance of promoting the experiential value of local food. In a similar vein, it was established that for tourists with an interest in local food, this interest does not influence travel motivation. However, it was found that object-related and existential authenticity positively influenced this relationship. This suggests that to encourage tourists with an interest in local food to travel, the object-related and the existential authenticity value of local food must be promoted. This finding highlights the importance of authentic experiences in local food tourism. Consequently, marketing campaigns must highlight the tradition, culture and heritage and uniqueness of local food products while also illustrating the local food experiences available. As such, tourism campaigns must highlight the various food experiences and communicate the story of the local food and its heritage to potential tourists. This could be achieved using, videos, social media campaigns and through brochures. This, in turn, will entice tourists interested in local food experiences to travel to specific destinations and thus increase competitor advantage.

Finally, it was found that tourist attitudes to local food influence overall holiday satisfaction. Further, it was found that existential authenticity positively affects this relationship. This finding not only highlights the importance of local food but also demonstrates the significance of existential authentic local food experiences. However, local food and associated experiences are critical in tourist satisfaction. Theoretically, it is acknowledged that satisfied tourists demonstrate revisit intention and spread positive word. Conversely, tourist dissatisfaction with local food or local food experiences can lead to negative WOM in addition to complaints. Therefore, tourist satisfaction with local food and local food experiences could be critical for the success of a destination, producer and experience provider. However, satisfaction with local food is a multifaceted concept dependant on a number of different factors such as quality of the food, service and dining environment. Therefore, to enhance tourist satisfaction destinations need to take a holistic approach and ensure all aspects of the local food experience are of high quality. Further, destination marketers must work in tandem with local food producers and suppliers to ensure experiences offered in tourism campaigns are true to the actual experiences available to the tourist. As such, if a tourism campaign promoting Wexford uses images of foraging destination marketers must ensure that this experience is available for the tourist.

## 6.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research

In addition to the methodological limitations presented in Chapter 3 (Section 3.18), there are further limitations associated with this study. Additionally, addressing these limitations is essential to providing direction and encouraging more effective research in the future.

As detailed in Chapter 1 (Section 1.8), specific boundaries were placed around the overall scope of this piece of research, thus limiting its generalisability accordingly. Resultantly, the research findings are currently restricted to the Irish context in which this study was undertaken. That said, food tourism has been studied under a wide array of national settings and, thus, is by no means applicable to merely an Irish context. Therefore, it may be the case that some, if not all, of the research findings, are internationally transferable. To verify this claim, it is recommended that future research of a similar nature should be undertaken in various geographical settings.

In relation to the sampling technique, quantitative data were collected at three food festivals and through identified food interest groups. A non-probability sampling strategy was employed, and a purposive criterion sampling technique adopted (Patton, 2001). As part of non-probability sampling, the application of purposive sampling might make the results vulnerable. That is, the generalisability of the findings cannot be assumed since the question of whether the participants are representative of all tourists remains uncertain. Thus, future research should consider using a more comprehensive sampling design that would contribute to higher reliability and validity of the data.

Additionally, there are potential limitations associated with the measures that were employed in this study. In this study, six scales were developed to measure each of the concepts attitudes towards local food, travel motivation for local food, local food and destination choice, satisfaction, existential authenticity, object-related authenticity. Before analysing the data, each scale was evaluated for reliability and validity using factor analysis. However, the scales used in this research are by no means a complete inventory of the travel behaviours that exist in food tourism. Hence, it is recommended that future studies should work to develop more exhaustive measures of these concepts. Moreover, if this research is to be "extended to an international context" (Homburg and Pflesser,

2000, p. 458), as recommended above, then it would be advisable to verify that "the scale items 'make sense' in other languages" and cultures (Kohli et al., 1993, p. 457).

Further, the purely quantitative approach in this research is likely to be considered a limitation by those who hold either an interpretivist or a pragmatic philosophical stance. The use of a purely quantitative approach was strongly justified throughout Chapter 3 (Section 3.5.1). Nevertheless, the researcher recognises merit in future studies adopting a qualitative approach to further investigate the research problem. A qualitative investigation is likely to provide more narrative and descriptive data, from which new theories and/or understanding could transpire.

Engagement in the research suggested here would ultimately lead to an enhanced understanding of the research problem investigated in this study. Moreover, it may help to strengthen the evidence of this study's external reliability, by demonstrating the potential replicability of its results (Bryman, 2008).


## 6.5 Conclusion

The purpose of this research study was twofold. Firstly, it aimed to explore the influence of tourist attitudes to local food on destination choice, travel motivation, satisfaction and perceived authenticity. Secondly, it aimed to examine the role of authenticity on each of these relationships. This research was essential as, although research on food tourism has increased in recent years, there was a dearth of research examining the role attitudes to local food can have on tourist behaviour. This is despite the fact that attitude is a critical factor when understanding tourist motivation and behaviour (Gnoth, 1997). In particular, few studies have examined whether tourist attitudes to local food can influence destination choice, motivation, satisfaction (Henderson, 2009; Sims, 2009) and perception of authenticity. Additionally, the influence of authenticity on each of these relationships warrants further attention (Robinson and Clifford, 2012). This study aimed to address these identified gaps.

This study provides evidence to show that tourist attitudes to local food influence destination choice, satisfaction and perceived authenticity of the local food experience. Furthermore, it concludes that object-related authenticity positively affects the relationship between tourist attitudes to local food and travel motivation. Additionally,

this study finds that existential authenticity positively affects the relationships between attitudes to local food and destination choice, travel motivation and satisfaction.

Finally, this study also provides insights for relevant tourism stakeholders including destination marketers, local food providers and producers the importance of having an adequate understanding of the travel behaviour of tourists interested in local food. As such this research concludes that destinations should emphasise unique regional specialities while highlighting the experiential value of local food. Thus, giving the tourist an opportunity to not only consume the local food but also to actively participate in the local food experience.

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# Appendices

## Appendix A: Systematic literature review process

This study adopted the SLR process as it offers a more objective (Bryman and Bell, 2015) and transparent alternative to the traditional narrative review method (Dixon-Woods et al., 2006). Additionally, it allowed the researcher to review and interpret the literature to identify gaps in the knowledge and opportunities for further study (Petticrew and Roberts, 2006). This research implemented the six-step SLR process as suggested by Tranfield et al., (2003). These stages are:

1. Framing questions for a review
2. Designing the plan or strategy
3. Searching for literature
4. Applying inclusion and exclusion criteria
5. Applying quality assessment
6. Synthesising the results

The following sections will outline and clarify each of these six stages as they related to this particular research.

### 1. Framing questions for review

The first step in the SLR process was to develop clear and structured questions to address the research objectives of this study. As already mentioned in section 1.3, this research had two overall research questions:

1. Do attitudes to local food influence tourist behaviour?
2. Does authenticity influence the relationship between attitudes to local food and travel behaviour?

### 3. Designing the plan or strategy

Having defined the research questions the next step involved identifying relevant keywords which could subsequently be used to perform a search through the body of literature.

On reviewing the research questions, seven keywords or phrases were identified; food tourism, local food, motivation, satisfaction and attitudes/interest in food and authenticity. However, as previously mentioned, different terms have been applied to express the connection between 'food' and 'tourism' including 'food tourism', 'culinary tourism', and 'gastronomy tourism' (Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo, 2015; Wolf, 2014). Therefore, to ensure a thorough review of the literature, it was also necessary to include the keywords "culinary tourism" and "gastronomy tourism'.

Additionally, Boolean searching was applied to narrow the search and specify exactly what was required and therefore excluding any irrelevant articles. Boolean searching works "by using logical operators and specific syntax" (Hart, 2005, p. 153). Furthermore, Boolean search also allowed for truncation. This is a way of capturing all relevant material by searching words and phrases which use the same root (Hart, 2005, p. 153). For example, the term "authentic*" will return all words which use the root authentic, including authentic, authenticity and authenticities.

