FOOD TOURISM AND THE CULINARY TOURIST

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ABSTRACT

The subject matter of this dissertation is food tourism or tourists' participation in `food related activities at a destination to experience its culinary attributes. In addition, the culinary tourist or the tourist for whom food tourism is an important, if not primary, reason influencing his travel behavior, is its focus.

The empirical objectives of this dissertation concerned identifying the underlying dimensions of food tourism, developing a conceptual framework that explains participation in food tourism, develop taxonomy of food tourists by segmenting the tourists based on their participation in food tourism, and finally identifying the variables that predict membership in these food tourist segments. The effect of sociodemographic variables on participation in food tourism, and their association with the food tourist segments were also examined. Further, all the findings were analyzed within the theoretical framework of the world culture theory of globalization and the cultural capital theory.

Based on the survey responses of 341 tourists visiting the four coastal counties of South Carolina, the analyses revealed that food tourism is composed of five dimensions or classes of activities. These include dining at restaurants known for local cuisines, purchasing local food products, consuming local beverages, dining at high quality restaurants, and dining at familiar chain restaurants and franchises. The conceptual variables significant in explaining participation in food tourism were food neophobia, variety-seeking, and social bonding. The sociodemographic variables that effect participation in food tourism were age, gender, education, and income.

Segmentation of tourists revealed the presence of three clusters: the culinary tourist, the experiential tourist, and the general tourist. The culinary tourist was identified as the tourist who, at the destination, frequently dines and purchases local food, consumes local beverages, dines at high-class restaurants, and rarely eats at franchisee restaurants. In addition, the culinary tourist segment was more educated, earned higher income than the other two segments, and was characterized by its variety-seeking tendency towards food and absence of food neophobia.

The dissertation's findings highlight the role of diverse culinary establishments (restaurants, farmer's market, pubs etc.) that contribute to the food tourist experience, and emphasize the importance of destination marketing organizations and the small and medium enterprises working in tandem. Further, the findings also suggest that destinations targeting the culinary tourism market should articulate the availability of indigenous local dishes, varied culinary cultures and food tourism activities.

The evidence that the fundamental structure of food tourism revolves around the local, along with the presence of eating familiar food at chain and franchisees, as a dimension of food tourism, shows that the dialectics between the local and the global is at play, lending credence to the implications of the globalization theory to the food tourism context. The findings also support the use of cultural capital theory in explaining the culinary tourists, as seen by their possession of the indicators of cultural capital, namely an advanced education, and 'cultural omnivorousness' typified by their variety-seeking tendency.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Food and Tourism: What is the Connection?

Consumption is an integral aspect of the tourist experience, with the tourist consuming not only the sights and sounds, but also the taste of a place. Nearly, all tourists eat and dine out. Food is a significant means to penetrate into another culture as "…it allows an individual to experience the 'Other' on a sensory level, and not just an intellectual one" (Long, 1998, p.195). Local food is a fundamental component of a destination's attributes, adding to the range of attractions and the overall tourist experience (Symons, 1999). This makes food an essential constituent of tourism production as well as consumption.

Dining out is a growing form of leisure where meals are consumed not out of necessity but for pleasure, and the atmosphere and occasion are part of the leisure experience as much as the food itself. A recent profile of the tourists by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Travel and Tourism Industries (OTTI) shows that dining in restaurants was ranked as the second most favorite activity by the overseas visitors to the U.S. (Appendix A) and the number one favorite recreational/ leisure activity by U.S. travelers visiting international destinations (Appendix B).

However, when it comes to tourists, dining out can both be a necessity and a pleasure. While some tourists dine to satisfy their hunger, others dine at a particular restaurant to experience the local food and cuisine, because for the latter these form an

important component of their travel itinerary. This makes the study of tourists' food consumption interesting as well as complex.

The growth of eating out as a form of consumption and the market forces of globalization have made the food products and cuisines from all over the world more accessible. This has stimulated the emergence of food as a theme in magazines (Cuisine, Gourmet Traveler, Food and Travel), radio shows (Chef's Table, Splendid Table), and television, particularly cable television, with food shows focusing on travel and travel shows on food. In fact, the popularity of twenty-four hour television channels, such as the Food Network devoted to food and the place that food comes from, intertwines food with tourism so much that quite often it is hard to determine whether one is watching a food show or a travel show.

Such developments have spurred an interest in experiencing the unique and indigenous food, food products and cuisines of a destination, so much so that people are often traveling to a destination specifically to experience the local cuisines or to taste the dishes of its 'celebrity chef' (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). Traveling for food has taken an entirely new meaning from what it used to when voyages were undertaken for spice trade, but voyagers still carried dried food, as the local cuisines were looked upon with suspicion (Tannahill, 1988). The importance of local cuisines to tourists today is demonstrated by the results of a survey of visitors to Yucatan Peninsula where 46% of the meals consumed by the tourists were local cuisines (Torres, 2002).

From an economic point of view, nearly 100% of tourists spend money on food at their destination. Data shows that more than two-thirds of table-service restaurant operators reported that tourists are important to their business, with check sizes of US$25

or above coming from tourists (National Restaurant Association, 2002). In Jamaica, for example, the daily expenditure on food by the tourist is five times greater than that of the average Jamaican (Belisle, 1984). According to Pyo, Uysal, and McLellan (1991), among all possible areas of expenditures while traveling, tourists are least likely to make cuts in their food budget. All these suggest that tourists' food consumption makes a substantial contribution to the local restaurants, dining places, the food industry, and thereby the destination's economy.

In an increasingly competitive world of tourism marketing, every region or destination is in a constant search for a unique product to differentiate itself from other destinations. Local food or cuisines that are unique to an area are one of the distinctive resources that may be used as marketing tools to get more visitors. This is particularly evident from the studies on wine tourism (Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002; Hall & Macionis, 1998; Telfer, 2001), which have demonstrated that tourists travel to destinations that have established a reputation as a location to experience quality local products (e.g., Napa Valley in California, Provence in France, Niagara in Ontario, Yarra Valley in Victoria, Australia).

Countries like Canada and Australia have already begun to target the culinary tourism segment in their marketing strategy promoting local cuisines to their tourists as a main part of their tourism policy. The Canadian Tourism Commission has identified culinary tourism as an important component of the rapidly growing cultural tourism market. So has the Tourism Council of Tasmania. The Council adopted a strategy in 2002 to develop high quality wine and food tourism experiences, events and activities, and a multi-regional approach. This has resulted in longer stays and increased visitor spending,

resulting in benefits to the local agriculture and the local economy (Tourism Council of Tasmania, 2002).

Finally, a relevant example of the economic importance of local food products to tourism is the case of the Southern Seafood Alliance in South Carolina. The organization funded projects, including this dissertation, with the goal of developing strategies to make consumption of South Atlantic wild-caught shrimp an integral element of South Carolina coastal tourism experience. The project's ultimate objective was to revive the struggling local shrimp industry through tourism.

1.2. Culinary Tourism as Special Interest Tourism

The growth of special interest tourism is seen as a reflection of the increasing diversity of leisure interests of the early twenty-first century leisure society (Douglas, Douglas, & Derret, 2001). Post-modern tourism is slowly moving away from the 'Four S's of Tourism' (sun, sand, sex, and surf), to being a part of an overall lifestyle that corresponds to people's daily lives and activities (Hobson & Dietrich, 1994). The growth of culinary tourism is seen as an outcome of a trend where people spend much less time cooking, but choose to pursue their interest in food as a part of a leisure experience such as watching cooking shows, dining out and the like (Sharples, 2003).

Leisure researchers have studied special interest tourism like ecotourism (Acott, Trobe, & Howard, 1998) and wine tourism (Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002) to show how tourists may be segmented based on their activities along the 'tourism interest continuum' (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997). The culinary tourist is thus a special interest tourist whose interest in food is the primary reason influencing his travel behavior and falls on

the upper end of the food tourism interest continuum. At the same time, eating and drinking being ultimately cultural affairs (Murcott, 1986), the culinary tourist is also a cultural tourist. Thus, the obvious overlap of food as a special interest component as well as a cultural component makes the culinary tourist possibly both a special interest tourist and a cultural tourist.

A survey of Special Interest Tours on the internet demonstrates that there are numerous tour operators conducting culinary tours as well as the more popular wine tours. An examination of these websites reveals that the culinary tours can be roughly classified into three types. These are: 1) the cooking school holidays, 2) dining at restaurants famous for their local cuisines or their celebrity chefs and visiting food markets, and 3) visiting food producers with tours specifically related to just one product (e.g. coffee plantation tours, tea plantation tours, chocolate lovers tours, the ubiquitous wine tours, and the like). Most culinary tours include a combination of all three types.

The cost of a normal six day cooking school tour can range from US$ 1500 for the more popular destinations like France (Provence), Italy (Piedmont, the Italian Riviera, Sicily, Tuscany, and Venice), and Spain, to US$ 5000 for South Africa and Australia, which have recently entered the international wine tourism market. These tours usually include demonstrations by celebrity chefs (where the tourist may be a participant), wine tasting at vineyards, and visits to places known for its art, history, and culture. Thus, the cooking school holiday spectrum covers a wide range from rural to urban, field- based to school-based, single commodity to multi–commodity, residential to non- residential, and total holiday to a part of holiday experience (Sharples, 2003).

The second type of culinary tours is one where the itineraries chiefly include visiting restaurants, local food producers, and food markets. Though the Californian Napa and Sonoma Valleys and the wine country have recently become extremely popular, other popular destinations for such tours are Spain, Portugal, France, Oaxaca (Mexico), Morocco and Canada. Other than eating at restaurants known for their distinctive local cuisines, a customized tour, for example, might include olive oil tasting in Italy, cheese tasting in France, and the popular *Tapas* Tours in Spain. Variations of such culinary tours, for the more adventurous, may include cycling and walkabout gourmet explorations throughout the gourmet regions. For the less adventurous or for the traveler with a lower budget, cities like San Francisco and New York with their ethnic communities such as Little Italy and China Town, offer such experiences within one's own country or city. In addition, events like Taste of Chicago, where almost a hundred restaurants come together to display their best chefs and the food associated with the city's ethnic diversity, present a wonderful opportunity for culinary tourism experience.

The third type of culinary tours is the extremely specialized tour pertinent to just one product alone. Examples of these are the Coffee Tours to Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Peru, Panama, Peru, Brazil, and Ethiopia. Here, the culinary tourists indulge in coffee tasting, or on-site experiences such as coffee picking and sorting, or learn about the history of coffee through guided tours in coffee museums. Similarly, Tea Tours in Sri Lanka and Japan offer tea plantations as attractions with tea museums dedicated to exhibiting the details of tea cultivation, production and manufacturing, along with tours of tea plantations, demonstrations of tea ceremonies, and tearooms. Another popular product-related tour is the Chocolate Tours of Belgium and Switzerland that offer similar

experiences for chocolate lovers. Thus, culinary tourism satisfies the motive of combining love for food and travel.

<h2>1.3 Food Consumption and the Social Sciences</h2>

Ritchie & Zins (1978) list food as one of the components of cultural tourism, implying that food is representative of a culture. One of the dominant approaches in the social sciences used to explain food consumption is the cultural approach, with the others being the economic and the psychological. Food theorists in the disciplines of anthropology, discursive psychology, and sociology have contributed significantly with their disciplinary perspectives on food consumption.

Anthropology, specifically social anthropology, accounts for the majority of cultural studies on food. The symbolic structuralist perspective analyzes food consumption as a psychological and behavioral system that originates in the human brain and how food transforms from a natural object to a cultural one (Levi-Strauss, 1966). The cultural materialistic perspective of Douglas (1975) examines the role of food as a code conveying information about social events and social relations and the commonalities of the structure of each meal across culture. The discipline of discursive psychology, food semiology in particular, inspects how foods and food preparation rituals of a given society represent a linguistic system, conveying social information that helps create and maintain its social identity (Barthes, 1973).

The sociology of food consumption mostly looks into whether the social patterns of food consumption are shaped by the 'structure' of society, or whether they are shaped

actively by the actions of the 'agents' or members of the society (Germov & Williams, 1999; McIntosh, 1996). In particular, sociological research pertinent to food consumption has dealt with determination of interrelationships between food and cultures (Goody, 1982; Mennell, 1985), food habits as a function of changing environmental, social and ecological conditions (Mennell, 1992), food consumption as a means of social differentiation (Bourdieu, 1984 (1979); Warde, 1997), and the impact of modernization and globalization on food consumption (Ritzer, 1996,1999; Ritzer, Goodman, & Wiedenhoft, 2001). According to McIntosh (1996) and Germov and Williams (1999), the theories of globalization and the theories of social differentiation are useful in explaining the trends in modern food consumption.

Food theorists, however, have normally confined themselves to studying consumption patterns within structured environments like the home, family dinners, festivals and restaurants with hardly any reference at all to the tourists. Studying tourists' food-related activities is unique in that the tourists leave their structured environments, where the demands of the tourist lifestyle prevent them from going through the normal eating rituals thus forcing them to make do with what is available. Structure, which appear as a result of rules governing presentation, varieties and rules of precedence and combination of food (Douglas, 1975; Marshall, 1993) is mostly overlooked by the tourists. The role of food alters in that consumption of food becomes a form of recreation as well as an important component of overall tourist activity and experience.

1.3.a Food Consumption and Globalization Theories

The modern macro-sociological theories of globalization have been used to explain the dramatically changing food consumption patterns all over the world. Globalization has been attributed to the destruction of food related traditions like home cooking and individualized family restaurants while increasing nutritional issues and concerns such as balanced and healthy diet. The world cultural theory, one of the theories of interpreting globalization, defines globalization as "the diffusion of practices, values and technology that have an influence on people's lives worldwide" (Albrow, 1997, p.88 and "the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as whole"(Robertson, 1992, p.8).

According to this theory, there is a constant struggle between the homogenizing forces of globalization and its oppositional dynamics of heterogenization, and the resistance to the global from the local. So, on one hand, there is the proliferation of chain restaurants, pre-cooked and processed foods, foreign foods, and ethnic restaurants all over the world, resulting in a more 'globalized palate.' On the other hand, there is a considerable effort to re-establish and articulate the local food systems, resulting in the continuation or resurgence of the local cuisines (Henderson, 1998; Lang, 1999). The emphasis of the globalization theory is on the dynamics of opposing processes and not on the outcome.

With respect to tourism, even though tourists come across potentially unfamiliar foods to a greater degree at the destination than at home, globalization with its time and space compression has permitted more people to experience ethnic and foreign foods at their home. This begs a question as to how the tourist's need for novelty, change, and the

exotic is satisfied, when diversity is being supplanted by uniformity, predictability, and familiarity. Furthermore, with dining becoming a recreational tourist activity and destinations marketing local food as a tourist attraction, the concept of globalization questions the strength of the classic hypothesis of tourist seeking experiences not available in daily life (Richards, 2002). Thus, there is a quandary in the impact of globalization for tourism in that as foodways become global, there is a problem for destinations promoting tourism to stress the uniqueness of their local cuisines to those who can taste the same at home.

The globalization theory of world culture (Robertson, 1992), which encompasses the homogeneity versus the heterogeneity dispute (Robertson, 1995) and the significance of the local as an essential ingredient of the overall globalization process (Robertson, 1997), theorizes how globalization is actually presenting people with diverse experiences despite the convergence in tastes. The emphasis on eating the cuisine where it is native rather than the processed food via franchising worldwide, the growing resurgence of the local through resistance movements like the Slow Cities and Slow Food which offer the tourists a taste of 'real' local food, are all example of the dialectical relationship between globalization and localization. The globalization theory is hence employed in this dissertation to analyze the role of macro-structural forces in explaining food tourism.

1.3.b Food Consumption and Theories of Social Differentiation

While theories of globalization explain how structural forces operating on a macro-level influence our consumption, the theories of social differentiation explain consumption patterns on the micro-level. The theories of social differentiation examine how food is

used as a means to maintain and establish hierarchy, inclusion and exclusion, social distinction, and self-identity, thereby reinforcing symbolic boundaries and conveying social information. Cultural capital theory (Bourdieu, 1984), a theory of social differentiation, has been often used by sociologists (Germov & Williams, 1999; McIntosh, 1996; Warde, 1997; Warde & Martens, 2000) to explain why different patterns of consumption exist within a society.

Cultural capital theory treats the physical necessity of eating as a cultural practice, and food as one of the cultural resources by which people maintain a symbolic distance, social stratification, and quite often even social exclusion. Cultural capital is not the prerogative of the rich and the elite, who are endowed with economic capital, but it is transmitted through: 1) endowed or symbolic form as internalized culture, 2) objectified form in material objects and media, and 3) institutionalized form like education and degree certificates. With respect to food, possession of cultural capital is manifested in a refined sense of taste and a quest and appreciation for obscure local, regional foods and distinctive cuisines that suggest cultural heritage (Pietrykowski, 2004).

The cultural capital theory (Bourdieu, 1984), with its underlying assumption about developing familiarity, interest, involvement and knowledge about certain cultural products as a means to maintain social stratification systems, is proposed as an explanation of the emergence of food tourism and the culinary tourist. Eating is more than just a biological act, and the tourist deploys as well as accrues cultural capital by participating in food tourism, with food being a source of pleasure, as well as a cultural resource.

Tourism researchers have stressed the importance of analyzing the tourist both at the micro–level as well as at the structural macro-level for the theoretical framework to be relevant and to provide a broader social context to explain tourist experiences (McGehee, 1999; Pearce, 1993; Sharpley, 1999). Food theorists in sociology have also stressed on the need to study food consumption, combining both the macro and micro-level (Germov & Williams, 1999; McIntosh, 1996). Using this approach to the theoretical framework, the current investigation uses the macro-sociological theory of globalization and the micro-sociological theory of cultural capital as the two overarching theories to understand and explain food tourism.

1.4 Problem Statement

In the book Food Tourism around the World, Mitchell and Hall (2003) state:

"Studies of consumer behavior in the area of food tourism are rare and, as a result, the picture we have of the food tourist, is at best sketchy, and considerable amount of research is required to understand food tourism consumer behavior more effectively. To date the material that does exist has been borrowed from more general tourism studies or has been inferred from studies not directly related to tourism" (p.80).

This quote illustrates the relevance of the current investigation to the tourism literature.

Empirical evidence of the culinary tourist and activities that constitute food tourism is difficult to locate, although there are anecdotal references in the literature connecting food and tourism. Food has been viewed as a necessary element of survival, and probably as a component of another attraction such as food in festivals, but has

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hardly been studied as an attraction or as a tourist recreational activity by itself (Smith, 1983). Food and dining is typically lumped together with accommodations in an assemblage of tourism statistics (Selwood, 2003). In general, food has been the overlooked, unsung component and largely a *terra incognita* of tourism research.

Studies in tourism where food has been the focus of research have mainly been case studies (Boniface, 2003; Hall, Sharples, Mitchell, Macionis, & Cambourne, 2003; Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Telfer & Hashimoto, 2003) and ethnographies (Long, 1998, 2004). These studies have contributed to the field by providing analysis of the relationship between food and tourism with practical examples of success stories of cities and countries that have used culinary tourism as a positioning strategy. In addition, they have attempted to define the parameters within which to study food in tourism. However, the data that is available on food-centric tourism activities is disparate and owes its origin to unrelated range of sources.

Thus, there is a need for conceptually based research set in a positivistic paradigm within the framework of social sciences that empirically examines food tourism and identifies the characteristics of culinary tourist. The obvious lacuna that exists in terms of research that specifically examines food in tourism needs to be addressed. This dissertation contributes to that end.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

For the purposes of this dissertation, food tourism is defined as tourist's food related activities at the destination, such as dining, purchasing local food products, and experiencing the characteristics of a unique food-producing region. In addition, the

culinary tourist is defined as the special interest tourist whose major activities at the destination are food-related and for whom food tourism is an important, if not primary, reason influencing his travel behavior.

The goals of this dissertation are two-fold. The first objective is pertinent to food tourism. It is concerned with identifying the underlying dimensions of food tourism. Drawing from tourism literature that focuses on food, a conceptual framework is proposed and tested to identify the concepts that explain participation in food tourism. The second objective concerns the culinary tourist market segment. It involves classification of tourists based on their participation in food tourism and identification of the culinary tourist. Finally, the variables that predict membership in the food tourist segments are determined.

Further, using theoretical pluralism, this dissertation combines the theoretical framework of globalization and cultural capital to understand food tourism. However, the purpose of this dissertation is not to test the two theories, but to use them as overarching theories to explain food tourism. The theoretical and empirical objectives of the dissertation are outlined as follows:

Theoretical Objectives:

1. To understand how the world culture theory of globalization and the cultural capital theory together contribute to the explanation of food tourism.

Empirical Objectives:

1. To determine the underlying dimensions of food tourism;

2. To formulate and test a conceptual framework to identify the variables that explain participation in food tourism;

3. To examine the effect of the sociodemographic variables on participation in food tourism;

4. To develop a taxonomy of tourists based on their participation in food tourism;

5. To identify the variables that predict membership in the food tourist clusters;

6. To examine significant association between sociodemographic variables and the food tourist clusters.

1.6 Research Questions for the Dissertation

The research questions that arise out of the empirical objectives of the dissertation are stated next:

1. What are the underlying dimensions of food tourism?

2. What variables explain participation in food tourism?

3. Are there any differences in participation in food tourism with respect to age, gender, marital status, occupation, education, annual income?

4. Can tourists be segmented into homogenous groups based on their participation in food tourism?

5. What variables predict membership in each of the food tourist clusters (arrived at as a result of the classification of tourists based on their participation in food tourism)?

6. Is there an association between the food tourist clusters and age, gender, marital status, occupation, education, and annual income of the tourists?

Propositions are developed and stated for each of these research questions in Chapter Two along with the literature review, which provides a conceptual foundation for

the dissertation's hypotheses. The hypotheses are presented in Chapter Three. The outcome of the hypotheses testing is finally explained within the framework of the two theories in Chapter Six.

1.7. Delimitations and Limitations

The dissertation is subject to following delimitations:

1. The dissertation is delimited to tourists visiting the four coastal counties of South Carolina;

2. The dissertation does not take into account the amount of money spent by the tourists on food and food-related activities;

3. The dissertation is limited to tourists vacationing during the summer season only;

4. The dissertation does not explore and identify the primary travel motivations of the tourists with respect to food, and limits itself to tourists' participation in food related activities.

5. The dissertation limits itself to being an empirical generalization and does not test any theory/ theories.

1.8 Definitions

Tourism: According to Mathieson and Wall, 1982 "The temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to these needs" (Gunn, 1988, p.2).

Food Tourism: The tourist's food related activities at a destination, such as dining, purchasing local food products or food pertinent products, and experiencing the characteristics of a unique food-producing region.

Special Interest Tourism: When satisfying particular leisure pursuit or interest is the major motive influencing travel behavior and sometimes even selection of a destination for pleasure travel.

Culinary Tourist: A special interest tourist, whose major activities at the destination are food-related, and for whom food tourism is an important, if not primary, reason influencing his travel behavior.

Cultural Tourism: Visiting a place with a motivation to explore and immerse intentionally to learn about aspects of culture like customs, arts, heritage, and lifestyle in an informed way.

Other: "the anthropological notion of humans defining the world according to their own socially constructed perceptions of reality, perceptions that divide the world into the known and the familiar as opposed to the unknown or the other" (Long, 2004, p.23)

Foodways: The culinary culture of a region or a country that includes its cuisines, the eating practices of its people, and its culinary history and heritage.

Globalization: Combining the definitions of Robertson (1992 p.8) and Albrow (1997, p.88) "Diffusion of practices, values and technology due to spatio–temporal compression of the world, resulting in the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole."

Cultural Capital: The accumulation of knowledge of cultural practices, its symbolic mastery, and the ability to perform tasks in culturally acceptable ways and participate in high culture events.

Structure: The social force that determines the way the society is organized through social institutions and social groups, resulting in predictable patterns of social interaction.

Agency: The ability of people, individually and collectively, to influence their own lives and the society in which they live.

1.9 Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter One presented an introduction to this dissertation, discussed the role of food in tourism, and the emergence of the niche travel market of culinary tourism. It briefly discussed the relevance of the theories of globalization and cultural capital in explaining food consumption, and their potential in explaining food tourism. In addition, the problem statement, the objectives, the research questions that arise out of the objectives of the dissertation, the key terms, delimitations and limitations were defined.

In Chapter Two, the theories of globalization and cultural capital are reviewed. Next, the literature where the twin themes of food and tourism intermingle is reviewed with an aim to answer the research questions that were presented in Chapter One. At appropriate points in the text, the major propositions arrived at after the literature review are presented and finally summarized as the conceptual framework that explains participation in food tourism.

Chapter Three presents the hypotheses for each of the research questions of the dissertation, discusses the methodology employed for the current dissertation, and presents the operationalization of the variables. Chapter Four reports the descriptive results of the research. Chapter Five discusses the results from the testing of conceptual framework and the segmentation of the tourists, and other hypotheses.

Chapter Six concludes the dissertation by summarizing the findings, discussing their implications, and offering suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

AND

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section reviews the two main

theories of consumption, the world culture theory of globalization and the cultural capital

theory, to offer a theoretical explanation for tourist food consumption. The second section

demonstrates how the review of tourism literature that focus on food resulted in the

formulation of the research propositions and a conceptual framework that explains

participation in food tourism. In the final section, the relevance of socioeconomic and

demographic status in tourist food consumption is reviewed. At appropriate points in the

text, assumptions and major propositions underlying the dissertation are presented.

2.1 World Culture Theory of Globalization

Globalization theories are theories of modernity and are significant in explaining

the development of the new means of consumption (Ritzer, 1996, 1999). There are

different perspectives on globalization theory, with the three main interpretations of

globalization in the field of sociology being: 1) the world culture theory, 2) the world

system theory, and 3) the world polity theory. Since this dissertation views food as a

cultural component, the world culture theory of globalization is used as a means of

understanding tourists' food consumption.

The term globalization was first used around 1960 to connote something that is happening worldwide (Waters, 1995). Economics, business, technology, politics, culture, and environmental studies have used this term from different perspectives and with different definitions. Sociologists have defined globalization in the following ways:

"…diffusion of practices, values and technology that have an influence on people's lives worldwide" (Albrow, 1997, p.88);

"…spatio-temporal processes of change which underpin a transformation in the organization of human affairs by linking together and expanding human activity across regions and continents" (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton, 1999, p14), and

"…interconnectedness of the world as a whole and the concomitant increase in reflexive, global consciousness" (Robertson, 2001, p.8).

According to world culture theory of globalization (Robertson, 1992), the process of globalization operates independent of societal and other socio-cultural processes though it has an impact on them. Movement of religious ideas, money, tourism, food and technology exist globally, breaking old social orders and enabling new solidarities. Though the popular notion is that the there is an economic causality (through transnational corporations) to the globalization process, Robertson (1992) theorizes that there is no single driving force to globalization. Different forces such as religion, culture and technology have been dominant causal forces in the process of globalization at different times throughout the history of humanity.

An important theme of world culture theory of globalization is that globalization is not a monolithic concept but has a multidimensional aspect to it. It is a complex mixture of homogenization and heterogenization. People interpret globalized goods and

ideas in a variety of ways and incorporate them into their lives in diverse ways. There is a tension between the global and the local. These result in societies either incorporating the global, or annexing the global selectively to suit the local by what economists and sociologists term as 'glocalisation,' or by sometimes rejecting it, as manifested through the resurgent affirmation of local identities (Robertson, 1997). Relatively few products are sold in a globally standardized form, as most are modified to suit to the local culture, values and tastes.

To summarize, the stress upon the local and the dynamics of the local's interaction with the global is the hallmark of the globalization theory. Globalization is thus neither a civilizing nor a destructive force, and is quite often a consequence of modernity. Its impact across countries and time has been haphazard, discontinuous and even contradictory.

The World Culture Theory of Globalization and Food Consumption

Sociologists studying food consumption (Germov & Williams, 1999; McIntosh, 1996) have used the world culture theory of globalization to explain the patterns of modern food consumption. The theory when applied to food consumption reflects the same dynamics in that there is dialectical relationship between the global and the local, and convergence as well as divergence of tastes.

With respect to food consumption, the homogenizing aspect of globalization has been attributed to economic forces, particularly because the economic process of trade liberalization makes it possible for food to be sourced from any part of the world. In addition, the most powerful reason for the convergence of tastes has been attributed to the role of food corporations, making branded food products, recipes, and ready-to-eat

processed foods available throughout the world (Lang, 1999; Nygard & Storstad, 1998; Sklair, 1991). The flow of tastes has predominantly been from the overproducing western nations to the south, infiltrating the more regionally self-reliant markets (Lang, 1997). Even though the west has adopted many immigrant foods, the foods that have been adopted have been mostly transformed and popularized in their processed and ready-to-eat form to such an extent that centuries old diets in many countries are being altered (Barnet & Cavanagh, 1994).

This standardization of tastes, although stimulated in the economic sphere, results in cultural phenomena with certain images and symbols accepted the world over as aesthetics / lifestyle (Sklair, 1991). The example of a young French population increasingly getting attracted to foods served at international franchisees and chains (Fantasia, 1995) is often cited as an example of how a country such as France, which is generally perceived as culturally insular, cannot escape from the overall trend of globalization of tastes.

Even though globalization has been accused of suppressing regional food differences, major local and regional variations in our eating patterns remain. The world culture theory of globalization (Robertson, 1992) attributes this to the tension that exists between the global and the local. The opposition and public protests to the fast food chains such as McDonald's and Kentucky Fried Chicken in many parts of the world are prime examples of such dynamics. Even western countries like Australia have small communities and towns fighting for Mac-free zones (www.mcspotlight.org/campaigns/ current/residents/index.html).

Further, the significance of the local as an opposing force to the global is also seen in the movements like the Slow Food Movement in Italy and many small communities of Europe and the USA. In many western countries, extensive efforts are being undertaken by local communities to reconstruct and emphasize local food systems to protect their endangered gastronomic traditions (Henderson, 1998; Mayer & Knox, 2005; Stille, 2001). Thus, even though Mennell (2000) states that globalization is facilitating a trend of 'diminishing contrasts and increasing varieties,' the dynamics of globalization ensures that regional and national differences still exist and there are still more differences than varieties (Nygard and Storstad, 1998).

To summarize, the counteracting forces of globalization and localization act simultaneously leading to people becoming familiar with foods and cuisines from different parts of the world and being introduced to a variety of local versions. This has resulted in convergence in consumptive behavior on one hand and increased variety on the other.

2.2 Theory of Cultural Capital

While theories of globalization explain how macro level forces influence the modern consumption, other forces obviously function. According to Germov and Williams (1999), "…while the social structure clearly affects the production, distribution, and consumption of food, a sole focus on structural determinants obscures the agency of the people and the counter trend away from rationalization, represented by the concept of social differentiation"(p. 303).

