



THE HONG KONG
POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

香港理工大學

Pao Yue-kong Library

包玉剛圖書館

Copyright Undertaking

This thesis is protected by copyright, with all rights reserved.

By reading and using the thesis, the reader understands and agrees to the following terms:

1. The reader will abide by the rules and legal ordinances governing copyright regarding the use of the thesis.
2. The reader will use the thesis for the purpose of research or private study only and not for distribution or further reproduction or any other purpose.
3. The reader agrees to indemnify and hold the University harmless from and against any loss, damage, cost, liability or expenses arising from copyright infringement or unauthorized usage.

IMPORTANT

If you have reasons to believe that any materials in this thesis are deemed not suitable to be distributed in this form, or a copyright owner having difficulty with the material being included in our database, please contact lbsys@polyu.edu.hk providing details. The Library will look into your claim and consider taking remedial action upon receipt of the written requests.

**MEMORABLE LOCAL FOOD TOURISM EXPERIENCES AND
THEIR EFFECTS ON ATTITUDINAL AND BEHAVIORAL
CONSEQUENCES**

FRANK BADU-BAIDEN

Ph.D.

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

2021

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
School of Hotel & Tourism Management

**Memorable Local Food Tourism Experiences and their Effects on
Attitudinal and Behavioral Consequences**

Frank Badu-Baiden

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

April 2021

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it reproduces no material previously published or written, nor material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

FRANK BADU-BAIDEN

ABSTRACT

Experiencing local food at an overseas tourism destination has become a significant activity for tourists. Within a destination setting, tourists actively consume local foods as this enables them to understand the unique cultures of a place. It also enhances their overall tourism experience and generates pleasant memories. Previous studies have demonstrated the importance of memorable tourism experience in tourists' cognitive activities as tourists draw on their memories in future decision making, evaluation, and reflection. Memories of local food tourism experiences can also inform tourists' attitude toward local food as well as affect their subjective wellbeing, intentions, and loyalty to a food tourism destination.

While memorable experiences related to tourism are among the most popular topics in the tourism literature, few studies have specifically explored the memorability of tourists' local food tourism experience. Consequently, there is a limited understanding of this issue and several questions remain unanswered or have only been partially answered. Key among these questions are the factors that contribute to tourists' memories in the local food tourism context and the verification of the dimensions of tourists' memorable local food tourism experience in terms of reliability and validity. Furthermore, the effects of the relationships among tourists' memorable local food tourism experiences and how this affects their attitude toward local food, their subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty are yet to be tested.

This thesis sets out to answer these questions and is informed by four objectives: (1) to examine the dimensionality of memorable local food tourism experiences from a demand perspective, (2) to develop a scale to measure tourists' memorable local food tourism experiences, (3) to examine the effects of the relationship among tourists' memorable local food tourism experiences and how this affects their attitude toward local food, their subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty, and (4) to examine the moderating role of food

tourism place, food-related personality trait, and food tasting experience on the relationships among memorable local food tourism experiences, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty.

A rigorous scale was developed for this study. Following a thorough literature review to generate items and in-depth interviews with experts, a questionnaire was developed, pre-tested, and pilot tested on the targeted sample. An online panel data survey company for United States tourists was used as the main data collection method. After data cleaning, checking screening questions and attention checks, a total of 900 questionnaires were analyzed.

The results revealed eight elements that constitute tourists' memorable local food tourism experience. They include; (1) relaxation and energizing, (2) hospitable service experience, (3) ambience and aesthetics, (4) learning exotic food culture, (5) sensory appeal and authentic experience, (6) hedonic experience, (7) conviviality, and (8) gastronomic novelty and curiosity. All the factors except relaxation and energizing, exotic local food culture and consumption, and conviviality had a direct positive effect on attitude toward local food. Attitude toward local food positively affected subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Subjective wellbeing positively affected destination loyalty; however, it did not affect intention. Finally, food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience partially moderated the relationship among the aforementioned constructs.

A major contribution of this study is its identification of an eight-factor structure of tourists' memorable local food tourism experiences through a rigorous process of scale development. This measurement scale can be applied in different contexts and can enhance our understanding of memorable local food tourism experiences. Furthermore, the study tested a model on interrelationships among tourists' memorable local food tourism experience and how this

affects their attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. An empirical verification of the model enriches the literature as it can help explain the relationship among memorable local food tourism experience and the aforementioned outcome variables. The findings also hold practical implications for destination marketing and positioning efforts. The study can help destination marketers understand the multidimensional nature of tourists' memorable local food experiences and subsequently determine the types of experiences that can inform tourists' attitudes toward local food, their wellbeing, intention to recommend, and loyalty. Such knowledge will be useful in allocating resources for local food tourism planning, marketing, and other activities. The dimensions identified in this study will also be useful to local food businesses and restaurateurs in their efforts to provide facilities and services that can give tourists memorable experiences.

Keywords: Local food, tourism experience, memorable experience, attitude, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, destination loyalty, scale development

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to some individuals who played a significant role in my doctoral journey. First, I am heavily indebted to my Chief Supervisor, Prof. Sam Kim, for his immeasurable guidance and support throughout my Ph.D. journey. Prof. Kim, your constant encouragement, fatherly role, and grooming have shaped me to become a better person and researcher. Indeed, you have been a great mentor and supervisor! I am also grateful to my supervisory committee members, Prof. Brian King, Dr. Vincent Tung, and Dr. Sabrina Huang for their insightful comments on my confirmation. I also want to thank the Chair of the Board of Examiners (BoE), Dr. Mimi Li, and external examiners Prof. Jong-Hyeong Kim and Prof. Janet Chang for their invaluable comments. Furthermore, I would like to thank the Dean of the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, Prof. Kaye Chon, for giving me his support and providing various opportunities for me to study in this prestigious school. To all other professors and administrative staff who in diverse ways impacted my academic career positively, I say thank you!

My profound gratitude also goes to my family, especially my wife (Lois) and our kids (Kobby and Ellis), for their immense support throughout my Ph.D. journey. Lois, your love, prayers, and patience always kept me going and I thank you for taking care of the family while I was away. To my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Baiden, my in-laws Eunice and Aunty Martha, and my siblings, Ewurama, Nana Akua, and Paa Kofi, I say God bless you!

I would like to acknowledge my PhD colleagues who gave me words of encouragement and contributed in different ways toward my completion of this thesis. Special thanks go to Dr. Antony K. Wong and Dr. Felix E. Otoo for their assistance and scholarly guidance. Lastly, my appreciation goes to any other individual who has contributed in one way or the other to the successful completion of this work. God bless you all!

DEDICATION

To my family

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	xvii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Problem statement.....	6
1.3 Research questions	8
1.4 Research objectives	9
1.5 Significance of the study.....	9
1.5.1 Theoretical contribution.....	9
1.5.2 Practical contribution.....	11
1.6 Overall structure of the thesis.....	12
1.7 Definition of key terms	13
1.8 Organization of the study.....	15
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	18
2.1 Introduction	18
2.2 The tourism-food consumption nexus.....	18
2.3 Conceptualization of food tourism.....	21
2.4 Typologies of food tourists	27
2.5 Previous studies on food tourism	31
2.6 The concept of experience.....	37
2.7 The experience economy model.....	41
2.8 Tourists' local food experience.....	45
2.8.1 The multidimensional nature of local food experience.....	48
2.9 Memorability.....	51
2.9.1 Examining memorability as a concept.....	53
2.9.2 Autobiographic memory	54
2.9.3 Measurement of memorability.....	55
2.10 The local food and memory nexus	57
2.11 Conceptualization of MLFTE	58

2.12	The dimensionality of MLFTE	60
2.13	Attitude toward local food consumption.....	64
2.14	The concept of subjective wellbeing.....	67
2.15	Intention to recommend in the context of food tourism.....	69
2.16	Destination loyalty in the context of food tourism.....	71
2.16.1	Measurement of destination loyalty in the context of food tourism	73
2.17	Summary	75
CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES.....		76
3.1	Introduction	76
3.2	Development of conceptual model and hypotheses	76
3.2.1	Proposed conceptual model	76
3.2.2	Relationship between MLFTE and attitude toward local food consumption	78
3.2.3	Relationship between attitude toward local food and subjective wellbeing	81
3.2.4	Relationship between attitude toward local food and intention to recommend.....	84
3.2.5	Relationship between attitude toward local food and destination loyalty	85
3.2.6	Relationship between subjective wellbeing and intention to recommend	86
3.2.7	Relationship between subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty.....	87
3.2.8	Moderating effects of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (food neophobia), and food tasting experience on SEM.....	88
3.3	Summary	92
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		93
4.1	Chapter introduction.....	93
4.2	Philosophical perspectives of the study	93
4.3	Research design.....	94
4.4	Development of an MLFTE scale	95
4.5	Specification of items and domains of construct	98
4.6	Generation of a pool of items and determination of the format for measurement	100
4.7	Experts' review of the initial pool of items.....	106
4.7.1	Amendment of items for MLFTE.....	108
4.7.2	Revision of items for MLFTE.....	120
4.8	Purification of items	128

4.8.1	Summary of items after purification for MLFTE scale	128
4.8.2	Summary of items after purification for attitude towards local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty, and moderating variable of food neophobia	131
4.9	Pilot test.....	133
4.9.1	Data screening.....	134
4.10	Main survey.....	157
4.10.1	Sample frame	157
4.10.2	Sample size	158
4.10.3	Data collection	159
4.11	Data analysis	160
4.11.1	Exploratory Factor Analysis	160
4.11.2	Confirmatory factor analysis.....	161
4.11.3	Validity and reliability	161
4.11.4	Structural equation modeling.....	162
4.11.5	Summary.....	162
CHAPTER 5: RESULTS	164
5.1	Chapter introduction.....	164
5.2	Data screening.....	164
5.3	Missing data and outliers.....	164
5.4	Normality test.....	165
5.5	Descriptive results of the respondents.....	170
5.5.1	Sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents	170
5.6	Cross-validation of data	173
5.7	Exploratory factor analysis of the measurement model (1 st part of the dataset, N=450)	174
5.7.1	<i>EFA of MLFTE</i>	174
5.7.2	<i>EFA of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty</i>	177
5.8	Confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model (N=450)	180
5.9	Confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model (whole dataset, N=900).....	185
5.10	Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	189
5.11	Testing of hypotheses.....	189