The following search strings were used:
1. "Food tourism" OR "Gastronomy Tourism" OR "Culinary Tourism" AND "Local Food"
2. "Food tourism" OR "Gastronomy Tourism" OR "Culinary Tourism" AND "Motivation"
3. "Food tourism" OR "Gastronomy Tourism" OR "Culinary Tourism" AND "Satisfaction"
4. "Food tourism" OR "Gastronomy Tourism" OR "Culinary Tourism" AND "Attitude" OR "Interest" AND "Food"
5. "Food tourism" OR "Gastronomy Tourism" OR "Culinary Tourism" AND "Authentic*"

**4. Searching for literature**

Having identified the key terms and the relevant search strings, the next step was to locate appropriate research databases where relevant articles could be extracted. As such, the search was limited to journals in the following databases:
1. Taylor and Francis Online

2. Science Direct

3. Emerald Insight

4. Sage Journals

These databases were selected as they contain publications relevant to tourism, leisure and hospitality fields.

### 5. Applying inclusion and exclusion criteria

The next step in the SLR process was to consider the type of articles to include in the literature review. Firstly, only peer-reviewed academic journal articles were included in the search. This ensured that the articles collected had previously been assessed by those knowledgeable in the subject investigated (Jesson et al., 2011). Secondly, all articles had to be written in English. Applying the inclusion and exclusion criteria across the four databases returned a total of 2919 articles.

### 6. Applying quality assessment

Given the volume of articles returned a second, more focused search was conducted to identify journal articles where food, culinary or gastronomy tourism was the main focus. Results were further refined by applying a keyword search to the title, abstract and keywords of each article. Subsequently, all duplicate articles were removed, reducing the results from 2919 to 202 articles. The next step of the quality assessment process was to critically determine the quality and suitability of each article in order to answer the research questions. To aid the process the researcher used a list of appraisal questions as set out by Petticrew and Roberts (2006), which state;

- How credible are the findings?
- How has knowledge or understanding been extended by the research?
- How well does the evaluation address its original aims and purpose?
- How well was the data collection carried out?
- How well are the contexts of data sources retained and portrayed?

Having applied the quality assessment criteria, the final result was 184 articles.

### 7. Synthesising the results

The final step in the SLR process involved synthesising and organising the collected articles.

The 184 articles were imported into NVivo as full-text PDFs for content analysis. NVivo is a software program used for the organisation and analysis of unstructured text and can be used to identify reoccurring themes within a data set. Using NVivo, content themes were generated and verified using manual coding and subsequent word and text queries. This process formed the basis for the following findings, enabling the author to extract from the published peer-reviewed literature, relevant information relating to the research questions as identified in section 2.2.1.

An Overview of the SLR process is presented in the SLR Flow Chart which follows.

**SLR flow chart**



```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ Number of peer reviewed records │        │ Number of theses and            │
│ identified through Sage Journals,│       │ conference papers identified    │
│ Emerald Insight, Taylor and     │        │ through RIAN, THEA, using       │
│ Francis and ScienceDirect using │        │ keywords search "Food           │
│ keywords search "Food tourism"  │        │ tourism" OR "culinary           │
│ OR "culinary tourism" OR        │        │ tourism" OR Gastronomy          │
│ Gastronomy Tourism"(N =2919)    │        │ Tourism" N=15                   │
└─────────────────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ Number of studies when search   │
│ refined to title, keywords or   │
│ abstract only.                  │
│                                 │
│ Authenticity= 119               │
│ Local food=175                  │
│ Motivation=146                  │
│ Satisfaction=136                │
│ Attitude OR Interest AND Food =91│
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                    ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
                    │ Number of studies after         │
                    │ duplicates removed:             │
                    │ Journal articles: N=202         │
                    │ Theses/conference papers: N= 11 │
                    └─────────────────────────────────┘

        ┌─────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────┐
        │ Number of full text │        │ Number of articles  │
        │ studies screened for│───────▶│ excluded as tourism │
        │ relevance: N= 213   │        │ was not the main    │
        └─────────────────────┘        │ focus N=29          │
                                       └─────────────────────┘

        ┌─────────────────────┐
        │ Number of           │
        │ studies included    │
        │ in qualitative      │
        │ synthesis N=184     │
        └─────────────────────┘
```

# Appendix B: Pre-test survey



## Local food

Research by:

**Samantha Morris, Postgraduate Researcher, Institute of Technology Carlow, Wexford Campus**

This research aims to understand attitudes towards local food.

This questionnaire does not seek any sensitive or confidential information. All data collected will be used for the sole purpose of this research, all responses are anonymous and will be treated in the strictest of confidence. Completion of this questionnaire will take no more than five minutes.

If you wish to receive a copy of the findings upon completion of this study, please provide an appropriate e-mail address in the allocated space at the end of the questionnaire. Please do not hesitate to contact me by phone or by email at                                    should you have any queries or concerns.

| What is local food (Please tick just one box) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Food produced within the country I live | ☐ | Food produced or grown by local people | ☐ |
| Food produced within the province I live | ☐ | Food from small producers that is not mass produced | ☐ |
| Food produced within the county I live | ☐ | | |

Please read the following statements and circle the appropriate number that best indicates your level of agreement with each one. Please circle just one number per statement.

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I think it's important to buy locally grown foods | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I think it's important to know where local food is produced | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I choose foods closely linked to a specific place | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I make an effort to find and buy local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I'm not interested in the origin of food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I like foods based on traditional recipes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I seek out foods with natural ingredients | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

176

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Local food experiences are important when choosing a holiday destination | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Expecting good food experiences influences my holiday destination choice | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Expecting different food experiences influences my holiday destination choice | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I travel, one of the things I anticipate most is eating the local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My choice of travel destination is often influenced by my food interests | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| For the local food experiences I want, I feel compelled to travel | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Food and travel go together in a special way that fulfils me | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I love the challenge of seeking out new local food experiences while travelling | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food helps me see how other people live | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am taking more trips because of my interest in local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Increasingly I am travelling internationally for local food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food helps me to discover something new | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food is a special experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My food interests influence my choice to travel | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Touring on a food trail would make a good holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Within the next 12 months I plan to travel for a food experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food gives me an opportunity to increase my knowledge about different cultures | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I will travel at any time of the year for the right local food experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday I am sure that the quality of the local food is trustworthy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I will travel anywhere in the world for good food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| To me, food has to be part of the broader cultural experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Local food in its original place is an authentic experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food experiences are not essential to my holiday satisfaction | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday I know that the local food is made in a traditional way | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I made the right choice with my last holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday I am sure that the local food uses local ingredients | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food experiences are important for holiday satisfaction | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My last holiday gave me a lot of satisfaction | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, my overall satisfaction is dependent on my local food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, I enjoy local food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My last holiday fulfilled my wishes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Thinking about my last holiday gives me a sense of joy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My last holiday met my expectations | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Thinking about my last holiday can make me happy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday I know that the local food is trustworthy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday I have a sense of where local food is made | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I intend to revisit destinations where I have had good holiday experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| It is unlikely that I will revisit destinations where I have not had good experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Having positive holiday experiences makes me more likely to return to the destination | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I recommend holiday destinations to others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I discuss positive holiday experiences with others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Having positive holiday experiences makes me more likely to recommend destinations | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Demographics and travel behaviour

The following information are about your demographic and travel experience. All information is anonymous and confidetial and will be used solely for the epurposes of this study.    (Please tick just one box for each question)

| Gender: | Age: |
|---|---|
| Male ☐    Female ☐ | 18-29 ☐    30-39 ☐    40-49 ☐    50-59 ☐    60-69 ☐    >70 ☐ |

**How experienced are you as a traveller?**

Very little ☐        Somewhat ☐        High ☐        Very high ☐

**On average how many domestic holidays do you take annually?**

0 ☐        1-2 ☐        3-4 ☐        >4 ☐

**On average how many international holidays would you take annually?**

0 ☐        1-2 ☐        3-4 ☐        >4 ☐

**How long was your last holiday?**

1-3 nights ☐        4-7 nights ☐        8-14 nights ☐        >14 nights ☐

**Who did you travel with on your last holiday?**

Travelling alone ☐        A spouse/partner ☐        Family with children ☐

Family without children ☐        Friends ☐        Tour/organised group ☐

If you would like to receive a copy of this study's findings, please provide your email address below. (optional)

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179

# Appendix C: Pilot test survey

INSTITIÚID TEICNEOLAÍOCHTA CHEATHARLACH

INSTITUTE *of* TECHNOLOGY CARLOW

At the heart of South Leinster

## Local food

### Research by:

### Samantha Morris, Postgraduate Researcher, Institute of Technology Carlow, Wexford Campus

This research aims to understand attitudes towards local food.