The cultural capital theory (Bourdieu, 1984) is one such theory of social differentiation that explains differences in consumption across groups in terms of tastes, pleasures, and desires (Warde, 1997). Warde, Martens, and Olsen (1999) define cultural capital as "the cultural knowledge, competence and disposition, identified through embodied traits, educational qualifications, material possessions, and involvement in cultural practices" (p.125). The theory views culture as complex rule-like structures that constitute resources that can be put to strategic use, as opposed to the view of culture as the values that suffuse aspects of belief, intention, and the collective life (DiMaggio, 1997; Hays, 1994).

According to Bourdieu (1984), class hierarchy is based on a combination of wealth and education. An individual's combined returns from these two determine his or her class position. The class positions generate different experiences, determine cultural choices, and generate internal commonalities and a system of shared preferences, norms, and symbols. The rich elites and the educated elites maintain exclusivity through their preference for certain genres and forms of non-material culture (visual art, music and literature) and material cultures (food, clothing, furniture).

However, people rich in economic capital may not necessarily be high in cultural capital because even though they value the arts, they may lack the capability to appreciate varied cultural arts. Studies that have empirically tested the cultural capital theory have attested this by demonstrating strong correlation between education level and the knowledge and ability to appreciate varied cultural activities like music, visual arts, literature, cuisines, movies, and other leisure practices (DiMaggio, 1982; DiMaggio & Mohr, 1985;Gartman, 1991; Glynn, Bhattacharya, & Rao, 1996; Katz-Gerro & Shavit,

1998; Ostrower, 1998; Wilson, 2002) . The reason given for this relationship is that education transmits culture inter-generationally in the form of dispositions, tastes, and knowledge, in the sense that once preferences evolves, these are maintained from one generation to another in large measure by educational reinforcement (DiMaggio & Mohr, 1985; Holt, 2000).

This focus on class and the way cultural capital passes on inter-generationally makes the theory of cultural capital static in nature, and sociologists studying consumption (Adema, 2000; Erickson, 1996; Katz-Gerro & Shavit, 1998; Warde, Martens, & Olsen, 1999) have criticized the cultural capital theory for that reason. According to them, the emphasis on class is too narrow to cover the dynamic diffusion of objects of consumption. In addition, the theory underestimates the role of social network diversity and other complex modern social structures that contribute to cultural capital (Erickson, 1996). This makes the cultural capital theory, a theory of reproduction of status. Featherstone's (1991) statement that "…we are moving towards a society without fixed status groups in which the adoptions of styles of life, which are fixed to specific groups, have been suppressed" (p.83), provides an apt criticism of the cultural capital theory.

With this criticism in mind, recent studies on cultural capital theory have looked into the stratification of consumption and differentiation in tastes as a product of lifestyle choices (Adema, 2000; DiMaggio, 1987; Erickson, 1996; Katz-Gerro and Shavit, 1998; Lamont, 1992; Warde, 1999). According to these studies, people rich in cultural capital are those who are knowledgeable about a wide variety of cultural practices, understand the relevance and rules of these practices and can use these as a conversational resource.

These culturally varied people are known as cultural omnivores (Peterson, 1992) and they characterize the modern cultural consumption. According to Erickson (1996), "It is not a hierarchy of tastes (from soap opera to classical opera) but a hierarchy of knowledge (from those who have little knowledge about soap opera or opera to those who can take part in a conversation about both)" (p.219) that determines one's cultural capital and its possession.

One of the major weakness of the cultural capital theory is that too many variables denote cultural capital (DiMaggio & Mukhtar, 2002; Kingston, 2001) and there is no consensus on its operationalization. It has been operationalized as knowledge about cultural art forms, participation in cultural art forms, involvement in cultural arts, and sometimes even as the degree of appreciation of the arts.

Cultural Capital Theory and Food Consumption

According to Mattiacci and Vignali (2004), "…from the birth of nouvelle cuisine onwards, there has been a growing trend towards considering food as an intellectual experience, together with exploration and rediscovery, love for history and culture, search for traditional identity and, at the same time, for something new." (p.704)

The cultural capital theory uses a similar perspective with respect to food and views eating as a cultural act. The culinary field functions like other domains of 'high' culture and art such that there is a hierarchy of cuisines and hierarchy of food outlets and there are group of professional practitioners and critics engaged in aesthetic discourse about restaurants and their dishes (Warde, 2004). The cultural capital theory revolves around the differential ability to control the definition of what is 'good to eat.'

According to this theory, 'taste' becomes a social issue when the meal distances itself from its function of satisfying hunger and transforms into a social form or a means of interaction. The function expected from food is indicative of one's cultural capital. Those low in cultural capital demand substantial meals with a taste for things that are functional and non-formal. Those high in cultural capital, on the other hand, abandon substance in favor of form and are committed to the symbolic. Thus, the principle governing these differences in tastes in food is the opposition between the "tastes of luxury (or freedom) and the tastes of necessity" (Bourdieu, 1984, p.198).

As stated earlier, the 'cultural omnivore' perspective of cultural capital views the breadth of knowledge about various cultural forms and practices as cultural capital. With respect to food, cultural capital may reside in knowledge about gourmet foods, exotic flavors, foods that are acquired tastes, and familiarity with advanced preparation techniques (Adema, 2000). In addition, the growing popularity of cooking shows, a concern for where the food originates from, a desire to resist the dominant culture of franchised food and restaurants, and the quest for obscure local and regional cuisines and artisan-produced foods are all indicative of cultural capital (Pietrykowski, 2004; Warde, 2004).

Empirical studies on cultural capital and food have studied dining patterns in restaurants extensively (Erickson, 1996; Warde et al, 1999; Warde, 2004). According to these studies, ethnic restaurants are the hotbeds for accruing as well as deploying cultural capital and "…the appeal of ethnic cuisines other than one's own is symbolic in that it links specialized knowledge with a cosmopolitan orientation" (Warde et al, 1999, p.123). As for the foods served at franchisee restaurants, even though their consumption cuts

across social classes, fast food chains are so standardized that their conversational possibilities end quickly and are therefore not frequented by people with high cultural capital (Erickson, 1996). Thus, "distinction is conferred through selection of both places to eat and of dishes" (Warde, 2004, p. 23), which results in members of different social classes systematically picking certain foods and restaurants in preference to others, thereby displaying class differences in a recognizable form, facilitating cohesion and social exclusion among its possessors

To sum up, cultural capital theory is a theory of stratification, which lays the claim that consumption of food is a socially constructed affair. People accrue cultural capital by extending their knowledge, involvement, and familiarity with wide variety of foods and cuisines, especially the non-standardized foods that symbolize refinement, consequently resulting in their social exclusion.

2.3 Towards a Theory of Tourist Food Consumption

Though this dissertation does not seek to test any theory, a discussion on globalization, cultural capital and the tourists' food consumption is helpful in understanding food tourism. Combining the macro theory of globalization and the micro theory of cultural capital to explain food tourism, a theoretical framework is proposed in this section.

The dynamics of world culture theory of globalization (Robertson, 1991, 1992) are at play in the tourist food consumption. On one hand, the homogenizing forces of globalization are at play, as evidenced by popularity of consumption at franchised fast-food outlets and chain restaurants among tourists in the case studies of Caribbean islands

and Yucatan peninsula (Belisle, 1983,1984; Torres, 2002). On the other hand, the counter trend against homogenization is seen in the successful strategic alliances of Niagara region (Telfer, 2001), and Mallorca (Alcock, 1995) where efforts on the part of destinations to promote local food boosted tourism and the local economy. The forces of globalization have exposed people to foreign foods at home, made them less wary of the food of foreign foods, and stimulated them to experience those foods when they travel. Moreover, the presence of both local food, and the global in the form of chain restaurants, provides them with more variety than ever.

However, the level of exposure to the foreign foods and cuisines at home depends on one's position in the socio-cultural echelon. Extrapolating from the cultural capital theory, tourists who possess the cultural capital to appreciate and enjoy foreign food at home are the ones who are more likely to experience the local food at the destination (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). By ordering a particular dish, pronouncing it the way the natives pronounce, and dining at places that are not 'touristy' but are frequented by locals, they show cultural competence rather than adventurousness (Molz, 2004; Richards, 2002). Since cultural omnivorousness is characteristic of people with high cultural capital, tourists who possess cultural capital frequent places of all types and derive as much satisfaction from consuming peasant foods, as they do from eating at high quality restaurants. More importantly, since eating out is a necessary element of the vacation experience, and almost all tourists eat out, destinations become a playground for accruing as well as deploying one's cultural capital. Where the tourist eats and what he eats exhibits the socio-cultural echelons he belongs to, and makes food an ideal tool for social cohesion and social stratification.

<center>2.4 Conceptual Development</center>

This section presents the conceptual foundations of the dissertation. Prior tourism literature that focused on food is reviewed with an aim to delineate the activities that constitute food tourism and understand its characteristics. Next, the concepts that literature suggests are significant in explaining food tourism are located in order to develop a conceptual model.

<center>2.4.a Food Tourism</center>

The lack of empirical studies with respect to food tourism calls for a detailed discussion of literature that has focused on this form of tourism in order to describe food tourism. In the literature where one sees the interface between food and tourism, food tourism as a form of tourism makes its appearance as gastronomic tourism (Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Zelinsky, 1985), culinary tourism (Long, 1998) and food tourism (Hall & Mitchell, 2001; Hall, Sharples, Mitchell, Macionis, & Cambourne, 2003). These different terminologies connote almost the same notion, i.e. tourists' participation in food related activities, with food being the focus of travel behavior rather than a by-product.

Gastronomic Tourism

According to Zelinsky (1985) eating at ethnic and regional cuisine restaurants is a form of gastronomic tourism, implying that a person need not be a tourist in the conventional sense to take part in food tourism. However, Zelinsky's study is limited in its approach in that it confines itself to just one activity: eating at ethnic restaurants. The

study's contribution to the literature lies in being the first to identify and define this form of tourism, thus laying the foundations for future research.

Culinary Tourism

Long (1998) uses an anthropological perspective and defines culinary tourism as "…an intentional, exploratory participation in the foodways of an 'Other,' participation including the consumption or preparation and presentation for consumption of a food item, cuisine, meal system, or eating style considered as belonging to a culinary system not one's own"(p.181).

What is noteworthy about the definition is its similarity to the idea conceived by Zelinsky (1985), the key characteristic being that one need not travel to a place away from home to be a culinary tourist. According to Long (1998), a culinary tourist's participation in the foodways of the 'Other' is either 'intentional' or 'exploratory' or both 'intentional and exploratory.' This implies that culinary tourist may be positioned on a continuum from low to high based on interest, curiosity, and intention.

Long (2004) posits that the culinary 'Other' can be classified into five categories: culture, region, time, ethos/ religion, and socio-economic class (p.24). The first category of culinary tourism is based on the cultural 'Other.' This refers to experiencing foodways of ethnicities not one's own. The cultural other is the most frequent category in which culinary tourism is enacted, and represents the common notion of culinary tourism.

The culinary tourism based on the regional 'Other' refers to experiencing a food system that is physically removed from one's own. Thus, geography plays a considerable part in this category of culinary tourism. The concept of the *terroir*, that is, the combination of the local soil, the physical environment and the local culture that makes

the local produce and the cuisine unique to the region, plays a significant role here. So much so that sometimes the local produce becomes iconic of the region alone. A classic example of this is Maine lobster, which though being a part of the Maine coast has become symbolic of the state (Lewis, 1998), and is an integral part of the Maine tourist itinerary.

The third category of the culinary 'Other' is that of experiencing foodways that are separated by time, both historic and futuristic. Activities for this type of culinary tourism would include visiting an attraction where one could savor historic reenactments of feasts from a different era, sampling foods of the past and food products like heirloom tomatoes, watching demonstrations of old style cooking, buying cookbooks with recipes from the past, and sampling "futuristic foods" (p.184).

The fourth category of the culinary 'Other' is experiencing the culinary ethos that is not one's own. Examples of this would be experiencing foods cooked for a religious dietary requirement (e.g. Ramadan food, Hallal, and Kosher food), church festivals, foods cooked with respect to belief systems like vegetarianism, vegan, and foods cooked using organically grown local produce.

The final category of culinary 'Other' is the socio-economic other. Examples include dining at an upscale restaurants, attending a gourmet cooking class, or experiencing lower class cuisines like mountain foods, Southern working class food, down-home diners, home cooked plain food of the middle class that is served at the mom and pop's outlets, and buying "White Trash cookbooks" (p.184).

The sites for participation in culinary tourism, according to Long (1998), include restaurants, ethnic restaurants, festivals, festive food events especially dedicated to a

particular produce like apple, peach, pumpkin, shrimp, oysters and the like, and cooking

demonstrations using home grown, freshly picked product at community festivals.

Long's (1998) study thus contributes to the understanding of culinary tourism in

three ways. For one, it defines culinary tourism. Next, it demonstrates that culinary

tourism is composed of different categories of activities, implying that culinary tourism is

multidimensional. Finally, it shows that there are, in fact, multiple sites for participating

in culinary tourism. This seminal work, though influential in defining the parameter of

food tourism, is more of an anthropological discourse and lacks empirical analysis.

Food Tourism

An opertionalizable definition of food tourism, and a much more extensive work,

comes from Hall and Mitchell (2001) and Hall and Sharples (2003). According to Hall

and Sharples (2003), food tourism is "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 & Mitchell, 2001, p.10). Thus, they narrow the scope

of food tourism by stating that food tourism occurs only when the food of a place acts as

a primary motivator to travel to the destination.

Further, Hall and Sharples (2003) propose segmentation of food tourism based on

the "importance of a special interest in food as a travel motivation" (p.11). The

segmentation is based on the following criteria: 1) a high interest in food tourism in

indicated by traveling to a destination with the primary motive of visiting a restaurant,

market or winery, and all tourist activities are food related. They label this segment as

gourmet/ cuisine/gastronomic tourism; 2) participation in food related activities as a part

of wider range of activities at the destination indicates a moderate interest. They term this segment as culinary tourism; 3) a low interest is indicated by participation in food related activities just out of curiosity or because 'it is something different.' They label this segment as the rural/urban tourist; 4) a segment that shows no interest in food related activities, or considers food subsidiary to all other interests as a tourist is the final segment. This segment is an unlabeled segment. Hall and Mitchell's (2001), and Hall and Sharples' (2003) main contributions lie in providing an opertionalizable definition of food tourism and also in conceptualizing different types of food tourism based on one's level of interest in food as a travel motivating factor.

Despite Hall and Sharples' (2003) view that there is spectrum of food tourism activities and a food tourism continuum, apparently, there seems to be a mismatch between their definition of food tourism and their subsequent segmentation of food tourism. If, as they propose, food tourism is defined as tourism where food is the "primary motivating factor for travel" (p.10), then segmentation of food tourism based on the criterion "interest in food as a travel motivation" (p.11) seems inappropriate and cannot be tested empirically.

This dissertation addresses this shortcoming by taking a broader approach in defining food tourism and using the frequency of participation in food related activities as a criterion to segment tourists. Modifying Hall and Mitchell's (2001) definition, this dissertation redefines food tourism as a tourist's food related activities at the destination, such as consuming ethnic and distinctive cuisines, visiting primary and secondary food producers, purchasing local food products or food pertinent products, and experiencing the characteristics of a unique food producing region. Thus, although all tourists may

participate in food tourism, it is the degree of participation which determines where the tourist stands along the 'tourism interest continuum' (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997), with high participation indicating special interest tourism. This dissertation views culinary tourism as a special interest tourism, defining culinary tourism as special interest tourism where an interest in food and activities related to food is a major, if not primary reason influencing travel behavior.

Thus, the segmentation criterion is based on the degree of interest as observed through the frequency of activities and not on motivation, and the decisive factor of segmentation is not food tourism, but tourists participating in food tourism. By doing so, this dissertation hopes to address the inadequacies of Hall and Mitchell's (2001) definition of food tourism and its apparent mismatch with the criterion used for Hall and Sharples' (2003) segmentation.

Other Important Contributions

Other important contributions to the understanding of food tourism come from Kirshenblatt-Gimblett (2004) and Shortridge (2004). According to Kirshenblatt – Gimblett (2004), gastronomic or culinary tourism occurs "when food is the focus of travel, and itineraries are organized around cooking schools, wineries, restaurants, and food festivals" (p.xi). The restaurants are prime sites for culinary/ gastronomic tourism, and its *raison d'etre* lies in "the specificity of experiencing the food on the spot, in relation to season, ripeness, freshness, perishability, and the total world of which it is the part"(p. xiv).

Shortridge (2004) studies the popularity of ethnic theme towns and the role of their communities in providing the culinary experience of their native countries to

tourists. The popular culinary tourism activities in the New Glarus, Wisconsin (a Swiss settlement) and Lindsborg, Kansas (a Swedish settlement) include buying food and food products, cookbooks and cooking utensils-both traditional and modern- that have been imported from the county of origin, eating at food festivals, watching cooking demonstrations, sampling food, and collecting souvenir recipes. The hallmark of this type of tourism is the concerted efforts on the part of the ethnic community to provide an authentic experience, not only in terms of the food, but also by creating a landscape that resembles the country the ethnic community represents.

To synopsize, all these studies contribute to the understanding of food tourism by driving home two important points. For one, food tourism encompasses numerous classes of food-related activities, and has a multidimensional aspect to it. Secondly, there is a continuum of tourists based on their participation in food-related activities. That is, there are different categories of food tourists. These two conclusions provide the foundations to the formulation of the first two propositions of the dissertation:

Proposition I.   Food Tourism is composed of different classes of activities.

Proposition II. Tourists can be classified into homogenous groups based on their participation in food tourism.

2.4.b Concepts that Explain Participation in Food Tourism

The food in tourism literature suggests the relevance of four concepts that influence participation in food tourism. The next section reviews literature pertinent to these four concepts that owe their origin to disparate fields such as food studies, social psychology, and consumer behavior.

<u>2.4. b.1 Food Neophobia</u>

The concept of food neophobia has been used widely in the food and nutrition literature to understand why people have the propensity to avoid or approach novel, unfamiliar, and foreign foods. Based on Otis' (1984) findings that a person's willingness to taste new food is significantly and positively related to how adventurous one thinks he is, Pliner and Hobden, (1992) conceptualized food neophobia as a personal trait and defined it as "the reluctance to eat and/ or avoidance of novel foods." Studies in food and nutrition have demonstrated significant gender and age differences regarding this trait, with men being more food neophobic than women, and older people more neophobic than younger people (Hobden & Pliner, 1995; Otis, 1984; Pliner, Eng, & Krishnan, 1995; Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Pliner & Melo, 1997; Pliner, Pelchat, & Grabski, 1993; Ritchey, Frank, Hursti, & Tuorila, 2003; Tuorila, Lahteenmaki, Pohjalainen, & Lotti, 2001). Further, these studies have found that low exposure to new foods, perceived dangerousness of novel foods, and social influence are significant predictors of food neophobia.

<u>Food Neophobia and Food Tourism</u>

According to Long (2004), food consumption is a dynamic process running along three axes: from the exotic to the familiar, from the inedible to the edible, and from the unpalatable to the palatable. In food / culinary tourism, there is usually a shift from the familiar to the exotic, where the exotic could be an ingredient, dish, eating style or preparation method of the host community. For food to function as a tourist attraction, it needs to fall sufficiently outside of the mundane and suitably inside the boundaries of what is palatable (Jochnowitz, 1998). In addition, the perception of what constitutes

exotic, inedible or unpalatable depends on personal tastes, personalities, cultural preferences and aesthetics.

Food neophobia is one such personal trait that has been proposed as a barrier for tourists to experience the local cuisines (Cohen & Avieli, 2004), affecting the food tourism experience (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). Local food might not be an attraction to many tourists because they are afraid of experimenting with novel foods and ingesting something strange (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). However, the empirical significance of food neophobia in explaining participation in food tourism remains untested.

Food borne diseases has been cited as a cause for concern by tourists traveling to developing countries, and "traveler's diarrhea" is reported as the most common ailment (MacLaurin, 2001). In a study of perceived risks of travel, Lepp and Gibson (2003) found strange food as being one of the risk factors for tourists. The study revealed that institutionalized tourists, the organized mass tourists, female tourists, and tourists with least experience in traveling abroad perceived strange food to be more of a risk.

The crucial role of food neophobia is illustrated in the literature by the following examples, each falling at the extreme ends of food consumption spectrum. On one extreme, there are the food neophilic tourists who demand for the exotic in dishes like *cuitlacoche* (made of corn fungus), and cactus worms, ant eggs, tacos of *chapulines* (grasshoppers), when they travel to Mexico (Pilcher, 2004, p.78). At the other end of the spectrum, there are the adventurous but food neophobic backpackers, who though adventurous enough to trek the extremely dangerous terrain of the Himalayas, are too reluctant and fastidious to try the local Nepalese fare and carry along packaged toasts, pizzas, and apple pies (Cohen & Avieli, 2004, p.759). This implies that novelty-seeking

as a tourist motivational factor is not an all-pervading trait applicable to all of the tourist's activities. Even though novelty-seeking may motivate a tourist to choose a destination or activities at the destination (Crompton, 1979; Lee & Crompton, 1992), it may not function within the realm of food.

From the destinations' perspective, food neophobia is a major hurdle in increasing the demand for regionally produced food, as seen in Belisle's (1983, 1984) case studies of the Caribbean Islands. The Caribbean economy, which survives on tourism, imports most of its food because the conservative eating habits of the sun and sand tourists prevent them from experiencing local dishes. This pattern seems to be recurring as evidenced by McAndrews' (2004) study on Hawaiian tourists, who despite showing interest in Hawaiian culture like Hula, fire-twirlers and the like, seem least interested in the local food, so much, that many a time the local food went untested.

As a result, destinations and restaurants have attempted to surmount the tourists' neophobic tendencies by developing strategies such as renaming the exotic dishes, or translating it and putting it within American or Anglicized context (e.g. Khmichi as the Korean pickle). Yet another strategy is the development of tourism-oriented culinary establishments (Cohen & Avieli, 2004), serving innovative and creative version of the local dishes that are transformed to suit the tourist palate. These function as a "culinary environmental bubble" (p.775) for the food neophobic tourists.

To sum up, food's capacity to affect the tourist's physical health makes it one of the risk elements of tourism. In addition, the inherent trait within a person to avoid novel foods plays a crucial factor in determining the extent of participation in food tourism. The

proposition arrived as a consequence of the literature review of the concept is stated below.

Proposition III. Food neophobia is negatively related to food tourism.

2.4. b.2 Variety-seeking Tendency

The concept of variety-seeking is borrowed from the consumer behavior literature. It is defined as the consumer's inherent desire for variety due to factors such as changes in tastes, changes in constraints, and changes in feasible alternatives (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982). In general, the concept of variety-seeking is identified as an offshoot of the need for stimulation, and is acknowledged as an underlying explanatory variable for the consumption of hedonic products like food, vacations, entertainment gadgets, and the like (Ratner, Kahn, & Kahneman, 1999).

VanTrijp and Steenkamp (1992) define variety-seeking tendency with respect to food as "the factor that aims at providing variation in stimulation through varied food product consumption irrespective of the instrumental/ functional value of the food product alternatives." Variety may be sought in the following conditions: 1) when there are changes in feasible set, that is, when the type of food that is normally consumed is not available; 2) when there are changes in constraints, such as, access to more money or restaurants; 3) when there are changes in tastes due to advertising; 4) when changes are sought as a goal in itself (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982). From a sociologist's point of view, variety- seeking with respect to food is a manifestation of cultural experimentalism and a search for innovation in consumption (Warde, Martens & Olsen, 1999). Further, it

is considered a significant feature of contemporary food consumption habits (Gabaccia, 1998).

Variety-seeking Tendency and Food Tourism

In tourism literature where food is the focus of study, variety-seeking tendency towards food is seen as an important variable explaining tourist food consumption. According to Shortridge (2004), the diversity of opportunities provided to the tourist to experience varieties of food is seen as the hallmark of food tourism. At the same time, the culinary tourists are characterized by their openness to variety (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 2004). A tourist's variety-seeking tendency with respect to food is manifested in a demand for variety of culinary traditions, and/or a demand for variety within a culinary system (Molz, 2004; Reynolds, 1993).

Molz's (2004) ethnographic study of diners at Thai restaurants evidences the demand for variety of culinary traditions as a form of variety-seeking tendency. According to her, culinary tourists seeking ethnic dining experiences are set apart by their demand for variety rather than seeking authentic differences. The subjects under study not only went to Thai restaurants, but also frequently ate at Japanese, Korean, Caribbean, Indian, Ethiopian, and several other ethnic restaurants. To these tourists, eating at a variety of restaurants was more pleasurable and a crucial factor in their overall culinary experience.

Availability of a variety of culinary experiences notwithstanding, the importance of the presence of variety of dishes with reference to an indigenous culinary system is also important to the tourists (Reynolds, 1993). In his longitudinal study of the menu offerings at twenty-eight local restaurants in the island of Bali, Reynolds (1993) found

that the percentage of local Balinese dishes in tourist towns dropped from 52% of the total dishes available per restaurant in 1988 to 16% in the year 1992. More than half of the tourists interviewed complained about the lack of a wider selection of indigenous dishes and rated it as an important criterion in their rating of overall tourist experience in Bali.

From a destination's perspective, the availability of a variety of dishes and the presence of an array of ethnic restaurants that provide a multiplicity of culinary experiences are considered important attributes of a tourist destination (Nield, Kozak, & LeGrys, 2000; Sparks, Bowen, & Klag, 2003). These contribute to the overall image and reputation of a destination, and ultimately the tourist's satisfaction with the destination. New York, London and San Francisco are examples of cities that have created a reputation of "foodie" destinations not just by being representative of any single regional cuisine or an iconic culinary system, but by the sheer variety of culinary cultures they offer.

To summarize, literature suggests that the tourist's variety-seeking tendency towards food is a form of cultural experimentation. Moreover, according to the literature, a destination's ability to provide variety of culinary traditions along with a multiplicity of dishes within a culinary tradition, undoubtedly adds to its overall attraction and satisfaction as a holiday destination. Thus, tourism literature pertinent to food consumption shows that variety-seeking tendency towards food plays a crucial role in explaining participation in food related activities. The proposition arrived at reviewing literature pertinent to variety-seeking tendency is stated next.

Proposition IV. Variety-seeking tendency towards food is positively related to

food tourism.

2.4.b.3 Hedonic Consumption

Hedonic consumption is a concept borrowed from the consumer behavior

literature, and is defined as, "those facets of consumer behavior that relate to the multi-

sensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of one's experiences with the products" (Hirschman

& Holbrook, 1982, p.92). The hallmark of hedonically valuable experience lies in the

aesthetic or the physical enjoyment it provides, resulting in increased arousal, heightened

involvement, perceived freedom, fantasy fulfillment, and escapism (Bloch & Richins,

1983; Hopkinson & Pujari, 1999).

With respect to food, hedonic attitudes of consumption involve an emphasis on

taste of food, a preference for cultural eating practices, a desire for complex, cultural

dishes or a desire for elaborate and extravagant foods, and a focus on the cultural practice

of eating food as well as the end benefits (LeBel, 2000; Wansink, Sonka, & Cheney,

2002, p.356). Further, it is not just purely a physiological sensation, such as the pleasure

felt on having a rich dessert or drinking alcohol. It is also a social pleasure, which for

example, occurs while having food and drinks with friends and family, emotional

pleasure (e.g. food that evoke pleasant memories), and intellectual pleasure, such as

cooking a fine meal, appreciating finer foods, and consuming beverages (LeBel, 2000).

This is in contrast to the utilitarian attitudes of consumption, which are more goal

oriented, task related and rational. These involve a focus on functional aspects of food, a

preference towards simple cultural foods and dishes, a desire for practicality in food

consumption, and a focus on the end benefits of eating such as energy, calories or nutrition (Wansink, Sonka & Cheney, 2002, p.356). With respect to dining out, satisfying hunger, convenience, price, and efficiency of the service are indicators of utilitarian attitudes (Park, 2004).

According to Spangenberg, Voss, and Crowley (1997) both the utilitarian and the hedonic attitudes might operate on cognitive as well as affective levels. However, the cognitive element dominates the utilitarian consumption attitude whereas the hedonic attitude is dominated by affective element. Although, in general, the utilitarian attitudes and the hedonic attitudes towards food have well-defined set of universal attributes, one's cultural background may sometimes define them. For example, diners at fast food restaurants in Korea considered the standardized and efficient appearance of franchised fast food exotic, and the fast food restaurants a fun place with novel ambience (Park, 2004) thereby showing a hedonic value to eating at fast food restaurants, and implying a cultural relativity to these attitudes.

Hedonic Consumption Attitude and Food Tourism

In the literature where one sees an interface of food and tourism, food is viewed as an element satisfying the sensation seeking need of the tourists, or something that provides peak experiences to the tourists. Thus, food forms a hedonic component in the overall tourism experience.

Analyzing the role of food in tourism, Boniface (2003) posits that the modern tourist is in a constant need for a 'high' and for immediate gratification. Food and drink provide sensory and tactile pleasure and satisfy that need more easily than any other tourist attraction. A special taste and sensation of unusual food and drink, the pleasure of

discovering a new food or dish all contribute to hedonic experiences in travel. Quan and Wang (2004) extend this proposition by stating that experiencing food can be a peak experience provided the tourist considers the food of the destination an attraction and activities related to food form a major part of the tourist's itinerary. More importantly, for food to provide peak tourist experiences, it should be in contrast to the tourist's daily experiences, in terms of either the dishes or presentation of the meal or the ambience.

With respect to food tourism per se, Mitchell and Hall (2003) state that food tourism is hedonic in nature since food becomes an experiential rather than a functional aspect of travel experience. According to them, tourists are motivated to participate in food tourism because of their hedonic attitude towards food consumption and that the essence of food tourism lies in its ability to satisfy the sensation seeking attitude of the tourist. Further, they propose that the popularity of wine tourism is a classic example of the significance of the hedonic attitudes as a part of travel experience. In a similar vein, Long (2004) states that the culinary tourist experiences the culinary 'Other' for the sake of experiencing it, and not out of the necessity of satisfying hunger. The pleasure derived is aesthetic in nature and stems from the consumption of food and not what food represents.

From the destination's perspective, it is the tourist's hedonic attitudes towards food that makes local food a tourist attraction in its own right and as important as any other attraction of a destination. Moeran (1983) and Boniface(2001) contribute to this proposition by studying tourist brochures and destination advertisements respectively. Moeran's (1983) analysis of Japanese tourist brochures revealed that the emphasis of tourism experiences was gradually shifting from that concentrating on the "sights" to that

of tourist experiences that involved "participation with their own skins" (p.96). The brochures portrayed tourism as sensually more diverse. Tasting foreign food was depicted as one of the hedonic experiences tourists could participate in and the key words in the brochures centered on experiences and discovery as opposed to the passive and sedate sightseeing. Similarly, Boniface's (2001) analysis of contemporary advertisements of tourist destinations revealed that there was a stress on the food and wine of the region as a part of the destinations' positioning strategy. She postulates that our fascination at home with foreign food and wine, combined with the modern society's emphasis on the aesthetic enjoyment of food forms a dynamic, which stimulates people to try out newer and more sensations when they travel. The advertisements promoting destinations' food and wine are a part of travel experience reflects this trend.