5.11.1	Direct effects	190
5.11.2	Moderating effect.....	196
5.11.3	Measurement invariance	196
5.11.4	SEM results of food tourism to Asia and food tourism to Europe.....	197
5.11.5	Structural invariance	204
5.11.6	Invariance test for the paths	205
5.11.7	Measurement invariance for food-related personality trait (food neophobia)	207
5.11.8	SEM results of the low neophobia group and the high neophobia group.....	209
5.11.9	Structural invariance	217
5.11.10	Invariance test for the paths	217
5.11.11	Measurement invariance	219
5.11.12	SEM results of the first time to taste cohort and repeat taste cohort.....	221
5.11.13	Structural invariance	228
5.11.14	Test of invariance for the paths.....	229
5.12	Summary	231
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS		232
6.1	Chapter introduction.....	232
6.2	Research objective 1: Development of a scale to measure MLFTE	232
6.3	Research objective 2: Examination of the effects of MLFTE on attitude toward local food	237
6.4	Research objective 3: Examination of the effect of attitude toward local food on subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty	242
6.5	Research objective 4: Examination of the influence of subjective wellbeing on intention to recommend and destination loyalty	244
6.6	Research objective 5: Examination of the moderating effects of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (food neophobia), and food tasting experience on the relationships among tourists' MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty	245
6.6.1	<i>Moderating role of food tourism place</i>	245
6.6.2	<i>Moderating role of food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia).....</i>	249
6.6.3	<i>Moderating role of food tasting experience.....</i>	251
6.7	Contributions of the study	255

6.7.1	Academic contributions	255
6.7.2	Practical implications.....	259
6.8	Summary	265
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION.....		266
7.1	Chapter introduction.....	266
7.2	Overview of the study	266
7.3	Limitations and suggestions for future research	269
APPENDICES.....		272
REFERENCES.....		302

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Conceptualizations of food tourism.....	25
Table 2.2 Review of major studies on food tourism.....	36
Table 2.3 Summary of previous conceptualization of tourists’/consumer experience	39
Table 4.1 Initial pool of MLFTE items.....	101
Table 4.2 A profile of respondents for the in-depth interviews	107
Table 4.3 Amendment of items to indicate novelty/curiosity.....	109
Table 4.4 Amendment of items to indicate hedonism	110
Table 4.5 Amendment of items to indicate refreshment.....	111
Table 4.6 Amendment of items to indicate meaningfulness.....	112
Table 4.7 Amendment of items to indicate knowledge and/or cultural learning.....	114
Table 4.8 Amendment of items to indicate authenticity	115
Table 4.9 Amendment of items to indicate social interaction	116
Table 4.10 Amendment of items to indicate hospitality (service quality).....	117
Table 4.11 Amendment of items to indicate food souvenirs/nostalgia.....	118
Table 4.12 Amendment of items to indicate ambience and aesthetics	118
Table 4.13 Amendment of items to indicate local food attributes (sensory experience).....	119
Table 4.14 Revision of items in MLFTE scale after in-depth interviews.....	121
Table 4.15 Amendment of items in attitude toward local food	123
Table 4.16 Amendment of items in subjective wellbeing.....	124
Table 4.17 Amendment of items in intention	125
Table 4.18 Amendment of items in destination loyalty	126
Table 4.19 Amendment of items in food neophobia.....	127
Table 4.20 Revision of measurement items to measure MLFTE	129
Table 4.21 Revision of measurement items for attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty, and moderating variable of food neophobia.....	132
Table 4.22 Descriptive analysis using a sample of US tourists who have had MLFTE (Europe and Asia) in the pilot test	135
Table 4.23 Profile of respondents in the pilot test	141
Table 4.24 Items removed through the first EFA	144
Table 4.25 Exploratory factor analysis of MLFTE in European countries in the pilot study.....	145

Table 4.26 Exploratory factor analysis of MFTE in Asian countries in the pilot study	147
Table 4.27 EFA of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty in the pilot study (European data set)	150
Table 4.28 EFA of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty in the pilot study (Asian data set)	153
Table 4.29 Major items retained for the main study	154
Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics and univariate normality test for measurement items ($N=900$)	166
Table 5.2 The profile of respondents in the main study	171
Table 5.3 EFA results of MLFTE ($n=450$)	175
Table 5.4 EFA results of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty ($n=450$)	178
Table 5.5 CFA results of the measurement model ($n=450$).....	182
Table 5.6 Correlation, square root of AVE, mean and standard deviations ($n=450$)	184
Table 5.7 CFA results of the measurement model ($N=900$).....	185
Table 5.8 Correlation, square root of AVE, mean and standard deviations ($N=900$).....	188
Table 5.9 Results of the direct path for the structural model ($N=900$).....	194
Table 5.10 Measurement invariance for Asia ($n=450$) and Europe ($n=450$).....	197
Table 5.11 Results of the SEM analysis of food tourism to Asia ($n=450$).....	198
Table 5.12 Results of the SEM analysis of food tourism to Europe ($n=450$).....	201
Table 5.13 Structural invariance for food tourism to Asia ($n=450$) and food tourism to Europe ($n=450$).....	204
Table 5.14 Structural invariances for the food tourism to Asia group and food tourism to Europe group	206
Table 5.15 EFA results of neophobia trait ($N=900$)	208
Table 5.16 Measurement invariance for high neophobia ($n=318$) and low neophobia ($n=582$)	209
Table 5.17 Results of the SEM analysis of the high neophobia group ($n=318$).....	211
Table 5.18 Results of the SEM analysis of the low neophobia group ($n=582$)	214
Table 5.19 Structural invariance for high neophobia ($n=318$) and low neophobia ($n=582$)	217
Table 5.20 Structural invariances for the high neophobia group and the low neophobia group	219
Table 5.21 Measurement invariance for first-time to taste cohort ($N=538$) and repeat taste cohort ($N=362$).....	221

Table 5.22 Results of the SEM analysis of the first-time to taste cohort (n=538).....	222
Table 5.23 Results of the SEM analysis of the repeat taste cohort (n=362).....	225
Table 5.24 Structural invariance for the first-time to taste cohort (N=538) and repeat taste cohort (N=362).....	228
Table 5.25 Structural invariances for the first-time to taste group and the repeat taste group ...	230

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Overall structure of the study	13
Figure 2.1 Pine and Gilmore's (1998) four realms of experience	42
Figure 3.1 Proposed conceptual framework	77
Figure 4.1 Procedure for developing MLFTE scale	97
Figure 5.1 Results of the direct path for the structural model ($N=900$).....	195
Figure 5.2 Results of the direct path for the structural model (Food tourism to Asia group).....	199
Figure 5.3 Results of the direct path for the structural model (Food tourism to Europe group)	202
Figure 5.4 Results of the direct path for the structural model (Food tourism to Asia and Food tourism to Europe)	203
Figure 5.5 Results of the direct path for the structural model (high neophobia group).....	212
Figure 5.6 Results of the direct path for the structural model (low neophobia group).....	215
Figure 5.7 Results of the direct path for the structural model (both high and low neophobia groups)	216
Figure 5.8 Results of the direct path for the structural model (first-time to taste cohort)	223
Figure 5.9 Results of the direct path for the structural model (repeat taste cohort)	226
Figure 5.10 Results of the direct path for the structural model (both first-time to taste cohort and repeat taste cohort).....	227

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Consumers continue to search for newer and more authentic experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). They do not only endeavor to patronize products and services but also want to experience what they buy (Morgan, Lugosi & Ritchie, 2010). Approximately three decades ago, Pine and Gilmore (1999) presented the idea of experience economy, which has emerged as a premise in a market where competition within the global space has transformed products and services into commodities and competitive advantage is achieved through the provision of unique and memorable experiences.

Since the introduction of this concept, researchers, stakeholders, and industry players in the hospitality and tourism industry have made significant efforts to ensure that customers gain memorable experiences. Providing high-quality, extraordinary and memorable experiences is significant because it “lies at the heart of tourism” (Ritchie, Tung, & Ritchie, 2011, p. 431) and it is important in stimulating tourism demand (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Providing such experiences is also essential in ensuring that service providers organize memorable events for their customers because memory constitutes both a product and an experience (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012; Stone, Migacz, & Sthapit, 2021; Sutton, 2011). Within the tourism research context, several efforts have been made to provide an enhanced understanding of the memorable experience phenomenon, beginning with studies that focused on tourist experience (Carmichael, 2005; Cole & Scott, 2004; Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Kim, 2014; Kim et al., 2012; Moscardo, 2010; Otoo & Amuquandoh, 2014; Ryan, 2010; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier, 2009).

Tourist experience, as a concept, has undergone some conceptual debates as tourism researchers have examined this phenomenon from different theoretical perspectives (Tung &

Ritchie, 2011). Tussyadiah and Fesenmeier (2007) succinctly asserted that tourist experience is a socially constructed term that elicits multiple interpretations. Tourist experience is viewed as an emotional, spiritual, physical, and intellectual impression felt by an individual during a trip (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). It can also involve “an individual’s subjective evaluation and undergoing (i.e., cognitive, affective, and behavioral) of events related to his/her tourist activities which commence before (i.e., planning and preparation), during (i.e., at the destination), and after the trip (i.e., recollection)” (Tung & Ritchie, 2011, p. 1369). Other authors have constructed tourist experience as a fulfillment of experience (Arnould & Price, 1993) or a quality (Tian-Cole, Crompton & Willson, 2002). Nonetheless, experience is generally viewed as an outcome of a person’s thought process based on an object that one comes into contact with (Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Renko, Renko & Polonijo, 2010). Accordingly, tourists’ experience can be said to involve a mental evaluation of their encounters within a tourism system.

Given the importance of the mental evaluation of tourist experience, Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2011) argued for the need to situate the tourist experience concept within the parameters of memorability. The reason is that memorability provides a basis by which tourist encounters and interactions within a destination and service contexts are stored and subsequently used for future decision making. Tourist destination experiences can make an indelible impression on the minds of tourists and such experiences can have a lasting impact on how tourists perceive a destination.