This questionnaire does not seek any sensitive or confidential information. All data collected will be used for the sole purpose of this research, all responses are anonymous and will be treated in the strictest of confidence. Completion of this questionnaire will take no more than five minutes.

If you wish to receive a copy of the findings upon completion of this study, please provide an appropriate e-mail address in the allocated space at the end of the questionnaire. Please do not hesitate to contact me by phone or by email at: should you have any queries or concerns.

### Local Food and holiday experinces

| Please read the following statements and circle the appropriate number that best indicates your level of agreement with each one. Please circle just one number per statement | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| When on holiday, I enjoy local food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food experiences are important when choosing a holiday destination | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My choice of holiday destination is often influenced by my food interests | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I travel, one of the things I look forward to most is eating the local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Eating local food on holiday is an authentic experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am taking more trips because of my interest in local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I will travel anywhere in the world for a good food experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Touring on a food trail would make a good holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Within the next 12 months I plan to travel for a food experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I love the challenge of seeking out new local food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I will travel at any time of the year for the right local food experiene | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| When on holiday, local food gives me an opportunity to learn about different cultures | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, I trust the quality of the local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, I prefer to eat food products I am familiar with | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Experiencing local food on holiday helps me see how other people live | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, I try to buy food labelled as local | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I eat local food on holiday I know where it comes from | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday, I know that the local food I buy or eat is handmade | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday, I am sure that the local food I buy or eat, uses ingredients found locally. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food helps me to discover something new | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I think back to holidays I have enjoyed, local food experiences are an important part of the memories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My local food experiences are not important to the overall satisfaction of my holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When at home I buy food that I first encountered while on holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I recommend holiday destinations to others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Having positive food experiences makes me more likely to recommend a destination to others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I see certain food or restaurants I am reminded of holidays I have taken | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Having positive food experiences on holiday makes me more likely to return to the destination | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I intend to revisit a place where I have had a good food experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

### Attitudes towards local food

In your opinion what is local food? (Please tick just one box)

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Food produced within the country I live | ☐ | Food produced or grown by local people | ☐ |
| Food produced within the province I live | ☐ | Food from small producers that is not mass produced | ☐ |
| Food produced within the county I live | ☐ | | |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I think it's important to buy locally grown foods | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I think it's important to know where local food is produced | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I choose foods closely linked to a specific place | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I make an effort to buy local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I'm not interested in the origin of food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I like foods based on traditional recipes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I seek out local foods with natural ingredients | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Demographics and travel behaviour

The following information are about your demographic and travel experience. All information is anonymous and confidential and will be used solely for the purposes of this study.     (Please tick just one box for each question)

| Gender: | Age: |
|---|---|
| Male ☐     Female ☐ | 18-29 ☐   30-39 ☐     40-49 ☐   50-59 ☐   60-69 ☐     >70 ☐ |

How would you rate your travel experience?

Very little ☐          Somewhat ☐          Experienced ☐          Very experienced ☐

On average how many domestic holidays do you take annually?

0 ☐               1-2 ☐               3-4 ☐               >4 ☐

On average how many international holidays would you take annually?

0 ☐               1-2 ☐               3-4 ☐               >4 ☐

How long was your last holiday?

1-3 nights ☐          4-7 nights ☐     8-14 nights ☐          >14 nights ☐

Who did you travel with on your last holiday?

Travelled alone ☐          A spouse/partner ☐          Family with children ☐

Family without children ☐               Friends ☐          Tour/organised group ☐

If you would like to receive a copy of this study's findings, please provide your email address below. (optional)

_____

# Appendix D: Final survey

## Local food

Research by:

**Samantha Morris, Postgraduate Researcher, Institute of Technology Carlow, Wexford Campus**

This research aims to understand attitudes towards local food.

This questionnaire does not seek any sensitive or confidential information. All data collected will be used for the sole purpose of this research, all responses are anonymous and will be treated in the strictest of confidence. Completion of this questionnaire will take no more than five minutes.

If you wish to receive a copy of the findings upon completion of this study, please provide an appropriate e-mail address in the allocated space at the end of the questionnaire. Please do not hesitate to contact me by phone or by email at        should you have any queries or concerns.

### Local Food and holiday experinces

| Please read the following statements and circle the appropriate number that best indicates your level of agreement with each one. Please circle just one number per statement | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| When on holiday, I enjoy local food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food experiences are important when choosing a holiday destination | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My choice of holiday destination is often influenced by my food interests | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I travel, one of the things I look forward to most is eating the local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Eating local food on holiday is an authentic experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am taking more trips because of my interest in local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I will travel anywhere in the world for a good food experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Touring on a food trail would make a good holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Within the next 12 months I plan to travel for a food experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I love the challenge of seeking out new local food experiences | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I will travel at any time of the year for the right local food experiene | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, local food gives me an opportunity to learn about different cultures | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, I trust the quality of the local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| When on holiday, I prefer to eat food products I am familiar with | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Experiencing local food on holiday helps me see how other people live | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When on holiday, I try to buy food labelled as local | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I eat local food on holiday I know where it comes from | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday, I know that the local food I buy or eat is handmade | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| On holiday, I am sure that the local food I buy or eat, uses ingredients found locally. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Local food helps me to discover something new | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When I think back to holidays I have enjoyed, local food experiences are an important part of the memories | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My local food experiences are not important to the overall satisfaction of my holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| When at home I buy food that I first encountered while on holiday | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I recommend holiday destinations to others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Having positive food experiences makes me more likely to recommend a destination to others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I think it's important to know where local food is produced | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I choose foods closely linked to a specific place | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I make an effort to buy local food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I'm not interested in the origin of food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I like foods based on traditional recipes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I seek out local foods with natural ingredients | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## About you

The following information are about your demographic and travel experience. All information is anonymous and confidential and will be used solely for the purposes of this study. (Please tick just one box for each question)

| In your opinion what is local food? | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Food produced within the country I live ☐ | | Food produced or grown by local people ☐ | |
| Food produced within the province I live ☐ | | Food from small producers that is not mass produced ☐ | |
| Food produced within the county I live ☐ | | | |

| Gender: | | Age: | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male ☐  Female ☐ | | 18-29 ☐  30-39 ☐  40-49 ☐  50-59 ☐  60-69 ☐  >70 ☐ | | | | | | |

**How would you rate your travel experience?**

Very little ☐    Somewhat ☐    Experienced ☐    Very experienced ☐

**On average how many domestic holidays do you take annually?**

0 ☐        1-2 ☐        3-4 ☐        >4 ☐

**On average how many international holidays would you take annually?**

0 ☐        1-2 ☐        3-4 ☐        >4 ☐

**How long was your last holiday?**

1-3 nights ☐     4-7 nights ☐   8-14 nights ☐   >14 nights ☐

**Who did you travel with on your last holiday?**

Travelled alone ☐    A spouse/partner ☐    Family with children ☐

Family without children ☐        Friends ☐    Tour/organised group ☐

If you would like to receive a copy of this study's findings, please provide your email address below (optional).

_____

**Appendix E: Information sheet**



## Information Sheet: Local food and holiday experiences questionnaire

You are being invited to participate in a research study about local food. This study is being conducted by Samantha Morris, a postgraduate researcher, from the Institute of Technology Carlow.

If you volunteer to participate in this study:

- You will be asked to fill out a survey
- The survey should take no longer than 5 mins

This survey is anonymous. Do not write your name on the survey. The data collected from the survey will be retained and destroyed in line with IT Carlow's Data Protection and Freedom of Information Policies & Procedures, publicly available on the IT Carlow website.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. By completing and handing back the questionnaire to the researcher you are voluntarily agreeing to participate. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact:

Email:

Mobile No:

## Appendix F: Email invitation to participate in survey

Hello

I am a postgraduate researcher at the Wexford Campus of the Institute of Technology Carlow, where I am currently researching tourist attitudes towards local food.