To sum up, as tourism is developing into becoming more experience oriented, and as something that is more than just 'gaze' oriented (Urry, 2002), food has become a medium of such an experience-based tourism. When the tourist's attitude towards food is hedonic rather than utilitarian, and the tourist views food as a part of the destinations attractions or 'pull factors,' food provides a pleasurable and memorable experience. Thus, experiencing the food of the destination becomes one of the motivations to travel, or at least a significant part of the tourist's overall activities, and ultimately provides peak tourist experiences. This makes food tourism a natural consequence of hedonism (Telfer & Hashimoto, 2003). The proposition arrived at from this review is presented below.

Proposition V. Hedonic consumption attitude towards food is positively related to food tourism.

2.4.b.4 Enduring Involvement with Food Related Activities

The concept of enduring involvement, used in the social psychology and marketing literatures for more than 45 years, is considered as an influential determinant of consumer behavior and as a mediator of purchases and participation (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). In the last decade, leisure, recreation and tourism researchers have identified this construct as an important variable that helps understand participation in leisure activities and tourists' vacation behavior (Dimanche, Havitz & Howard 1991; Havitz & Dimanche 1999; Kyle, et al, 2004; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992).

Owing to the large number of studies examining this concept, there are several definitions of involvement, both in consumer behavior and leisure and tourism studies. In general, leisure involvement is defined as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest towards a recreational activity or associated product, evoked by a particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties" (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999, p.123).

Despite the debates about the dimensionality of the concept, with very few exceptions (McQuarrie & Munson, 1987; Zaichkowsky, 1985), empirical evidence in leisure research strongly supports the conceptualization of involvement as a multi dimensional construct (Dimanche, Havitz, & Howard, 1991; Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, 1999; Havitz, Dimanche, & Howard, 1993; Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2003; Kyle et al, 2004; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; McIntyre, 1989; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992; Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000). This construct has been attributed to personal values, ego-involvement, importance and risk perceptions, interest, excitement, and enthusiasm for product class,

activities, or information, in that these constitute facets of involvement influencing

participation in a leisure activity and travel behavior patterns.

The most common dimensions of enduring involvement are importance pleasure,

sign, risk importance, and risk probability (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985), and in the context

of leisure include attraction, sign, centrality and risk (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). Recent

studies on leisure involvement have reported dimensions such as social bonding, identity

affirmation, and identity expression, in addition to attraction and centrality (Kyle et al,

2004). These dimensions are of particular relevance to the current investigation because

as discussed earlier in the review of sociology of food literature, food consumption deals

with issues of identity expression, identity affirmation and social bonding.

Enduring Involvement and Food Tourism

In the food and tourism literature, involvement with food and food-related

activities in daily life is seen as a predictor of participation in food tourism (Long, 2004;

Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Sharples, 2003). Thus, there is a connection between involvement

and any special interest tourism, such as culinary tourism, in that the leisure activities

enjoyed at home are pursued even while vacationing in the form of niche tourism

activities (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997). In the food tourism literature, the different

dimensions of enduring involvement (attraction and centrality) are stated as predictors of

participation in food tourism rather than enduring involvement per se.

Long (2004) states that culinary tourism highlights the complexity of tourist

involvement in food consumption in the sense that even though it is a physiological

necessity, the culinary tourist perceives food as a social and cultural resource, and his involvement with food is related with those aspects rather than the physiological aspects. Thus, attraction as a facet of enduring involvement drives participation in food tourism.

Centrality as a component of enduring involvement with food related activities is indicated by making these activities an essential part of overall lifestyle activities. Examples of such activities are eating at ethnic restaurants, viewing televised cooking shows, cooking a range of styles of food at home, learning new techniques of food preparation, experimenting with a wide range of cuisines, or having a hobby related to food, such as collecting recipes and cookbooks (Long, 2004; Mitchell & Hall, 2003). These again, are predictors of participation in food tourism.

By participating in food tourism, the tourists explore and reinforce their own identity and explore the identity of the 'Other'. According to Wilson (2004), "…food's declarative function and its ability to say something about the eater makes it a pre-eminent means of self expression" (p.250). Food is thus a doubly expressive medium of identity expression and identity affirmation. At the same time, sharing with a group of people, a food system that is not one's own binds people by distinguishing the in-group from the out-group. In her ethnography of Americans eating at Thai restaurants, Molz (2004) concludes that by participating in the culinary system of the 'Other,' Americans were validating their own individual identity and affiliating themselves with a particular American identity, thus displaying social bonding- another dimension of enduring involvement .

Finally, according to Wilson (2004), culinary tourists attribute sign value to eating food in a multicultural setting and unconsciously or consciously use it as a means of status differentiation. They perceive experiencing local food and cuisines as important enough to make that a key part of their activities at the destination. The perceived sign value attributed by the consumer to the product (food) is one of the dimensions of involvement and is a significant stimulus in participation in food tourism.

To summarize, as tourism is becoming increasingly niche-oriented and activity-oriented, tourists carry their interests over to their vacations and sometimes even select destinations that offer them opportunities to take part in their favorite activities. Analogous to that, people who show an enduring involvement with food use it as a cultural and social resource around which they revolve their leisure activities. They are involved with food related activities at home so much that it assumes centrality or salience in their lives, stimulating them to participate in food related activities during the vacation. Furthermore, people who show enduring involvement with food and food related activities perceive food as a form of identity expression, identity affirmation and social bonding. As per the review of the concept, identity expression, identity affirmation, social bonding, sign value, and centrality are all facets of enduring involvement. The proposition arrived on reviewing the literature is presented next.

Proposition VI   Enduring involvement with food related activities is positively related to food tourism.

Based on the propositions derived from the literature review, a conceptual framework for explaining participation in food tourism is illustrated in Figure 2.1
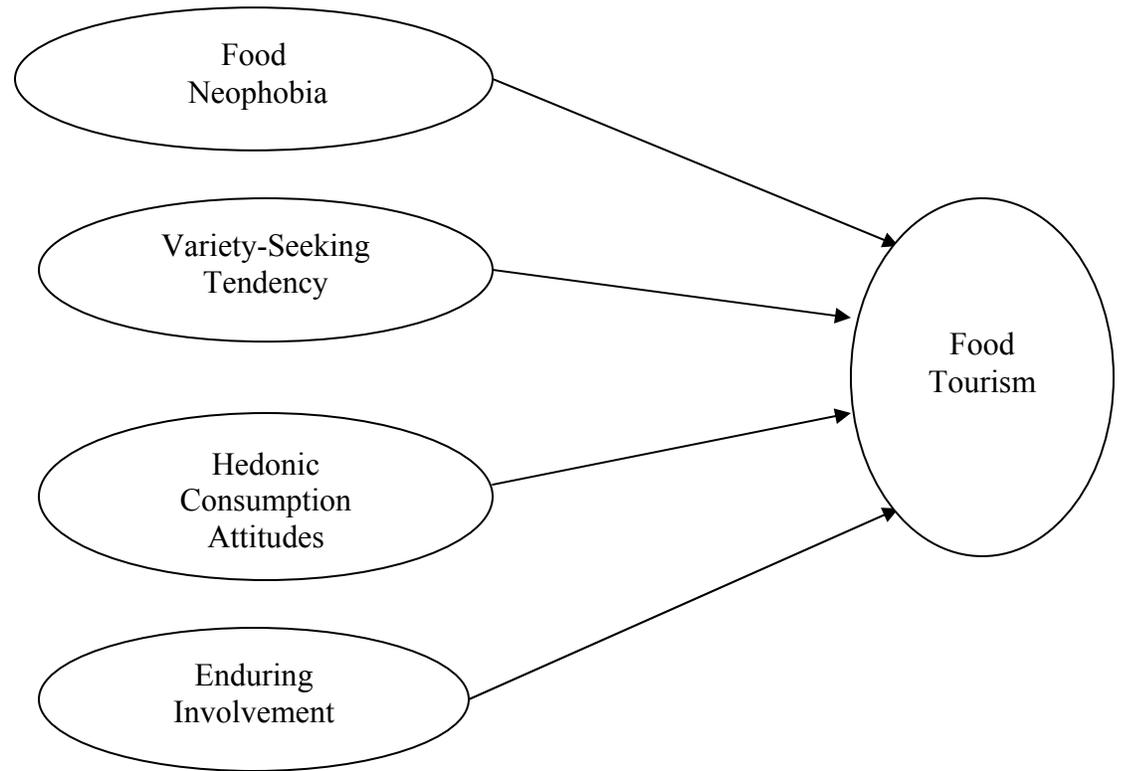
Figure 2.1: Proposed conceptual framework for explaining participation in food tourism

2.4.c Limitations of the Conceptual Framework

As with any conceptual framework, the conceptual framework proposed for this dissertation also suffers from inherent limitations. A discussion of the limitations of the proposed conceptual framework follows next.

Religious Beliefs and Participation in Food Tourism

Religious beliefs and value systems have been suggested to be influential in determining people's food consumption patterns. This factor, which on a superficial level comes across as food neophobia, may actually be due to the religious beliefs and values that

often prevent tourists from trying new food. Hassan and Hall's study (2003) of Muslim tourists in New Zealand examines the role of religious beliefs in food consumption patterns. The researchers found that lack of Hallal food prevents most Muslim tourists from eating at restaurants while traveling and almost 55% of them prepare their own food. The demand for Hallal food by Muslim travelers is often overlooked by destinations. As a result, according to them, many destinations lose tourist revenues/ receipts to countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia, which offer the tourists opportunities to consume food confirming to their religious belief system.

A few other studies, however, have shown that religious beliefs and other value systems are not very influential in preventing tourists from participating in the foodways of the other. Cohen and Avieli (2004) state that Israeli tourists are willing to be relaxed about the 'Kashrut laws' when they are traveling and are open to experiencing most local food, although unwilling to try culturally unacceptable foods like dog, cat, and reptile meat. Similarly, Rotkovitz's study (2004) on Jewish tourists suggests that even though they are likely to experience some kind of barrier when experimenting with unfamiliar foodways, there is a more psychological openness to experimentation because travel is transient in nature. The exotic in this case feels like a safe adventure, and religious beliefs and value systems may not be much of a hindrance to trying the local fare. Thus, the relevance of religious beliefs in explaining participation in food tourism has empirically shown mixed support and therefore is excluded from the conceptual framework.

Authenticity and Participation in Food Tourism

The second limitation of the conceptual framework is with respect to the concept of authenticity. The concept of authenticity has been a topic of extensive discourse in tourism studies as a tourist motivation and as an integral part of tourist experience (Cohen, 1979,1988; Hughes, 1995; MacCanell, 1973; MacCannell, 1973,1976; Moscardo & Pearce, 1986; Pearce & Moscardo, 1986; Turner & Manning, 1988; Wang, 1999). Similarly, in the study of foodways, authenticity has been used, widely and often contentiously, to understand social dynamics and identity construction through food consumption (Appadurai, 1986; Lu & Fine, 1995; Molz, 2004). According to Sharpley, (1994), authenticity connotes "traditional culture and origin, sense of the genuine, and the real or the unique" (p.130). It is a concept that is especially relevant to heritage and cultural tourism as it pertains to the depiction of the 'Other' and the past.

In the literature where food is studied as a component of tourism, the concept of authenticity has been widely used (Alcock, 1995; Hughes, 1995; Jacobsen, 2000; Kirshenblatt -Gimblett, 2004; Lu & Fine, 1995; Molz, 2004). However, this dissertation does not consider authenticity as a part of the conceptual framework for several reasons.

To begin with, authenticity is perceived as an objective reality (MacCanell, 1973, 1976) and is culturally and historically specific. With respect to food, the quest for authentic experiences cannot be seen as object related reality. Unlike a historical monument or a famous work of art in a museum, which has remained the same for centuries, cuisines are never static. They are constantly evolving and are a product of the current ecological, political, and economic conditions, thus being reshaped much like the culture itself (Bentley, 2004). Therefore, examining the quest for an objective

authenticity within the context of food tourism does not seem a logical and

opertionalizable exercise.

Another way of looking at authenticity has been to view it as a socially

constructed process (Cohen, 1988; Pearce & Moscardo, 1986). This perspective of

authenticity perceives authenticity as an interactive process, where both the tourists and

the tourism producers simultaneously negotiate in constructing authenticity. The tourists

project authenticity onto the tourist objects, which is based on their expectations, images

formed through media, their preferences, and what they believe is the authentic. At the

same time, the tourism producers work to provide the tourists what they assume the

tourists expect as the authentic. It is beyond the scope and the context of the dissertation

to measure a socially constructed process such as authenticity, in which the tourist and

the tourism producer have equivalent roles to play, by studying the tourist alone.

Particularly because this dissertation limits itself to social psychological concepts to

explain food tourism and analyzes the food tourism purely from a demand side of the

tourism system.

Lastly, ethnographic studies that have looked into authenticity as a motivation to

take part in the foodways of the 'Other,' have shown that authenticity is not of paramount

importance in the food experience (Lu & Fine, 1995; Molz, 2004). Tourists do not

consider authenticity a crucial factor when choosing to dine at ethnic restaurants. Even

though tourists are looking for the exotic and seeking authentic experience, it is not at the

expense of palatability and acceptability.

Given these arguments, the concept of authenticity seems complex and

contentious as a variable explaining participation in food tourism. Moreover, given the

complicated and multifaceted nature of this concept, empirically examining the role of authenticity in food tourism may be a topic in its own right for an academic thesis. Hence, authenticity is not considered as a part of the proposed conceptual framework of this dissertation in examining food tourism.

2.5 Sociodemographic Status and Food Consumption

Socioeconomic and demographic statuses are one of the most commonly used variables to predict food consumption patterns. The term socioeconomic status refers to the level of the social and economic position of people within society as revealed by various indicators. The main social indicators used for most of the empirical studies are education, employment, type of job, and the commonly used economic indicator is annual household income. With respect to demographic status, the frequently used indicators are age, gender, and marital status.

Social theorists and empiricists studying food consumption have generally looked at the influence of socioeconomic and demographic variables on dining out, frequency of eating out, money spent on food at home and outside the home (Bourdieu, 1984; Germov & Williams,1999; McCracken & Brandt, 1987; McIntosh, 1996; Erickson, 1996; Warde, 1992; Warde & Martens, 2000; Warde, Martens & Olsen, 1999).

According to Douglas (1984), a strong relationship exists between socio-economic status and food consumption such that when people change social class they subsequently change their foods. Analyzing education's influential role in food consumption patterns, Goody (1982) and Symons (1991) theorize that societies whose

populations have higher education have more differentiated cuisines. Education and cuisine reflexivity are mutually reinforcing, with reflexivity defined as thinking, discussing, and experimenting about food.

With respect to social indicators empirical studies have shown positive significant association between education and eating out, eating at ethnic restaurants and the number of places chosen for dining out (McCracken & Brandt, 1987; Warde &Martens, 2000; Warde, Martens & Olsen 1999). Employment status as a social variable showed strong association with the white collar occupational group having exposure to a wider number of restaurants (Warde, Martens & Olsen, 2000) and eating at better or elite restaurants (Erickson, 1996). Interestingly enough, Erickson (1996) found that there were no significant difference between different occupational groups and eating at fast food chains.

Household income is positively associated with the frequency of dining out, consumption at ethnic restaurants, and breadth of exposure to ethnic restaurants (McCracken & Brandt, 1987, Warde & Martens, 2000; Warde, Martens & Olsen 1999). With respect to the influence of demographic variables on dining out, marital status showed a significant association, with married people eating out more often (Smallwood, Blisard, & Blaylock, 1991). Age showed a significant positive association with respect to dining out, consumption at ethnic restaurants, and exposure to a wider variety of ethnic restaurants (McCracken & Brandt, 1987, Warde & Martens, 2000; Warde, Martens & Olsen 1999).

Socioeconomic, Demographic Status and the Tourist's Food Consumption

With respect to tourist food consumption, studies that have looked into the food

consumption of tourists have showed a strong association between socioeconomic status

and demographics with the tourist's food consumption patterns.

According to Cohen and Avieli (2004), even though tourism has expanded into

the lower and lower middle classes in the Western society, when it comes to food

consumption they possess conservative tastes. Their exposure to foreign foods at home is

not substantial unless a food has reached the status of a world cuisine. This suggests that

there is a possibility of an association between socio-economic background and tourist

consumption of local food.

Smith (1983) and Zelinsky (1985) show empirical evidence of this association in

their respective studies that analyze the geographical distribution of restaurants. The

general socio-economic status, the level of affluence, education of the community, and a

high turnover of tourists are the factors affecting the distributions of ethnic restaurants.

Thus, an educated, urban community with a considerable discretionary income causes a

growth of diverse restaurants.

The importance of socio-economic variables has been studied extensively in wine

tourism (Carmichael, 2001; Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002; Dodd & Bigotte, 1997;

Williams & Dossa, 2001). These studies have provided empirical evidence of the wine

tourist as a relatively well-educated person belonging to the professional or managerial

class. Similarly, Cai, Hong, & Morrison's study (1995) on tourist's food consumption (in

terms of expenditures), showed that occupation was a significant factor, and education was the most important predictor for a tourist's expenditure on food at the destination.

Though income had a positive association with the tourist's expenditure on food, Cai, Hong and Morrison (1995) found that expenditure was income inelastic. Studies in wine tourism also show a similar association, with income being one of the best predictors of participation in wine tourism (Carmichael, 2001; Dodd and Bigotte, 1997; Williams & Dossa, 2001).

With respect to demographic variables, Cai, Hong and Morrison's study (1995) found that the age group 25-34 spent less on food compared to tourists over 65 years, and married tourists spent more on food than single tourists. In the studies concerning wine tourism, Carmichael (2001) found the majority of the Niagara wine tourists to be between the ages of 31-70 years, while Williams and Dossa (2001) found wine tourists of British Columbia to be relative younger than the non-wine tourist.

To conclude, all these empirical studies reveal the significance of socio-economic and some demographic variables in food consumption away from home. The importance of these variables is also seen in tourism studies and the special interest market of wine tourism. Tourism is a leisure activity and is more or less dependent on discretionary income. Education plays a significant role in increasing one's breadth of knowledge and skills, including leisure skills. Further, tourists who travel for food or wine view it as an investment in gaining more knowledge. Thus, overall, income and education are the most significant predictors of the tourist's food consumption, along with age, marital status,

and occupation group showing sporadic instances of being significant predictors. All these findings lead to the final set of propositions for the dissertation.

Proposition VII: Sociodemographic variables influence participation in food tourism.

2.6 Synopsis of the Chapter

This chapter has reviewed the literature on globalization theory and the cultural capital theory as theoretical foundations for explaining food tourism. This was followed by a review of tourism literature that has focused on food with the objective of answering the research questions posed in Chapter One. The review also resulted in the formulation of propositions as the foundation for the hypotheses and the conceptual framework of the current dissertation. Finally, previous empirical research on the relevance of socio-economic and demographic variables in explaining food consumption was explored. The next chapter presents the null and the alternative hypotheses for each of the research questions of the dissertation and the research methods applied to test these hypotheses.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter explains the methods used to address this dissertation's research questions. First, the null and the alternative hypotheses are stated for each of the research questions of the dissertation. The construction of the survey instrument is described next, followed by the operationalization of variables, and a discussion on pre-testing the survey. The next section examines the unit of analysis, describes the population under study and the sampling design. Finally, the data collection process and the data analysis is discussed.

3.1 Presentation of the Hypotheses

The hypotheses are stated sequentially as they relate to the research questions of this dissertation presented in Chapter One. Both the null and the alternate hypotheses are stated for each of the research questions.

Research Question 1: What are the underlying dimensions of food tourism?

H1: 1a Food tourism is not composed of multiple dimensions.

H1: 1b Food tourism is composed of multiple dimensions.

Research Question 2: What variables explain participation in food tourism?

H2:1a Food neophobia is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism.

H2:1b   Food neophobia is negatively related to at least one dimension of food tourism.

H2:2a Variety-seeking tendency is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism.

H2:2b Variety-seeking tendency is positively related to at least one dimension of food tourism.

H2:3a Hedonic consumption attitude towards food is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism.

H2:3b Hedonic consumption attitude towards food is positively related to at least one dimension of food tourism.

H2:4a   Enduring involvement with food related activities is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism.

H2:4b Enduring involvement with food related activities is positively related to at least one dimension of food tourism.

Research Question 3: Are there any differences in participation in food tourism with respect to age, gender, marital status, occupation, education, annual income?

H 3: 1a: There is no significant difference in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism and their age.

H 3: 1b: There is a significant difference in tourists' participation in at least one dimension of food tourism and their age.

H 3: 2a: There is no significant difference in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism and their gender.

H 3: 2b: There is a significant difference in tourists' participation in at least one dimension of food tourism and their gender.

H 3: 3a: There is no significant difference in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism and their education.

H 3: 3b: There is a significant difference in tourists' participation in at least one dimension of food tourism and their education.

H 3: 4a: There is no significant difference in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism and their marital status.

H 3: 4b: There is a significant difference in tourists' participation in at least one dimension of food tourism and their marital status.

H 3: 5a: There is no significant difference in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism and their employment status.

H 3: 5b: There is a significant difference in tourists' participation in at least one dimension of food tourism and their employment status.

H 3: 6a: There is no significant difference in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism and their annual household income.

H 3: 6b: There is a significant difference in tourists' participation in at least one dimension of food tourism and their annual household income.

Research Question 4: Can tourists be segmented into homogenous groups based on their participation in food tourism?

> H 4:1a Tourists cannot be segmented into homogenous clusters based on their participation in food tourism.

> H 4:1b Tourists can be segmented into homogenous clusters based on their participation in food tourism.

Research Question 5: What variables predict membership in each of the food tourist clusters (formed as a result of the classification of tourists based on their participation in food tourism)?

> H5:1a Food neophobia does not predict membership in any of the food tourist segments.

> H5:1b Food neophobia predicts membership in one or more food tourist clusters.

> H5: 2a Variety-seeking tendency does not predict membership in any of the food tourist clusters.

> H4:2b Variety-seeking tendency predicts membership in one or more food tourist clusters.

> H4: 3a Hedonic attitude towards food does not predict membership in any food tourist clusters.

> H4: 3b Hedonic attitude towards food predicts membership in one or more food tourist clusters.

H4: 4a Enduring involvement with food related activities does not predict

membership in any of the food tourist clusters.

H4: 4b Enduring involvement with food related activities predicts membership in

one or more food tourist clusters.

Research Question 6: Is there an association between the food tourist clusters and age,

gender, marital status, occupation, education, and annual income of the tourists?

H 6: 1a: There is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the age of the tourists.

H 6: 1b: There is a significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the age of the tourists.

H 6: 2a: There is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the gender of the tourists.

H 6: 2b: There is significant association between the food tourist clusters and the

gender of the tourists.

H 6: 3a: There is no significant association between the food tourism clusters and

education of the tourists.

H 6: 3b: There is a significant association between the food tourism clusters and

the education of the tourists.

H 6: 4a: There is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the marital status of the tourists.

H 6: 4b: There is a significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the marital status of the tourists.

H 6: 5a: There is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the occupation of the tourists.

H 6: 5b: There is a significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the occupation of the tourists.

H 6: 6a: There is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the annual household income of the tourists.

H 6: 6b: There is a significant association between the food tourist clusters and

the annual household income of the tourists.

3.2 Questionnaire Construction

This dissertation employed a mail survey to collect data. The questionnaire consisted of

six sections. The first section measured the frequency of the tourist's participation in food

related activities at a destination. The second section measured respondents' variety-

seeking tendency towards food, followed by food neophobia in section three. The fourth

section measured respondents' enduring involvement with food related activities, while

section five measured hedonic attitude towards food. The final section of the

questionnaire measured the respondents' demographic and socioeconomic status. The

survey combined unipolar scale, Likert type scales and semantic differential scales.

The Human Subjects Committee of Clemson University reviewed and approved

the survey instrument. As with most academic research, the participants' individual

responses were confidential and anonymous. Next, the process of constructing the

questionnaire is discussed.

3.2.a Pilot Test of the Survey

Three pilot studies were conducted in March 2004 to test the survey and methods of analysis. The main purpose of the pilot studies was to validate the items generated as indicators of food tourism.

For the first pilot study, an online survey with the previously mentioned six sections was posted on travel websites (Lonely Planet and Rough Guides Community). The section of the questionnaire that measured frequency of participation in food tourism had fifteen items indicative of food tourism. This questionnaire also had an open-ended section asking respondents whether they faced any problems while completing the questionnaire and whether there were any ambiguities with respect to any items on the questionnaire. The first pilot study resulted in a sample of fifty–seven (N=57). The analysis resulted in re-wording of the instructions and changes in the structure of the questions on items that were either incorrectly understood, or showed some systematic error.

The second pilot study was an on-site survey administered on tourists visiting New Orleans. Sites which had a very high tourist visibility were selected, and tourists were intercepted systematically (N= 63). The tourists were timed on the survey and were asked for their feedback. The third pilot study was conducted on visitors to the annual PGA golf tournament at Hilton Head, South Carolina. Hundred surveys along with a business reply envelope were randomly placed on visitors' cars. The response rate for this survey was 35 %. The survey was edited once more based on the suggestions of the respondents and after some more literature review, the final pilot study was conducted.

The final pilot study was administered on students (N=42), who had been on a class trip to New Orleans. Once again, the respondents were timed, as one of the concerns voiced by the respondents of the second pilot study was the length of the survey.

3.2.b Operationalization of the Dependent Variable: Participation in Food Tourism

The first and critical step in measuring 'participation in food tourism' was to conceive a precise and detailed operationalization of food tourism within its theoretical context. Food tourism was operationalized based on existing research, researcher judgment, tourism educators, the respondents of the pilot studies, and the definition of food tourism proposed in Chapter One. The approach used was a deductive one and exploratory in nature.

After an extensive examination of the pertinent literature and three pilot studies, twenty-nine items were generated that were indicative of food tourism. As mentioned earlier, the creation of item pool went through an iterative process of exploratory factor analysis after every pilot study. The item pool representing drinks and beverages was added after the second pilot study. This was based on suggestions from the tourists that consuming local beverages was an important component of food related activities at the destination. Thus, the twenty-nine items that were generated to operationalize food tourism represented each content area or the component of the proposed definition of food tourism and were proportional to their importance in the literature. The major categories of food tourism were:

a) eating at places serving local, regional or distinctive cuisines;

b) visiting the primary or secondary producers;

c) visiting food festivals and specific locations for tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production region;

d) experiencing a particular type of food, or the desire to taste the dishes of a particular chef;

e) purchasing of food and food related products to make it a part of daily life, or as memorabilia;

f) consuming local drinks.

Participation in food tourism was operationalized as a continuous variable. In leisure and recreation studies, the leisure activity scales constructed to measure participation in leisure activities typically use unipolar scales. (Agnew & Peterson, 1989; Bixler, 1994; Kelly, 1996; Yin, Katims, & Zapata, 1999; Yu, 1980). In addition, for the unipolar scales, normally the respondents answer the frequency of their participation from choices such as never, seldom and frequently (Spector, 1992). Following that tradition, the respondents of the current investigation were asked how often they took part in the list of food related activities while they were traveling for pleasure. The twenty-nine items were placed on a five point unipolar frequency scale with choices of 1= never, 2=rarely, 3= sometimes, 4=frequently, and 5= always. Table 3.1 displays the list of 29 items generated to measure food tourism.

Table 3.1: Twenty-nine Items Generated to Measure Food Tourism
_____

1. Dine at places where food is prepared with respect to local tradition

2. Eat at restaurants where only locals eat

3. Attend a cooking school

4. At the destinations, I prepare food unique to the area I am visiting

5. Visit wineries

6. Purchase local food at the roadside stands

7. Dine at restaurants serving distinctive cuisines

8. Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties

9. Sample local foods

10. Eat at food festivals

11. Purchase local products to take back home

12. Buy cookbooks with local recipes to take back home

13. Buy local kitchen equipments to take back home

14. Dine at high quality restaurants

15. Go to restaurants just to taste the dishes of a particular chef

16. Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant

17. Consume local beverages and drinks

18. Observe a cooking demonstration

19. Visit a local farmer's market

20. Dine at themed restaurants

21. Dine at chain restaurants

22. Dine at fast food outlets

23. Go to local brewpubs

24. Visit a brewery

25. Buy familiar pre-cooked food from supermarket

26. Prepare food at the place I am staying

27. Eat at places serving food I am familiar with

28. Eat at places that serve food that conforms to my belief system

29. Visit a food processing facility

3.2.c Operationalization of the Independent Variables

To measure the respondent characteristics on the four independent variables, scales with established psychometric properties were used. Following is a detailed discussion on each of the independent variable and their operationalization.

Food neophobia

The independent variable food neophobia was measured by the food neophobia Scale (FNS) constructed by Pliner and Hobden (1992). The FNS is a one-dimensional scale with ten items. This scale has demonstrated a reliability ranging typically from 0.8-0.9 (Hobden & Pliner, 1995; Otis, 1984; Pliner, Eng, & Krishnan, 1995; Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Pliner & Melo, 1997; Pliner, Pelchat, & Grabski, 1993; Ritchey, Frank, Hursti, & Tuorila, 2003; Tuorila, Lahteenmaki, Pohjalainen, & Lotti, 2001). According to Pliner and Hobden (1992), studies have shown it to be significantly and positively related

to anxiety, general neophobia, and the experience seeking subscale of the Sensation

Seeking Scale (Zuckerman,1979).

Ritchey, Frank, Hursti, and Tuorila, (2003) in their study aimed at determining

the validity of FNS conducted a cross-national comparison of the FNS using

confirmatory factor analysis. They recommended deleting items # 5 and # 7 of the FNS

as they do not seem to fit the overall scale. However, since theirs is the only study that

has recommended this, and to avoid any kind of error in measurement, all the ten items

from the original scale have been included in this dissertation. Table 3.2 displays the list

of the items on the food neophobia scale. The items are related on a five point Likert-type

scale with response categories labeled as follows: 1 =Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=

Unsure, 4=Agree, 5= Strongly Agree. Items with (R) were recoded before analysis.