Kim et al. (2012) subsequently defined memorable tourism experience as an experience that is positively recollected retrospectively. It involves a tourism experience that is evaluated as favorable when it is recalled by a tourist. A memorable tourism experience provides tourists with a feeling of happiness, fulfillment, and satisfaction, thereby resulting in positive future intentions

and loyalty behaviors (Chen & Rahman, 2018; Kim, 2018; Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010; Piramanayagam, Sud & Seal, 2020). After a trip, tourists keep memories of a destination experience and use this information to “re-live” their experience in the future (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Various authors (Kim, 2014; Kim et al., 2012; Tung & Ritchie, 2011) have asserted that a memorable tourism experience enables tourists to effectively evaluate a destination and it also increases the probability of a destination to stimulate tourism demand.

Pursuing novel and memorable tourism experiences has been an important feature of many tourists. Among these tourists, the desire to experience new destinations, cultures, and people is significant in fulfilling their travel desires. Tourists engage in various activities and have several encounters with hosts while at destinations. Among such engagements and encounters is local food consumption, which is a fundamental and ubiquitous aspect of tourism experience as it provides tourists with memorable experiences and a pleasurable pastime (Kim, Badu-Baiden, Oh & Kim, 2020; Sthapit, 2017; Stone, Soulard, Migacz & Wolf, 2018; Tsai, 2016). As a form of sustenance, food plays a crucial role for many people and travelers. Notwithstanding the critical role of food in providing physiological support, food consumption complements opportunities for relaxation, enjoyment, education, status, and lifestyle (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016; Kim & Choe, 2019). Therefore, within the tourism context, food transcends functionality to be highly experiential, sensuous and sensual, symbolic, and to have meaning for consumers (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). It has been argued that food consumption provides a useful avenue for cultural expression, affection appreciation, history, and aiding tourists to express the symbolic, social and amusing aspects of a destination (Richards, 2002). Additionally, food consumption provides tourists opportunities to explore the novel aspects and authenticities of destinations (Quan & Wang, 2004). Thus, food exploration gives tourists unique and lasting moments since the

recollection of positive food experiences, be it during or after a holiday trip, provides an exciting feeling (Rode, Rozin & Durlach, 2007).

Previous studies have highlighted the importance of memory in shaping tourists' assessments of their food tourism experience (Caru & Cova, 2003). Various authors have conceptualized memorable local food tourism experience (MLFTE) as a food experience derived at an overseas tourism destination that is subjectively evaluated as pleasant when it is remembered (Adongo, Anuga, & Dayour, 2015; Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016). A memorable food tourism experience enables tourists to share their food tasting experience with friends and family. This also helps to predict tourists' attitudes, their subjective wellbeing, and their post-tasting intentions.

MLFTE, which is derived from an overseas destination, provides enjoyment and pleasing outcomes that subsequently influence tourists' life satisfaction and wellbeing (Sthapit, Coudounaris & Bjork, 2019; Uysal, Perdue & Sirgy, 2012). Drawing on ideas from the Spillover Theory (Burch, 1969; Wilensky, 1960), which posits that overall life satisfaction is functionally connected to satisfaction in each of the individual life's domain, various authors have posited that the pleasing and memorable outcomes of a destination experience significantly influence the life domains and overall life satisfaction of individuals (Sthapit et al., 2019). Therefore, traveling, as an activity, and consuming the local food of a destination for pleasurable purposes, are considered beneficial to one's subjective wellbeing (Braun-LaTour, Grinley & Loftus, 2006). Consequently, tourists' local food consumption, which generates pleasant memories, results in favorable outcomes that influence their level of happiness, life satisfaction, and subjective wellbeing (Nawijn, 2011; Sthapit et al., 2019).

The relationship between local food consumption and tourism experience (Everett, 2008; Hall & Mitchell, 2006) has received research attention in recent years. This interest has resulted in

several studies in food tourism that seek to provide an enhanced understanding of this burgeoning phenomenon. Despite these attempts, there are very few studies that examine the memorability of the food tourism experience. Tung and Ritchie (2011) advocated further research to examine the elements that make an experience memorable. Sthapit et al. (2019) highlighted the need for a quantitative study to develop a reliable measure of MLFTE. The embryonic nature of this important research area has constrained such calls; hence, issues regarding the nature and dimensionality of MLFTE have yielded inconclusive outcomes. Specifically, a valid and reliable scale for measuring MLFTE is lacking in the literature; given that a general limitation has persisted within the tourism and hospitality literature on the examination of the predictive power of developed scales on outcome variables, a lacuna apparently exists. The connection between MLFTE dimensions and how they inform tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, post-tasting intention, and destination loyalty have received little attention in the tourism literature.

Questions on the dimensionality of MLFTE and the extent to which MLFTE dimensions inform tourists' attitudes, their subjective wellbeing, post-tasting intentions, and their loyalty largely remain unanswered. This thesis therefore sets out to fill this gap in the literature. It aims to provide a broader understanding of the dimensionality of tourists' MLFTEs and to testify the predictive effect of the various dimensions on tourists' attitude toward local food, perceived subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend to others, and destination loyalty by selecting sample of US tourists who traveled and had MLFTEs in both European and Asian countries. This study provides a valuable contribution to the memorability and tourist local food consumption literature by developing a scale to measure MLFTE. It also develops a conceptual model to examine the connections between MLFTE and the aforementioned outcome variables.

A thorough understanding of MLFTE is imperative because when a tourist consumes local food at an overseas destination, s/he accesses this experience through memories and recollection (Stone, Migacz, & Sthapit, 2021; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Tourists' attitudes and level of involvement become positive when information is drawn from past experiences (Hoch & Deighton, 1989). Moreover, when tourists make future decisions on food tourism, they tend to retrieve information from their memories regarding their previous food experiences (Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, & Diener, 2003). High credibility is also observed in recalled experience (Kim et al., 2012); hence, the provision of memorable local food experience is critical for destination marketers in their efforts to increase the probability to stimulate tourism demand. All of the above makes the present study necessary.

1.2 Problem statement

Understanding tourists' cognitive processes, how they form their memorable experiences, how they retain experiences in memory, and what elements make their experiences memorable are relevant issues that have stimulated research interest in cognitive psychology and tourism in recent times. Researchers have postulated that memory enables the storage and retrieval of tourists' destination experiences (Kim et al., 2012; Tung & Ritchie, 2011), and experiences retrieved from memory can be important in shaping tourists' subsequent attitudes and other facets of their travel behavior, including their future travel decisions (Kim, Ritchie & Tung, 2010). Despite this interest in the memorability of tourists' experiences, a review of the literature reveals certain gaps which the present study seeks to redress.

First, although memorable experiences related to tourism constitute a popular topic (Kim et al., 2010; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Zhang, Wu, & Buhalis, 2018), only few studies have focused

attention on the memorability of tourists' local food tourism experience. For example, Tung and Ritchie (2010) revealed facets such as affect, expectations, consequentiality, and recollections as the key constituents of a memorable tourism experience. Kim et al. (2012) attempted to verify the multidimensionality of memorable tourism experience and identified a seven-dimensional structure, including novelty, hedonism, refreshment, local culture, meaningfulness, knowledge, and involvement. These studies notwithstanding, not much is known about the MLFTE of tourists.

Second, there is also a lack of consensus among researchers on the elements that make tourists' local food tourism experience memorable. Initial attempts at examining this phenomenon have revealed varying and inconclusive outcomes (e.g., Sthapit, 2017; Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016), with food tourism researchers advocating for a deeper exploration into the dimensionality and the development of a standardized instrument of MLFTE with acceptable reliability and validity (Stone et al., 2021). These concerns are yet to be addressed in the literature.

Third, memories of local food tourism experience can impact the affective states, behaviors or future decisions of tourists. Within the food context, previous studies (Choe & Kim, 2018; Soltani, Nejad, Azad, Taheri & Gannon, 2020) identified that the attitude of tourists toward local food is an important outcome of the value derived from eating local food and it also plays an important role in determining future behaviours. Furthermore, pleasant memories can be important in tourists' subjective wellbeing (Huang, Cheng & Chang, 2019; Sthapit et al., 2019; Uysal, Perdue & Sirgy, 2012). However, empirical work on the connection between tourists' MLFTE and attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and loyalty to a food tourism destination has not received much attention. Additionally, as food tourism marketers aim to leverage local food resources and utilize approaches to provide memorable experiences and attract tourists, examining MLFTE and how it informs tourists' overall evaluation of local food,

subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and loyalty to a food tourism destination should be considered a crucial issue.

Last, an examination of how food tourism place, food-related personality trait, and food tasting experience moderate the interaction among MLFTE dimensions, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, post-tasting intention, and destination loyalty remains unexplored. Previous studies (Kim, Suh & Eves, 2010; Pourfakhimi, Nadimb, Prayag, & Mulcahy, 2020) highlighted the importance of food neophobia in tourists' local food experience. Furthermore, tourists' perceptions and memories of their local food tourism experience can differ based on food cultural contexts or destinations (Choe & Kim, 2019; Sthapit et al., 2019) including their food tasting experience (Tse & Crotts, 2005) and other psychographical factors (Caber, Yilmaz, Kilikarslan, & Ozturk, 2018; Mak, Lumers, Eves, & Chang, 2017). A comprehensive understanding of this subject will enrich the literature and help in market segmentation strategies.

1.3 Research questions

Based on the research gaps identified above, the following research questions have been formulated:

1. What are the dimensions of MLFTE from a demand perspective?
2. How can a scale be developed to measure MLFTEs?
3. What are the relationships among MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty?
4. What are the moderating effects of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia), and food tasting experience on the relationships among MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty?

1.4 Research objectives

The main aim of this study is to provide a broader understanding of the dimensionality of tourists' MLFTEs and testify the predictive effect of its dimensions on tourists' attitude toward local food, perceived subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend to others, and destination loyalty.

Specifically, the study is informed by the following research objectives:

1. To examine the dimensionality of MLFTE from a demand perspective;
2. To develop a reliable and valid scale to measure MLFTE;
3. To test a model to explain the relationships among MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty;
4. To examine the moderating effects of local food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience on the relationships among MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty.