Based on your experience and interest in local food, you have been selected to take part in a

4-5 minute survey to share your thoughts on its importance in tourism. Your responses will help us understand attitudes towards local food and how they can be used to encourage tourism and improve the tourist experience.

Also it would be a great help if you could forward this link to other members of your network who may be interested in taking part in this research.

**To participate, please click on the following link: The importance of local food**

The questionnaire does not seek any sensitive or confidential information about you. All responses will be used for the sole purposes of this study and will be treated in the strictest of confidence.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study please contact me by phone or Email

Your participation would be a valuable contribution to the completion of my Master's degree and would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your time,

*Kindest regards,*

Samantha Morris,
Postgraduate Researcher,
Institute of Technology Carlow.

# Appendix G: Tests for normality of data for each scale

## Test for normality for attitudes to local food scale

**Tests of Normality**

|  | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| ALF1 | .315 | 368 | .000 | .738 | 368 | .000 |
| ALF2 | .310 | 368 | .000 | .734 | 368 | .000 |
| ALF3 | .219 | 368 | .000 | .869 | 368 | .000 |
| ALF4 | .262 | 368 | .000 | .776 | 368 | .000 |
| ALF5 | .272 | 368 | .000 | .754 | 368 | .000 |
| ALF6 | .260 | 368 | .000 | .850 | 368 | .000 |
| ALF7 | .260 | 368 | .000 | .833 | 368 | .000 |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



Histogram

Mean = 3.49
Std. Dev. = .476
N = 368
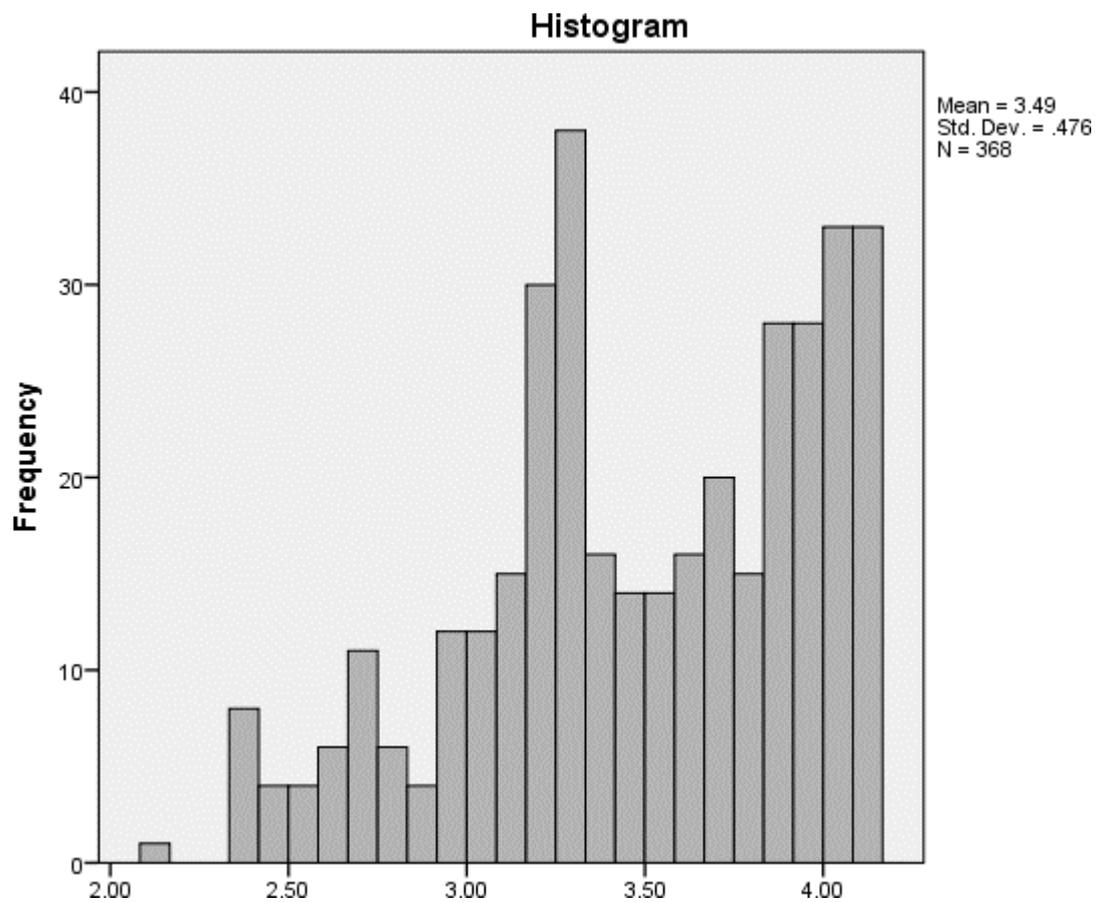
**Tests of normality for travel motivation scale**

**Tests of Normality**

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| MT2 | .216 | 368 | .000 | .909 | 368 | .000 |
| MT3 | .157 | 368 | .000 | .917 | 368 | .000 |
| MT4 | .169 | 368 | .000 | .915 | 368 | .000 |
| MT5 | .159 | 368 | .000 | .916 | 368 | .000 |
| MT1 | .256 | 368 | .000 | .876 | 368 | .000 |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



Histogram

Mean = 3.05
Std. Dev. = .88
N = 368
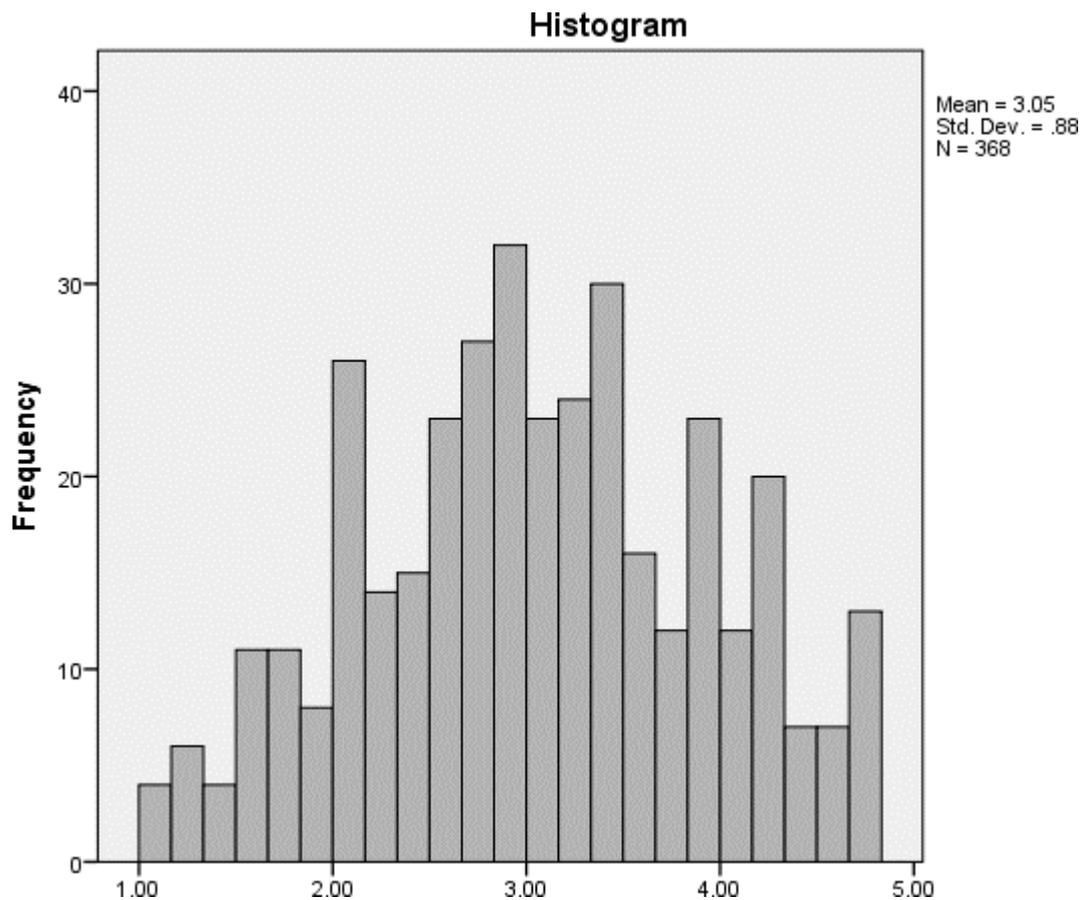
**Tests of normality for destination choice scale**