Table 3.2: Items on the Food Neophobia Scale

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1. I am constantly sampling new and different foods. (R)

2. I don't trust new foods.

3. If I don't know what is in a food, I won't try it.

4. I like food from different countries. (R)

5. Ethnic food looks too weird to eat.

6. At dinner parties, I will try a new food. (R)

7. I am afraid to eat things I have never had before.

8. I am very particular about the foods I will eat.

9. I will eat almost anything (R)

10. I like to try new ethnic restaurants (R)

Variety-seeking Tendency with Respect to Food

Variety-seeking tendency with respect to food (variety-seeking, hereafter) is measured using the VARSEEK scale constructed by (VanTrijp & Steenkamp, 1992). This scale is specifically designed within the context of food consumption, and is not a personality trait that could be generalized across products. At the same time, variety-seeking is an attitudinal characteristic of the consumer and not his purchase history. The scale has eight items and shows a reliability coefficient of 0.90. It has demonstrated a high degree of stability, with a stability coefficient for the composite scores being 0.81($p<0.0001$). The stability coefficient of all the items are significant, ranging from 0.39 to 0.75 (VanTrijp & Steenkamp, 1992). Table 3.3 displays the list of the items on the VARSEEK scale. The items are related on a five point Likert-type scale with response categories labeled as follows: 1 =Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Unsure, 4=Agree, 5= Strongly Agree. Item with (R) was recoded before analysis.

Table 3.3: Items on the VARSEEK Scale

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1. When I eat out, I like to try the most unusual items, even if I am not sure I would like them.
2. While preparing foods or snacks, I like to try out new recipes.
3. I think it is fun to try out food items one is not familiar with.
4. I am eager to know what kind of foods people from other countries eat.
5. I like to eat exotic foods.
6. Items on the menu that I am unfamiliar with make me curious.
7. I prefer to eat food products I am used to. (R)
8. I am curious about food products that I am not familiar with.

Hedonic Consumption Attitude Towards Food

The respondents' hedonic consumption attitude towards food (hedonic consumption, hereafter) was measured using the Hedonic Consumption Attitude Scale (Batra & Ahtola, 1991). This scale is made up of two dimensions: hedonism and utilitarian, with four items each. The eight items were measured on a seven point semantic differential scale. Most of the existing measures of the hedonic and utilitarian construct use semantic differential scale (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Spangenberg, Voss, & Crowley, 1997).The utilization of semantic differential scales has been suggested as an appropriate measurement of attitudes (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1967).

With respect to its psychometric properties, the Cronbach's reliability coefficient for the hedonism dimension is 0.75, and for the utilitarian dimension α= 0.80 (Batra & Ahtola, 1991). According to Spangenberg et al. (1997), one of the weaknesses of this scale is that it cannot be generalized across all product categories and does not incorporate the theoretical concept of involvement. Hence, their suggestion was that involvement should be measured concurrently with Batra and Ahtola's Hedonic Consumption Attitude Scale. Table 3.4 displays the eight items of the hedonic consumption attitude scale.

Table 3.4: Items and Dimensions on the Hedonic Consumption Attitude Scale

_____

Hedonism Dimension (α =0.75)

Pleasant ___: ___: ___:___:___:___:___ Unpleasant

Nice ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Awful

Agreeable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Disagreeable

Happy___:___:___:___:___:___: ___ Sad

Utilitarian Dimension (α =0.80)

Useful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___Useless

Valuable___:___:___:___: ___:___:___ Worthless

Beneficial ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ Harmful

Wise ___:___:___:___:___: ___:___ Foolish

_____

Enduring Involvement with Food-related Activities

To measure the respondents' enduring involvement with food and food-related activities, the Modified Involvement Scale by Kyle at al. (2004) was used. This scale is composed of five dimensions: 1) attraction, 2) centrality, 3) social bonding, 4) identity affirmation, and 5) identity expression. Though a number of scales measuring consumers' involvement exist in the consumer behavior and leisure studies literature (Dimanche, Havitz & Howard, 1991; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; McIntyre 1989; Zaichkowsky, 1985), the Modified Involvement Scale was chosen because it is composed of dimensions such as social bonding, identity expression and identity affirmation. As seen from the literature review of enduring involvement with food-related activities, the aforementioned dimensions are considered influential in the study of food consumption.

According to Kyle et al. (2004), the Modified Involvement Scale has exhibited acceptable psychometric properties with the Cronbach's alpha coefficient α= 0.75. Table 3.5 displays the sixteen items of the scale that were reworded to measure enduring involvement with food-related activities, along with its dimensions and respective reliability coefficients. The dimensions with their respective items in the Table 3.5 are displayed as they were loaded in the original scale. The items are related on a five point Likert–type scale with the response categories labeled as follows: 1 =Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Unsure, 4=Agree, 5= Strongly Agree. Item with (R) was recoded.

Finally, it is important to mention that since the time the scale was used (July 2004), Kyle et al. have reworked this scale and have deleted item #1.

Table 3.5: The Reworded Version of the Modified Involvement Scale to Measure Enduring Involvement with Food-related Activities

_____

Attraction (α = 0.85)

1. I have little or no interest related to food (R)

2. Participating in activities related to food is one of the most enjoyable things I do

3. Participating in activities related to food is very important to me

4. Participating in activities related to food is one of the most satisfying things I do

Centrality (α = 0.83)

5. I find a lot of my life is organized around activities related to food

6. Participating in activities related to food occupies a central role in my life

7. To change my preference from activities related to food to another leisure activity would require major thinking

Social Bonding (α = 0.67)

   8. I enjoy discussing activities related to food with my friends

   9. Most of my friends have an interest in activities related to food

   10. Participating in activities related to food provide me with an opportunity to be with friends

Identity Affirmation (α = 0.64)

   11. When I am participating in activities related to food, I can really be myself

   12. I identify with the people and images associated with activities related to food

   13. When I am participating in activities related to food, I don't have to be concerned with the way I look

Identity Expression (α = 0.74)

   14. You can tell a lot about person by seeing him/her participating in activities related to food

   15. Participating in activities related to food says a lot about who I am

   16. When I am participating in activities related to food, others see me the way I want them to see

---

Sociodemographic Variables

   The respondents were asked questions with respect to their socio-economic and demographic status. Sociodemographic variables that were utilized for this dissertation were: gender, age, employment status, education, marital status, annual household income and zip code. Age was operationalized by asking the respondents' current age.

Gender (male or female), marital status (married; widowed; divorced or separated; never married), education (high school; college; professional; post-graduate), employment (employed full-time; employed part-time; student; homemaker; unemployed; retired; other), and annual household income (under $ 10,000; $10,000-$19,999; $20,000-$39,999; $40,000-$59,999; $60,000-$79,999; $80,000-$99,999; $100,000 or more) were operationalized as categorical variables.

3.3 Research Design

Population

The target population of this investigation was individuals who visited one of the four counties of coastal South Carolina on randomly selected days from July 2004 through October 2004. The four coastal counties that were selected for this study were Horry, Charleston, Beaufort, and Georgetown. These counties together account for the highest number of visitors to the state as the coastal region (Source: SCPRT, 2003) with a total annual visitation of 13, 990,972. During the months of July, August, September, and October 4,896,840 visited these four counties, which make up 35% of the annual visitors. Thus, based on this data, the population of this study was determined to be 4,896,840.

Sampling Frame

To give a sense of structure to the sampling frame and make the study more manageable, the study areas were grouped into three regions. These were Region 1: Horry and Georgetown counties, Region 2: Charleston county, and Region 3: Beaufort county.

Further, seven categories of sites were selected for each region. These categories were: beaches, state parks, fishing piers, downtown, shopping areas, golf courses, and visitor centers. A total of twenty-three sites in the four coastal South Carolina counties were selected as the sampling frame (Appendix C). These twenty-three sites were popular attractions of the coast in each of the seven categories of sites. Due to the unavailability of the visitor statistics to each of these sites, the percentage of people estimated to be included (the coverage of the tourists by each of these sites) could not be calculated. This is one of the limitations of the sampling design.

Sampling Technique and the Sample Size

The three regions selected for the purpose of this dissertation are not similar in terms of visitor numbers. Hence, a proportionate stratified sampling technique was chosen to ensure equal representation from each of the strata or regions. The South Carolina State Parks, Recreation and Tourism Board (SCPRT) website was used to find the data relevant to the visitors to these counties. The figures that were accessible were: 1) visitor spending by county, 2) accommodation tax collection, and 3) admission tax collection (Appendix D). Based on the average of these three data, the proportion of each stratum in the overall sample size was calculated. Region 1 formed 58.67% of the sample, while Beaufort County's (Region 2) share was 22.4% of the sample, and Region 3 made up 18.91% of the sample.

Sample size for the dissertation was determined by using (Cochran, 1977) sample size formula for continuous data $n_o = \dfrac{t^2 s^2}{d^2}$. The alpha level was set *a priori* at .05.

$$n_o = \frac{t^2 s^2}{d^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2 (1.45)^2}{(5 \times 0.03)^2} = 357$$

where, t = value for selected alpha of .025 in each tail =1.96 for N above 120 ;

s = estimate of the standard deviation in the population = 1.45 (based on the pilot study results of the scores on the dependent variable food tourism)

d = acceptable margin of error of mean being estimated. For continuous data, 3% margin of error is acceptable (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). A 3% margin of error would result in the researcher being confident that the true mean of a five-point scale is within $\pm$ 0.15 (.03 times five points on the scale) of the mean calculated from the research sample. Therefore, for a population of 4,896,840, the minimum required sample is 357.

However, for data collection methods such as surveys and other voluntary participation methods, the response rates are typically less than 100%.Therefore over sampling by increasing the sample size by 40% - 50% to account for lost mail or uncooperative subjects is recommended (Salkind, 1997). The sample size was set at 830 in order to ensure a large enough sample even with a poor response rate.

3.4 Data Collection Process

The data collection procedure was obtained within the context of non–resident traveler to the coastal South Carolina, and was divided into two phases. The first phase consisted of collecting addresses from the tourists who visited the South Carolina coast, and the second phase was that of mailing surveys. The survey dates were chosen randomly for each of the sites with a total of forty–three days over a period of four months. The research assistants stationed at each of these sites intercepted every nth individual who crossed an imaginary line set by the research assistants. However, this interval (n) was dependent on the surveyor's discretion, the time and the location.

Eligibility was based on the criteria of not being a resident of the county, one person per travel party, over the age of 18. Once they were screened on those parameters, the individuals were asked if they were willing to take part in the study, and if they answered in the affirmative, their addresses were noted down. Table 3.6 shows the number of addresses collected on site based on stratification of sample sizes by region.

Table 3.6: Sample Stratification by Region

	Region 1	Region 2	Region 3	Total	Percent
Addresses collected	487	186	157	830	100%
Percent	58.67%	22.40%	18.91%	100%	

At the end of each month of the address collection phase, the second phase of data collection was initiated. Self-administered questionnaires (Appendix E) were mailed along with a cover letter (Appendix F) and a business reply envelope addressed to Recreation, Travel and Tourism Institute at Clemson University.

Dillman's (2000) Total Design Method was followed as closely as fiscally possible in the administration of the survey. Table 3.7 shows the timeline of the survey mailing schedule. A week after sending out the first survey, a reminder postcard (Appendix G) to the non-respondents was mailed. The reminder postcard had a phone number and an e-mail address as contacts if a second survey needed to be sent due to the loss of the first survey. Two weeks after the postcards were mailed, another questionnaire and a new cover letter (Appendix H) along with a postage return envelope was sent to all non–respondents.

Table 3.7: Survey Administration Schedule

Date	Survey Mailing
25 August 2004	First set of surveys to sample intercepted in July 2004
2 September 2004	Reminder postcards to sample intercepted in July 2004
17 September 2004	Follow-up surveys to sample intercepted in July 2004
17 September 2004	First set of surveys to sample intercepted in August 2004
25 September 2004	Reminder postcards to sample intercepted in August 2004
9 October 2004	Follow-up surveys to sample intercepted in August 2004
9 October 2004	First set of surveys to sample intercepted in September 2004
17 October 2004	Reminder postcards to sample intercepted in September 2004
1 November 2004	Follow-up surveys to sample intercepted in September 2004
1 November 2004	First set of surveys to sample intercepted in October 2004
11 November 2004	Reminder postcards to sample intercepted in October 2004
24 November 2004	Follow-up surveys to sample intercepted in October 2004

3.5 Statistical Approach to Hypotheses

In order to test the proposed hypotheses and to describe the sample of the study, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences: SPSS 13.0 was utilized. The analyses consist of the following steps:

1. Screening the Data

Descriptive analyses of all the variables under study were performed for screening the dataset. The data was checked for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and detect univariate and multivariate outliers. In addition, the data was checked for fit between the

distributions of all the variables and to verify if the data meets the assumptions of multivariate analysis.

2. Confirming the Factor Structure and Reliabilities of the Study's Scales

The scales utilized in the current study to operationalize the independent variables were tested for their factor structure and reliabilities. Factor analysis is a statistical technique that can be applied to a group of variables in which there are no independent or dependent variables. It differs from other multivariate techniques in that it summarizes large number of correlated variables to a smaller number of factors, and provides an operational definition for an underlying process by using observed variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Therefore, factor analysis was conducted to verify whether the measurement scales used to operationalize the independent variables in the current study show similar underlying dimensions as the original scales.

Further, these scales are tested for their reliabilities by examining their Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used measure of reliability for a set of two or more construct indicators. It indicates how well a set of items measure a construct. It is a function of the number of items and the average inter- item correlation among the items, in that, as the number of items increase, the Cronbach's alpha increases, and as the average inter-item correlation increases, the Cronbach's alpha increases. Their values range between zero and one, with higher values indicating a better reliability of the construct (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995).

3. Testing Hypothesis 1

To test the null hypothesis that food tourism is not composed of multiple factors or components, the data reduction techniques of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was

conducted on the items generated to operationalize food tourism. The method of extraction chosen was principal axis factoring since the research question demanded identifying the underlying structure of food tourism activities. Principal factor analysis allows only the shared variance to be analyzed with unique and error variance removed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Factors are supposed to cause variables and the underlying factor structure is what produces scores on the variables. The adequacy of the number of factors was based on the size of eigenvalue reported greater than one, and was confirmed by looking at the discontinuity in eigenvalue as revealed by the scree plots. Two major questions were addressed during the analysis: (a) the number of factors that represent the items and (b) the interpretation of the factors. The main objective of this analysis was to find out what were the different classes of activities that made food tourism.

4. Testing Hypotheses 2

In order to examine the relationship between the independent variables and participation at least one of the dimensions of food tourism, standard multiple regression was employed. Standard multiple regression assesses the relationship between one dependent variable and multiple independent variables by entering all the independent variables into the model at the same time.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) F-statistic reveals the overall significance of the model, and the adjusted R^2 reflects the variance accounted for by the model in explaining participation in food tourism. In addition, the variance uniquely explained by each independent variable was attributed to its explanation of the dependent variable by the semi-partial correlations. The significance of the independent variables in the model was assessed by the p-values set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

The standardized regression coefficients (β) give a measure of the contribution of each variable to the model. They signify the expected change in the dependent variable for each unit increase in the independent variable, after the independent variables are standardized (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001).The significance levels of the unstandardized regression coefficients(B) are assessed through their confidence intervals such that the 95% confidence intervals should not include zero.

Based on the number of factors that would be extracted from factor analysis of the items operationalized as food tourism, corresponding number of regression models were tested with each of these factors as the dependent variable.

5. Testing Hypotheses 3

The differences in the tourist's participation in each of the dimensions of food tourism with respect to their age, gender, education, employment status, marital status, and annual household income were analyzed using the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). This statistical test finds the significant differences in the set of dependent measures (the dimensions of food tourism, in the current investigation) across a series of group formed by one or more categorical independent measures. Therefore, six MANOVA tests were conducted to assess for the significance of each of the six sociodemographic variables on the dependent variable(s).

MANOVA evaluates differences among centroids for a set of dependent variables. If there are significant differences for the main effect, then a post hoc test was done to assess what dimensions of food tourism were being affected by what category of a particular sociodemographic variable. The significance of the multivariate F was assessed by the Wilks' lambda reported by SPSS MANOVA. According to Tabachnick

and Fidell (2001), Wilks' lambda is a likelihood ratio statistic that is most commonly used criteria for significance inference. "It tests the likelihood of the data under the assumption of equal population mean vectors for all groups against the likelihood under the assumption that population mean vectors are identical to those of the sample mean vectors for different groups. Wilks' lambda is the pooled ratio of effect variance to error variance" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p.348).

6. Testing Hypothesis 4

To test the null hypothesis that tourists cannot be segmented into homogenous clusters based on their participation in food tourism, cluster analysis was performed on the tourists. Clusters of respondents were created using Ward's method. Ward's method is a hierarchical method, using squared Euclidean distance that maximizes between group variance and minimizes within group variance. The objects being clustered, in this case the respondents of the current study, were all assigned a separate cluster, and those clusters were combined until a stopping point was determined. The mean scores of each of the factors obtained by the factor analysis of the items measuring food tourism were used as the clustering variables.

The agglomeration schedule similar to scree-plots in factor analysis was examined for large changes in agglomeration coefficients. These were noted as potential stopping points. The cluster solution that was selected was cross–validated with a k-means cluster analysis. Stability of the solution was also examined for the k-means clustering by considering a random initial seed (centroids), which was iterated until the Euclidean distance between centroids change to less than 2%. Use of this iterative approach reduces the chances of biases entering the designation of initial cluster seeds, and assures stable

clusters once the procedure meets the 2% convergent criterion (Hair et al., 1995). The final cluster-centroids should be nearly identical, thus validating the cluster solution selected.

One-way analysis of variance was used to test whether the clusters show significantly different means across the factors of food tourism. ANOVA is a statistical tool for comparing two or more means with an objective to test if there are any significant differences between them. Final determination of clusters was based on researcher judgment of interpretability of cluster means (Milligan & Cooper, 1985).

Finally, the cluster solution was cross-validated using the cross validation technique provided by SPSS multiple discriminant analysis. Multiple discriminant analysis uses this pre-existing classification and the factors linearly to predict the group to which each respondent belongs. The cross-validation technique helps confirm the results of the cluster analysis by showing the adequacy of classifications.

Clusters were then labeled based on their scores on each of the factors, relative to the scores of other clusters, and the grand mean for each factor. The factor scores for each cluster were summated to obtain an overall score for the clusters. Based on these scores, the tourist clusters' frequency of participation in food tourism was predicted

7. Testing for Hypotheses 5

Multinomial logistic regression was conducted to identify variables that predict membership in each of the posteriori food tourist clusters. Multinomial logistic regression is similar to multiple discriminant analysis in that it allows prediction of group membership when predictors are continuous. However, it requires far few assumptions than multiple discriminant analysis and is relatively free of restrictions, with a capacity to

analyze a mix of predictors with any level of measurement (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).Unlike multiple discriminant analysis, assumptions of homogeneity of variance – covariance in the outcome groups are not required for the prediction of group membership to be optimal. Though it is unlikely that two methods will yield markedly different results or substantially dissimilar linear functions (Press & Wilson, 1978)

The significance of the overall model was tested by χ^2 test of model coefficients, which assumes the null hypothesis that no variable can predict group membership. The goodness of fit statistics compares the observed frequencies with the expected frequencies for each cluster. Here, a non-significant difference was desired, as it indicates that the full or incomplete model adequately duplicated the observed frequencies at the various levels of outcome. This test also provided the R^2 for the variance explained by the model.

The parameter estimates are the tests of individual variables. These tests evaluated the contribution of each predictor to the model. Further, the clusters were compared against each other to identify the variables that separated one cluster from the other. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), the Wald's statistic and the odds ratio evaluate the significance of each of the variables in predicting membership to the clusters. The Wald statistic is the function of logistic regression coefficient divided by the standard error, and is similar to the t-statistic. The importance of predictors was evaluated by the odds ratio. Those predictors that changed the odds of the outcome the most were interpreted as the most important. That is, the farther the odds ratio was from one, the more influential the variable was, in predicting membership in different clusters.

The likelihood ratio test compares the models with and without each predictor, and is generally considered superior to the Wald statistic. SPSS NOMREG ran the model with and without each predictor to produce the likelihood ratio test to assess the reliability of improvement in fit when a predictor is included in the model. The significance value shows if the model is significantly degraded by removal of each predictor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) Finally, the classification analysis was conducted to assess the success of the model in its ability to predict the outcome category for cases, for which outcome is known.

8. Testing Hypotheses 6

To test the association between the sociodemographic variables and the food tourist clusters, chi-square tests of associations were conducted for each of the sociodemographic variable. This test determines whether two variables measured on nominal or categorical variables are associated with each other by comparing the difference between the observed frequency distribution and the expected distribution (Kerr, Hall and Kozub, 2002). The contingency tables provide the observed and the expected frequencies, and the Pearson's chi-square is the test of significance which assesses the association between the two variables.

3.6 Synopsis of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the methodology that was used to guide the dissertation. First, the hypotheses for each of the research questions of the dissertation were presented. Next, the construction of the questionnaire was discussed with an examination of each section of the questionnaire. Further, the dependent variable and the independent

variables were presented and operationalized. In addition, the chapter discussed the

research design, population, and the method of analysis. The findings are presented in

Chapter Four

CHAPTER FOUR

DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS

This chapter is divided into two sections. First section is a brief description of the procedures used to examine and prepare the data for hypothesis testing. Second section details the profiles of the respondents and a profile of the responses to the variables under study.

4.1 Screening of the Data

For an accurate analysis of the dataset and avoid statistical problems later, certain data checks were completed on the data prior to the analysis. The data was checked for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Examination of the missing data showed that none of the variable items had missing values exceeding 5%, but 5.8% of the cases (n=19) had missing values. The pattern of missing values was found to be completely random. Since the missing data for cases exceeded the recommended 5% limit and the pattern was found to be completely random, the imputation technique of expectation-maximization (EM) was employed to replace the missing values. EM procedure offers the most logical approach to imputation of missing data, as "it has the advantages of avoiding impossible matrices, avoiding over fitting and producing realistic estimates of variance" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p.63)

Univariate normality of the items as well as multivariate normality and linearity between items were investigated. Three items had extreme skew and kurtosis. Data transformations, including the logarithmic transformation, were attempted with no significant improvement in the distribution. The reason behind this seeming anomaly was investigated further, and it was found that the respondents overwhelmingly (more than 70%) checked the lowest on those scales leading a highly skewed distribution with very low variability. Hence, these three items were deleted from the data set. These were: 1) Visit a food processing facility, 2) Attend a cooking school, and 3) Eat at places that serve food that conforms to my belief system

Eight multivariate outliers were detected through the Mahalanobis distance metric with $p<0.001$ (which corresponds to Mahalanobis distance < 149.4). Stepwise regression was used to identify the combination of variables on which each of these cases deviated form the remaining cases. Each outlying case was evaluated separately by using the regression procedure where a dummy variable was created to separate the outlying case from the remaining cases. Examination of their scores on the variables that caused them to be outliers showed a consistent pattern of extreme values on the scale items and differed significantly from the scores of the remaining sample for those variables. Hence, these eight cases were deleted, leaving 341 cases for analysis. Test for multicollinearity was not performed on the items representing the dependent variable because one of the objectives of this research was to find out the underlying dimensions of that variable.

4.2 Profile of the Respondents

The research questions and the sampling plan dictated obtaining a random sample of tourists from variety of sites or tourist attractions in order to get a cross-section of tourists with diverse interests- not just high on food related activities. The following discussion describes the demographic profile of the sample.

By the end of the address collection period, 830 were mailed. Thirty-eight of the addresses were false or incomplete addresses. This resulted in a valid sample size of 792. This dissertation uses the "maximum response rate" defined by the American Association for Public Opinion Research: response rate = (complete responses + partial responses) / total number in the eligible sample. Table 4.1 shows the survey return rates from August to November since each set of monthly surveys were mailed the month following its address collection period.

Table 4.1: Survey Return Rates

Type of Survey	Month				
	August	September	October	November	Total
N of eligible surveys mailed:	162	180	324	126	792
N of eligible surveys returned:	51	68	166	64	349
Response rate of surveys:	31.48%	37.77%	51.23%	50.79%	44.06%

Since eight cases were deleted as outliers during the data screening process, the total sample size left for the analyses was 341 respondents The number of respondents by region of data collection or tourist intercept is listed in Table 4.2. The number of respondents whose addresses were collected from Region 1 (Horry and Georgetown

counties) was 193 and accounted for 56.6% (n=193) of the total respondents.

Respondents visiting Region 2 formed 20.53% (n= 70) of the total respondents. Finally,

Region 3 visitors made up of 22.7% (n= 78) of the total respondents.

Table 4.2: Number of Respondents by Region of Intercept

Region	(n)	%	% of total sampled/ region
1 (Horry and Georgetown counties)	193	56.6	58.67%
2 (Charleston County)	70	20.53	22.40%
3 (Beaufort County)	78	22.87	18.91%

Socio- Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Thirty-four states of United States and four different countries were represented

through the sample of respondents. The frequency distribution of the respondents based

on the state/ country of the residence revealed that a quarter of the respondents were from

the state of South Carolina. (n=84, 24.63%). The next four states in order of their ranking

were North Carolina (n=53, 15.54%) followed by Ohio (n=25, 7.33%), Georgia (n=24,

7.04%), and Virginia (n=18, 5.28%). Table 4.3 displays the ranking of the state of

residence of the respondents.

Table 4.3: Ranking of the State/ Country (non-U.S.) of Residence of the Respondents

State	(n)	%
1.South Carolina	84	24.63
2.North Carolina	53	15.54
3.Ohio	25	7.33
4.Georgia	24	7.04
5.Virginia	18	5.28
6.New York	16	4.69
7.Pennsylvania	14	4.11
8.Tennessee	14	4.11
9.Florida	11	3.23
10.Kentucky	8	2.35
11.California	7	2.05
12.Canada	6	1.76
13.New Jersey	6	1.76
14.Illinois	5	1.47
15.Texas	5	1.47
16.West Virginia	5	1.47
17.Massachusetts	4	1.17
18.Maryland	4	1.17
19.Connecticutt	3	0.88
20.Indiana	3	0.88
21.Minnessotta	3	0.88
22.Wisconsin	3	0.88
23.Arkansas	2	0.59
24.Alabama	2	0.59
25.Missouri	2	0.59
26.United Kingdom	2	0.59
27.Arizona	1	0.29
28.Colorado	1	0.29
29.District of Columbia	1	0.29
30.Iowa	1	0.29
31.Maine	1	0.29
32.Michigan	1	0.29
33.Montana	1	0.29
34.Oklohoma	1	0.29
35.Oregon	1	0.29
36.South Africa	1	0.29
37.Germany	1	0.29
38.Vermont	1	0.29
Total	341	100%

An overwhelming majority of the respondents was female (n=211, 62.8%), and the rest of the 37.2% of the respondents were males (n= 125). Table 4.4 shows the frequency distribution of the respondents by their gender.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	(n)	Valid %
Female	211	62.8%
Male	125	37.2%
Total	336	100%

The mean age of the respondents was 49.74 years and the median age was 52 years. Table 4.5 shows the distribution of respondents by the age category. The age category of 55-64 formed the majority of the respondents (n=96, 28.83%) followed by the age category of 45-54 (n=90, 27.03%). Together they formed 55.86% of the total respondents, followed by the category 35-44 (n=46, 13.81%), and 25-34 (n=45, 13.51%).

Table 4.5: Distribution of Respondents by Age Category

Age Category	(n)	Valid %	Cumulative %
18-24	13	3.90	3.9
25-34	45	13.51	17.4
35-44	46	13.81	31.2
45-54	90	27.03	58.3
55-64	96	28.83	87.1
65 and above	43	12.91	100
Total	333	100%	

With respect to education level, nearly half of the respondents' highest level of education was a college degree (n= 144, 43.1%), followed by a quarter whose highest education level was high school (n= 82, 24.6%), and 22.8% who had a post-graduate

degree (n=76). The rest of the respondent sample comprised of people with a professional

degree (n=32, 9.6%). Table 4.6 display the frequency distribution of the respondents

based on their level of education.

Table 4.6: Distribution of Respondents by Education

Education	(n)	Valid %
College	144	43.1
High School	82	24.6
Post-Graduate	76	22.8
Professional Degree	32	9.6
Total	334	100%

Majority of the respondents were married (n=264, 79.0%), employed full-

time (n=178, 53.13%) and nearly one-fourth of them had an annual income of more than

100,000 (n=74, 24.3%). Tables 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 display the frequency distribution of the

respondents' marital status, employment status and annual income.

Table 4.7: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	(n)	Valid %
Married	264	79.0
Never married	35	10.5
Divorced or Separated	23	6.9
Widowed	12	3.6
Total	334	100%

Table 4.8: Employment Status of Respondents

Employment Status	(n)	Valid %
Employed Full-time	178	53.1
Retired	71	21.2
Employed Part-time	33	9.9
Homemaker	24	7.2
Other	11	3.3
Unemployed	10	3.0
Student	8	2.4
Total	335	100

Table 4.9: Distribution of Annual Household Income of Respondents

Annual Household Income	(n)	Valid %	Cumulative %
Under 10,000	6	2.0	2.0
10,000-19,999	4	1.3	3.3
20,000-39,999	47	15.4	18.7
40,000-59,999	62	20.3	39.0
60,000-79,999	57	18.7	57.7
80,000-99,999	55	18.0	75.7
Above 100,000	74	24.3	100
Total	305	100	

4.3 Testing for Non-response Bias

Along with the coverage and measurement effect, non- response effect is one of the errors that occur in sample surveys by introducing error into the sampling process by excluding a non-random subset of the population (Groves, 1989).

Even though the response rate for this study was 44.06%, non-response is less serious for preliminary research, exploratory studies or research designed to test a

conceptual model/ framework. This is because such types of studies focus on relationships between multiple variables, which are less influenced by the non-response. (Groves, Dillman, Eltinge, & Little, 2001). Nevertheless, an attempt is made for estimating non-response bias if any. Two methods were used to check for the non-response bias in this study: 1) wave analysis and 2) non-response bias check survey. A detailed discussion of the two follows next.

1. Wave analysis

First, a wave analysis method was used. This is based on the assumption that non-respondents are more like early responders in both expressed attitudes and demographics (Dalecki, Whitehead, & Blomquist, 1993; Green, 1991; Pearl & Fairley, 1985). The respondents were divided into two subgroups: early respondents (n=75, 32.5%) and late respondents (n=156, 67.5%). This division was based on the number of reminders required before response. Researchers argue that if they cannot identify any systematic differences between respondent and late-respondents, there is no bias caused by non-response.

Chi-square tests were performed on all the six sociodemographic variables to examine if there were any significant differences between the early respondents (wave one) and the late respondents (wave three). Even though, chi-square tests are normally employed as tests of association, according to Ott (1993), the chi-square test may be used to determine the significance of differences between two independent groups on categorical variables.

Table 4.10 presents the chi-square analyses comparing the first-wave respondents to the third-wave respondents on sociodemographic variables such as gender, age,

employment status, education, marital status, annual household income. Results of the chi-square comparing the two groups with respect to gender (χ^2 =2.37, p=0.12), age (χ^2 =7.44, p=0.19), education (χ^2 =2.55, p=0.46), marital status (χ^2 =6.88, p=0.76), annual household income (χ^2 =3.18, p=0.78) revealed no significant differences between the two groups.