1.5 Significance of the study

1.5.1 Theoretical contribution

Theoretically, this study extends the range of studies conducted on food tourism and MLFTE. An extensive literature review using search engines such as Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar shows that studies on MLFTE are significantly underrepresented or inadequate (Sthapit, 2017; Sthapit et al., 2019; Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016), compared with the broad memorable tourism experience literature. Hence, the insights adduced from this study will shed light on and advance knowledge on the elements that make tourists' local food tourism experience

memorable. At present, these elements and the issues related to them are obscure in the literature; ergo, their examination in this study will provide clarity.

Second, a new scale is proposed to examine tourists' MLFTE that can be applied in different contexts. Food tourism scholars (Sthapit, 2017; Stone et al., 2021) have advocated for a new scale that can measure and enhance the understanding of the memorability of tourists' local food tourism experience. Developing psychological or behavioral scales such as MLFTE is important in making theoretical deductions about tourism. Further to this point, wholesale replication of existing scales (Adongo et al., 2015; Tsai, 2016) has failed to paint a holistic picture of the MLFTE. Using a multidimensional approach, this study contributes to a broad and precise understanding of tourists' MLFTE.

Third, a new model with respect to the predictive effect of MLFTE dimensions on tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty is proposed from a wide context. Significantly lacking in the tourism literature is how MLFTE dimensions inform tourists' affective states, post-tasting intentions and loyalty. Furthermore, the outcome of a previous study (Sthapit et al., 2019) on the relationship between MLFTE and subjective wellbeing was limited to only one destination. The present study goes a step further by examining the effect of MLFTE on different outcome variables within different food cultural contexts. Using this approach can enhance the transfer of the findings to different food cultural contexts. Moreover, as this study investigates the connection between attitude toward local food and subjective wellbeing, it empirically verifies that attitude can inform tourists' subjective wellbeing which leads to positive intentions and loyalty. This study, thus, builds on the few studies (Choe & Kim, 2018) that conceptually argue that attractive destination products, such as local

food, can inform tourists' disposition and intention. It can also deepen our understanding of the MLFTE phenomenon and its interrelationships with tourists' attitudes, behavior and wellbeing.

Lastly, the moderating effects of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience is examined to ascertain the differences among the effects of MLFTE on tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty by conducting a multigroup analysis. Thus, the outcome of this study can enhance our understanding and can be used to explore the differences in tourists' perceptions and MLFTE on the basis of their psychographical attributes and traveled food destination contexts.

1.5.2 Practical contribution

This study has practical value for governments, destination marketers, tourism consumers, academia, and other stakeholders. Firstly, the study will be relevant to destination marketers since it offers a comprehensive understanding of MLFTE dimensions that can help destination marketers to tailor their promotional strategies to fit specific audiences and attract new tourists. Many destinations market their tourism products using local food resources; therefore, knowledge of MLFTEs can have implications for demand for local foods at overseas destinations. Such knowledge can also aid in the efficient allocation of resources and the development of food tourism programs. Further, this study provides useful input for destinations because the promotion of different local food products is imperative to sustain the cultures and economies of various destinations.

Secondly, since tourism is an industry that promotes and markets experience (Ooi, 2002; Prentice, Witt & Hamer, 1998), tourism businesses and companies likely increase their revenues as they provide tourists with MLFTEs on the basis of its dimensionality. The reason is that a

pleasant and memorable experience likely encourages positive attitudes, evaluations, and repeat purchases (Kim et al., 2010). Consumers recognize the brand of companies and businesses when they gain a memorable experience (Schmitt, 1999). Thus, this study can enhance understanding of MLFTEs and how tourism and hospitality businesses can use this knowledge to design experiences in order to encourage patronage and increase profit.

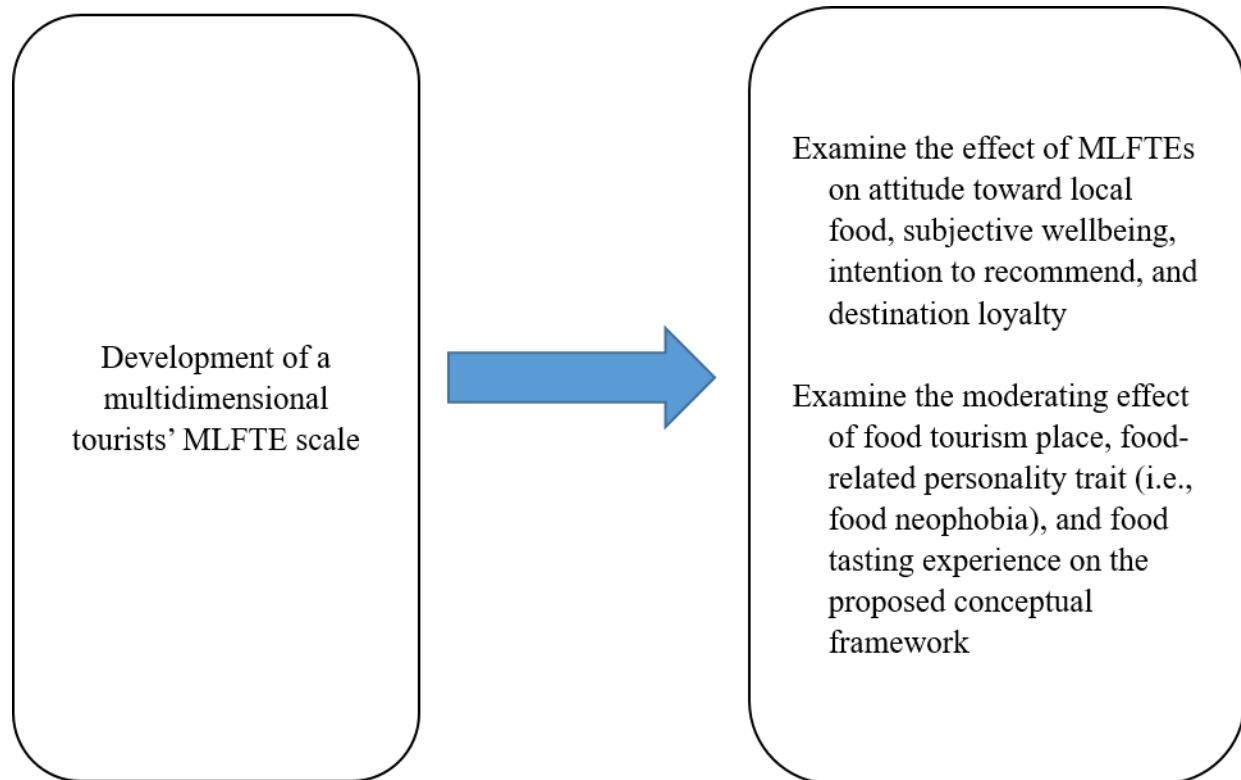
Lastly, the study can enhance our understanding of how MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty can differ according to food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience. The identification and an understanding of these differences will be relevant to destinations that aim to leverage local food resources in their promotional activities using the aforementioned insights. Such knowledge will also be important for market segmentation strategies.

1.6 Overall structure of the thesis

This thesis has two main parts. The first part focuses on the scale development of tourists' MLFTE. This scale will be used to identify specific dimensions of MLFTE and provide a reliable and valid measurement. The second part examines the effects of MLFTE dimensions on tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Here, the moderating role of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience on the relationships between MLFTE and the highlighted constructs (i.e., attitude towards local foods, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty) are examined. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is used to analyze the effects of MLFTE and a multigroup analysis is used for the moderating effect of food tourism place, food-related personality trait, and food tasting

experience on the aforementioned constructs. A pictorial representation of the overall structure of the thesis has been depicted in Figure 1.1

Figure 1.1 Overall structure of the study



1.7 Definition of key terms

Food: Food is any substance that is consumed to provide nutritional support to an individual. It can be from a plant or an animal source and contains essential nutrients to support life and enhance growth (Sijtsema, Linnemann, van Gaasbeek, Dagevos, & Jongen, 2002).

Local food: Food that is grown, processed, or produced within a locality or a destination with indigenous ingredients (Adongo et al., 2015; Nummedal & Hall, 2006).

Food tourism: A form of tourism activity in which the consumption of local food is a significant activity through which an individual learns, appreciates, and experiences the authentic local food and culture of a destination (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Smith & Xiao, 2008).

Food-related personality trait: A persisting underlying tendency to behave in particular ways, in specific situations (Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2017). In the food context, food-related personality trait refers to the tendency to avoid or hesitate to try new local food (i.e., food neophobia) (Pliner & Hobden, 1992).

Attitude toward local food: A psychological tendency that a tourist expresses as a summary evaluation of local food with some degree of favor or disfavor (Choe & Kim, 2018).

Destination loyalty: This connotes tourists' strong willingness or commitment to travel to a food tourism destination to re-experience its local food (Di-Clemente et al., 2019). Tourists demonstrate such commitment through revisit or consistently re-patronizing a destination's local food in the destination (Hsu, Agyeiwaah & Chen, 2021).

Memorable experience: An individual's subjective evaluation of their experience and their ability to easily retain and recollect events (Kim, 2009; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

MLFTE: A tourism-related experience in which a tourist generates positive memories after s/he undergoes distinctive or spectacular food tourism activities, interactions, or events in person (Tsai, 2016).

Memorable: Something that is unforgettable or extraordinary (Caru & Cova, 2003).

Memory: Memory is the retention and ability to retrieve information or experience (Schacter, 1996). It can also be explained as “an alliance of systems that works together and allows individuals to learn from the past and predict the future” (Baddeley, 1999).

Subjective wellbeing: This refers to the degree to which an individual judges their overall quality of life as a whole in a favorable way (Diener, 1984). It is an evaluation of an individual’s life as satisfactory (Diener, 1984; Veenhoven, 1984) and it is characterized by positive emotions, pleasure, happiness, and prosperity of the individual (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). It usually involves a subjective feeling of the individual, it is assessed positively, and encapsulates an individual’s overall assessment of life (Vada, Prentice & Hsiao, 2019).

Intention to recommend: This explains the positive attitudinal loyalty about local food as depicted by a tourist’s expression of its positive attributes and willingness to recommend and make a positive pronouncement about local food to others (Choe & Kim, 2018).

Tourism experience: An experience that a tourist constructs when they are consuming different tourism products (Kim, 2009).