Skewness and kurtosis

|  |  | MDC1 | MDC2 | MDC3 | MDC4 | MDC5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | Valid | 368 | 368 | 368 | 368 | 368 |
|  | Missing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Skewness |  | -.490 | -.298 | -1.201 | -.887 | -.759 |
| Std. Error of Skewness |  | .127 | .127 | .127 | .127 | .127 |
| Kurtosis |  | .105 | -.405 | 1.542 | .668 | .326 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis |  | .254 | .254 | .254 | .254 | .254 |



Histogram

Mean = 3.08
Std. Dev. = .647
N = 368
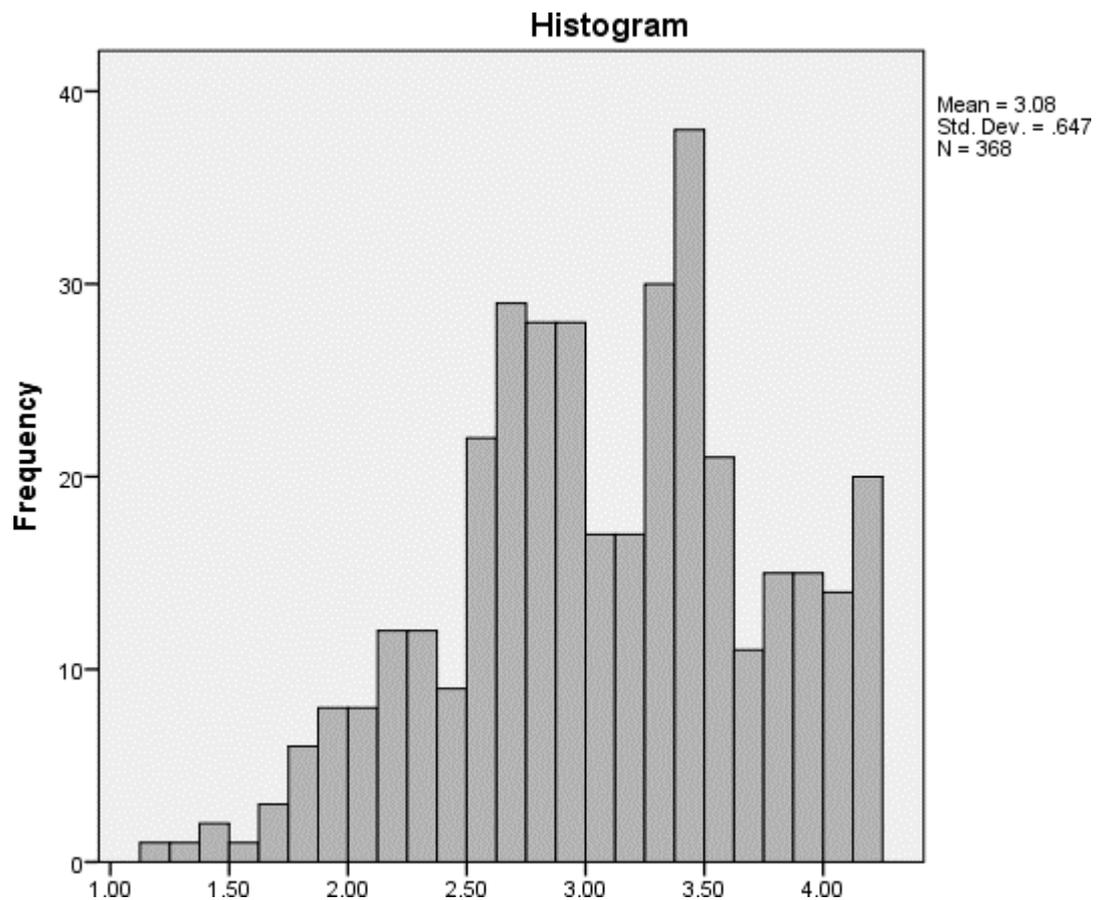
**Tests of normality for Satisfaction motivation scale**

**Tests of Normality**

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|------|-----------|-----|------|-----------|-----|------|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| SAT4 | .310 | 368 | .000 | .707 | 368 | .000 |
| SAT1 | .257 | 368 | .000 | .813 | 368 | .000 |
| SAT2 | .247 | 368 | .000 | .886 | 368 | .000 |
| SAT3 | .241 | 368 | .000 | .869 | 368 | .000 |
| SAT8 | .287 | 368 | .000 | .839 | 368 | .000 |
| SAT5 | .277 | 368 | .000 | .830 | 368 | .000 |
| SAT6 | .282 | 368 | .000 | .829 | 368 | .000 |
| SAT7 | .280 | 368 | .000 | .851 | 368 | .000 |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



Mean = 3.97
Std. Dev. = .634
N = 368
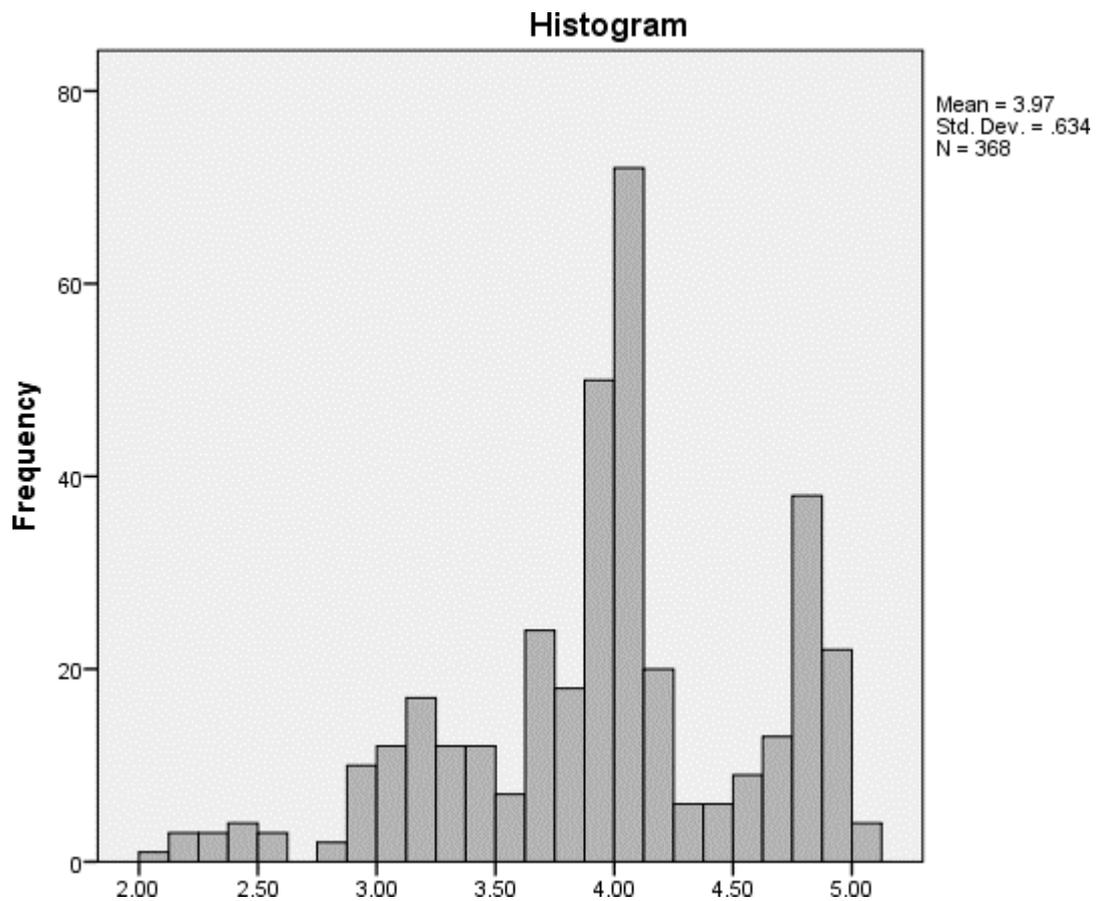
**Tests of normality for object-related authenticity scale**