However, the chi-squares analyzing employment status (χ^2 =14.82, p< 0.05) revealed significant differences between the two groups. Further analysis revealed that more employed people (both full-time and part-time) responded during the third wave than first wave. One explanation for this could be that employed people had more constraints with respect to the availability of free time to fill out a questionnaire and needed more reminders to respond.

Table 4.10: Chi-square Comparisons of First Wave and Third Wave Respondents

Variable	Wave 1%	Wave 3 %	Chi-square	df	p
Gender	32.7%	67.3%	2.37	1	0.124
Age	32.3 %	67.7%	7.44	5	0.190
Education	32.4%	67.6%	2.55	3	0.465
Employment Status	32.4%	67.6%	14.82	6	0.02*
Marital Status	32.9%	67.1%	6.88	3	0.76
Annual Income	31.7%	68.3%	3.18	6	0.78

2. Non-response Bias Check Survey

The second method to test for non-response bias was the conventional method of sending a smaller version of the survey to a selected number of non-respondents (Deming, 1960). A one-page online survey was developed and posted on the researcher's Clemson University webpage. Forty non-respondents were randomly selected and were informed through a telephone reminder and e-mailed a request (Appendix H) to fill out the one page survey along with the link to the webpage of the online survey (Appendix I). Twenty-nine of these non-respondents responded to the online survey. The data collected from these converted non-respondents was compared with the study respondents' data to identify the existence of any bias because of non-response (Deming, 1960).

This survey had seven items. These were three demographic variables and five items from the dependent variable (participation in food tourism). The demographic variables included: education, employment status, and annual household income. The five items chosen from the dependent variable included: a) Sample local foods, b) Purchase local products to take back home, c) Visit a brewery, d) Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties, and e) Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant. These were measured on a unipolar five point Likert-type scale with the following response categories 1= "never," 2= "rarely," 3= "sometimes," 4= "frequently," and 5= "always."

In order to assess differences in education, employment status, and annual household income the chi-square test for two samples was utilized. The five items that were generated to operationalize food tourism were measured as continuous variables and

therefore meet the assumptions for a t-test for independent sample means (Hair et al., 1995).

Table 4.11 presents the chi-square analyses comparing respondents and non-respondents demographic status. Results of the chi-square comparing education revealed no significant difference between the two groups (χ^2 =3.41, p=0.33). Further, the chi-squares analyzing annual household income (χ^2 =3.55, p=0.73), and employment status (χ^2 =12.08, p=0.06) showed no significant differences between respondents and non-respondents. These results suggest that in terms of sociodemographic status the respondents closely resemble the non-respondents.

Table 4.11: Chi-square Comparisons of Respondents and Non-respondents

Variable	Respondents %	Non-respondents %	Chi-square	df	p
Education	92 %	7.98 %	3.41	3	0.33
Employment Status	92%	7.98%	12.08	6	0.06
Annual Household Income	91.8%	8.13%	3.55	6	0.73

Results of the Student's t-test analyses comparing respondents and non-respondents on the five items of the dependent variable are displayed in Table 4.12. The t-test analysis comparing the response on the item 'Sample local foods' revealed no significant differences (t=-1.58, p=0.11) between the respondents (mean=3.35) and the non-respondents (mean= 3.66). Results of the t-tests examining the response on item 'Purchase local products to take back home' also displayed no significant differences (t=0.488, p= 0.62) between the respondents (mean=2.82) and non-respondents (mean=2.72).

With respect to the item 'Visit a brewery,' no difference (t= -0.70, p=0.94) was found between the respondents (mean= 1.92) and non-respondents (mean=1.93). Further, no difference (t=-1.79, p=0.07) was found between the respondents (mean= 3.53) and non-respondents (mean=3.79) on the item 'Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties.' Finally, no difference (t= 0.43, p=0.66) was found between the respondents (mean= 2.74) and non-respondents (mean=2.66) on the item 'Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant.' Thus, the results of the five t-tests suggest that respondents accurately represent the sample for the dependent variable (participation in food tourism) of the study.

Table 4.12: Student's t-tests Comparisons of Respondents and Non-respondents

Variable (m_1; m_2)	t-test	df	p
Sample local foods (m_1= 3.53; m_2= 3.79)	-1.58	368	0.11
Purchase local products to take back home (m_1= 2.82; m_2= 2.72)	0.48	368	0.62
Visit a brewery (m_1=1.92; m_2= 1.93)	-0.70	368	0.94
Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties (m_1= 3.35; m_2= 3.36)	-1.79	368	0.07
Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant (m_1= 2.74; m_2= 2.66)	0.43	368	0.66

(m_1= mean scores for respondents, m_2 = mean scores for non-respondents)

4.4 Reliability of the Measurement Scales

The scales used in the study were examined for their reliability, before utilizing them for testing the hypothesis. Since the modified involvement scale (Kyle et al, 2004) was transformed to measure enduring involvement with food related activities, it was

essential to examine the dimensionality of the scale too. Factor analysis was employed to examine the dimensionality followed by a calculation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used measure of reliability for a set of two or more construct indicators. Their values range between 0 and 0.1, with higher values indicating a better reliability (Hair et al., 1995)..

The reliability coefficients along with the dimensions of the independent variables used for this dissertation are reported in the Table 4.13. Since one of the objectives of the current investigation was to examine the dimensionality of food tourism and construct a food tourism activities scale, the measurement issues with respect to food tourism would be discussed in detail later.

As indicated by the Table 4.13 the scales used in the dissertation showed acceptable levels of reliability. Food neophobia was operationalized similar to Pliner and Hobden (1992).The 10-item food neophobia scale (FNS) showed a reliability coefficient of 0.87. As stated in Chapter Three, studies using the scales have reported the coefficient alpha to fall anywhere from 0.8 to 0.9.

Likewise, variety-seeking tendency towards food was operationalized similar to vanTrijp and Steenkamp (1992).The eight items measuring the variety-seeking tendency towards food (VARSEEK) showed a reliability coefficient of 0.91. Both the FNS and the VARSEEK are unidimensional scales and showed unidimensionality when factor analysis was conducted on them.

Batra and Ahtola's (1990) semantic differential scale measuring hedonic consumption attitude showed acceptable psychometric properties with respect to food consumption. The hedonism dimension, which was made up of four items, showed a

reliability coefficient of 0.91 and the four–item utilitarian dimension showed a coefficient alpha of 0.86. The items measuring hedonism and those measuring utilitarian attitudes both loaded on to the same dimension as the original scale.

Enduring involvement with respect to food related activities was operationalized using Kyle et al's (2004) Modified Involvement Scale. The items were reworded to measure involvement with respect to food related activities. The sixteen items scale that had five dimensions on the original scale, on preliminary factor analysis revealed three dimensions. The items indicative of the dimension social bonding and those indicating attraction in the original scale loaded on to the same factor. Of the three items that made up the dimension identity affirmation, one item, 'When I am participating in activities related to food, I can really be myself' loaded on to the dimension identity expression. Another item of that dimension, 'I identify with people and images associated with activities related to food,' loaded on to the collective dimensions of social bonding and attraction, and one item 'When I am participating in activities related to food, I don't have to be concerned the way I look,' did not load on to any factor and was discarded. Finally, all the three items that made up the centrality dimension in the original scale, loaded together on a single dimension.

Thus, the scale used for the current study revealed three dimensions. The three items that made up the dimension centrality showed a reliability coefficient of 0.86. The dimension identity expression showed a reliability coefficient of 0.83 and was made up of four items. Finally, of the eight items that formed the dimension social bonding, one item 'I have little or no interest in activities related to food,' was shown to reduce the reliability of the scale, and was therefore removed. The resultant seven-item dimension

had a reliability coefficient of 0.91.Thus the 14-item modified involvement scale

measuring respondents' involvement with food related activities was deemed acceptable.

Table 4.13: Reliability Coefficients of Scales Used in this Study

Variable	Mean	SD	Number of Items	Cronbach's α
Food neophobia	2.60	0.71	10	0.87
Variety-seeking tendency	3.24	0.78	8	0.91
Hedonic consumption attitude				
Hedonism	5.92	0.84	4	0.91
Utilitarian	5.97	0.90	4	0.86
Enduring involvement with food related activities				
Social Bonding	3.13	0.88	7	0.91
Centrality	2.51	0.93	3	0.86
Identity Expression	2.75	0.82	4	0.83

4.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter Four described the respondents characteristics, findings of the non-response bias

check survey, and checked for the reliability of the scales used in the study. The results of

the hypotheses testing are described next.

CHAPTER FIVE

HYPOTHESES TESTING

This chapter is comprised of six sections. The first section deals with accomplishing the first objective of the dissertation. That is, the underlying dimensions of food tourism are identified and labeled. In the second section the results of the hypotheses related to testing the conceptual framework to explain participation in food tourism are reported. In the third section, the results of the hypotheses examining the effects of the tourists' sociodemographic variables on participation in food tourism are reported.

The fourth section reports the findings of the hypothesis related to segmentation of the tourists based on their participation in food tourism. Next, the findings from the hypotheses tested to identify the variables that predict group membership in one or more of the food tourist clusters are stated. In the final section, the results of the hypotheses examining the association between the sociodemographic variables and the food tourist clusters are reported.

5.1 Identifying the Underlying Dimensions of Food Tourism

This section accomplishes the objectives of identifying the dimensions of food tourism. The first hypothesis of the dissertation is tested to meet that objective, next.

1. Screening the Data:

During the initial screening of the data (discussed in Chapter Four) the twenty-nine items that were generated to measure food tourism were screened for skewness and kurtosis. Three items showed extreme skew and kurtosis. Logarithmic transformations did not show any improvements in the distribution. Hence, the three items were eliminated. These were: a) Visit a food processing facility, b) Attend a cooking school, and c) Eat at places that serve food that conforms to my belief system. Thus, 26 items remained for factor analysis.

Preliminary Analysis Using Principal Components Method

Preliminary analysis was conducted on the 26 items using a principal components analysis without any rotation. Tests of Factorability of R or the correlation matrix revealed numerous correlations in excess of 0.30-values that indicate the possibility that item groupings could exist. For a broad higher order construct, Briggs and Cheek (1986) recommend that the inter-item correlation should be in the range of 0.15 to 0.50.

The Kaiser–Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy showed a value of 0.867, which is good for factor analysis. This test is based on a comparison between the sum of squared correlation coefficients and is expressed as a value ranging from 0 to 1. The higher the score the better, and if the scores are less than 0.7, then factor analysis should not be undertaken. Furthermore, it is possible to examine the data additionally by using a matrix of partial correlation coefficients (Norussis, 1993). Partial correlation coefficients should be close to zero because they measure correlations between items when linear effects are removed. This test was undertaken by examining the "anti – image" correlation matrix. All the off-diagonal correlations were below 0.1, another good

requirement for good factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Thus, the data appeared to possess statistical validity to conduct factor analysis.

The unrotated component matrix showed a six-component solution with eigenvalue greater than 1, explaining 61.2 % of the variance. In this preliminary analysis, the loadings of items on the first unrotated component were examined since they can be viewed as a direct measure of the common construct defined by the item pool. The cut-off for the loading was set at 0.40. All but two of the twenty-six items showed loadings above 0.45 on the first unrotated component. "Dine at theme restaurants" and "Prepare food at the place I am staying" showed loadings of 0.21 and 0.10 and were considered as the leading candidates for removal from the scale. Factor analysis using the principal axis factoring method of extraction was run twice, once with the aforementioned two problem items and once again without the two items. Comparison of the resulting correlation matrix, the factor matrix and reliability analysis, suggested that the two items be deleted from the scale. With the deletion of the two items, 24 items were left for the final analysis using the principal axis factoring method.

The Final Analysis Using Principal Axis Factoring Method

The final solution was derived with 24 items using principal axis factoring method of extraction and a varimax rotation with the assumption that the factors were unrelated. The scree-plot and the rotated factor matrix both revealed five factors with eigenvalue more than one explaining 58.87 % of the variance. The mean of 24 items was 2.51, with an average inter–item correlation of 0.23.

Items with factor loadings of 0.40 (15% of variance overlap between variable and factor) are considered 'fair' and was used as the cut-off for selecting the items, and an

item was considered weak if it loaded on two or more factors with same value (less than 0.02 difference) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Based on the criteria, two items "Buy familiar pre-cooked food from supermarket," and "Eat at restaurants where only locals eat" were eliminated, as their highest factor loading was 0.36 and 0.39 respectively. This resulted in the final factor structure consisting of 22 items.

For these 22 items, five interpretable factors were extracted with eigenvalue above 1, explaining 58.87% of the total variance. The factor score covariance matrix, which displays the internal consistency of the factor solution (the certainty with which the factor axes is fixed in space) was examined for SMCs (squared multiple correlations) of the factor scores. In a good solution, the SMCs range between 0 and 1. The larger the SMC, the more stable the factor. A high SMC (0.70 or better) means that the observed variables account for substantial variance in the factor scores (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) . The factor score variance matrix revealed that the lowest of the SMCs for factors from variables was 0.742, indicating that the five factors were internally consistent, and well defined by the observed 22 variables.

The Final Factor Structure and Reliability Coefficients

Table 5.1 exhibits the final structure of 22 items operationalized as Food Tourism. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), a Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.70 is considered moderately reliable. For scales with less than six items, however, an alpha coefficient of 0.6 or higher is acceptable (Cortina, 1993). Therefore, for this dissertation, a Cronbach's alpha of 0.6 or higher is deemed as acceptable. Cronbach's reliability coefficient alpha for the five factors ranged from 0.87 to 0.65.

Table 5.1: Factor Analysis of Items Indicative of Food Tourism

			Factors		
Scale Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Purchase local products to take back home	0.70				
Buy cookbooks with local recipes to take back home	0.64				
Visit a local farmer's market	0.61				
Observe a cooking demonstration	0.60				
Eat at food festivals	0.58				
Buy local kitchen equipments to take back home	0.56				
Purchase local food at roadside stands	0.50				
At the destination, I prepare food unique to the area I am visiting	0.44				
Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties		0.77			
Sample local foods		0.68			
Dine at restaurants serving distinctive cuisines		0.66			
Dine at places where food is prepared with respect to local traditions		0.60			
Visit a brewery			0.85		
Go to local brew pubs			0.73		
Visit wineries			0.52		
Consume local beverages and drinks			0.49		
Dine at high quality restaurants				0.73	
Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant				0.67	
Go to restaurant just to taste the dishes of a particular chef				0.55	
Dine at chain restaurants					0.77
Dine at fast food outlets					0.71
Eat at places serving food I am familiar with					0.43
Eigenvalues	7.21	2.55	1.58	1.47	1.32
Percentage of variance explained	30.04	10.63	6.57	6.11	5.52
Total variance explained: 58.87%					

Kaiser –Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.871
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi –Square	3442.04
df=276; Significance	0.000

The first factor had eight items with a mean score of 2.30 and explained 30.04% of the variance. It showed an eigenvalue of 7.21 and coefficient alpha of 0.82. The factor was labeled Purchase Local as it displayed a preponderance of items which were connected to purchasing products, kitchen equipments, cookbooks etc., to take back home and experience the culinary specialties of the region.

The second factor Dine Local factor consisted of four items indicative of a desire to experience local flavor, had a mean score of 3.34 and explained 10.63% of the variance. The eigenvalue for this factor was 2.55 with a coefficient alpha of 0.87. It is worth mentioning here, that even though the definition of the term 'local' is more driven by place and geography rather than the uniqueness of the product, the factor Dine Local had items that represented both local and distinctive cuisines.

The third factor Drink Local had four items and dealt with consuming local beverages. The mean score for the factor was 2.37, showed an eigenvalue of 1.58 and explained 6.57% of the variance. The coefficient alpha for the factor was 0.82.

Dine Elite was the fourth factor with three items indicating a desire for eating at premium and renowned places signifying dining as a status symbol. This factor had a mean score of 2.61and an eigenvalue of 1.47. It explained 6.11% of the variance and demonstrated a reliability coefficient alpha of 0.77.

The fifth factor Familiarity consisted of three items that demonstrated a need to consume the familiar, or dine at familiar places, rather than the need to experience the attributes of the region's food, drinks and cuisine. This factor showed a mean score of 2.30, an eigenvalue of 1.32, explained 5.52% of the variance and showed a coefficient alpha of 0.65.

Table 5.2: Label, Summative Mean, Standard Deviation, and Reliability Coefficient of the Five Dimensions of Food Tourism.

Factor Name	Scale Items	Mean[1]	SD	Reliability Coefficient[2]
Purchase Local		2.30	0.64	0.82
	Purchase local products to take back home			
	Buy cookbooks with local recipes to take back home			
	Visit a local farmer's market			
	Observe a cooking demonstration			
	Eat at food festivals			
	Buy local kitchen equipments to take back home			
	Purchase local food at roadside stands			
Dine Local		3.3	0.74	0.87
	At the destination, I prepare food unique to the area I am visiting			
	Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties			
	Sample local foods			
	Dine at restaurants serving distinctive cuisines			
	Dine at places where food is prepared with respect to local traditions			
Drink Local		2.37	0.85	0.82
	Visit a brewery			
	Go to local brew pubs			
	Visit wineries			
	Consume local beverages and drinks			
Dine Elite		2.60	0.80	0.77
	Dine at high quality restaurants			
	Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant			
	Go to restaurant just to taste the dishes of a particular chef			
Familiarity		2.9	0.67	0.66
	Dine at chain restaurants			
	Dine at fast food outlets			
	Eat at places serving food I am familiar with			

[1] 1= never, 2= rarely, 3=sometimes, 4= frequently, 5=always.
[2] Reliability of the entire scale =0.86

Finally, when all the twenty-two items were included in a single scale, the reliability coefficient was even higher (α =0.855). Table 5.2 displays the label, summative mean, standard deviation, and reliability coefficient of the five dimensions of food tourism. Thus, the operationalization of food tourism is deemed acceptable for use as a dependent variable for the current study. The multidimensionality of the food tourism scale was verified and was found to be significant, which lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis H1:1a (Food tourism is not composed of multiple significant dimensions).

Addendum:

It is important to mention that the psychometric properties of the dimensions of the items that constitute food tourism were established by conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8.71 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2004). Since the first objective of the dissertation was limited to identifying the dimensions of food tourism and not to develop a scale of food tourism activities and establishing its psychometric properties, detailed explanation of the analysis is not presented in this dissertation. The CFA was conducted on a hold-out sample which formed a part of a larger study on South Carolina coastal tourists. The CFA statistics revealed acceptable fit for each of the five dimensions indicating unidimensionality. For Purchase Local Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.99, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.97, and Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR) = 0.038. The chi-square statistics and the associated values for Dine Local indicated an acceptable fit for the model with $\chi^2 (2) = 4.19$, p= 0.12, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.99, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.97, and Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.018. For the measurement model Drink Local, all the

fit indices indicated an acceptable measurement, with χ^2 (2) = 5.91, p= 0.052, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.99, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.96, and Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.026. The unidimensionality for the factors Dine Elite and Familiarity were tested by pairing the two factors with each other because both the factors had less than four items each. The overall fit indicated an acceptable measurement, with χ^2 (8) = 17.90, p= 0.022, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.98, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.96, and Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.031. The unidimensionality was indicated by the parameter estimates results where the items of each factor loaded on to two separate factors. The items indicative of Familiarity showed negative loadings. The overall fit of this final Food Tourism Activities measurement model was the chi-square value with 142 degrees of freedom χ^2 (142) = 448.57 (p=0.0); GFI=0.89; AGFI =0.85; NNFI =0.89; CFI=0.91, and IFI =0.91. All of the fit indices except for the chi-square value indicate that the proposed model was acceptable. The critical sample size (CN) was 165.83 and the root mean square residual (RMR) for the model was 0.073.

As for the reliability, the five factors showed the following composite reliabilities: 1) Purchase Local 0.635; 2) Dine Local: 0.76, 3) Drink Local: 0.746; 4) Dine Elite: 0.674 and, 5) Familiarity: 0.651. Further, the discriminant and convergent validity of each of the factors were established by conducting a chi-square difference test on a constrained and unconstrained model.

5.2 Identifying the Variables that Explain Participation in Food Tourism

In order to identify the variables that explain participation in food tourism, standard multiple regression was performed between the dimensions of food tourism as the dependent variable and food neophobia, variety-seeking tendency, hedonic consumption (hedonism and utilitarian), and enduring involvement (social bonding, centrality, and identity expression) as the independent variables. Since the exploratory factor analysis of dependent variable revealed five factors, five regression models were run. Table 5.3 shows the correlation matrix of all the variables (both IVs and DV) used in the multiple regression models.

Table 5.3: Correlations Matrix for the Independent and Dependent Variables

	Variety-seeking	Food neophobia	Hedonism	Utilitarian	Social Bonding	Centrality	Identity Expression	Dine Local	Drink Local	Purchase Local	Dine Elite	Familiarity
Variety- Seeking	1	-0.794	0.263	0.183	0.440	0.305	0.254	0.588	0.449	0.468	0.359	-0.267
Food neophobia		1	-0.218	-0.163	-0.348	-0.244	-0.156	-0.524	-0.435	-0.370	-0.320	0.297
Hedonism			1	0.662	0.270	0.162	0.134	0.271	0.181	0.135	0.195	-0.089
Utilitarian				1	0.248	0.118	0.104	0.219	0.160	0.088	0.157	-0.048
Social Bonding					1	0.748	0.618	0.418	0.339	0.479	0.363	-0.171
Centrality						1	0.518	0.279	0.247	0.367	0.251	-0.168
Identity Expression							1	0.176	0.266	0.289	0.229	-0.033
Dine Local								1	0.511	0.492	0.522	-0.350
Drink Local									1	0.408	0.450	-0.284
Purchase Local										1	0.400	-0.063
Dine Elite											1	-0.236
Familiarity												1

N = 341. All correlations with absolute value above 0.157 are significant at 0.01 level.

The first regression model was run with all the independent variables and the factor Dine Local. Table 5.4 displays the un-standardized regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations (sr^2) and R^2, and adjusted R^2. The overall model was significant ($F_{7,333} = 31.91$, $p<0.001$) while explaining 38.9% of variance in Dine local.

Further, variety-seeking tendency ($p <0.001$), food neophobia ($p=0.048$), and social bonding ($p=0.001$) were found to uniquely explain the variance in the dependent variable. The unique variance explained (sr^2) by variety-seeking tendency was 4.0%, food neophobia was 0.7%, and social bonding was 2.1%. The three independent variables in combination contributed another 33.4% in shared variability. Altogether, 33.4% (38.9%) of the variability in Dine Local was predicted by knowing the scores on variety-seeking, food neophobia and social bonding.

For the three regression coefficients that differed significantly from zero, 95% confidence limits were calculated. The significance levels of the regression coefficients are assessed through confidence intervals and should not include zero as a possible value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The confidence limits for variety-seeking were 0.213 to 0.483, and those for food neophobia were -0.284 to -0.001. Further, social bonding showed confidence intervals of 0.094 to 0.341. Hence, these three variables contribute significantly to regression. The regression coefficients (β) give a measure of the contribution of each variable to the model. They signify the expected change in the dependent variable for each unit increase in the independent variable, after the independent variables are standardized (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Thus, for every unit increase in variety-seeking, dine local increased by 0.372 units, and for every unit

increase in food neophobia, participation in food tourism decreased by 0.139 units. Further, for every unit increase in social bonding, participation in food tourism increased by 0.262 units. Thus, tourists who seek more variety, who are less food neophobic, and who perceive food more as a means of social bonding are more likely to consume local food at local restaurants.

Table 5.4: Regression Analysis of the Conceptual Variables Explaining Dine Local

<u>Regression Statistics</u>

F-Ratio = 31.92
Degrees of Freedom = 7, 333
R=0.634; R^2 =0.402
Adjusted R^2 = 0. 389
p Value < 0.001

<u>Regression Coefficients</u>

Variable	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B)	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)	Sr^2 (Unique variance)	Standard Error	p Value
Variety-seeking	0.348	0.372	0.04	0.068	<0.001*
Food neophobia	-0.143	-0.139	0.007	0.072	0.048*
Hedonism	0.061	0.070		0.050	0.226
Utilitarian	0.024	0.030		0.046	0.597
Social Bonding	0.218	0.262	0.021	0.063	<0.01*
Centrality	-0.022	-0.028		0.051	0.671
Identity Expression	-0.090	-0.100		0.049	0.067

The second regression model was run with all the independent variables and the factor Drink Local. Table 5.5 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations (sr^2) and R^2, and adjusted R^2. The overall model was significant ($F_{7,333} = 16.27$, $p<0.001$) while explaining 23.9% of variance in Drink local.

Further, variety-seeking tendency (p =0.21), food neophobia (p=0.004), and Identity Expression (p=0.04) were found to uniquely explain the variance in the dependent variable. The unique variance explained (sr^2) by variety-seeking tendency was 1.0%, food neophobia was 2.0%, and Identity Expression was 0.09%. The three independent variables in combination contributed to another 21.6% in shared variability. Altogether, 25.5% (23.9%) of the variability in Drink Local was predicted by knowing the scores on variety-seeking, food neophobia and Identity Expression.

For the three regression coefficients that differed significantly from zero, 95% confidence limits were calculated. The confidence limits for variety-seeking were 0.31 to 0.378, and those for food neophobia were -0.449 to -0.085. Further, Identity Expression showed confidence intervals of 0.251 to 0.266. Hence, these three variables contribute significantly to regression.

Based on the regression coefficients (β) for every unit increase in variety-seeking, drink local increased by 0.190 units, and for every unit increase in food neophobia, drink local decreased by -0.225 units. Further, for every unit increase in identity expression, drink local increased by 0.123 units. Thus, tourists who seek more variety, who are less neophobic, and who perceive food as a means of identity expression are more likely to consume local drinks and beverages.

Table 5.5: Regression Analysis of the Conceptual Variables Explaining Drink Local

Regression Statistics

F-Ratio = 16.28
Degrees of Freedom = 7, 333
$R=0.505; R^2 =0.255$
Adjusted $R^2 = 0.239$
p Value < 0.001

Regression Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B)	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)	Sr^2 (Unique variance)	Standard Error	p Value
Variety-seeking	0.204	0.190	0.01	0.088	0.021*
Food neophobia	-0.267	-0.225	0.02	0.092	0.004*
Hedonism	0.011	0.010		0.065	0.871
Utilitarian	0.44	0.047		0.060	0.458
Social Bonding	0.087	0.090		0.081	0.284
Centrality	-0.004	-0.005		0.066	0.946
Identity Expression	0.128	-0.123	0.009	0.063	0.044*

The third regression model was run with all the independent variables and the

factor Purchase Local. Table 5.6 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B)

and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations

(sr^2) and R^2, and adjusted R^2. The overall model was significant (F $_{7,333}$ = 21.91, p<0.001)

while explaining 30.1% of variance in Purchase local.

Further, variety-seeking tendency (p <0.001), and social bonding (p<0.001) were

found to uniquely explain the variance in the dependent variable. The unique variance

explained (sr^2) by variety-seeking tendency was 3.6%, and social bonding was 3.6%. The two independent variables in combination contributed to another 24.3% in shared variability. Together, 31.5% (30.1%) of the variability in Purchase Local was predicted by knowing the scores on variety-seeking and social bonding.

For the two regression coefficients that differed significantly from zero, 95% confidence limits were calculated. The confidence limits for variety-seeking were 0.41 to 0.392, and those for social bonding were 0.128 to 0.359. Hence, these two variables contribute significantly to regression.

For the significant regression coefficients (β), for every unit increase in variety-seeking, purchase local increased by 0.326 units, and for every unit increase in social bonding, participation in food tourism increased by 0.336 units. Thus, tourists who seek more variety, and who perceive food as a means of social bonding are more likely to purchase local food and food related products to take back home.

Table 5.6: Regression Analysis of the Conceptual Variables Explaining Purchase Local

<u>Regression Statistics</u>

F-Ratio = 21.92
Degrees of Freedom = 7, 333
R=0.562; R^2 =0.315
Adjusted R^2 = 0. 301
p Value < 0.001

<u>Regression Coefficients</u>

Variable	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B)	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)	Sr^2 (Unique variance)	Standard Error	p Value
Variety-seeking	0.266	0.326	0.036	0.064	<0.001*
Food neophobia	0.000	0.000		0.067	0.998
Hedonism	-0.009	-0.011		0.047	0.854
Utilitarian	-0.036	-0.050		0.043	0.411
Social Bonding	0.244	0.336	0.036	0.059	<0.001*
Centrality	0.019	0.028		0.048	0.682
Identity Expression	-0.008	-0.010		0.046	0.869

The fourth regression model was run with all the independent variables and the factor Dine Elite. Table 5.7 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations (sr^2) and R^2, and adjusted R^2. The overall model was significant (F $_{7,333}$ = 11.08, p<0.001) while explaining 17.2% of variance in Dine Elite.

Further, social bonding (p=0.006) was the only significant variable found to explain the variance in Dine Elite. The 95% confidence limits for social bonding were

0.066 to 0.380.As for the regression coefficients (β), for every unit increase in social

bonding, dine elite increased by 0.245 units. Thus, tourists who perceive food as a means

of social bonding are more likely to Dine Elite.

Table 5.7: Regression Analysis of the Conceptual Variables Explaining Dine Elite

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Regression Statistics

F-Ratio = 11.08
Degrees of Freedom = 7, 333
R=0.435; R^2 =0.189
Adjusted R^2 = 0. 172
p Value < 0.001

Regression Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B)	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)	Sr^2 (Unique variance)	Standard Error	p Value
Variety-seeking	0.161	0.158		0.087	0.065
Food neophobia	-0.109	-0.097		0.091	0.234
Hedonism	0.055	0.058		0.064	0.389
Utilitarian	0.012	0.013		0.059	0.842
Social Bonding	0.223	0.245	0.019	0.080	0.006*
Centrality	-0.025	-0.029		0.065	0.697
Identity Expression	0.027	0.028		0.062	0.662

The fifth regression model was run with all the independent variables and the

factor Familiarity. Table 5.8 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and

intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (β), the semi-partial correlations (sr^2)

and R^2, and adjusted R^2. The overall model was significant ($F_{7,333}$ = 5.67, p<0.001) while explaining 8.8 % of variance in Familiarity.

Further, food neophobia (p=0.011) was the only significant variable found to explain the variance in Familiarity. For food neophobia, 95% confidence limits were 0.048 to 0.363. As for the regression coefficients (β), for every unit increase in food neophobia, familiarity increased by 0.219 unit. Thus, tourists who are food neophobic are more likely to prefer familiar foods and familiar dining places.