Tourist: A tourist is one who leaves one’s place of residence and visits a destination for more than a day to pursue leisure or activities that are non-remunerative (Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

1.8 Organization of the study

This study is organized into seven chapters. Chapter 1 provides a general background and introduction to the study. The chapter also states the research gaps, outlines the research questions

and objectives and presents the theoretical and practical contributions of the study. It concludes with the definition of key terms and the organizational structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature on the food-tourism nexus, the centrality of food to tourists, the conceptualization of food tourism, and typologies of food tourists. It also discusses topical issues relating to the concept of experience, tourists' food tourism experience, memorable tourism experience, and memory and MLFTE. Additionally, the chapter examines the dimensions of the memorable tourism experience scale and its connection with food tourism experience, tourists' subjective wellbeing, tourists' attitudes towards local food consumption, intention, and destination loyalty.

Chapter 3 outlines the conceptual model and hypotheses formulated to guide the study. It introduces the theoretical and empirical underpinnings for the development of an MLFTE scale. The conceptual model illustrates the interrelationship between MLFTEs and outcome variables of attitudes, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty.

Chapter 4 discusses the methodological procedures of the study, including the scale development process, research philosophy and paradigm, sampling issues, administration of the survey, and translation. Issues such as the processes for data collection, research instrument, and data analysis are also discussed.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the study. It begins with exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses to identify and validate measurement items on tourists' MLFTE. It also presents the results of a model tested for the hypothesized relationship among MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Furthermore, the results of the moderating role of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience using a multigroup analysis are presented.

Chapter 6 presents a detailed discussion of the results in line with the objectives of the study. It also highlights the theoretical and practical implications of the study.

Chapter 7, the last chapter, concludes the study by highlighting the key findings, articulating the limitations of the study, and providing suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on food tourism and MLFTE. An initial focus is placed on the nexus between food consumption and tourism, the conceptualization of food tourism, and the importance of food to tourists. The literature on tourism experience is examined with a focus on tourists' local food experience, memorable tourism experience, and MLFTE. Particular emphasis is placed on the dimensions of the memorable tourism scale and how they relate to MLFTEs. Other topics on tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty are also reviewed.

2.2 The tourism-food consumption nexus

The consumption of food is widely acknowledged as physiologically essential (Agyeiwaah, Otoo, Suntikul & Huang, 2019). Food is essential to the physical wellbeing of individuals and is consumed to enable individuals to gain strength to undertake their daily activities. Many authors argue that food is a product or a resource that arouses almost all five senses (Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Sutton, 2011). Therefore, its centrality in the lives of individuals and industries cannot be discounted. Food provides diverse benefits to destinations, ranging from economic, socio-cultural, political to technological.

Food has a strong connection with tourism and hospitality. It is a strong pillar in this industry because the sharing and consumption of food among people signify warmth, reception, open-heartedness, and togetherness. In many cultures, food is a tangible element that is used to

welcome people to various homes. Thus, food is essential in showing hospitality. At the broader destination level, food is used to brand and stimulate visitation. Food enhances national images (Choe & Kim, 2018; Seo, Yun & Kim, 2017), stimulates culture and tourism (Caber, Yilmaz, Kiliçarslan, & Öztürk, 2018), and diversifies a destination's tourism resources (Agyeiwaah et al., 2019).

The connection between food consumption and tourism has stimulated increased attention from tourism and hospitality researchers (Baah, et al., 2019; Choe & Kim, 2018; Horng & Tsai, 2012; Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000; Kim & Choe, 2019; Kim et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2013; Okumus, Okumus & McKercher, 2007; Quan & Wang, 2004). Among many tourism studies, authors have drawn various links between food and tourism. Generally, the relationship between tourism and food can be examined from the perspectives of food as a tourist attraction, food as a tourism product, food as contributing to economies, the cultural significance of food, and the synergy between food and tourism (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Hall & Mitchell, 2006; Jones & Jenkins, 2002; Quan & Wang, 2004; Richards, 2002).

First and foremost, food can be seen as a tourist attraction (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010; Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016; Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Henderson, 2009). It is one of the important attractions that tourists crave in their search for novel and unforgettable experiences. Due to its uniqueness and ability to satisfy tourists' desires, food can draw tourists from different locations to other places. The uniqueness of food is identified in an assortment of forms that also represents a local identity. As with other destination resources, food is accessible and available during most times of the year (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). Given the increasing number of tourists who constantly pursue new experiences, food, as an alternative form

of tourism product, has become a significant attraction in different destinations (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016; Chen & Huang, 2018; Horng & Tsai, 2012).

Secondly, food is regarded as a tourism product (Hall & Mitchell, 2006; Okumus, Kock, Scantlebury & Okumus, 2013). Several scholars contend that food, like other components such as transport, lodging and catering, and attractions, is an essential element of the tourism product (Tikkanen, 2007). As a distinct product in competitive destinations, food is used to develop local agriculture and economies (Frochot, 2003). Again, food is used as a product to enhance overall tourists' experience (Everett, 2008; Sims, 2009). Several authors claim that food augments a destination's tourism resources and it is also regarded as an important resource for tourists who particularly hunt for food-related activities. As stated by Guan and Jones (2015), tourists increase their fervor for local food when they travel. This propels destination managers to focus on the development of local foods as a significant and unique tourism product.

Third, food is an integral aspect of indigenous cultures that tourists enjoy (Quan & Wang, 2004; Tikkanen, 2007). Consistent with the theory of cultural capital, eating traditional food in a tourism context enhances the acquisition of cultural knowledge among visitors and allows them to experience local culture (Chang, Kivela & Mak, 2011; Fields, 2002; Long, 2004). Hjalager and Corigliano (2000) posit that tourists get immersed in local culture by deriving authentic experience through local food consumption. Therefore, food is an important conduit for cultural exchange. Food consumption is not just an activity, but also an avenue in acquiring knowledge about different destinations (Mkono et al., 2013; Sims, 2009).

Fourth, food contributes to the economic development of many nations, especially the economies of developing nations (Jones & Jenkins, 2002; Hall, 2012). Meler and Cerovic (2003) estimated that a bulk of tourists' global spending is on food and beverage. Food consumption

generates revenue and creates employment in many localities (du Rand et al., 2003). Using food as a core product, many restaurants have been established in different destinations to offer unique services to guests. Food has also made it possible for several people to be employed in the food services sector, thereby contributing to revenue generation (McKercher et al., 2008; Meler & Cerovic, 2003).

Lastly, there is a linkage between local food production and tourism (Richards, 2002). Telfer and Wall (1996) posit that tourism and food production involve “partnerships and conflicts”. This conflict can be seen in the competition for labor, land, and capital. Conversely, both sectors also benefit from each other. An example of this can be seen in agro-tourism, where there are wine tours and the sale of food as souvenirs. Richards (2002) is of the view that a strong relationship between food production and tourism results in added value.

In sum, authors have examined the relationship between tourism and food from varied perspectives. However, five main points could be used to explain such relationships. These relate to food as an attraction, food as a cultural phenomenon, food as a product, food as a significant economic contributor, and lastly connections between food production and tourism.

2.3 Conceptualization of food tourism

Given the crucial role food to tourists as well as the interrelationship between food and tourism, several authors have espoused various views on a distinct form of food-based tourism. Different terminologies have been used to depict the food-related tourism phenomenon such as “culinary tourism” (Kivela & Crofts, 2006; Long 2004), “gourmet tourism” (Hall & Sharples, 2008), “food tourism” (Hall & Mitchell, 2001) “gastronomy tourism” (Hjalager, 2002), and “tasting tourism” (Boniface, 2003).

Hall and Mitchell (2001) recommend that in explaining food tourism, a clear distinction must be made between tourists who see food tasting as a usual exercise in their tourism activity and those whose activities, behaviors, and destination choices are informed by strong interests in food. The authors define food tourism as “visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food and tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a specialist food production region are the primary motivators for travel” (Hall & Mitchell, 2001, p. 308). Implicit within this definition is the need for the primary motive of travel to be food. For example, if a tourist travels to a destination for reasons other than food exploration, subsequent visits to a local restaurant to consume food as part of a tourism trip cannot be considered food tourism.

Further, with an emphasis on motivation, Kivela and Crofts (2005) explain gastronomy tourism as traveling to enjoy both prepared food and drink as well as savoring unique and memorable gastronomic experiences. Similarly, Ignatov and Smith (2006) define gastronomy tourism as being closely related with savoring authentic food and beverages as a representation of an aesthetic lifestyle. This includes activities that are developed to boost tourists’ experience such as visits to factories, farmers’ markets, patronages of bars and tea shops, eating in restaurants, wine tasting, tasting workshops, and lectures (Povey, 2011).

Culinary tourism is defined as “the intentional, exploratory participation in the foodways of another participation including consumption, preparation, and presentation of a food item, cuisine, meal system, or eating style that is considered to belong to a culinary system that is not one’s own” (Long, 2004, pp. 21-22). Based on this definition, two conclusions can be drawn. First, culinary tourism is about visitors who are interested in discovering food that is new and also exploring new cultures that are related to food. This new food discovery is linked to knowing

something about the people, their practices, and their identity. Second, culinary tourism relates to how host destinations use food to exhibit their culture and represent a local identity. Green and Dougherty (2008, p. 150) view culinary tourism as “the hunt for unique and memorable eating and drinking experience that offers a medium of connecting local food systems with the visitor experience”.

Ignatov and Smith (2006, p. 238) explain culinary tourism as a “tourism trip during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity”. It can be deduced from this definition that culinary tourism transcends food consumption to include a self-awareness interest and purposeful learning to know a place through its food culture. Thus, food consumption is not the primary activity for culinary tourism. However, the basis of culinary tourism involves the experience in which the food resource of a destination is used to depict some aspects of its culture. Culinary tourism is a form of tourism that is regarded as offering authentic travel and providing enormous learning opportunities by exposing tourists to new tastes, flavors, and exciting smells (Ignatov & Smith, 2006).