**Tests of Normality**

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| OBA4 | .257 | 368 | .000 | .881 | 368 | .000 |
| OBA5 | .295 | 368 | .000 | .849 | 368 | .000 |
| OBA1 | .259 | 368 | .000 | .875 | 368 | .000 |
| OBA2 | .236 | 368 | .000 | .886 | 368 | .000 |
| OBA3 | .224 | 368 | .000 | .889 | 368 | .000 |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
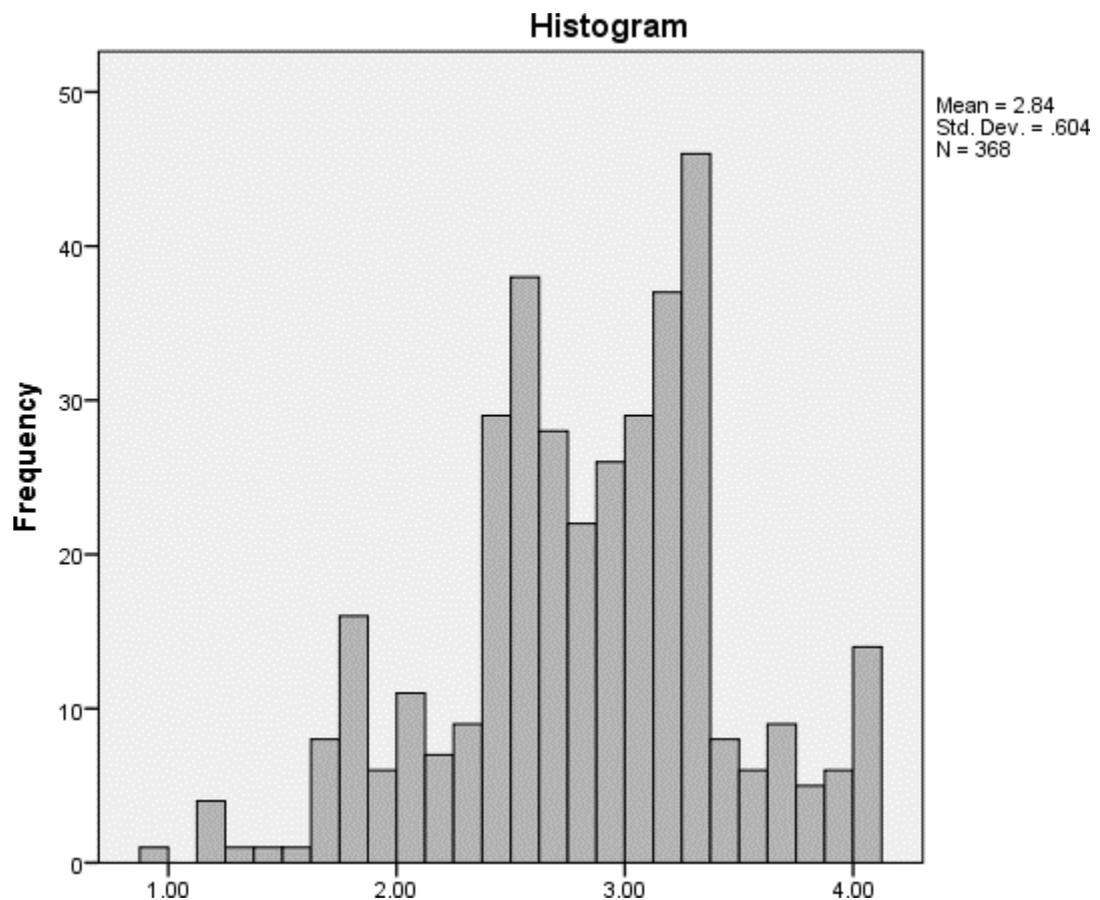
**Tests of normality for existential authenticity scale**

**Tests of Normality**

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| EXA4 | .262 | 368 | .000 | .741 | 368 | .000 |
| EXA2 | .281 | 368 | .000 | .739 | 368 | .000 |
| EXA3 | .329 | 368 | .000 | .765 | 368 | .000 |
| EXA1 | .293 | 368 | .000 | .737 | 368 | .000 |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



Histogram

Mean = 3.63
Std. Dev. = .497
N = 368
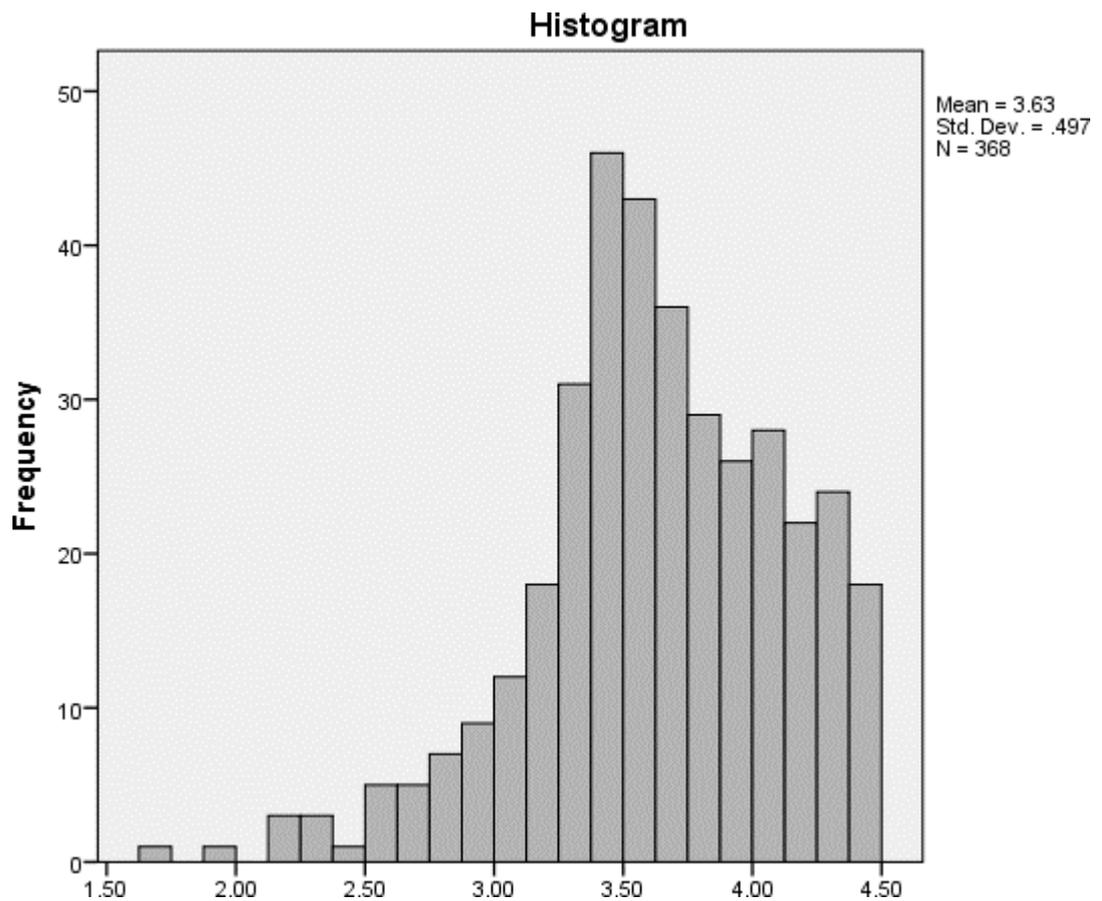
# Appendix G: Test for linearity of each scale