Table 5.8: Regression Analysis of the Conceptual Variables Explaining Familiarity
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Regression Statistics

F-Ratio = 5.67
Degrees of Freedom = 7, 333
R=0.326; R^2 =0.107
Adjusted R^2 = 0. 088
p Value < 0.001

Regression Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardized Regression Coefficients (B)	Standardized Regression Coefficients (β)	Sr^2 (Unique variance)	Standard Error	p Value
Variety-seeking	-0.053	-0.062		0.077	0.488
Food neophobia	0.205	0.219	0.018	0.080	0.011*
Hedonism	-0.023	-0.029		0.056	0.685
Utilitarian	0.023	0.032		0.052	0.650
Social Bonding	-0.036	-0.047		0.070	0.608
Centrality	-0.083	-0.115		0.057	0.148
Identity Expression	0.087	0.106		0.055	0.112

The results of the five regression models revealed that food neophobia was a significant variable explaining variance for the following factors of food tourism: Dine Local, Drink Local and Familiarity. Hence, the null hypothesis H 2:1a was rejected. Next, variety-seeking significantly explained variance for: dine local, drink local, and purchase local, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis H 2: 2a. Further, hedonic consumption (both the dimensions) did not significantly explain variance for any of the five factors of food tourism. This lead to the failure to reject the null hypothesis H 2: 3a. As for enduring involvement with food related activities, two of its dimensions were significant in explaining variance in food tourism. Social bonding explained variance in dine local, purchase local, and dine elite. In addition, identity expression explained variance for Drink Local. Thus, the null hypothesis H3:4a was rejected.

5.3 The Effect of Sociodemographic Variables on Participation in Food Tourism

To determine the effect of sociodemographic variables with respect to participation in food tourism, six sets of one-factor-between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were conducted. The five dimensions of food tourism served as the dependent variables and the sociodemographic variables of age, gender, education, marital status, employment status, and annual household income each served as the independent variable for each of the six analyses. Evaluation of the homogeneity of the variance and covariance matrices and the normality assumptions underlying MANOVA did not reveal any anomalies. In case of significant effect, the univariate F-ratio for each dependent variable were examined to indicate which individual dependent variable contributed to the significant multivariate effect. A Bonferroni-type adjustment

was done to account for the inflation of Type I error. Hence, for the post-hoc analyses, the adjusted alpha was set at (0.05/5= 0.01).

The first test was run with age as the independent variable and the five dimensions of food tourism as the dependent variables. Results of the MANOVA were statistically significant according to Wilks' lambda (0.834), $F (25, 1201) = 2.41$, $p<0.001$. This resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis H5: 1a. Since a significant effect was found, the univariate F-ratio for the dependent variables was examined. As seen in Table 5.9, a significant main effect was found for the dimension Drink Local ($p<0.01$). Furthermore, post-hoc tests were conducted using Tukey HSD to determine what age categories differed from each other with respect to the dimension Drink Local. It was found that differences lay between the age category 25-35 and the age category of 65 and above (mean difference= 0.75, $p=0.001$), and between the age categories of 55-64 and 65 and above (mean difference = 0.53, $p=0.008$).

Table 5.9: MANOVA Results Displaying the Effect of Age on Participation in Food Tourism

Wilks' lambda = 0.833
F-Ratio = 2.41
Degrees of Freedom = 25, 1201
p Value < 0.001

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Dine Local	1.02	5	0.20	0.37	0.87
	Drink Local	13.72	5	2.74	3.92	0.00*
	Purchase Local	1.77	5	0.35	0.85	0.52
	Dine Elite	3.99	5	0.80	1.23	0.29
	Familiarity	5.58	5	1.12	2.48	0.03*

Tukey HSD Post-hoc Pairwise Comparison

Dependent Variable	Age Category (I)	Age Category (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Drink Local	25-34	65 and Above	-0.71	0.18	0.001

The second test was run with gender as the independent variable and the five dimensions of food tourism as the dependent variables. Results of the MANOVA were statistically significant according to Wilks' lambda (0.95), F (5, 330) = 3.13, p<0.01, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis H5:2a. As seen in Table 5.10, a significant univariate main effect was found for the dimension Purchase Local (p<0.01). Since, gender has only two categories, no post hoc-tests were conducted. However the

univariate analysis revealed that mean difference between women and men was 0.225, with women displaying higher scores on that variable.

Table 5.10: MANOVA Results Displaying the Effect of Gender on Participation in Food Tourism

Wilks' lambda = 0.955
F-Ratio = 3.13
Degrees of Freedom = 5, 330
p Value = 0.009

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Dine Local	0.65	1	0.65	1.19	0.28
	Drink Local	0.18	1	0.18	0.25	0.62
	Purchase Local	4.00	1	4.00	9.85	0.00*
	Dine Elite	0.34	1	0.34	0.53	0.47
	Familiarity	0.18	1	0.18	0.38	0.54

Univariate Analysis t-test

Dependent Variable	Female mean score	Male Mean score	Mean Difference	Standard Error	Sig.
Purchase Local	2.388	2.162	0.225	0.18	0.002

The third test was run to test the effect of education on food tourism. Results of the MANOVA were statistically significant according to Wilks' lambda (0.86), $F_{(15, 900)} = 3.26$, $p<0.001$. As seen in Table 5.11, the examination of the univariate F-ratios revealed significant main effect for the dimensions Dine Local ($p<0.001$), Drink Local ($p<0.01$), Dine Elite ($p<0.001$), and Familiarity ($p<0.001$).

Furthermore, post-hoc tests were conducted using Tukey HSD to determine what education levels differed from each other with respect to these dimensions. With respect

to Dine Local, it was found that differences lay between the high school and college

(mean difference = -0.30, p=0.01), and high school and post-graduate (mean difference=

-0.46, p<0.001). With respect to Drink Local, there were significant differences between

high school and college (mean difference= -0.38, p<0.01, high school and professional

education (mean difference = -0.57, p<0.01), and high school and post-graduate (mean

difference= -0.43, p<0.01). As for Dine Elite, there were significant differences between

high school and postgraduate (mean difference = -0.43, p<0.001), and between college

and postgraduate (mean difference= -0.37, p<0.01). Finally, with respect to Familiarity,

there were significant differences between high school and professional (mean

difference= 0.451, p<0.01).

Table 5.11: MANOVA Results displaying the Effect of Education on Participation in Food Tourism

Wilks' lambda = 0.864
F-Ratio = 3.27
Degrees of Freedom = 15, 900
p Value < 0.001

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Education	Dine Local	9.48	3	3.16	6.20	0.00*
	Drink Local	11.96	3	3.99	5.76	0.00*
	Purchase Local	0.92	3	0.31	0.74	0.53
	Dine Elite	15.53	3	5.18	8.50	0.00*
	Familiarity	7.09	3	2.36	5.38	0.00*

Tukey HSD Post-hoc Pairwise Comparison

Dependent Variable	Education Category (I)	Education Category (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Dine Local	High School	College	-0.30	0.09	0.01
	High School	Post Graduate	-0.46	0.15	0.00
Drink Local	High School	College	-0.38	0.11	0.00
	High School	Professional Ed	-0.57	0.17	0.00
	High School	Post Graduate	-0.42	0.13	0.00

Dine Elite	High School	Post Graduate	-0.60	0.12	0.00
	College	Post Graduate	-0.37	0.16	0.00
Familiarity	High School	Professional Ed.	0.30	0.10	0.00

The fourth test was run to test the effect of marital status on food tourism. The results of the MANOVA revealed Wilks' lambda (0.927), F (15, 900) = 1.659, p =0.054, leading to the failure to reject the null hypothesis H5: 4a. Thus, marital status did not show any significant effect on participation in food tourism. Similarly, the fifth MANOVA run to test the effect of employment status on participation in food tourism did not show any significant differences among the seven categories of employment status on the linear combination of the five dimensions of food tourism. The results revealed Wilks' lambda (0.886), F (30, 1298) = 1.326, p =0.113. This lead to the failure to reject the null hypothesis H5: 5a.

Finally, test was run with annual household income as the independent variable. As seen in Table 5.12, results of the MANOVA were statistically significant according to Wilks' lambda (0.757), F (30, 1178) = 2.95, p<0.001. This lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis H 5: 6a. Examination of the univariate F-ratios revealed significant main effect was found for the dimensions Dine Local (p<0.001), Drink Local (p<0.01), Dine Elite (p<0.001), and Familiarity (p<0.01).

Furthermore, post-hoc tests were conducted using Tukey HSD to find out what income categories differed from each other with respect to these dimensions. With respect to Dine Local, it was found that differences lay between the income category under $10,000 and the category 100,000 and above (mean difference = -1.26, p=0.001). With respect to Drink Local, there significant differences between the income category

$20,000-$39,999 and the income category 100,000 and above (mean difference= -0.623,

p<0.01). As for Dine Elite, the income category 100,000 and above showed significant

differences with the following five income categories: Below 10,000 (mean difference

=1.029, p<0.01), 20,000- 39,999 (mean difference = 0.136, p<0.001), income category

$40,000- $59,999 (mean difference = 0.125, p<0.001), income category $60,000-

$79,999 (mean difference = 0.128, p<0.001); and the income category $80,000- $99,999

(mean difference = -0.129, p<0.01). Post hoc analysis for the dimension Familiarity did

not reveal any significant differences between any income categories.

Table 5.12: MANOVA Results Displaying the Effect of Income on Participation in Food
Tourism

Wilks' lambda = 0.757
F-Ratio = 2.83
Degrees of Freedom = 30, 1178
p Value < 0.001

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Income	Dine Local	12.76	6	2.13	4.13	0.00*
	Drink Local	14.09	6	2.35	3.38	0.00*
	Purchase Local	2.33	6	0.39	0.97	0.44
	Dine Elite	31.62	6	5.27	9.90	0.00*
	Familiarity	9.50	6	1.58	3.51	0.00*

Tukey HSD Post-hoc Pairwise Comparison

Dependent Variable	Income Category (I)	Income Category (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Dine Local	Under10,000	100,000 +	-1.26	0.30	0.001
Drink Local	20,000-39,999	100,000 +	-0.62	0.16	0.001
Dine Elite	10,000-19,999	100,000 +	-1.03	0.31	0.01
	20,000-39,999	100,000 +	-0.90	0.13	0.000
	40,000-59,999	100,000 +	-0.63	0.13	0.000
	60,000-79,999	100,000 +	-0.65	0.13	0.000
	80,000-99,999	100,000 +	-0.49	0.13	0.003

5.4 Developing Taxonomy of Food Tourists

To test whether the tourists could be segmented into homogenous groups based on their participation in food tourism, cluster analysis was performed. Clusters of respondents were created using Ward's method in SPSS 13.0. The objects being clustered, in this case the respondents of the current study, were all assigned a separate cluster, and those clusters were combined until a stopping point was determined. The mean scores of each of the factors obtained by the factor analysis of the twenty-two food tourism activities were used as the clustering variables.

The agglomeration schedule similar to scree-plots in factor analysis was examined for large changes in agglomeration coefficients. These were noted as potential stopping points. A three-cluster solution was selected, and this was cross–validated with a K-means cluster analysis. Stability of the solution was also examined for the K-means clustering by considering a random initial seed (centroids), which was iterated until the Euclidean distance between centroids change to less than 2%. Use of this iterative approach reduces the chances of biases entering the designation of initial cluster seeds, and assures stable clusters once the procedure meets the 2% convergent criterion (Hair et al., 1995). The final cluster-centroids were nearly identical, thus validating the selection of a three-cluster solution.

Final determination of clusters was based on researcher judgment of interpretability of cluster means (Milligan & Cooper, 1985). The mean scores of each cluster on each of the five dimensions were compared with the grand mean by examining

whether the grand mean fell within or outside of the 95% confidence interval. The mean

scores and standard deviation for the three clusters on each of the five dimensions are

reported in Table 5.13

Table 5.13: Mean Scores and SD for Each of the Five Dimensions of the Three Clusters

Tourist Cluster	N (%)	Dine Local	Drink Local	Purchase Local	Dine Elite	Familiarity
Cluster 1	85 (24.92%)	3.94 (0.52)	3.36 (0.61)	2.73 (0.60)	3.21 (0.76)	2.38 (0.56)
Cluster 2	128 (37.53%)	3.55 (0.49)	2.37 (0.55)	2.44 (0.53)	2.90 (0.55)	3.11 (0.59)
Cluster3	128 (37.53%)	2.72 (0.60)	1.72 (0.55)	1.88 (0.51)	1.91 (0.48)	3.23 (0.59)
Grand Mean	341	3.34 (0.74)	2.37 (0.85)	2.30 (0.64)	2.61 (0.80)	2.97 (0.67)

One-way analysis of variance was used to test for statistically significant

differences across the five dimensions of food tourism activities. Table 5.14 displays the

results of the ANOVA, which shows that the three clusters showed statistically different

means for all the five dimensions. For the dimension Dine Local, the three clusters

showed significant differences $F_{(2, 338)} = 144.93$, $p < 0.001$. Similarly, the three clusters

showed significant differences on the dimension Drink Local $F_{(2, 338)} = 215.25$,

$p < 0.001$, and the dimension Purchase Local $F_{(2, 338)} = 69.94$, $p < 0.001$. Furthermore, the

three clusters were significantly different with respect to the dimension Dine Elite with F

$_{(2, 338)} = 150.75$, $p < 0.001$, and Familiarity with $F_{(2, 338)} = 60.25$, $p < 0.001$.

Table 5.14: Analysis of Variance for Cluster Means on Five Factors of Food Tourism

	Cluster Mean Square	df	Error Mean Square	df	F	Sig.
Dine Local	42.50	2	0.29	338	144.93	<0.001*
Drink Local	68.73	2	0.32	338	215.25	<0.001*
Purchase Local	20.54	2	0.29	338	69.94	<0.001*
Familiarity	20.26	2	0.34	338	60.25	<0.001*
Dine Elite	51.91	2	0.34	338	150.75	<0.001*

Finally, Scheffe's post-hoc tests were conducted on each dimension to identify which cluster differed from the other. The results of the tests revealed that each of the three clusters showed significant differences from the other two on all the dimensions, except for the dimension Familiarity where there was no significant difference between Cluster Two and Cluster Three (mean difference=0.11, p=0.25).

Description of the Clusters

The clusters were examined for their mean scores on the five dimensions of food tourism. Using the definition of culinary tourist proposed in Chapter One, the culinary tourist cluster was identified. The other clusters were labeled appropriate to their scores on each of the food tourism dimensions.

1. Cluster One: The Culinary Tourists.

Eighty-five (24.92%) respondents were grouped under this cluster. The scores for each of the dimensions in order of importance are as follows: Dine local (mean =3.94), Drink Local (mean =3.36), Dine Elite (mean =3.21), Purchase local (mean =2.73), and

Familiarity (mean=2.38). All the scores were higher than the grand mean for the first four

dimensions and lower than the grand mean for the dimension Familiarity.

Additionally, when compared to the other two clusters, the scores on all the

dimensions were the highest, except for the Familiarity dimension where it had the lowest

scores among the three clusters. This is explained by the fact that the dimension

Familiarity is composed of items like 'Eating at fast food outlets' and the like, which

indicates low interest in local food. Logically, a person high on the Dine Local, Purchase

Local, and Drink Local dimensions would be expected to be low on familiarity and vice-

versa.

In Chapter One, the definition proposed for culinary tourists was "they are a

special interest tourist whose major activities at the destination are food-related, and for

whom food tourism is an important, if not primary reason influencing his travel

behavior." Using this definition and examining the scores of this cluster, it seemed apt to

label this cluster Culinary Tourist.

2. Cluster Two: The Experiential Tourist.

One hundred and twenty eight (37.53%) respondents represented the second

cluster. Their scores on each of the dimensions in order of importance are as follows:

Dine local (mean =3.55), Familiarity (mean =3.11), Dine Elite (mean =2.90), Purchase

local (mean =2.44), and Drink Local (mean =2.37). All the scores were higher than the

overall or grand mean, except for the dimension Drink Local which was the same as the

overall mean.

Furthermore, when compared to the other two clusters, the group displayed scores

that fell right in between the three clusters. The tourists belonging to this cluster had a

medium score on all the dimensions. This cluster was labeled as Experiential Tourist. This cluster was called experiential tourist because it had equal or greater score compared to the overall mean score for all the dimensions. The tourists representing this group seemed to be open to local food experiences, but not as highly engaged as the culinary tourist.

At the same time, they did not show any significant difference from cluster three, which had highest score on familiarity. This indicates that the experiential tourist prefers the comfort of familiar food served at franchisees and chain restaurants while experimenting with the local fare.

3. Cluster Three: The General Tourist.

Overall, 128 (37.53%) respondents made up the third cluster. Their scores on each of the dimension in order of importance were as follows: Familiarity (mean =3.23), Dine Local (mean =2.72), Dine Elite (mean =1.99), Purchase Local (mean=1.88), Drink Local (mean=1.72). Compared to the other two groups, this group had lowest scores on all the dimensions except for the dimension Familiarity, where it had the highest scores among all the clusters. Similarly, when compared to the overall mean, the group displayed lower scores on all the factors except for Familiarity. This cluster was labeled General Tourist. On a continuum that represents food tourists, this cluster is likely to be polar opposite to the special interest segment of culinary tourist. Figure 5.1 displays a line graph of the

mean scores of each of the five dimensions for the three food tourist clusters.
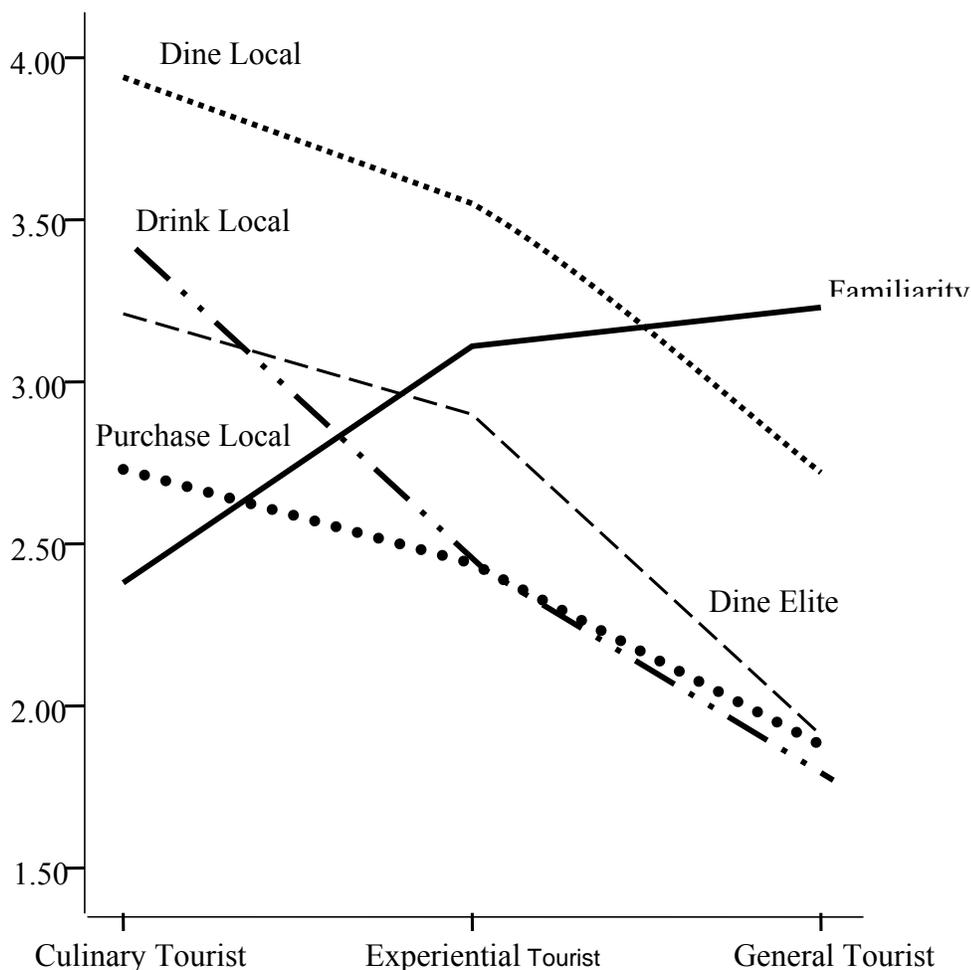
Figure 5.1: Line Graph of the Mean Scores on Each Dimensions of Food Tourism for the Three Food Tourist Clusters

Validating the Clusters and Verification of the Cluster Analysis:

Multiple discriminant analysis was performed to validate the three-cluster

solution. According to Bailey (2004), clustering and multiple discriminant analysis are

complementary techniques and make good cohorts when used in concurrence with each

other. In this symbiotic relationship, cluster analysis is used first, and multiple

discriminant analysis uses this pre-existing classification and the predictor variables

linearly to predict the group to which each respondent belongs.

The cross-validation technique helps confirm the results of the cluster analysis by

showing the adequacy of classifications. That is, what proportion of culinary tourists is

correctly classified as culinary tourists, and among those who are misclassified how

many are put into the other two clusters. The results in Table 5.15 show that 95.6% of

original grouped cases were correctly classified, and 93.8% of cross-validated grouped

cases were correctly classified.

Table 5.15: Cross Validation of the Three Clusters Using the Classification Results of
Multiple Discriminant Analysis

		Cluster	Predicted Group Membership			Total
			Experiential	Culinary	General	
Original	Count	Experiential	126	1	1	128
		Culinary	7	78	0	85
		General	6	0	122	128
	%	Experiential	98.44	0.78	0.78	100
		Culinary	8.24	91.76	0	100
		General	4.69	0	95.31	100
Cross-validated	Count	Experiential	124	1	3	128
		Culinary	8	77	0	85
		General	9	0	119	128
	%	Experiential	96.88	0.78	2.34	100
		Culinary	9.41	90.59	0	100
		General	7.03	0	92.97	100

These findings collectively demonstrate that tourists can be segmented into

homogenous clusters, based on their participation in activities related to food. Hence, the

null hypothesis H4:1a stating that tourists cannot be segmented into homogenous clusters, based on their participation in activities related to food is rejected.

5.5. Variables Predicting Membership in Food Tourist Segments

A sequential multinomial logistic regression was conducted through SPSS NOMREG with seven predictor variables to assess prediction of membership of the independent variables in one of the three categories of outcome (culinary tourist, experiential tourist, and general tourist). This statistical test identifies those variables that reliably separate one cluster from the other.

Significance of the Overall Model

The model fitting information showed that the model was significant $\chi^2(14)$ =143.01, p<0.0001 (Table 5.16). The measure of fit for the model assumes the null hypothesis that no variable can predict group membership. Hence, it was inferred that at least one of the variables would significantly predict group membership.

Table 5.16: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	Df	Significance
Intercept Only	737.85			
Final	594.84	143.01	14.00	0.00*

Goodness of Fit Statistics

The goodness of fit statistics compares the observed frequencies with the expected frequencies for each cluster. Here, a non-significant difference is desired, as it indicates that the full or incomplete model adequately duplicates the observed frequencies at the various levels of outcome. The goodness-of-fit statistics with the

predictors in the model showed an excellent fit: χ^2 (666, N=341) = 594.84, deviance

criterion p= 0.978 and Nagelkerke R Square = 0.387 (explaining 38.7% of the variance).

1. Variables that Separate Culinary Tourist from General Tourist

Parameter estimates compare the three clusters with each other and answer the

question, "what variables reliably separate one cluster from the other?" Table 5.18

displays the parameter estimates of variables, that reliably separate culinary tourist from

general tourist at criterion α=0.05. The variables that predict membership to the culinary

tourist cluster are variety-seeking tendency, food neophobia, and social bonding.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), the Wald's statistic and the odds ratio

evaluate the significance of each of the variables in predicting membership to the

clusters. The Wald statistic is the function of logistic regression coefficient divided by the

standard error, and is similar to the t-statistic. The importance of predictors is evaluated

by the odds ratio. Those predictors that change the odds of the outcome the most are

interpreted as the most important. That is, the farther the odds ratio from one, the more

influential the variable in predicting membership in different clusters

As seen in Table 5.17, variety-seeking displayed a Wald statistic =11.98, p<0.01,

odds ratio=4.38. The odds ratio of 4.38 implies that if there is a unit change in variety-

seeking, the odds of a general tourist turning into a culinary tourist are 4.38. food

neophobia revealed a Wald statistic =5.514, p<0.05, and odds ratio=.370. This means that

for a unit increase in food neophobia, the odds of a general tourist turning into a culinary

tourist is decreased by 63% (1- 0.37 =0.63). Social bonding revealed a Wald statistic

=4.59, p<0.05, odds ratio=2.155, implying that with a unit increase in social bonding, the

odds of a general tourist turning into culinary tourist are 2.16.

Table 5.17: Parameter Estimates Displaying the Variables that Separate Culinary Tourist Cluster from the General Tourist Cluster

Cluster		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B) Odds Ratio
Culinary Tourist	Intercept	-7.08	2.64	7.18	1	0.01	
	Variety-seeking	1.48	0.43	11.98	1	0.00*	4.38
	Food neophobia	-0.99	0.42	5.51	1	0.02*	0.37
	Hedonism	0.25	0.29	0.73	1	0.39	1.28
	Utilitarian	-0.10	0.27	0.12	1	0.72	0.91
	Social Bonding	0.77	0.36	4.59	1	0.03*	2.16
	Centrality	-0.11	0.28	0.16	1	0.69	0.89
	Identity Expression	0.41	0.28	2.11	1	0.15	1.50

The reference category is: General Tourist.

2.Variables that Separate Experiential Tourist from General Tourist

Table 5.18 displays the parameter estimates of variables, that reliably separated experiential tourist from general tourist at criterion $\alpha=0.05$. The variables that predict membership to the experiential tourist cluster are food neophobia and social bonding.

Food neophobia displayed a Wald statistic = 5.34, $p<0.05$, and odds ratio of 0.472. This implies that a unit increase in food neophobia decreases the odds of a general tourist from turning into experiential tourist by 53%. Social bonding revealed a Wald statistic = 5.27, $p<0.05$, odds ratio= 1.89, which means that with a unit increase in social bonding, the odds of a general tourist turning into an experiential tourist are 1.89.

Table 5.18: Parameter Estimates Displaying the Variables that Separate Experiential Tourist Cluster from the General Tourist Cluster

Cluster		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B) Odds Ratio
Experiential Tourist	Intercept	-1.80	1.92	0.88	1	0.35	
	Variety-seeking	0.35	0.31	1.28	1	0.26	1.41
	Food neophobia	-0.75	0.32	5.34	1	0.02*	0.47
	Hedonism	0.32	0.22	2.08	1	0.15	1.37
	Utilitarian	-0.14	0.20	0.52	1	0.47	0.87
	Social Bonding	0.63	0.28	5.27	1	0.02*	1.89
	Centrality	-0.12	0.23	0.28	1	0.60	0.89
	Identity Expression	0.07	0.22	0.10	1	0.75	1.07

The reference category is: General Tourist.

3.Variables that Separate Experiential Tourist from Culinary Tourist

Table 5.19 displays the parameter estimates of the variable that reliably separated culinary tourist from the experiential tourist at $\alpha=0.05$. The variable that reliably separated culinary tourist from experiential tourist was variety-seeking tendency. This variable displayed a Wald statistic = 8.47, $p<0.05$, and odds ratio =0.32. This indicates that unit increase in variety-seeking decreases the odds of a culinary tourist turning into an experiential tourist by 68% (1-0.32).

Table 5.19: Parameter Estimates Displaying the Variables that Separate Culinary Tourist from Experiential Tourist Cluster

Cluster		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B) Odds Ratio
Experiential Tourist	Intercept	5.28	2.42	4.74	1	0.03	
	Variety-seeking	-1.13	0.39	8.47	1	0.00*	0.32
	Food neophobia	0.24	0.38	0.42	1	0.52	1.27
	Hedonism	0.07	0.27	0.06	1	0.81	1.07
	Utilitarian	-0.05	0.25	0.03	1	0.86	0.96
	Social Bonding	-0.13	0.32	0.17	1	0.68	0.88
	Centrality	-0.01	0.24	0.00	1	0.97	0.99
	Identity Expression	-0.34	0.24	1.96	1	0.16	0.71
The reference category is: Culinary Tourist.							

Likelihood Ratio Tests: Predicting Group Membership

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), the likelihood ratio tests compare the models with and without each predictor, and are considered superior to the Wald statistic. SPSS NOMREG runs the model with and without each predictor to produce the likelihood ratio test to assess the reliability of improvement in fit when a predictor is included in the model. The significance value shows if the model is significantly degraded by removal of each predictor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Table 5.20 shows the contribution of the individual predictors to the model by comparing models with and without each predictor. The results as indicated by Table 5.21 reveals that variety-seeking tendency, food neophobia, and social bonding reliably predict (p<0.05) group membership. Thus, group membership was predictable from these three variables.

Table 5.20: Logistic Regression Analysis of the Food Tourist Clusters as a Function of the Predictor Variables

Variables	X^2 to Remove	df	p-value	Model χ^2
Variety-seeking tendency	13.30	2	0.00*	
Food neophobia	7.45	2	0.02*	
Hedonism	2.12	2	0.35	
Utilitarian	0.52	2	0.77	
Social Bonding	6.71	2	0.04*	
Centrality	0.29	2	0.86	
Identity Expression	2.53	2	0.28	
				143.01

Classification of the Groups Based on the Predictors:

Classification analysis was conducted to assess the success of the model in its ability to predict the outcome category for cases, for which outcome is known. Table 5.21 shows the SPSS logistic regression output for categorical dependents which tally correct and incorrect estimates. The columns are the two predicted values of the dependent variable, while the rows are the two observed (actual) values of the dependent. In a perfect model, all cases will be on the diagonal and the overall percent correct will be 100%. As seen from Table 5.21, the percentage of cases correctly classified were 67.19% for general tourists, 49.41% for culinary tourists, 45.31% for experiential tourists, and the overall correct classification rate was 54.55%.

Table 5.21: Classification of Cases for Each of the Groups

Cluster	Culinary Tourist	Experiential Tourist	General Tourist	Percent correct
Culinary Tourist	42	37	6	49.41%
Experiential Tourist	29	58	41	45.31%
General Tourist	3	39	86	67.19%
Overall Percentage	21.7%	39.3%	39.0%	54.55%

Inference About the Three Clusters and their Significant Predictors:

Based on the findings from the logistic regression analysis, inferences with respect to the significance of the predictors for each of the clusters can be made. The culinary tourist is high on variety-seeking tendency (mean= 3.81), not food neophobic (mean =2.13), and considers food as a means of social bonding (mean =3.58). The experiential tourist is also low on food neophobia (mean =2.51), values food and activities related to food as a means of social bonding (mean= 3.27), but differs from the culinary tourist by not being a high variety seeker (mean=3.34). Further, the general Tourist is highly food neophobic (mean =3.01), shows low involvement with food related activities and does not consider food as a means of social bonding (mean =2.69).