Based on the conceptualization of the food-related tourism phenomenon presented above, it can be observed that there is a point of convergence – that is, the various forms of food-related tourism make it possible for tourists to acknowledge and enjoy the distinctive traditional food resources and food-related events of a place. Consequently, some researchers submit that these terminologies can be applied interchangeably in different contexts. Given these definitions, the term “food tourism” is employed in this study. From the initial review, discrepancies were identified concerning whether food should necessarily be the main motivation for a trip. In this study, it is imperative to highlight that food tourism does not automatically mean that food is the

main driving force for a trip to an overseas destination. That is, food tourism happens regardless of whether food is a primary or secondary motivation. In food tourism, food consumption is a source of enjoyment and opportunities and thus provides tourists with pleasant memories.

Lee, Scott and Parker (2014) argue that although tourists explore local foods at overseas destinations, the number of tourists who travel primarily to consume foods at destinations is minimal. Therefore, some tourists may not primarily be driven to explore local foods at destinations, but may have an interest in consuming local foods and engaging in food-related activities at a destination. Given this, the current study adopts the definition of various authors and elucidates food tourism as travel to an overseas destination that is driven by an interest in local food consumption as well as the pursuit of a memorable local food experience (Herrera, 2012; Smith & Xiao, 2008; Stone et al., 2021). Although the travel may be driven by an interest in local food, it may not necessarily be the primary reason for the trip.

Table 2.1 Conceptualizations of food tourism

Author (s)	Terminology	Conceptualization
Hall and Mitchell (2001)	Food Tourism	“A visit 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 motivations for travel”
Long (2004)	Culinary Tourism	“Intentional, exploratory participation in the foodways of another participation including the consumption, preparation, and preparation of a food item, cuisine, meal system, or eating style, not one’s own”
Kivela and Crofts (2005)	Gastronomy Tourism	“A form of travel that is pertinent to enjoying both prepared food and drink and to enjoy the unique and memorable gastronomy experience”
Ignatov and Smith (2006)	Culinary Tourism	“Tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods and beverages or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity”
Hall and Sharples (2008)	Gourmet Tourism	“Tourists who have a high interest in food and wine and their traveling motivation is primarily to visit a specific food event or farmer’s market”.
Smith and Xiao (2008)	Culinary Tourism	“Any tourism experience where one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded culinary resources. It consists of travel that is specifically motivated by culinary interests as well as travel in which culinary experiences occur but are not primary motivations for the trip”.
Green and Dougherty (2008)	Culinary Tourism	“The pursuit of unique and memorable eating and drinking experience, providing a way of linking local food systems with the tourist experience”
Herrera (2012)	Gastronomy Tourism	“Gastronomy tourism refers to tourists who plan their trips completely or partially to taste the cuisine of a place or to perform activities that are related to gastronomy”
Wolf (2014)	Food Tourism	“The pursuit and enjoyment of unique and memorable food and drink experience, from within one’s region or beyond”

Choe and Kim (2018)	Food Tourism	“A form of tourism where tourists place importance on eating local foods in their tourism activity”
---------------------	--------------	---

Source: Summarized by the author.

2.4 Typologies of food tourists

Understanding the dynamics of tourist marketing is critical to destination marketers. Thus, to market a tourism product (i.e. local food), destination marketers must understand the dynamics of market segments. The food tourism market comprises different individuals who come together to form a homogenous group owing to their shared interests (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Smith & Costello, 2009). Given this, various scholars have examined the traits of “food tourists” and classified tourists according to some common characteristics.

Among the various classification methods, one that has gained popularity among researchers is Cohen’s (1972) tourist typology. Cohen’s (1972) typology classifies tourists based on their preference for familiarity and strangeness. He proposes a typology of tourists on a familiarity-novelty continuum: the “Organized Mass Tourist (OMT)”, “Individual Mass Tourist (IMT)”, “Explorer”, and “Drifter”. The differences among these tourist types are based on their degree of institutionalization. The least adventurous tourist is the OMT who prefers to stay in an environmental bubble and who have little or no contact with the host community. In other words, such tourists prefer the familiar so when it comes to food consumption, they prefer the well-known food. They prefer tour food packages or eat in international food chain restaurants. The IMT differs slightly from the OMT in that the IMT exercises some level of flexibility in their time and schedule. However, akin to the OMT, the IMT expects things that are familiar albeit their level of familiarity is “somewhat less so than in the preceding type of the experience of novelty is somewhat greater, though it is often of the routine kind” (p. 168). Regarding food consumption, IMTs have more food options based on their level of flexibility and they have a proclivity for food that they are well-acquainted with.

Cohen describes Explorers as tourists who try to get off the beaten track and socialize with host communities. Although they endeavor to stay out of their environmental bubble, they exercise some caution and go back to their bubble when the situation demands it. Although they try to seek some degree of novelty, they do not fully immerse themselves in the local community. In terms of food consumption, explorers have a greater tendency to try and eat in local restaurants and adopt new ingredients after their trip. Lastly, the Drifter is described as the direct opposite of the OMT. Drifters are tourists who try to immerse themselves in the host culture by living and working in the host community. Compared Explorers, Drifters immerse themselves completely in the host's culture and try a wide range of cuisines on their travels and they continuously search for a new food experience.

Despite the usefulness of Cohen's (1972) typology, Snepenger (1987) argued that the personality types did not fully apply in the marketing context. The author identified a connection with the behavioral aspects but not with attitudinal. In a later study, Cohen (1979) classified individual approaches to the tourism experience into five types: "Recreational", "Diversionsary", "Existential", "Experimental", and "Experiential". Applying this framework to food tourism, Hjalager (2003) modified Cohen's typology and identified four culinary tourist types: diversionsary, existential, recreational, and experimental.

In the context of food, recreational tourists are tourists that seek family togetherness and the pleasure of dining. To this segment, the quality of food and atmosphere is of little importance. In terms of food preference, recreational tourists are conservative when it comes to trying unfamiliar foods. They usually opt for familiar choices and foreign foods that they are accustomed to.

Diversionsary culinary tourists seek to modify their everyday food routine and also be entertained. To this category of tourists, a casual dining experience is viewed as an important avenue to bond with family, friends, and acquaintances.

Existential culinary tourists explore culinary experience as a way of learning. To this group of tourists, expanding their intellectual capital about indigenous or regional cuisine and the culture of a group of people in destination is of great importance. Therefore, they may engage in cooking classes and the harvesting of produce from farms. Again, existential culinary tourists prefer a restaurant where only local people eat.

Experiential culinary tourists regard food consumption as an integral aspect of their behaviors or lifestyle. This segment of tourists is ingenious and the quality of the food is important to them. Additionally, they are adventurous and are keen to explore novel ingredients and different ways of cooking and eating. For instance, based on their openness to trying different eating styles, they will try to use chopsticks when they travel to Hong Kong to eat Cantonese foods.

Based on the classification above, it can be observed that diversionsary and recreational tourists identify differently with authenticity than existential and experiential culinary tourists. Diversionsary and recreational tourists are more open to relaxation and enjoyment, with little emphasis on authenticity (Hjalager, 2003). While authentic and familiar foods may be apparent, diversionsary and recreational tourists have some similarities as they sample foods for pleasurable purposes.

Aside from Cohen's (1972, 1979) and Hjalager's (2003) classifications, other authors have identified different segments of food tourists. For example, Enteleca Research and Consultancy (2000) assessed tourists' perceptions and their curiosity in regional food while on vacation. Their study identified five categories of culinary tourists and was subsequently reported by Hall,

Sharples and Smith (2003) as food tourists, interested purchasers, un-reached, un-engaged, and laggards. They described food tourists as tourists who are mainly motivated to explore food and drinks. Interested purchasers are culinary tourists who believe that food consumption contributes to their enjoyment of their vacation experience, so they purchase foods when opportunities arise. To unreached tourists, food and drink are important contributors to their holiday enjoyment. They are excited to try local foods but are not interested in purchasing them. Un-engaged tourists do not perceive food and drinks as contributing substantially to their holiday experience, albeit they are not reluctant to try new local foods. Lastly, laggards pay little attention to traditional foods and are not likely to patronize local foods in their tourism activity.

In a different study, Mitchell and Hall (2003) combined the personality-related trait concept (i.e. neophobia/neophilia), Plog's (1974) allocentricism/psychocentricism, and involvement to propose a culinary tourist typology. The authors identified four types of culinary tourists: "Gastronomies", "Indigenous foodies", "Tourist foodies", and "Familiar foodies". They explain that the tourism experiences of these individual segments differ based on their behavioral traits.

Boyne, Hall and Williams (2003) also proposed a four-fold typology of culinary tourists. They categorized the culinary tourists into "*Type I*", "*Type II*", "*Type III*", and "*Type IV*". *Type I* culinary tourists refer to tourists for whom food is a key factor in their holiday planning. They vigorously search for information on traditional cuisines and the presence of local foods and drinks in an area's gastronomic heritage. Food is also important to *Type II* culinary tourists but they prefer to be exposed to food-related information. *Type III* culinary tourists place little importance on food as it is not regarded as the key factor in their tourism activity. However, they may engage in some activities that are food and drink-related, if there is any opportunity. Lastly, *Type IV* culinary

tourists are not interested in food and drink; hence, furnishing such tourists with food-related information will make a little impact on their behavior.

Ignatov and Smith (2006) identified three categories of culinary tourists: “food tourists”, “wine tourists”, and “food and wine tourists”. They submit that food tourists are the majority and there are more females than male food tourists. The wine tourists, on the other hand, are almost balanced between males and females and have almost the same average ages and educational levels as food tourists and food and wine tourists. Lastly, food and wine tourists tend to be male-dominated and are relatively older. They also have higher incomes and educational levels than food tourists and wine tourists. Regarding motivations, differences existed, with food and wine tourists exhibiting stark discrepancies in motivations and activities.

It can be deduced from the above that familiarity and strangeness is generally used to classify tourists according to their affinity or aversion to local foods. Various authors classify tourists’ food typologies based on indices such as lifestyle, personality-related traits, interests, and motivation, among others. This notwithstanding, the broader picture shows that tourists are more likely to seek out local foods if they are driven by novelty and uniqueness.

2.5 Previous studies on food tourism

In the last two decades, there has been an increase in the number of studies on food consumption and food tourism, drawing on both qualitative and quantitative methods (Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Lee & Scott 2015). These studies can be classified into various themes as discussed below.