**Test for linearity for attitudes to local food scale**

**Test for linearity for travel motivation scale**



Normal Q-Q Plot of mt

**Test for linearity for destination choice scale**



Normal Q-Q Plot of mdc

**Test for linearity for satisfaction scale**



Normal Q-Q Plot of bi

**Test for linearity for object-related authenticity scale**



Normal Q-Q Plot of oba

**Test for linearity for existential authenticity scale**



Normal Q-Q Plot of Existential Authenticity

# Appendix H: Test for the presence of outliers of each scale

**Box plot showing outliers for attitudes to local food scale**
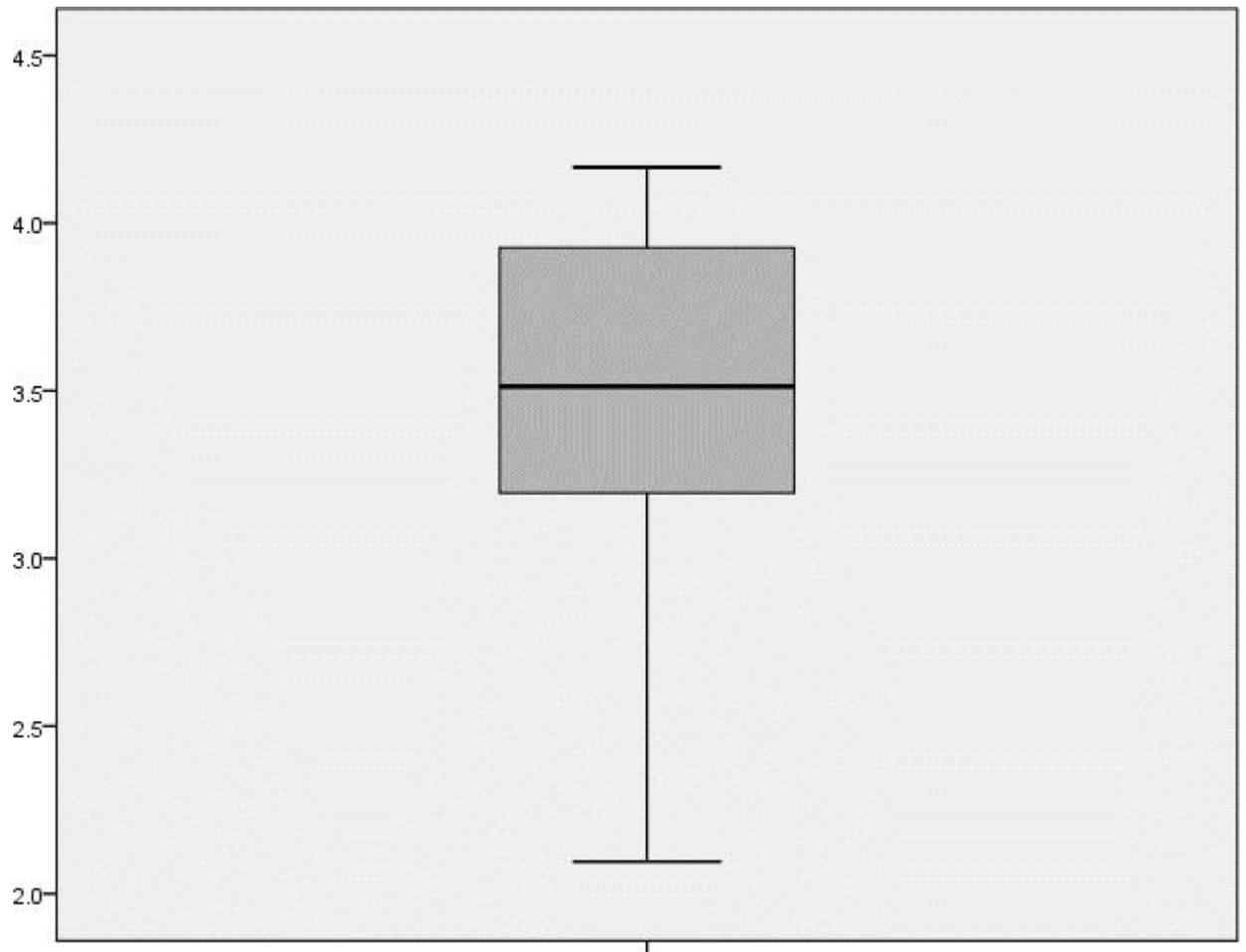
**Test for linearity for travel motivation scale**
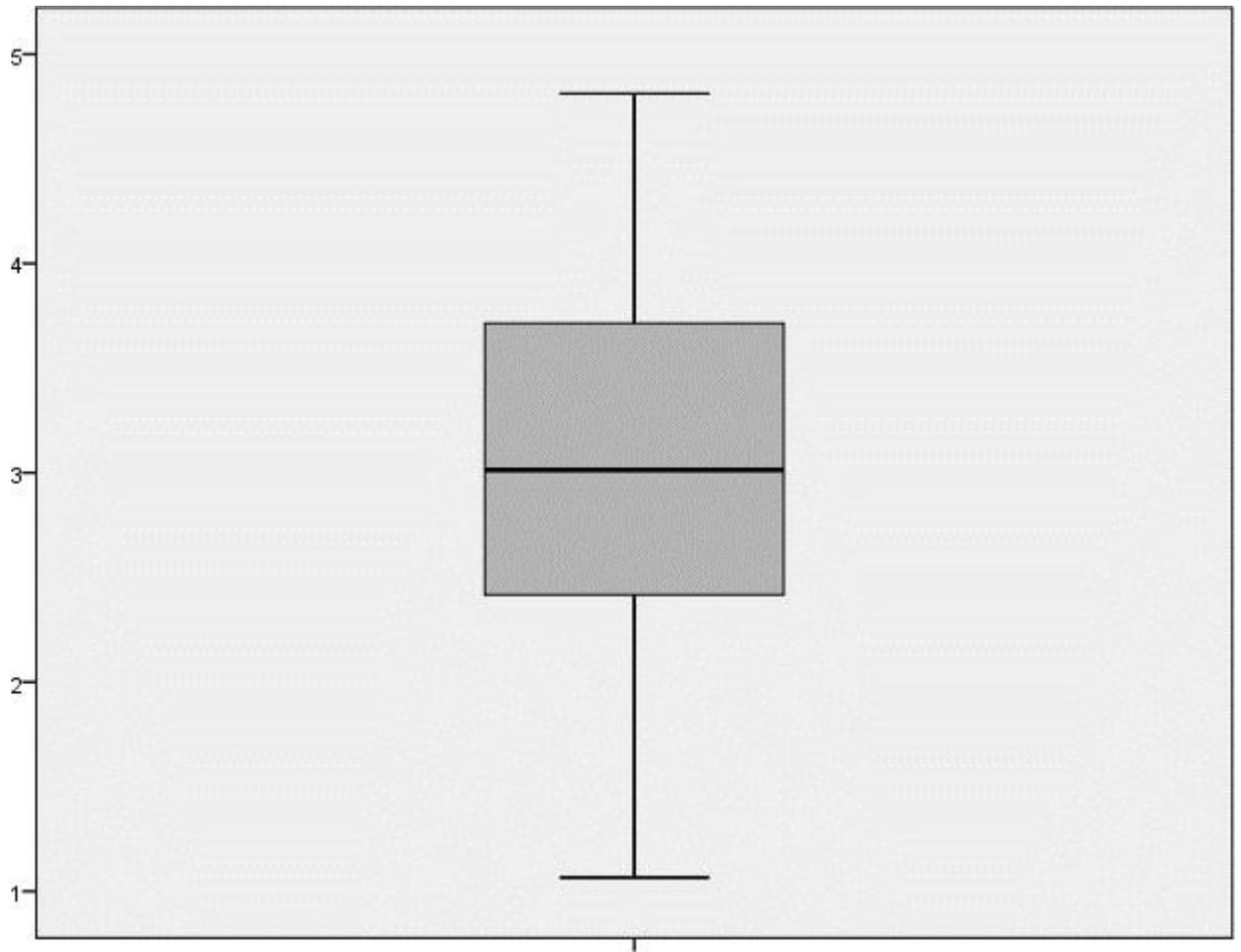
**Test for linearity for destination choice scale**
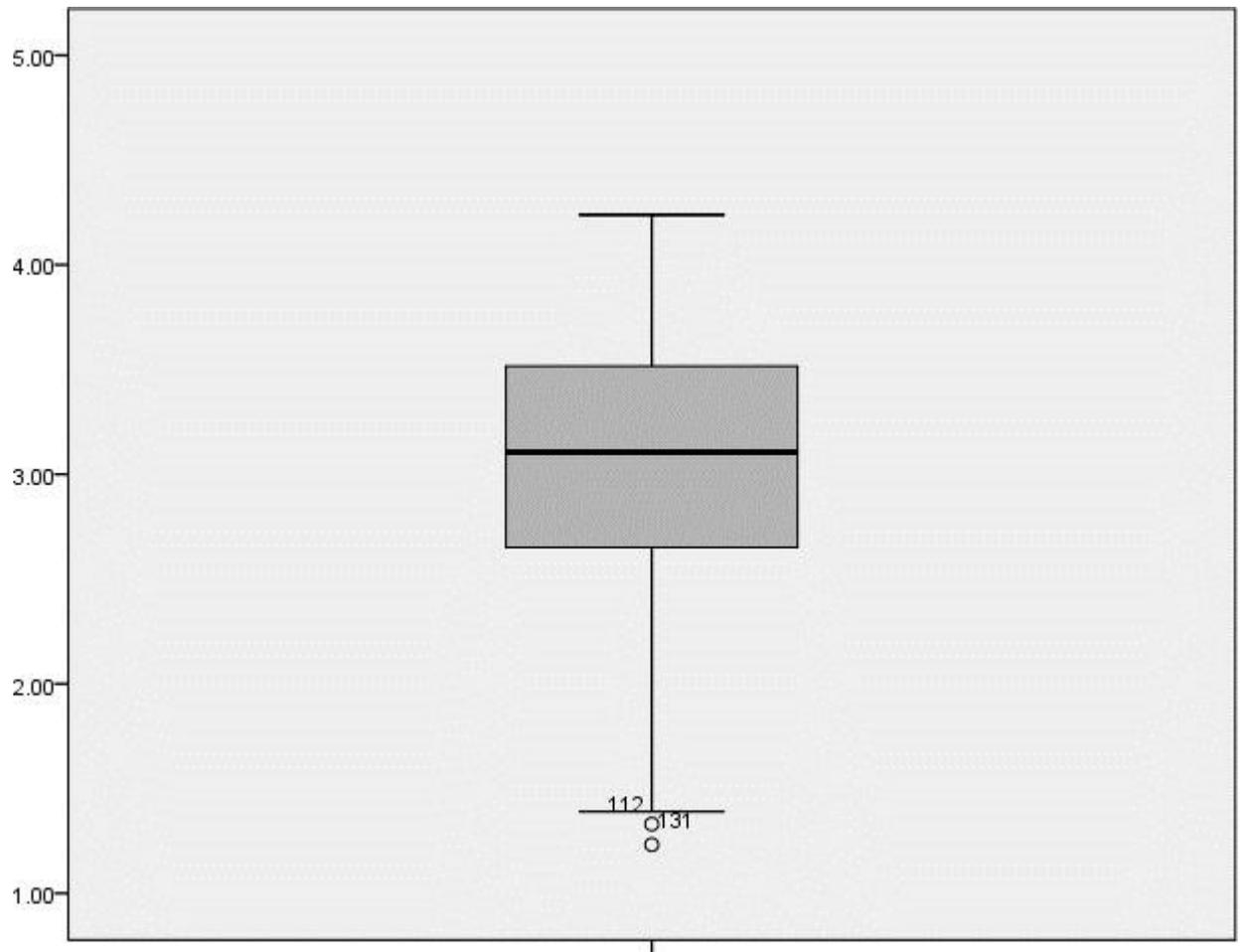
**Test for linearity for satisfaction scale**
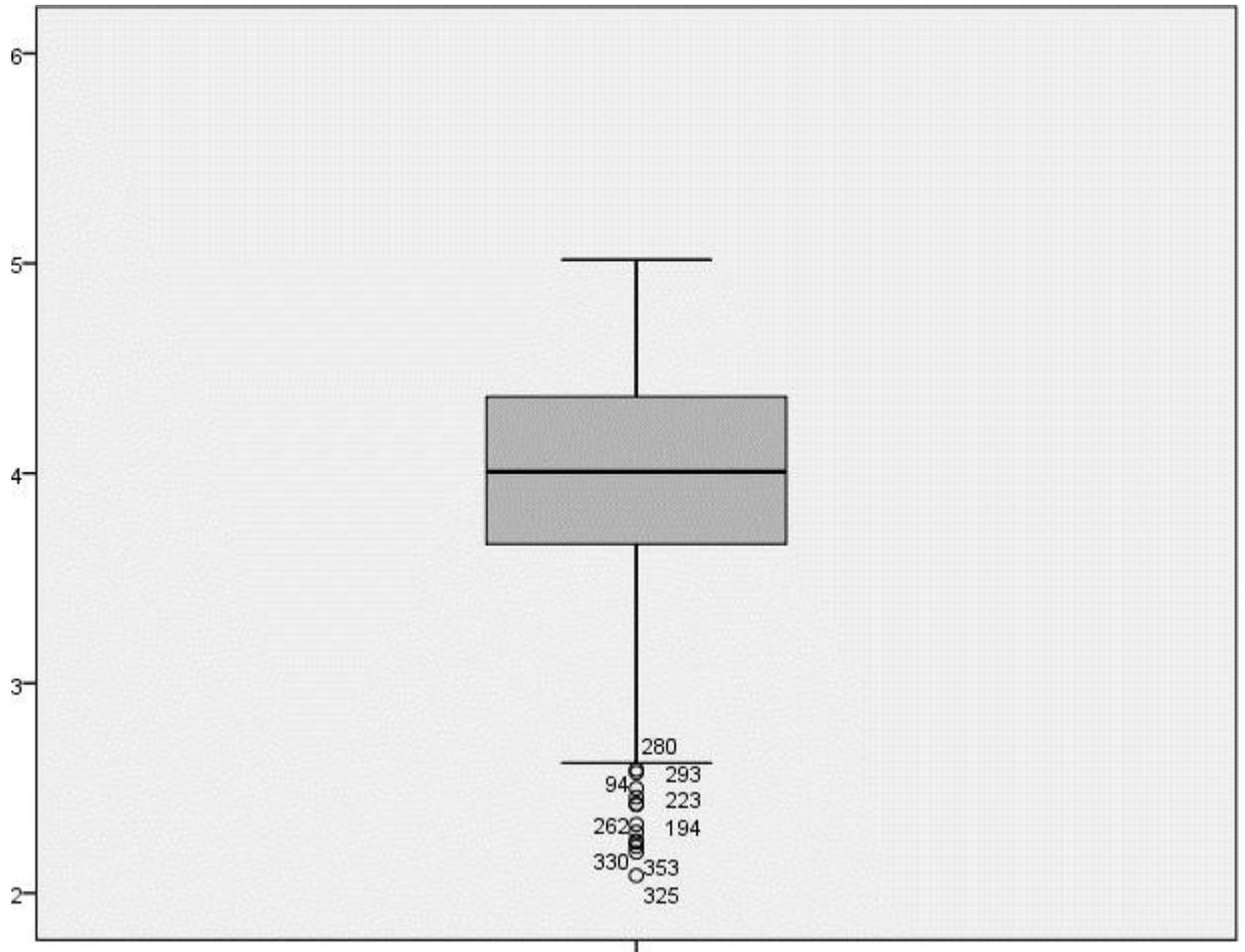
**Test for linearity for object-related authenticity scale**

**Test for linearity for existential authenticity scale**