Based on these findings, the null hypotheses with respect to food neophobia, variety-seeking tendency, and enduring involvement as not significant predictors of group membership (H4:1a, H4:2a, H4:4a) were rejected. Additionally, the inability of hedonic attitude to predict membership in any of the food tourist clusters resulted in the failure to reject the null hypothesis H4: 3a.

5.6 Sociodemographic Status and the Food Tourist Clusters

Cross tabulation with a chi-square test was run to examine if there were any significant association between the sociodemographic variables and the three food tourist clusters. The six sociodemographic variables were: gender, age, education, marital status, employment status, and annual household income.

One of the requirements for the results of the chi-square tests of association to be interpretable is that the each of the categories has a minimum of five frequencies (SPSS 13.0 User's Manual). In order to ensure relatively large sample sizes for each category of the independent variables, the number of categories in age, employment status, marital status, education and income were reduced. Age was transformed into five categories: 18-34 (17.0%), 35-44 (13.5%), 45-54 (26.4%), 55-64 (28.2%), 65 and above (12.6%). Marital status was reduced to two categories: married (77.4 %), and unmarried (20.5%). Education was condensed to three categories: high school (24.0 %), college (42.2%), and postgraduate (31.7%). Employment status was reduced to three categories: Employed full-time (52.2%), unemployed and part-time (25.2%), and retired (20.8%). Finally, annual household income was compressed into three categories: 39,999 and under (34.9%), 40,000 to 99,999 (32.8%), and above 100,000 (21.7%).

The results displayed from Tables 5.22 to 5.27 indicate that education (χ^2_4 =24.6, p<0.001), and annual household income (χ^2_4 =28.44, p<0.001) show a significant association with the clusters. The three food tourist clusters did not show any significant association with respect to gender, age, employment status and marital status.

Based on the chi-square results, the null hypotheses stating that there is no significant association between education (H6:4a), annual household income (H 6:6a) of

the tourists and the three food tourist clusters are rejected (p<0.001) and the research

hypotheses accepted. With respect to education, the cell that contributed to the

significance was the category of sample with college degree accounting for 43.1% (n=

144) of the respondents. With respect to annual income, the cell that contributed most to

the significant results was the income category of $ Below 39,999 accounting for 30%

(n=119) of respondents. However, the null hypotheses (H 6:1a, H6:2a, H6:3a, and H6:5a)

stating that there is no significant association between age, gender, marital status,

employment status and the food tourist clusters all failed to be rejected (p>0.05).

Table 5.22: Results of Chi-square Test of Association between Gender and the Three
Food Tourist Clusters.

Variable		Experiential Tourist	Culinary Tourist	General Tourist	Total
Gender	Male	49.0	30.0	46.0	125.0
		39.2%	24.0%	36.8%	100.0%
	Female	75.0	55.0	81.0	211.0
		35.5%	26.1%	38.4%	100.0%

χ^2 (2) =0.46, p=0.79

Table 5.23: Results of Chi-square Test of Association between Age and the Three Food Tourist Clusters

Variable		Experiential Tourist	Culinary Tourist	General Tourist	Total
Age	18-34	14	19	25	58
		24.1%	32.7%	43.1%	100%
	35-44	16.	11	19	46
		34.7%	23.9%	41.3%	100%
	45-54	34	22	34	90
		37.7%	24.44%	37.7%	100%
	55-64	39	27	30	96
		40.6%	28.1%	31.2%	100%
	65 and above	19	5	19	43
		44.6%	11.6%	44.1%	100%

$\chi^2 (8) = 10.56$, p=0.227

Table 5.24: Results of Chi-square Test of Association between Education and the Three Food Tourist Clusters

Variable		Experiential Tourist	Culinary Tourist	General Tourist	Total
Education	High School	30.0	7.0	45.0	82.0
		36.6%	8.5%	54.9%	100.0%
	College	50.0	40.0	54.0	144.0
		34.7%	27.8%	37.5%	100.0%
	Post Graduate	44.0	37.0	27.0	108.0
		40.7%	34.3%	25.0%	100.0%

$\chi^2 (4) = 24.6$, p<0.001

Table 5.25: Results of Chi-square Test of Association between Employment Status and the Three Food Tourist Clusters

Variable		Experiential Tourist	Culinary Tourist	General Tourist	Total
Employment Status	Employed Full-Time	71.0	41.0	66.0	178.0
		39.9%	23.0%	37.1%	100.0%
	Employed Part-Time and Unemployed	23.0	27.0	36.0	86.0
		26.7%	31.4%	41.9%	100.0%
	Retired	30.0	17.0	24.0	71.0
		42.3%	23.9%	33.8%	100.0%

$\chi^2 (4) =5.74$, p=0.219

Table 5.26: Results of Chi-square Test of Association between Marital Status and the Three Food Tourist Clusters

Variable		Experiential Tourist	Culinary Tourist	General Tourist	Total
Marital Status	Married	104.0	61.0	99.0	264.0
		39.4%	23.1%	37.5%	100.0%
	Single	19.0	24.0	27.0	70.0
		27.1%	34.3%	38.6%	100.0%

$\chi^2 (2) =4.98$, p=0.083

Table 5.27: Results of Chi-square Test of Association between Annual Household
Income and the Three Food Tourist Clusters

Variable		Experiential Tourist	Culinary Tourist	General Tourist	Total
Household Income	Under 39,000	38.0	22.0	59.0	119.0
		31.9%	18.5%	49.6%	100.0%
	40,000-99,999	43.0	26.0	43.0	112.0
		38.4%	23.2%	38.4%	100.0%
	100,000 and Above	33.0	31.0	10.0	74.0
		44.6%	41.9%	13.5%	100.0%

$\chi^2 (4) = 28.44$, p<0.001

5.7 Chapter Summary

The current chapter investigated the objectives related to the purposes of the dissertation

as the first hypothesis of the dissertation was tested. The inquiry revealed that food

tourism is a multi-dimensional concept. The rest of the dissertation hypotheses were

tested and the results were described. A tabulated summary of the dissertation's major

findings are displayed in Table 5.28.

Table 5.28: Summary of the Dissertation's Findings

Objective	Findings
Determine the underlying dimensions of food tourism.	Food tourism is composed of five significant components. They are: Dine Local, Purchase Local, Dine Elite, Drink Local, and Familiarity.
Identify what variables explain participation in food tourism.	The variables that explained participation in food tourism were variety-seeking, food neophobia, and social bonding dimension of enduring involvement.
Examine the effect of Sociodemographic variables with respect to participation in food tourism.	Age, gender, education and annual household income effected participation in food tourism, while marital status, and employment status were found to have no effect on participation in food tourism
Develop a taxonomy of tourists based on their participation in food tourism.	Tourists were classified into three significant clusters: Culinary Tourist, Experiential Tourist, and The General Tourist. The culinary tourist was identified as the special interest tourist who frequently participates in food tourism. The general tourist was characterized by high preference for familiarity and low preference for local foods. Experiential tourist had medium scores on all five dimensions.
Identify the variables that predict group membership in the food tourist clusters.	Food neophobia, variety-seeking, and social bonding separated culinary tourist from general tourist. Variety-seeking separated culinary tourist from experiential tourist. Food neophobia and social bonding separated experiential tourist from general tourist.
Examine the association between the sociodemographic variables and the food tourist clusters.	Education and annual household income were significantly associated to the food tourist clusters.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter is divided into three sections. In the first section, the hypotheses presented in Chapter Three are reviewed in relation to dissertation results. The second section discusses the theoretical and practical implications of the findings. Finally, based on the findings of the dissertation, recommendations are made for future research in food tourism.

6.1 Review of the Findings

The purpose of the dissertation was to gain an understanding of food tourism and empirically identify the special interest tourist for whom food is an important part of the travel experience. Due to lack of previous empirical evidence on what activities constitute food tourism, one of the objectives of this dissertation was to identify those activities. This dissertation identified the activities that comprise food tourism and its underlying dimensions. Further, the tourists were segmented based on their participation in food tourism and the characteristics of the culinary tourist were identified.

Based on the literature review, the concepts that are associated with food tourism were delineated and a conceptual model was constructed for identifying the variables that explain participation in food tourism. The significance of variety- seeking, food neophobia, hedonism, and enduring involvement in explaining food tourism were tested. The significance of these variables in predicting membership in the food tourist clusters

was assessed. Finally, the role of sociodemographic status in food tourism was investigated. The effect of these variables on participation in food tourism was examined and the association between sociodemographic variables and the food tourist clusters was also tested. Research results generally supported the proposed relationships.

Food Tourism and its Underlying Dimensions

The first research question of the study (RQ 1) was: what are the underlying dimensions of food tourism? Review of the prior literature (Hall & Mitchell, 2001; Hall & Sharples, 2004; Long, 1998; Shortridge, 2004) resulted in the proposition that food tourism is composed of different classes of activities. This proposition was restated as a testable null hypothesis (H1:1a) that food tourism is not composed of multiple dimensions. Results of the factor analysis revealed that food tourism consists of five significant dimensions. These dimensions were labeled as follows: 1) Dine Local, 2) Purchase Local, 3) Dine Elite, 4) Drink Local, and 5) Familiarity.

The emergence of eating local cuisines at local restaurants (Dine Local) as the most important part of food tourism dimension confirms the proposition put forth by Zelinsky (1985), Long (1998), Hall and Mitchell (2001), and Hall and Sharples (2003) that eating at local and ethnic restaurants is what epitomizes food tourism and is representative of the cultural and regional 'Other' (Long, 2004).

In addition, Long's (1998, 2004) premise that consumption of the socio-economic 'Other' is a part of food tourism experience finds empirical support in the current investigation with the appearance of Dine Elite as a factor of food tourism. Purchasing local food and food related products (Purchase Local) as a category of activities that comprise food tourism validates Shortridge's (2004) analysis of tourism in ethnic towns,

where buying the ethnic food products, spices, and utensils are an important part of the food tourism experience.

Though not supported by food tourism literature per se, and seen as an altogether different niche-market of wine tourism in the literature (Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002; Mitchell, Hall, & McIntosh, 2000), drinking local beverages emerged as a food tourism dimension. The emergence of the dimension Drink Local is a reflection of what the tourists stated as a part of their food tourism experience during the course of pilot studies. The results suggest that for most tourists, experiencing food and drinks make ideal cohorts, and these two are not seen as separate entities. Thus, local beverages are as much a part of food tourism experience as the local food.

Finally, eating familiar food and dining at familiar places emerged as a category of food tourism. The factor Familiarity correlated negatively with all other factors, implying that it is not a category representative of food tourism as defined by this dissertation. This dimension denotes a class of food related activities that fall at the polar end of the 'exotic' of the food consumption continuum that ranges from the exotic to the familiar as suggested by Long (2004). Thus, the emergence of five dimensions of food tourism resulted in the rejection of null hypothesis (H1:1a) that food tourism is not composed of multiple significant factors or components.

The Conceptual Framework: Variables Explaining Participation in Food Tourism

The second research question (RQ 2) was: what variables explain participation in food tourism? Review of the literature revealed the five relevant concepts. These were food neophobia, variety-seeking tendency, hedonic consumption attitude (hedonism and utilitarian), and enduring involvement (social bonding, centrality, and identity

expression). Subsequently, five propositions were developed and restated as a set of five testable hypotheses. This set of hypotheses was concerned with examining the relationship between five conceptual variables and participation in food tourism. Since food tourism emerged as multi-dimensional, the relationships were tested for each of the dimensions and the predictor variables.

Food neophobia's relevance in explaining participation in food tourism, as revealed by the literature (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Pilcher, 2004; Mc Andrews, 2004) resulted in the proposition that food neophobia is negatively related to food tourism. This proposition was restated as a testable null hypothesis (H 2:1a) that food neophobia is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism. Results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that food neophobia was found to be negatively related to the factors Dine Local, Drink Local, and positively related to the dimension Familiarity. This implies that the fear of novel foods makes the tourist less likely to dine at restaurants serving local cuisines and consume local beverages. In addition, this confirms the crucial role of food neophobia as an impediment for local food to gain the status of tourist attraction (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). In addition, food neophobia's positive relationship with consuming the tried and the tested at familiar eating outlets such as chain restaurants validates the common tourism proposition that there is a wariness of the unknown among those averse to novelty (Crompton, 1979; Lee and Crompton, 1992). Thus, food neophobia was identified as statistically significant in explaining food tourism, resulting in the rejection of the null hypothesis (H 2:1a) that food neophobia is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism.

Variety-seeking tendency was the second concept that the literature review revealed as relevant in explaining participation in food tourism (Molz, 2004; Nield, Kozak & LeGrys, 2000; Reynolds, 1993; Shortridge, 2004). This resulted in the proposition that variety-seeking tendency is positively related to food tourism, which was restated as a testable null hypothesis (H2:2a) that variety-seeking tendency is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism. Results of the multiple regression revealed that variety-seeking tendency was positively related to the factors Dine Local, Purchase Local, and Drink Local. This implies that tourists with a higher variety-seeking tendency towards food are more likely to consume local cuisines and local beverages and purchase local food products and food related paraphernalia. Variety-seeking tendency as a form of cultural experimentation was thus significant in explaining participation in food tourism, corroborating the findings of Molz (2004), Nield et al. (2000), and Reynolds (1993). Thus, the null hypothesis (H2:2a) that variety-seeking tendency is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism, was rejected.

Based on propositions set forth by Boniface (2003), Long (2004), Mitchell and Hall (2003), Quan and Wang (2003), and Telfer and Hashimoto (2003) that tourists who have hedonic attitudes towards food would be more interested in the local cuisines of a destination and would consider these a tourist attraction resulted in the proposition that hedonic consumption attitudes towards food is positively related to food tourism. This proposition was restated as the null hypothesis (H 2:3a) that hedonic consumption attitude towards food is not related to any dimensions of food tourism. The results of the multiple regression analysis, however, failed to provide any empirical support to the literature by the absence of significant relationship between hedonic consumption attitude

(both the dimensions- hedonism and utilitarian) and any of the dimensions of food tourism. This resulted in failing to reject the null hypothesis (H 2: 3a) that hedonic consumption attitude towards food is not related to any dimensions of food tourism.

The fourth relevant concept explaining participation in food tourism as revealed by the literature review was enduring involvement with food-related activities studies (Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Long, 2004; Molz, 2004; Sharples, 2003; Wilson, 2004). This resulted in the proposition that enduring involvement with food related activities is positively related to food tourism, which was restated as a testable null hypothesis (H2: 4a) that enduring involvement with food related activities is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism. Three dimensions represented enduring involvement: social bonding, centrality, and identity expression.

The results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that enduring involvement showed a significant relationship with food tourism. Social bonding showed a significant positive relationship with the dimensions Dine Local, Purchase Local, and Dine Elite. Identity expression revealed a significant positive relationship with the dimension Drink Local. These two relationships support Long (2004), Molz (2004) and Wilson's (2004) proposition that tourists who are attracted to food as a social resource, and use food as a means to express to the world who they are, are more likely to be interested in food related activities at the destination. Dining at restaurants that serve distinctive cuisines, purchasing local food products to take back home are all activities that form topic for conversations among culinary tourists and consequently a means to bond with people who share similar interest in food. Likewise, dining at high-class restaurants is a means of binding the in-group from the out-group.

Further, the dimension centrality did not show any significance in explaining food tourism. The central role of food and the activities related to food such as watching cooking shows, collecting recipes and the like, was posited as an important predictor in many studies (Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Long, 2004; Sharples, 2003), but was not corroborated empirically by the dissertation. However, since the other two dimensions of enduring involvement showed significant relationship with food tourism, enduring involvement was considered significant in explaining participation in food tourism. Thus, the null hypothesis (H 2: 4a) stating that enduring involvement with food related activities is not related to any of the dimensions of food tourism, was rejected.

Sociodemographic Variables and Participation in Food Tourism

The third research question was concerned with the influence of sociodemographic variables with respect to participation in food tourism. The sociodemographic variables were age, gender, education, marital status, employment status, and annual household income. The research question (RQ 3) was: are there any differences in participation in food tourism with respect to age, gender, marital status, occupation, education, and annual income? The review of pertinent literature resulted in the proposition that sociodemographic variables influence participation in food tourism. This proposition was restated as testable hypotheses for each of the sociodemographic variables, thus resulting in set of six null and alternate hypotheses. The results of the MANOVA revealed that age, gender, education, and income demonstrate significant differences in participation in food tourism.

With respect to the variable age, significant differences were found for the dimensions Drink Local and Familiarity, and no significant differences for Dine Elite,

Purchase Local and Dine Local. The significant differences for the dimension Drink

Local supports the findings from wine tourism studies (Williams & Dossa, 2001;

Carmichael, 2001), which have found evidence of predominantly young wine tourists.

The likelihood of older tourists participating in activities that involve eating the familiar

food at familiar places (Familiarity dimension) implies that in general younger people are

more adventurous and more exposed to foods and cuisines from around the world. These

findings are compatible to Warde and Martens' (2000) findings that younger people dine

at ethnic restaurants more often than older people do and comparable to Pliner and

Hobden's (1992) findings that older people are more food neophobic. However, the

absence of significant differences in the dimensions Dine Local, Dine Elite, and Purchase

Local with respect to age fails to support McCracken and Brandt's (1987) findings of

strong association between age and dining out. Despite the mixed results, these findings

resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis (H 3:1a) that there is no significant

difference in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism with respect

to age.

The testing of the null hypothesis H3:2a (there are no significant differences in

tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism with respect to gender)

revealed differences on the dimension Purchase Local. The results showed that female

tourists are more likely than male tourists to purchase food products and food related

paraphernalia such as kitchen equipments. Previous studies have demonstrated empirical

evidence of gender differences in wine tourism studies (William & Dossa, 2001) where a

typical wine tourist is male, but the results of this dissertation do not show gender

differences with respect to a comparable variable: the Drink Local dimension of food

tourism. Further, there were no significant differences for the other dimensions of food tourism. Since gender revealed a significant effect on participation in one of the dimensions of food tourism, the null hypothesis H 3: 2a was rejected.

With respect to education, the findings illustrate significant differences in the means for all the dimensions, with the exception of Purchase Local. The results revealed that tourists with higher education level were more likely to participate in three dimensions of food tourism– Dine Local, Drink Local, and Dine Elite – and less likely to eat familiar food or frequent familiar dining places (Familiarity dimension). Collectively these results confirm the previous findings of the significance of education and dining out (McCracken & Brandt, 1987; Warde & Martens, 2000; Williams & Dossa, 2001; Carmichael, 2001; Charters & Knight, 2002). This resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis (H 3:3a) that there are no significant differences in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism with respect to education.

Marital status did not show any significant effect on participation in food tourism. Though the tourism literature does not show any evidence of differences with respect to marital status and food consumption, there have been rare evidences of differences in studies pertinent to dining out, which show that married people dine out more often than single people do (Smallwood et al., 1991). However, the results of this dissertation do not support these claims. This resulted in the failure to reject the null hypothesis H 3:4a (there are no significant differences in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism with respect to marital status).

Similarly, the variable employment status was found to have no significance with respect to participation in food tourism. This result does not support the hypothesized

significance of employment status that was extrapolated from wine tourism studies, which showed that tourists belonging to the professional or managerial class are more likely to be wine tourists (Carmichael, 2001; Charters & Knight, 2002; Dodd and Bigotte, 1997; William & Dossa, 2001). This resulted in the failure to reject the null hypothesis H 3:5a, which states that there are no significant differences in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism with respect to employment status.

Lastly, with respect to the annual household income, the findings demonstrate significant differences in the means of all the dimensions, with the exception of the dimension Purchase Local. The results also revealed that tourists with a higher annual income are more likely to dine at high-class restaurants (Dine Elite) and consume local drinks and beverages (Drink Local), while tourists with lower income are less likely to experience the local food (Dine Local), and inclined to eat at familiar food at familiar restaurants (Familiarity). These results are similar to the findings of McCracken and Brandt (1987), Erickson (1999) Warde, Martens and Olsen (1999), Warde and Martens (2000), Carmichael (2001), and Charters and Knight (2002). Since annual income showed a significant effect on food tourism, the null hypothesis (H 3:6a) that there are no significant differences in tourists' participation in any of the dimensions of food tourism with respect to annual income, was rejected.

Taxonomy of Tourists Based on their Participation in Food Tourism

The fourth objective of the dissertation was concerned with developing taxonomy of food tourists. The research question (RQ 4) formulated to meet that objective was: can tourists be segmented into homogenous groups based on their participation in food tourism? Review of the literature (Hall & Sharples, 2003) resulted in the proposition that

tourists can be classified into homogenous group based on their participation in food tourism. This proposition was restated into a testable null hypothesis (H4:1a) that tourists cannot be segmented into homogenous clusters based on their participation in food tourism.

As to the findings, the results of the cluster analysis revealed that tourists could be segmented into three homogenous groups. These clusters were labeled as: 1) Culinary tourist, 2) Experiential tourist, and 3) General tourist, based on their intensity of participation in each of the categories of food tourism. The culinary tourist's low frequency of participation in activities that symbolize 'familiarity' and high frequency of participation that involve consuming the local, makes him special interest tourist on the 'tourism interest continuum' (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997). In addition, the cluster labeled experiential tourist was inclined to participate in food tourism sometimes, showing a medium score on all the dimensions of food tourism. The cluster labeled general tourist rarely participated in food tourism, showing a high preference for the familiar.

The presence of a special interest group, extrapolated by the intensity of participation in food tourism was identified, and provided empirical support to not only the dissertation's hypothesis, but also to the idea set forth by Hall and Sharples (2003) about the presence of such type of special interest tourists. Thus, the presence of three significant clusters of food tourists resulted in the rejection of null hypothesis (H4:1a) that tourists cannot be segmented into homogenous clusters based on their participation in food tourism.

Predicting Membership in the Food Tourist Clusters

The fifth research question (RQ 5) was: what variables predict membership in each of the food tourist clusters (arrived as a result of the classification of tourists based on their participation in food tourism)? As stated earlier, the review of literature revealed the significance of five concepts. Subsequently, five propositions were developed and restated as a set of five testable hypotheses. This set of hypotheses was concerned with identifying the variables that predict membership in the food tourist clusters. The independent variables were food neophobia, variety-seeking tendency, hedonic consumption attitude, and enduring involvement with activities related to food. The dependent variables were three food tourist clusters: Culinary tourist, Experiential tourist, and General tourist.

Food neophobia, variety-seeking tendency and the social bonding dimension of enduring involvement were significant predictors for the three clusters. Food neophobia was identified as a significant variable that reliably separates the Culinary Tourist from the General Tourist, and also the Experiential Tourist from the. General Tourist. The results demonstrate that higher the food neophobia, more likely that the tourist would belong to the general tourist cluster. This is not surprising as the general tourist is characterized by high preference for the familiar, and a low preference for the local food. These results corroborate Cohen and Avieli (2004), and Hall and Mitchell's (2004) proposition that culinary tourists are characterized by absence of food neophobia. The significance of food neophobia in predicting cluster membership resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis (H 5:1a), which states that food neophobia does not predict membership in any of the food tourist segments.

Variety-seeking tendency was identified as a significant variable in reliably separating culinary tourist from the general tourist, and the experiential tourist from the culinary tourist. The results suggest that the higher the variety-seeking tendency, more likely that the tourist belongs to the culinary tourist cluster, and provide empirical support to Molz's (2004) and Kirshenblatt-Gimblett's (2004) suggestion that culinary tourist is characterized by variety-seeking. Since variety-seeking was significant in predicting cluster membership, the null hypothesis H 5:2a which states that variety-seeking tendency does not predict membership in any of the food tourist segments, was rejected.

Hedonic consumption attitude toward food did not predict membership to any of the food tourist clusters. Even though literature suggested the relevance of hedonic attitudes towards food as a precursor to the growing importance of food in travel and its role as a tourist attraction among culinary tourists (Boniface, 2003; Long 2004; Mitchell and Hall, 2003; Quan and Wang, 2003), it did not find any empirical support in this dissertation. The absence of significance of hedonic consumption attitude may be attributed to a possibility of measurement error since it did not predict group membership in any of the tourist food clusters. This leads to the failure to reject the null hypothesis H 5:3a, which states that hedonic consumption attitude with food-related activities does not predict membership in any of the food tourist clusters.

Enduring involvement with food-related activities was identified as a significant predictor of cluster membership. Of the three dimensions of enduring involvement (centrality, social bonding, and identity expression), social bonding was the only significant factor predicting cluster membership. Social bonding reliably separated culinary tourist from the general tourist, and the experiential tourist from the general

tourist. This implies that people who take part in activities related to food as a means of social bonding are more likely to be culinary tourist than the experiential and the general tourist. Further, neither centrality nor identity expression, the other two dimensions of involvement, were significant predictors for any of the food tourist clusters. These findings refute the influence of these two dimensions in explaining food tourism as suggested by Mitchell and Hall (2003), Long (2004), Sharples (2003), and Wilson (2004). Overall, enduring involvement was a significant variable in predicting membership to food tourist clusters. This resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis (H 5: 4a), which states that enduring involvement with food-related activities does not predict membership in any of the food tourist clusters.

Sociodemographic Variables and Food Tourist Clusters

The sixth research question was concerned with the association of sociodemographic variables and the food tourist clusters. The research question (RQ 6) was: is there any association between the food tourist clusters and age, gender, marital status, occupation, education, and annual income? As stated earlier, the review of pertinent literature resulted in the proposition that sociodemographic variables influence participation in food tourism. This proposition was restated as six testable hypotheses for each of the sociodemographic variables, thus resulting in set of six null and alternate hypotheses. The chi-square tests of association revealed significant association between the three food tourist clusters and education, and between the three food tourist clusters and annual household income.

In short, the culinary tourist was more educated and had a higher income. The findings are compatible with the findings of Carmichael (2001), Charters and Knight

(2002), Erickson (1999), McCracken and Brandt (1987), Warde, Martens and Olsen (1999), Warde and Martens (2000), and Williams and Dossa (2001), confirming the importance of education and income as the two significant variables with respect to characterizing special interest tourists. These results led to the rejection of the null hypothesis H6: 3a (There is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and education level of the tourists), and the null hypothesis H6: 6a (There is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and annual household income of the tourists).

The rest of the sociodemographic variables, namely, age, gender, marital status, and employment status did not show any significant association with the three clusters. The lack of association between age and the clusters does not support the findings from wine tourism studies (Williams & Dossa, 2001; Carmichael, 2001), which demonstrated that wine tourists being characterized by relatively younger people. This lead to the failure to reject the null hypothesis H6:1a, which states there is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and the age of the tourists. Similarly, employment status as a sociodemographic variable did not show any significant association with the three food tourist clusters. This result is inconsistent with the findings from wine tourism studies (Carmichael, 2001; Charters & Knight, 2002; Dodd and Bigotte, 1997; William & Dossa, 2001), which showed that wine tourists are more likely to belong to the professional and managerial class. Thus, the lack of association between the clusters and employment status lead to the failure to reject hypothesis H6:5a (there is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and the employment status of the tourists).

Finally, gender and marital status did not show any significant association with the food tourist clusters. Gender's significance was hypothesized based on William & Dossa's (2001) wine tourism study, which demonstrated that a wine tourist is more likely to be male. However, the lack of association between the clusters and gender lead to the failure to reject hypothesis H6:2a (there is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and the gender of the tourists). Similarly, the significance of marital status was hypothesized based on Smallwood et al.'s (1991) study on dining out, which demonstrated that married people dine out more often than single people do. The extrapolation of this finding to food tourism and the food tourist clusters however did not hold true for this dissertation. Food tourism literature per se, however, does not show any evidence of marital status as a variable important enough to be tested, and the findings of this dissertation attest those assumptions. This lead to the failure to reject the null hypothesis H6:4a (there is no significant association between the food tourist clusters and the marital status of the tourists).

6.2 Theoretical Implications

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore food tourism and accumulate empirical evidence to explain this form of tourism. To this purpose, the dissertation first identified the dimensions or classes of activities that make food tourism. This dissertation offers operationalization of food tourism based on literature and the pilot studies. The resulting dimensions of food tourism, which make up the classes of activities that comprise food tourism, present a concrete empirical context within which past conceptualization of food tourism may be interpreted. For instance, when Long (1998)

states that culinary tourism is "an intentional, exploratory participation in the food ways of an Other… "(p.181), it could be interpreted as an intentional exploratory participation in activities like dining and purchasing local food, consuming local beverages, and dining at high quality restaurants.

Empirically Grounded Definition of Food Tourism for Future Research

The multi-dimensional structure of food tourism found in the dissertation also offers guidance for an empirically grounded opertionalizable definition of food tourism: participation in activities related to food at the destination, which involves dining and purchasing local food, dining at high quality restaurants, consuming local beverages, appended by a contrasting low preference for food served at franchisee and chain establishments.

Thus, the essence of food tourism lies in experiencing the destination's distinct culinary culture, food products, and its dining establishments, with specific focus on the local aspect. At the same time, the presence of Familiarity as a dimension of food tourism lends credence to the dialectics between the local and the global, as per the globalization theory (Robertson, 1992, 1995, 1997).

A Revised Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework that explained food tourism revealed the importance of food neophobia, variety-seeking, social bonding, and identity expression. Food neophobia's crucial role in being a major impediment in experiencing the local food, as stated by Cohen and Avieli (2004), is verified empirically in this dissertation. The fear of strange and foreign food explains a tourist's low participation in classes of activities such as dining at restaurants serving local food (Dine Local), and experiencing the local

beverages (Drink Local). At the same time, food neophobia also explains the preference for eating at fast-food restaurants, and chain restaurants (Familiarity), where one is assured of the predictable, making these establishments function as "culinary environmental bubble" (Cohen & Avieli, 2004, p.775). Furthermore, food neophobia's inability to explain participation in activities such as dining at high quality restaurants (Dine Elite), and purchasing local food products (Purchase Local) reveal that such classes of activities are not concerned with experiencing the strange and the unknown.

Another concept of importance in food tourism, as revealed by the results, is variety- seeking tendency towards food. This dissertation empirically demonstrated its significance, specifically for the classes of activities such as dining at restaurant serving local food (Dine Local), purchasing local food and food-related products (Purchase Local), and consuming local beverages (Drink Local). The consumption of local, be it dining or drinking, is driven by the tendency to experience a diverse range of culinary cultures, which may not necessarily be novel or strange to the tourists. Ratner, Kahn, and Kahneman (1999) propose that consumers seek variety among hedonic products and variety-seeking tendency is driven by the need for optimal stimulation. Extending their proposition to this dissertation, the significance of variety-seeking tendency in explaining purchasing local food related products and other culinary paraphernalia at the destination can be attributed to the optimal stimulation level achieved by tourists as a result of purchasing new products (Hirschman, 1980; McAlister & Pessemier, 1982). Finally, variety-seeking tendency's significance can be attributed to reasons such as the non-availability of the food the tourist is used to in his daily life, access to more restaurants, and being exposed to advertisements for new cuisines and restaurants of the destination.