The initial category of studies relates to how local food is used to develop a regional identity or achieve regional development. Studies within this category approached the

phenomenon from the supply perspective and they are largely socio-cultural. For example, Lin, Pearson, and Cai (2011) examined the relationship between food consumption and Taiwan as a food tourism destination. They identified food as essential in destination branding. In a previous study, Bessiere (1998) analyzed how indigenous food heritage transforms and redefines the French local identity. In the two studies above, the authors found local development to relate closely with the recreation of gastronomic knowledge and skills.

About the role of food tourism in developing regional identity, some studies offered ways to advance a region's food identity. Based on this, Harrington (2005) proposed a framework for measuring the identity of a food tourism destination. Fox (2007) also developed how the local food identity of a tourism place can be rejuvenated based on their heritage. Henderson (2009) is of the view that food identity and heritage can be examined through differentiation and rejuvenation of the destination creation process. For this reason, food is acknowledged as playing a crucial role in the development of destinations. Accordingly, there are studies (Bessiere, 2013; Boyne, Hall, & Williams, 2003; Hall, 2012; Sims, 2009) that examined how food tourism contributes to enhancing regional development. Through food tourism, regions can promote economic development, celebrate local culture, and construct local food systems (Green & Dougherty, 2008).

The second stream of research pertains to tourists' food consumption and experience. This stream of research has been largely examined from the demand perspective. Authors within this area of research lament the paucity of investigations, especially on tourists' food experience. Some of the few existing studies (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2014; Kim, Eves & Scarles, 2009; Quan & Wang, 2004; Richards, 2015; Therkelsen, 2015) have been discussed below based on four main streams.

The first stream emerged in the early stages when researchers sought to understand the phenomenon of tourist food experience (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Quan and Wang (2004) developed a model that measures tourist food experience, indicating that experiencing local food can either be a peak or supporting experience based on different circumstances. Similar studies have been conducted by other authors (Bardhi, Ostberg & Bengtsson, 2010; Getz & Robinson, 2014; Mkono et al., 2013; Tikkanen, 2007). Cohen and Avieli (2004), however, opposed the commonly held view of food being an attraction and argued that food could also impede the tourist experience.

The second stream of research predicted the behavioral intentions of tourists to consume local foods. For example, Ryu and Jang (2006) employed the modified theory of reasoned action to predict tourists' intentions to try local foods. Their model strongly predicted tourists' intention to consume local foods. Also, attitude and past behavior significantly predicted tourists' behavioral intention. In another study, Ryu and Han (2010) found strong predictors for tourists' intentions to try local cuisines. Specifically, attitude and past behavior were influential in predicting tourists' behavioral intentions.

The third group of studies concentrated on proposing theoretical models for tourists' food consumption. Kim and Eves (2012) developed a scale to measure tourists' motivations for consuming local foods. They identified "interpersonal relation", "cultural experience", "sensory appeal", "excitement", and "health concern" as motivational factors. In a previous study, Kim, Eves and Scarles (2009) used a grounded theory approach to examine the influential factors of tourists' local food consumption and they were motivational, physiological, and demographic. Mak, Lumbers and Eves (2012) used the theoretical model of food preferences (Randall & Sanjur, 1981) to identify the salient factors of local food consumption. The authors identified five psychological and socio-cultural factors.

The fourth stream of studies investigated the interrelationships among different constructs about tourists' food behaviors and experience at destinations. Kim et al. (2010) examined the relationship between food neophilic and neophobic traits, satisfaction, and loyalty of tourists. The study identified relationships between food neophobia and satisfaction and loyalty, while food involvement positively influenced loyalty. Also, Kim, Kim and Goh (2011) explicated the effects of food tourists' behavior and satisfaction on revisit intention using the modified theory of reasoned action. Seo, Yun and Kim (2017) examined the association between the tourists' psychological and emotional images of a tourism destination's food, preferences, and willingness to taste local food. Recently, studies are integrating memorability into tourists' food tourism experience. For example, Adongo et al. (2015) applied Kim et al.'s (2012) memorable tourism experience scale to tourists' food consumption and identified cultural factors to significantly predict tourists' behavioral intentions. Also, Tsai (2016) applied the memorable tourism experience scale in the food context and found that local food consumption creates a positive and memorable experiences that subsequently enhance strong attachment to local attractions and behavioral intentions. In one study, Sthapit, Del Chiappa et al., (2019) found that satisfaction, refreshment, novelty, knowledge, and involvement significantly influence the memorability of tourists' food experience. In a recent study, Sthapit et al. (2019) extended the memorable tourism scale to tourists' memories of local food experience and identified that memorability of local culinary experience significantly influences hedonic wellbeing.

It is evident from the review of studies on tourists' food consumption and experience that very few studies have focused attention on developing a scale to measure the memorability of tourists' food experience. Some authors (e.g., Tsai, 2016) have argued that local food consumption creates favorable memories of a trip, thereby having an impact on tourists' intentions and

attachment to a place. However, there are few studies that have examined tourists' memorable food experiences and there is hardly a comprehensive study that develops a valid and reliable scale for measuring tourists' memorable food experiences.

Additionally, there is a lack of an in-depth examination of tourists' local food experience. This observation reinforces the view expressed in previous studies (Kim et al., 2013; Richards 2012) that research on tourists' food experience is in its developing stages.

Table 2.2 Review of major studies on food tourism

Authors	Topical area	Research focus
Au and Law (2002); Kivela and Crotts (2006); Kivela and Crotts (2009)	Role of food in tourists' destination experience	Supply perspective
Ab Karim & Chi (2010); du Rand and Heath (2006); Harrington (2005); Hjalager and Corigliano (2000); Lin et al., (2011); du Rand, Heath and Alberts (2003)	Food and wine tourism as a destination marketing tool or regional identity	Supply perspective
Hall and Sharples (2003); Smith and Xiao (2008)	Examination of the relationship between various supply chains and local food system and the effect of food and wine on a rural area	Supply perspective
Boyne and Hall (2003); Boyne et al., (2003); Cambourne and Macionis (2003); Everett and Slocum (2013); Fox (2007); Hjalager (2002); Ottenbacher and Harrington (2013); Sharples (2003); Telfer and Hashimoto (2003)	Various case studies regarding food tourism and the strategies for the development of food tourism	Supply perspective
Hall and Mitchell (2001); Mak et al., (2012); Molz (2007); Scarpato and Daniele (2003); Hwang, Kim, Choe and Chung (2018); Kim, Choe and Lee (2016)	Food tourism under the effects of globalization, localization, and cosmopolitan mobility	Supply perspective
Bardhi et al., (2010); Cohen and Avieli (2004); Getz and Robinson (2014); Mkono et al., (2013); Quan and Wang (2004); Tikkanen (2007); Torres (2002)	A model or typology of the tourist experience based on food consumption or general food tourism	Supply and demand perspectives
Ignatov and Smith (2006); Kivela and Crotts (2006); Okumus, Okumus and Okumus (2008)	Existence of culinary tourists' and the segmentation of tourists	Demand perspective
Adongo et al., (2015); Chang et al., (2011); Correia et al., (2008); Ji, Wong, Eves and Scarles (2016); Kim, Eves and Scarles (2013); Law, To and Goh (2008); Pizam and Sussman (1995); Tse and Crotts (2005); Chang et al., (2010); Fields (2002); Kim and Eves (2012); Mak et al., (2012); Sparks et al., (2003); Choe and Kim (2018); Tsai (2016); Kim and Choe (2019); Sthapit et al., (2019); Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2016); Kim, Choe and Lee (2018)	Attributes that affect travel culinary experience, tourist satisfaction, or restaurant selection in a destination	Demand perspective

Source: Summarized by the author.

2.6 The concept of experience

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) are recognized as one of the pioneers to elucidate the customer experience concept and they asserted that customer experiences “are a steady flow of fantasies, feelings, and fun” (p. 132). Pine and Gilmore (1999) also argued that customer experiences are “events that engage an individual in a personal way” (p. 12). They further highlighted the subjective nature of consumer experiences by noting individuals’ cognitive, physical, affective, and spiritual engagements of experiences. Other marketing and management researchers have expanded this conceptualization by arguing that experiences emanate when consumers derive knowledge or sensation based on an active engagement between them and a firm (Gupta & Vajic, 2000; Mascarenhas, Kesavan, & Bernacchi, 2006).

The customer experience is multidimensional (Hwang & Seo, 2016), and to understand its nature, marketing scholars provided attributes that reflect this multidimensionality. Schmitt (1999), for instance, put forward five facets of “sense”, “feel”, “think”, “act”, and “relate” as encapsulating customers’ experience. Sense explains the sensory aspect of the experience such as smell, touch, taste, and sight. The feel component covers the affective aspect such as feelings or moods. Think is about the cognitive aspect and it involves a conscious process of the mind. Act is more physical or behavioral and it encompasses experiences that are associated with a product or its consumption. Relate captures one's relationship with others or experiences that align with a reference group. Other scholars identified dimensions of sensory, cognitive, emotional, pragmatic, lifestyle, and relational in different marketing contexts (Brakus, Schmitt, Zarantonello, 2009; Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007).

Beyond the marketing and management discipline, efforts to understand experiences in tourism can be traced to Clawson and Knetsch’s (1963) study when they identified that recreational

experiences involve five identifiable stages: “planning or anticipation”, “travel to the site”, “on-site experience”, “travel back”, and “recollection”. Cohen (1979) subsequently utilized a phenomenological perspective to explain experience by developing a typology that explains people’s spiritual values and noted that the essential drivers of tourist experience ranged from pleasure to the quest for authenticity and meaning. The author explained experience as a spectacular aspect of an individual’s engagement. Several scholars have since then examined experiences within tourism by exploring linkages between the concept, motivations, and authenticity (Ryan, 2002).