Alternatively, it may be sought out as a goal in itself (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; VanTrijp & Steenkamp, 1992).

The apparent lack of significance of hedonic attitudes towards food in explaining food tourism was not expected as per the literature review. Similar to the literature in consumer behavior which has considered food as a hedonic product (LeBel, 2000; Park, 2004), food researchers have ascribed food with an ability to provide tourist with hedonic experiences (Boniface, 2000, 2003; Mitchell and Hall, 2003; Quan and Wang, 2004). The results failed to verify that either the hedonic attitude towards food, or its opposite, the utilitarian attitude towards food has any significant relationship with food tourism. This lack of significance could be attributed to a possibility of measurement error.

The concept of enduring involvement showed its significance through the dimension social bonding and identity expression. The sharing of an interest with like-minded people in a social world, that extends from home to destination creates an intimacy (Trauer & Ryan, 2005) while participating in activities such as dining at restaurants to experience their local food (Dine Local), purchasing local food products to take back home (Purchase Local), and dining at high-class restaurants (Dine Elite). It also helps them to express and affirm their identity as people belonging to certain class of eaters, be it an economic class or a culturally knowledgeable class.

The dimension centrality did not display any significance. The special interest tourism literature is replete with instances of how the leisure activities that are pursued at home are also followed while vacationing in the form of niche tourism activities (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997). Extending that to food tourism, the food and tourism literature emphasized on the central role of food related activities in the tourist's life (in

the form of food related hobbies such as collecting recipes, watching cooking shows etc.) as a precursor to food tourism (Long, 2004; Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Sharples, 2003). However, the dissertation failed to verify the relevance of centrality. Possible reasons for this could be that food is seen as a cultural resource and activities such as dining local cuisines and local drinks, purchasing food products, dining at high quality restaurant are perceived as status symbol to be appreciated while holidaying and in the company of other people. But, not crucial enough to incorporate those in one's daily life when one is not watched by others.

Given these findings, it can be stated that the fundamental structure of food tourism revolves around the local, and thrives on the ability to provide the tourist with something new and different, and also in its ability reinforce one's membership in a social world that is inhabited by those knowledgeable about food and culture. Figure 6.1 provides the revised diagram of the conceptual model that explains food tourism, based on the findings.
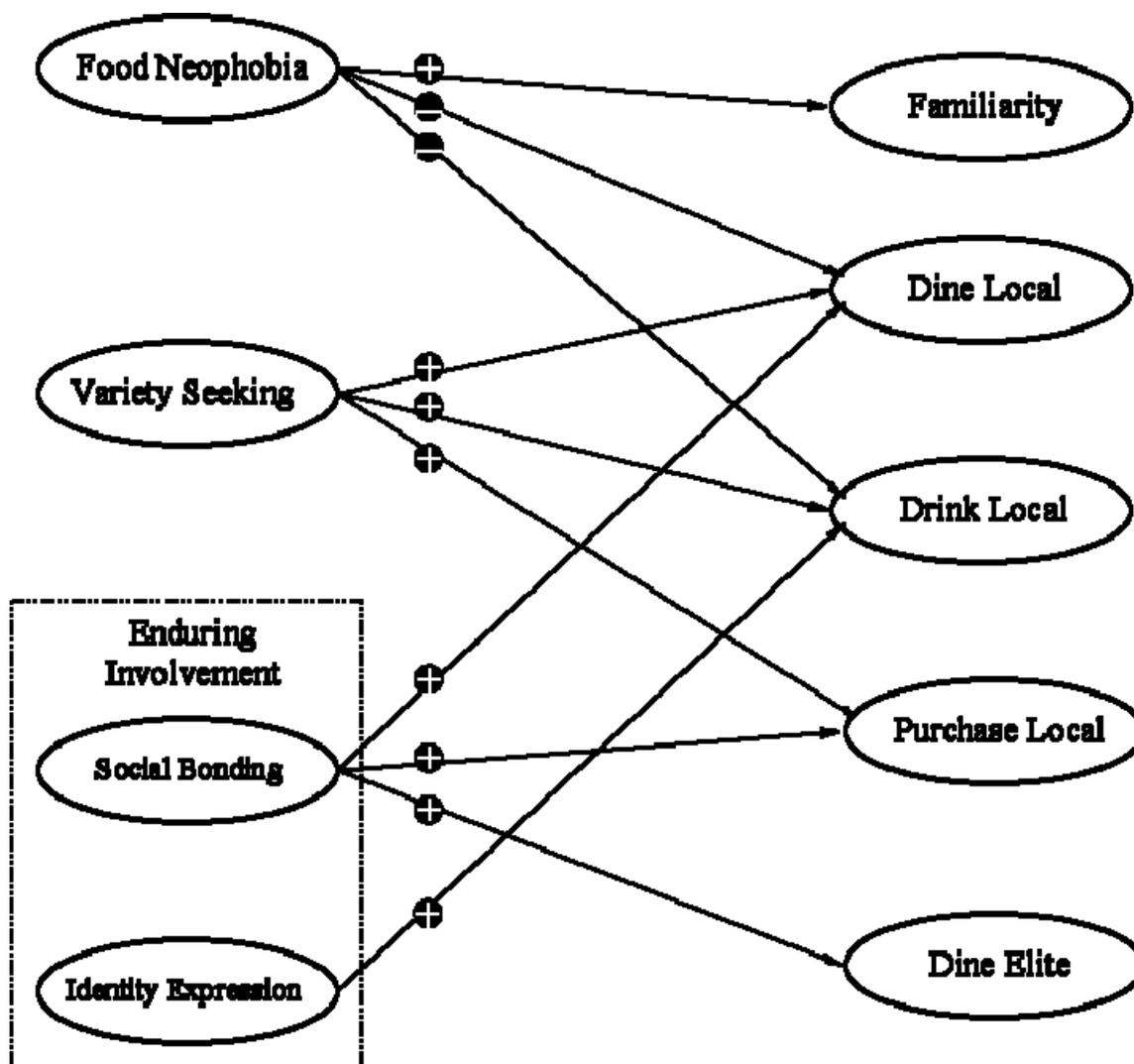
Figure 6.1: The revised conceptual model that explains food tourism.

The Characteristic of the Culinary Tourist

The taxonomy of food tourists and the resulting clusters (Culinary tourist, Experiential tourist, and General tourist) demonstrated that when tourists are segmented based on their participation in activities indicative of food tourism, they fall neatly along the 'tourist interest continuum' (Brotherton & Himmetoglu, 1997; Trauer, 2005). The three groups of food tourists are defined by their intensity of participation in activities that comprise food tourism and are conceptually comparable to Plog's (1987)

psychographic profiling of tourists. While the culinary tourist with his high interest in the local food has characteristics of the Allocentric tourist, the general tourist with his low preference for the local and high preference for the familiar has the characteristics of the Psychocentric tourist.

Further, this result empirically illustrates the presence of a special-interest tourist segment, namely the culinary tourist, thus offering support to the conceptual claims put forward by Hall & Sharples (2003) about the existence of a tourist segment with a high interest in food. Based on the findings of this dissertation, the following empirically grounded definition of culinary tourist is offered: the tourist who, at the destination frequently dines and purchases local food, consumes local beverages, dines at high-class restaurants, and rarely eats at franchisee restaurants. The culinary tourist segment was identified to be more educated and affluent than the other two segments indicating that even though this segment is educated /and rich, local dining is preferred over elite dining while traveling. The membership in this segment was predicted by variety-seeking tendency, social bonding, and the absence of food neophobia.

Together, these findings lend credence to the dissertation's employment of cultural capital theory in explaining the culinary tourist. Culinary tourists seem to possess the indicators of cultural capital, namely an advanced education, omnivorousness typified by their variety-seeking tendency, the desire to resist the dominant culture of franchisee restaurants as seen by their low preference for familiarity, and a high preference for the local as underscored by the lack of food neophobia (Adema, 2000; Erickson, 1996; Pietrykowski, 2004; Warde, 2004; Warde, Martens & Olsen, 1999). Furthermore, an enduring involvement with food related activities characterizes the culinary tourists, and

their participation in food tourism is a showcase of their cultural competence and a means of facilitating social cohesion.

6.3 Practical Implications

The results of this dissertation offer numerous practical suggestions to destinations and the tourism suppliers looking to develop positioning and marketing strategies for local foods and cuisines. As stated in Chapter One, in an increasingly competitive world of tourism marketing, where destinations look for unique selling propositions in positioning themselves, there is nothing more unique than the foods and cuisines based on the products of the place.

The dissertation's results contribute to this end by delineating classes of activities that comprise food tourism, underscoring the role of diverse culinary establishments that contribute to the food tourism experience. Local restaurants, high class restaurants, local pubs, farmer's markets, shops selling culinary paraphernalia such as utensils, cookbooks, and even the roadside vendor all form an integral part of the food tourism experience. This finding highlights the importance of destination marketing organizations and tourist suppliers working in tandem to prevent any gap between the food tourism images that are created for the destination, and the tangible food tourism experiences provided by the small and medium enterprises which form a substantial part of the food tourism experience providers (Wanhill & Rassing, 2000). The popularity of food trails as a tourist experience and the feasibility of operating such a well-coordinated set of activities are substantially dependent on these small local suppliers and producers. Successful examples of these are the Niagara region, Wales in UK, and the Oregon Tourism Board

which recently introduced a tourist brochure with culinary itineraries showcasing its regional culinary heritage.

In addition to examining the product (food tourism), this dissertation also examined the consumer or market segment (food tourist clusters). This dual-focus enables identification of practicable recommendations for destinations looking to specifically target the culinary tourist segment and promote its indigenous food products. The results that emerged from the analysis demonstrate that culinary tourism destinations should either articulate the availability of indigenous local dishes, or lay emphasis on the availability of variety of culinary cultures and food tourism experiences. Food's value as a socializing agent by providing a tourist with opportunities for getting together with fellow tourists may also be employed as one of the potential attractions to attract this niche market.

The implications of this dissertation to the local food producers should not go unmentioned. The demand for the indigenous food products and cuisine systems is encouraging to peripheral communities. The benefits to the food producers in terms of the backward economic linkages provided by the growth of niche market of culinary tourist are very important to sustain such communities. Especially since many of these are fighting a losing battle against the onslaught of powerful multinational food corporations.

As previously mentioned in Chapter One, this study was commissioned by Southern Seafood Alliance to examine ways and means to keep the South Atlantic wild-caught shrimp industry alive from the imported cheaper shrimp. The study, by demonstrating the existence of a culinary tourist segment and identifying the key characteristics of the same, makes an effort to offering a solution. For instance, the

variety of experiences that the culinary tourist segment demands makes it imperative that the Southern Seafood Alliance develop collaborative ties with other providers of food related services. Furthermore, the finding that the culinary tourist is economically well-off bodes well for the more expensive indigenous shrimp which is currently under onslaught from the cheaper imported shrimp.

<div align="center">6.4 Limitations</div>

This dissertation was a preliminary attempt to gain empirically based in-depth understanding of food tourism, the classes of activities that make up food tourism as revealed by its underlying dimensions, the variables that explain food tourism, and the characteristics of the food tourist segments. The investigation has been exploratory in nature and has the limitations concomitant to any exploratory study. This is true specifically with respect to testing the relationships between the independent variables and the dimensions of food tourism. As there was no *apriori* empirical information about the classes of activities that make food tourism, there was no way to hypothesize about the nature of relationships with such specificities. However, this dissertation developed a parsimonious conceptual framework to capture some of the key drivers of food tourism.

As stated in Chapter One, the dissertation specifically dealt with the typical South Carolina coastal tourist, and the culinary experiences he seeks. This was particularly evident in the operationalization of food tourism. The activities that were indicators of food tourism during the course of the pilot studies, such as attending a cooking school, had to be discarded for the current investigation because of extremely low responses, which resulted in skewness of such items. Thus, further research is necessary in order to

determine what dimensions of food tourism activities such items capture by testing the survey on visitors to destinations with a reputation for culinary tourism.

As with any empirical generalization, the translation from theory to practice must be done cautiously factoring in the limitations that this dissertation assumed. The conceptual framework could be applied as a decision-support tool, but keeping in mind the directional impact of the interaction of the relevant measurement variables, which could be unique to every destination. Charleston cannot compete with New York as each brings in it its own culinary resources. While the former's strength lies in seafood and Southern culinary heritage, the latter's strength lies in the sheer variety of culinary cultures it provides.

Finally, the dissertation is limited by its cultural relativity. Activities such as eating at franchisee restaurants and eating at chain restaurants, which are representative of food tourism, have been categorized as classes of activities that denote familiarity. However, these activities might not be considered as activities that denote familiarity for a non-American population. Profile of food tourists in one region cannot be not automatically assumed to be the same as another.

6.5 Recommendations for Future Research

To use a metaphor, the results of the current investigation are just the tip of the iceberg. The field is charged with possibilities. Not only food tourism, but also the niche market of culinary tourism offer possibilities galore for investigation.

With respect to conceptual development, future research may look into the role of various tourism and leisure concepts and their influence in explaining food tourism and

the culinary tourist. The role of tourist motivational factors such as the 'push' and 'pull' factors in food tourism is one such area. Knowing the relative importance of one's intrinsic motivation to that of the destination's attribute would contribute to further understanding of culinary tourists. Another area of research may be the role of leisure specialization in explaining the special interest market of culinary tourism. This concept has been used to explain intensity of participation in leisure activities and application of this concept could explain the different intensity of participation in food tourism.

Further, the role of authenticity in food tourism is another area that offers possibilities for extensive research. Also, with the variable hedonic attitude towards food not being significant enough to explain food tourism, it would be interesting to find out if a parallel variable such as sensation seeking may be an ideal replacement to explain participation in food tourism.

With respect to testing a theory, the ideal theory would be the cultural capital theory, as seen from the dissertation results. The results of this dissertation show that the operationalization of cultural capital in terms of variety-seeking and the social bonding and identity expression dimensions of involvement does seem a feasible and conceptually sound empirical exercise (Warde, Martens & Olsen, 1999; Peterson, 1996). Similar to this dissertation, future research in food tourism may operationalize cultural capital with respect to food consumption, with variety-seeking, food neophobia, and enduring involvement as indicator variables.

In conclusion, the current investigation was an attempt to build theoretical and conceptual foundations for studying food tourism and empirically establish the characteristics of the culinary tourist. This dissertation has contributed to that end.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

2001 PROFILE OF OVERSEAS TRAVELERS TO THE U.S. - INBOUND REPORTED FROM: SURVEY OF INTERNATIONAL AIR TRAVELERS

Leisure/Recreational Activities*:	ALL OVERSEAS VISITORS	ALL LEISURE VISITORS	ALL BUSINESS VISITORS
Shopping	86%	90%	79%
Dining in Restaurants	82%	84%	84%
Sightseeing in Cities	42%	50%	30%
Visit Historical Places	33%	37%	24%
Amusement/Theme Parks	32%	40%	16%
Visit Small Towns/Villages	28%	33%	17%
Water Sports/Sunbathing	24%	33%	11%
Touring the Countryside	22%	26%	14%
Art Gallery, Museum	19%	21%	15%
Visit National Parks	19%	24%	11%
Cultural/Heritage Sights	18%	22%	12%
Guided Tours	15%	19%	10%
Nightclub/ Dancing	13%	14%	13%
Concert, Play, Musical	12%	14%	10%
Casinos/Gambling	10%	12%	8%
Golf/Tennis	8%	8%	7%
Attend Sports Events	7%	7%	6%
Cruises	6%	8%	4%
Ethnic Heritage Sights	5%	6%	3%
Camping, Hiking	4%	5%	3%
Visit American Indian Communities	4%	5%	2%
Environmental/Ecological Excursions	3%	4%	2%
Hunting/Fishing	2%	2%	1%
Snow Skiing	2%	2%	2%

*Multiple Response. Overseas includes all countries except Canada and Mexico

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, ITA, Office of Travel and Tourism Industries, July 2003

Appendix B

2002 PROFILE OF U.S. RESIDENT TRAVELER VISITING OVERSEAS
DESTINATIONS REPORTED FROM: SURVEY OF
INTERNATIONAL AIR TRAVELERS

Leisure/Recreational Activities*:	ALL U.S. VISITORS	ALL LEISURE VISITORS	ALL BUSINESS VISITORS
Dining in Restaurants	86%	85%	90%
Shopping	76%	80%	67%
Visit Historical Places	50%	56%	38%
Sightseeing in Cities	43%	48%	33%
Visit Small Towns/Villages	42%	48%	25%
Touring the Countryside	35%	41%	21%
Cultural Heritage Sights	31%	35%	21%
Art Gallery, Museum	28%	32%	22%
Nightclub/ Dancing	24%	26%	18%
Water Sports/Sunbathing	22%	25%	10%
Guided Tours	15%	17%	8%
Concert, Play, Musical	15%	16%	11%
Ethnic Heritage Sites	12%	13%	7%
Amusement/Theme Parks	9%	11%	5%
Visit National Parks	9%	10%	5%
Casinos/Gambling	7%	8%	3%
Golf/Tennis	6%	7%	6%
Camping, Hiking	5%	6%	3%
Environmental/Ecological Sights	5%	5%	3%
Cruises, 1 or More Nights	5%	6%	2%
Attend Sporting Events	4%	4%	4%
Hunting/Fishing	3%	3%	1%
Snow Skiing	2%	2%	1%

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, ITA, Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, "In-Flight Survey," July 2003.

Appendix C

List of sites selected for intercepting visitors to collected addresses

	Region 1	Region 2	Region 3
A	North Myrtle (Ocean Boulevard. & 17th, Ocean Boulevard &23)	Folly Beach	Coligny Beach
B	Myrtle Beach State Park (Camping area, Day visiting area)	Fort Moultrie	Hunting Island State Park
C	Surfside Beach	Fort Sumter Charleston Aquarium	Jarvis Creek Park, Hilton Head
D	Myrtlewood Golf Club	King Street	Downtown Beaufort
E	Pavilion		
	Georgetown Downtown	City Market	Hunting Island Lighthouse
G	Brookgreen Garden	Boone Hall Plantation	Hilton Head Visitor Center
H	Murrell's Inlet	Isle of Palms	Penn Center

Appendix D

Sampling Stratification based on visitor statistics to SC coast (Source: SCPRT, 2003)

Accommodation Tax Collection

	Horry	Georgetown	Charleston	Beaufort
July	$2,543,794.32	$299,590.57	$846,586.59	$779,428.09
August	$2,177,555.67	$205,627.41	$760,177.96	$677,168.94
September	$892,791.65	$64,463.92	$482,578.27	$274,105.74
October	$716,552.00	$71,976.71	$559,193.94	$224,481.20
Total	$6,330,693.64	$641,658.61	$2,648,536.76	$1,955,183.97
Proportion %	54.68774818	5.542973089	$22.88	16.88987253

Admission Tax Collection

	Horry	Georgetown	Charleston	Beaufort
July	1,375,099.98	67,358.78	307,757.88	368,876.37
August	1,233,328.77	66,089.95	296,484.72	247,680.21
September	533,186.82	63,447.39	233,470.12	267,529.33
October	634,761.25	94,769.83	294,269.07	263,653.62
Total	3,776,376.82	291,665.95	1,131,981.79	1,147,739.53
Proportion %	59.49144874	4.594782444	17.83276401	18.0810048

Total Tax Collection

	Horry	Georgetown	Charleston	Beaufort
July	$3,918,894.30	$366,949.35	$1,154,344.47	$1,148,304.46
August	$3,410,884.44	$271,717.36	$1,056,662.68	$924,849.15
September	$1,425,978.47	$127,911.31	$716,048.39	$541,635.07
October	$1,351,313.25	$166,746.54	$853,463.01	$488,134.82
Total	$10,107,070.46	$933,324.56	$3,780,518.55	$3,102,923.50
Proportion %	$56.39	$5.21	$21.09	$17.31

Annual Visitor Spending by County

	Millions	Proportion%
Horry	2,086.92	49.40%
Georgetown	194.9	4.60%
Charleston	1,132.41	26.80%
Beaufort	715.38	16.91%
Total	4,129.61	

<u>Appendix E</u>

The Main Survey

South Carolina Coastal Tourism Survey
2004

Conducted by

RECREATION, TRAVEL & TOURISM INSTITUTE
Department of Parks, Recreation & Tourism Management
Clemson University

SECTION A: YOUR GENERAL PREFERENCES REGARDING FOOD WHEN YOU TRAVEL

How often do you take part in the following <u>activities while you are traveling for pleasure</u>? Please indicate your agreement with EACH of the following statements on a scale of 1 = "Never" to 5 = "Always".
(Please circle one)

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
Purchase local food at roadside stands	1	2	3	4	5
Eat at restaurants where only locals eat	1	2	3	4	5
Attend a cooking school	1	2	3	4	5
At the destination I prepare food unique to the area I am visiting	1	2	3	4	5
Visit wineries	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at places where food is prepared with respect to local tradition	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at restaurants serving distinctive cuisines	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties	1	2	3	4	5
Sample local foods	1	2	3	4	5
Eat at food festivals	1	2	3	4	5
Purchase local food products to take back home	1	2	3	4	5
Buy cookbooks with local recipes to take back home	1	2	3	4	5
Buy local kitchen equipments to take back home	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at high quality restaurants	1	2	3	4	5
Go to a restaurant just to taste the dishes of a particular chef	1	2	3	4	5
Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant	1	2	3	4	5
Consume local beverages and drinks	1	2	3	4	5
Observe a cooking demonstration	1	2	3	4	5
Visit a local farmer's market	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at theme restaurants	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at chain restaurants (e.g. Chili's, Ruby Tuesday)	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at fast food outlets (e.g. McDonald's, Taco Bell)	1	2	3	4	5
Go to local brew pubs	1	2	3	4	5
Visit a brewery	1	2	3	4	5
Buy familiar pre-cooked food from supermarkets	1	2	3	4	5
Prepare food at the place I am staying	1	2	3	4	5
Eat at places serving food I am familiar with	1	2	3	4	5
Eat at places that serve food which conforms to my belief systems (e.g. Vegetarian, Kosher)	1	2	3	4	5
Visit a food processing facility	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B: YOUR GENERAL INTEREST IN FOOD

The following statements measure your general interest in food. Please indicate your agreement with EACH of the following statements, on a scale of 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 5 = "Strongly agree". *(Please circle one)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
When I eat out, I like to try the most unusual items, even if I am not sure I would like them	1	2	3	4	5
While preparing foods or snacks, I like to try new recipes	1	2	3	4	5
I think it is fun to try out food items I am not familiar with	1	2	3	4	5
I am eager to know what kind of foods do people from other countries eat	1	2	3	4	5
I like to eat exotic foods	1	2	3	4	5
Items on the menu that I am unfamiliar with, make me curious	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to eat food products that I am used to	1	2	3	4	5
I am curious about food products that I am not familiar with	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: YOUR ATTITUDE TOWARDS FOOD

The following statements measure your attitude towards food. Please indicate your agreement with EACH of the following statements, on a scale of 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 5 = "Strongly agree". *(Please circle one)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am constantly sampling new and different foods	1	2	3	4	5
I don't trust new foods	1	2	3	4	5
If I don't know what is in a food, I won't try it	1	2	3	4	5
I look for food from different countries	1	2	3	4	5
Ethnic food looks too weird to eat	1	2	3	4	5
At dinner parties, I will try a new food	1	2	3	4	5
I am afraid to eat things that I have never had before	1	2	3	4	5
I am very particular about the foods I will eat	1	2	3	4	5
I will eat almost anything	1	2	3	4	5
I like to try new ethnic restaurants	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: YOUR INTEREST IN FOOD RELATED ACTIVITIES

The following statements reflect your general interest in <u>activities related to food</u> (e.g., EATING**,** COOKING**,** GOING TO RESTAURANTS, EXPERIMENTING WITH NEW RECIPES, WATCHING T.V. FOOD SHOWS, READING FOOD REALTED MAGAZINES). Please indicate your agreement with EACH of the following statements, on a scale of 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 5 = "Strongly agree". *(Please circle one)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have little or no interest in activities related to food	1	2	3	4	5
Participating in activities related to food is one of the most enjoyable things I do	1	2	3	4	5
Participating in activities related to food is very important to me.....	1	2	3	4	5
Participating in activities related to food is one of the most satisfying things I do……………	1	2	3	4	5
I find a lot of my life is organized around activities related to food	1	2	3	4	5
Participating in activities related to food occupies a central role in my life...	1	2	3	4	5
To change my preference from activities related to food to another leisure activity would require major rethinking	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy discussing activities related to food, with my friends	1	2	3	4	5
Most of my friends have an interest in activities related to food.......	1	2	3	4	5
Participating in activities related to food provide me with an opportunity to be with friends	1	2	3	4	5
When I am participating in activities related to food, I can really be myself..	1	2	3	4	5
I identify with the people and images associated with activities related to food……………………	1	2	3	4	5
When I'm participating in activities related to food, I don't have to be concerned with the way I look............................	1	2	3	4	5
You can tell a lot about a person by seeing him/her participating in activities related to food..	1	2	3	4	5
Participating in activities related to food says a lot about who I am..	1	2	3	4	5
When I am participating in activities related to food, others see me the way I want them to see me	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: WHAT DOES FOOD MEAN TO YOU?

We are interested in finding out how important food is to you in general. To do this, we want you to indicate your attitude regarding food on a scale of contrasting words. For example, if you feel that the food is valuable (but not extremely); you should place your check mark as follows:

Valuable		**X**						Worthless

Important: Be sure that you check every row; please do not omit any. Please do NOT put more than one check mark on a single row.

To me, food is……….

1.	Pleasant							Unpleasant
2.	Nice							Awful
3.	Agreeable							Disagreeable
4.	Happy							Sad
5.	Useful							Useless
6.	Valuable							Worthless
7.	Beneficial							Harmful
8.	Wise							Foolish

SECTION F: YOUR BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Your gender**:**   Male   Female

2. What is your age? _____

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed so far? *(Please check   one.)*

   High School   College   Professional   Post Graduate

4. What is your employment status? *(Please check   one.)*
   Employed Full Time   Employed Part Time   Student
   Homemaker   Unemployed   Retired
   Other *(Please specify)* _____

5. What is your current marital status? *(Please check   one.)*

   Married   Widowed   Divorced or separated

   Never Married

6. What is your approximate household income? *(Please check   one.)*

    Under $10,000 $10,000 – 19,999 $20,000 – 39,999

    $40,000 – 59,999 $60,000 – 79,999 $80,000 – 99,999

    $100,000 or more

7. What is your Zip code? _____

We welcome your comments on the survey:_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your participation in this survey!

<u>Appendix F</u>

Cover letter accompanying the Survey

August 25, 2004

«First_Name» «Last_Name»
«Address»
«City» «State» «ZipCode»

Dear «First_Name»,

Enclosed in this mail is a questionnaire for an important research project being conducted by the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management, Clemson University. During your visit to the South Carolina coast, you had volunteered to take part in this study. This survey would help us to provide you, the visitor, with better products and services at the coast, thereby making your visit a memorable one.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary, but very important. If for some reason you prefer not to respond, please let us know by returning the blank questionnaire in the enclosed stamped envelope. Your answers are completely confidential and will be released only as summaries in which no individual's answers can be identified. The code on the survey is used only to delete names from the "reminder" mailing list. Once this study is completed, <u>all</u> names and addresses will be deleted from our list. (We DO NOT sell or distribute your name and address to any other party).

If you have any questions or comments about this study, we would be happy to talk with you. Our number is 864.656.2060, or you can write to us at the address on the letterhead. Also, if you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance at 864.656.6460.

Thank you in advance for your valuable feedback.

Sincerely,

Dr. William C. Norman
Associate Professor and Director

Appendix G

Reminder Post Card

Dear Sir/ Madam,

Recently, you were mailed a questionnaire related to your visit to the South Carolina coast. If you have already completed and returned the survey, we thank you and express our sincere appreciation.

If you haven't already returned this survey, please do so at your earliest convenience. We understand that you are busy and may not have gotten around to completing the questionnaire. We are looking forward to your feedback.

Thank You!

William C. Norman, Ph.D.
Clemson University

<u>Appendix H</u>

Cover letter accompanying the follow-up questionnaire

November 24, 2004

«First_Name» «Last_Name»
«Address»
«City» «State» «ZipCode»

Dear «First_Name»,

Over the past few weeks, you should have received requests to complete a questionnaire regarding your visit to the South Carolina coast. If you have already responded, thank you. However, if you have not had chance to complete the questionnaire, please do as soon as possible. Once again let me emphasize the importance of having you help us by completing this survey. This research project being conducted by the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management, Clemson University would help us to provide you, the visitor, with better products and services at the coast, thereby making your visit a memorable one.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary, but very important. If for some reason you prefer not to respond, please let me know by returning the blank questionnaire in the enclosed stamped self-addressed envelope. Your answers are completely confidential and will be released only as summaries in which no individual's answers can be identified. The code on the survey is used only to delete names from the "reminder" mailing list. Once this study is completed, <u>all</u> names and addresses will be deleted from our list. (We DO NOT sell or distribute your name and address to any other party).

If you have any questions or comments about this study, I would be happy to talk with you. My number is 864.656.2060, or you can write to us at the address on the letterhead. Also, if you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance at 864.656.6460.

Again, your cooperation in this study is important and will be greatly appreciated. I look forward to hearing from you within the next few days.

Sincerely,

Dr. William C. Norman
Associate Professor and Director

<u>Appendix I</u>

Survey sent to non-respondents for non-response bias-check

South Carolina Coastal Tourism Survey

1. How often do you take part in the following <u>activities while you are traveling for pleasure</u>? Please indicate your agreement with EACH of the following statements on a scale of 1 = "Never" to 5 = "Always". *(Please circle one)*

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
Dine at restaurants serving regional specialties	1	2	3	4	5
Purchase local foods to take back home	1	2	3	4	5
Dine at high quality restaurants	1	2	3	4	5
Consume local beverages and drinks	1	2	3	4	5
Make an advance reservation to dine at a specific restaurant...	1	2	3	4	5

1. What is the highest level of education you have completed so far? *(Please check ✔ one.)*

   ❑ High School   ❑ College   ❑ Professional   ❑ Post Graduate

2. What is your employment status? *(Please check ✔ one.)*
   ❑ Employed Full Time   ❑ Employed Part Time   ❑ Student
   ❑ Homemaker   ❑ Unemployed   ❑ Retired
   ❑ Other *(Please specify)* _____

3. What is your approximate household income? *(Please check ✔ one.)*

   ❑ Under $10,000   ❑ $10,000 – 19,999   ❑ $20,000 – 39,999

   ❑ $40,000 – 59,999   ❑ $60,000 – 79,999   ❑ $80,000 – 99,999

   ❑ $100,000 or more

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