Two main research streams have emerged to examine tourism experiences. The first stream utilizes social science perspectives and addresses peak tourist experiences (Cohen, 1979; Quan & Wang, 2004) while the second is management and marketing related. The customer-centric perspective explicates supporting consumer experiences that are obtained from the experience (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Notwithstanding these two streams, tourism scholars generally concur that the term experience is complex to define as it is evolving, composite, and multidimensional. It has therefore received divergent conceptualizations from authors within tourism and hospitality. However, to synthesize the divergent viewpoints, experience commonly reflects a “totality of cognitive, affective, sensory, and conative responses, evoked by all stimuli encountered in pre, during and post phases of consumption affected by situational and brand-related factors filtered through personal differences of consumers, resulting in differential outcomes related to consumers and brands” (Godovykh & Tasci, 2020, p. 5). Tourism experience can be said to involve an integrated series of engagements that are individualized, subjective, and relational with an event, a person, process, or an object. The conceptualizations of experiences from different perspectives as identified in the extant literature are summarized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Summary of previous conceptualization of tourists’/consumer experience

Author(s)	Conceptualization
Holbrook and Hirschman (1982, p. 132)	Experiences involve “a steady flow of fantasies, feelings, and fun”
Carbone and Haeckel (1994, p. 18)	“the aggregate and cumulative consumer perception that is created during the process of learning about, acquiring, using, maintaining, and disposing of a product of service”
Pine and Gilmore (1998, p. 99)	“experience is inherently personal, existing only in the mind of an individual who has been engaged on an emotional, physical, intellectual or even spiritual level”
O’Sullivan and Spangler (1998, p. 23)	“events or feelings that occur prior, during, and after participation”
Schmitt (1999, p. 26)	Experiences “provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioral and relational values that replace functional values”
Gupta and Vajic (2000, p. 34)	“an experience happens when a customer has any sensation or knowledge acquisition resulting from some level of interaction with different elements of a context created by the service provider”
Shaw and Ivens (2002, p. 6)	“a blend of an organization’s physical performance, the senses stimulated, and emotions evoked, each intuitively measured against customer experience across all moments of encounter”
Mascarenhas, Kesavan, and Bernacchi, (2006, p. 399)	“A totally positive, engaging, enduring, and socially fulfilling physical and emotional customer experience across all major levels of one’s consumption chain and one that is brought about by a distinct market offering that calls for active interaction between consumers and providers”
Caru and Cova (2007, p. 35)	A “subjective occurrence that people go through pursuing a process of being immersed in an experiential context”
Gentile, Spiller and Noci (2007, p. 397)	“the customer experience originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a product, a company, or part of its organization, which provoke a reaction”
Larsen (2007, p. 15)	“a travel experience is a past personal travel-related event strong enough to have entered long-term memory”
Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello (2009, p. 53)	A “subjective, internal consumer responses and behavioral responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand’s design and identity, packaging, communications, and environment”
Palmer (2010, p. 197)	“experience is a learned outcome that is associated with predictable behavior, whereas on the other hand it has come to be associated with processes who novelty may result in unpredictable response by consumers”

Tung and Ritchie (2011, p. 1369)	“an individual’s subjective evaluation and undergoing (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral) of events related to his/her tourist activities which begins before (i.e., planning and preparation), during (i.e., at the destination), and after the trip (i.e., recollection)”
Bagdare and Jain (2013, p. 792)	“the sum total of cognitive, emotional, sensorial, and behavioral responses produced during the entire buying process, involving an integrated series of interaction with people, objects, processes and environment in retailing”
Godovykh and Tasci (2020, p. 5)	“totality of cognitive, affective, sensory, and conative responses, evoked by all stimuli encountered in pre, during and post phases of consumption affected by situational and brand-related factors filtered through personal differences of consumers, resulting in differential outcomes related to consumers and brands”

Source: Adapted from Godovykh and Tasci (2020).

2.7 The experience economy model

Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999), in their seminal study, introduced the experience economy model to explain a framework of experiential product consumption that has significant implications for the tourism and hospitality industry. They identified the evolution of economic offerings as following the stages of “extracting commodities”, “making goods”, “delivering services”, and “staging experiences”. Essentially, the authors claimed that in a modern-day competitive business environment, businesses not only produce goods, but also provide memorable services. Thus, while goods and services are superficial to end users, experiences are more idiosyncratic and exist in the minds of those who have had an engagement at a physical, intellectual, spiritual, and emotional level (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Following this seminal work, many studies have applied the experience economy concept in the different contexts (Kim et al., 2012; Oh et al., 2007).

Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999) categorized consumer experience into four realms centered on consumers’ extent of participation and association with the environment: education, aesthetic, entertainment, and escapism (Figure 2.1). These four realms are based on an individual’s degree of participation, which spans active to passive, and their relationship with their surrounding environment, which also oscillates between absorptive and immersive. Active participation refers to the degree to which the individual actively consumes a product and service. Passive participation involves the degree to which the individual observes and shows a mental presence. An absorptive connection depicts the extent to which the individual has a certain space to capture the experience while an immersive connection explains the extent to which the individual is involved with the experience. These realms of experiences have been utilized in various studies to examine tourists’

experiences in different settings (Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017; Hung & Petrick, 2011; Hall et al., 2003; Oh et al., 2007), and they have been subsequently explained.

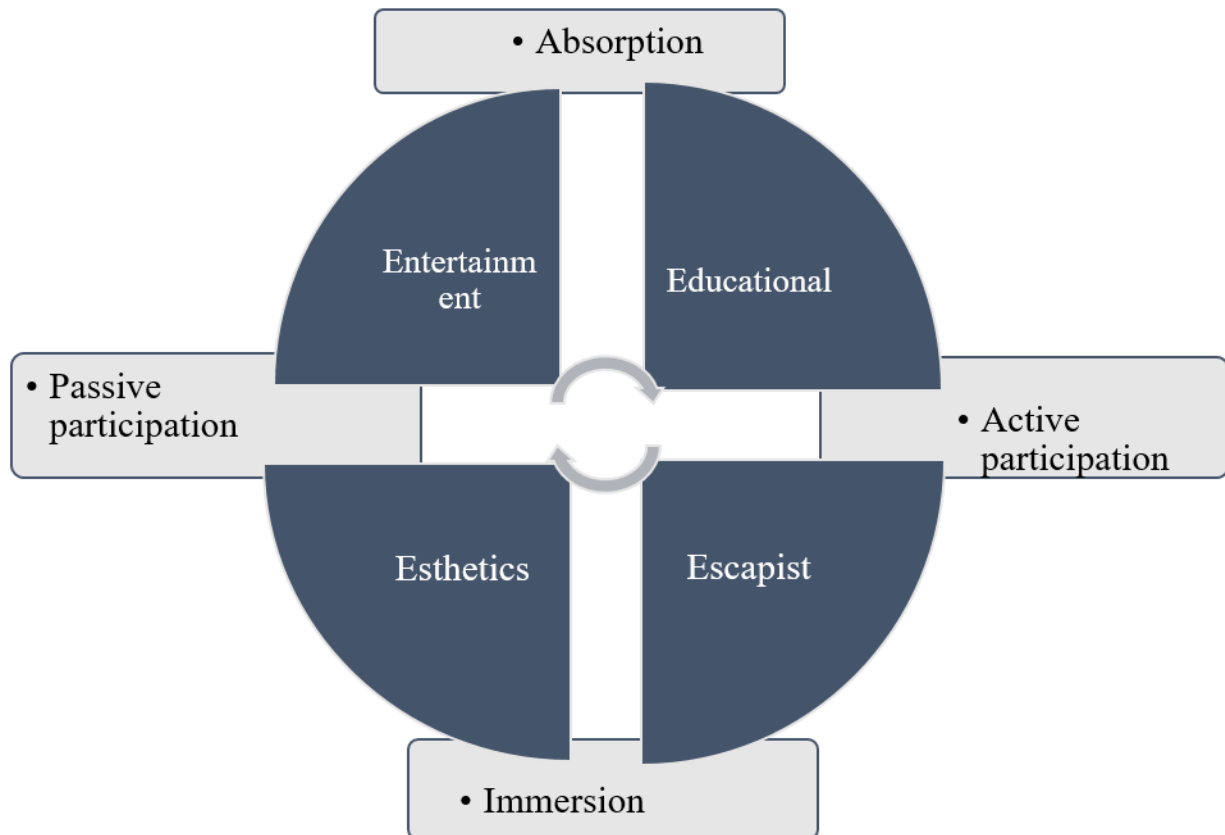


Figure 2.1 Pine and Gilmore's (1998) four realms of experience

Educational realm

Education is an important aspect of experience that is associated with the desire and curiosity to learn new things. Education engages the mind, intrigues an individual, and makes them want to learn new things within and outside their environment (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). It is a process of absorption as it engages a person's attention to bring "the experience into the mind" (Pine & Gilmore, 1999, p. 31). Thus, individuals who are involved in any educational pursuit or

experience increase their knowledge and improve their skills. Cartwright and Baird (1999) asserted that educational value emanates from three sources: the first value explains a situation where tourists are allowed to immerse or “dip in” and learn new cultures during vacation. Second, tourists learn about destinations, attractions, and notable landmarks when they are traveling and third, tourists learn from programs that are offered during their holidays such as wine tasting, and cooking classes.

Tourists gain educational experiences when they travel to overseas destinations to consume local foods (Hjalager & Richards, 2002). Education provides an opportunity for tourists to learn different ways of cooking and food preparation. For example, tourists can gain knowledge of local ingredients and recipes that are used to cook local foods, all the more so when the history of local food and knowledge of different eating styles and food presentation are important to tourists. Long (2004) asserts that tourists go through a process of learning and knowledge acquisition when they eat local foods, thereby increasing their cultural and intellectual capital.

Entertainment realm

Entertainment is an essential pull factor that draws tourists to a destination (Hughes & Benn, 1995). It is a form of experience that is passive in nature. Tourists get entertained when they passively observe activities that are enacted by others in their surroundings. Entertainment has a profound impact on tourists' experiences such that the variety of programs, activities, and events performed at a destination heightens tourists' excitement and satisfaction (Kim & Choe, 2019). Within the food context, tourists get entertained when they experience and taste a variety of locally prepared foods. Again, different activities (such as social activities, food festivals,

cooking classes) associated with food tasting entertains tourists when they travel to overseas destinations (Agyeiwaah et al., 2019).

Escapism realm

Within the “experiencescape” context, escapism explicates to the degree where an individual becomes captivated and immersed in an activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Escapism is particularly absorptive and requires active participation in an activity. Tourism, thus, becomes a significant medium through which individuals get opportunities to escape from their routine daily activities, challenges, and undertake activities that can refresh them and provide happiness and improved wellbeing (Krippendorf, 1987). Taking a tourism vacation provides a psychological escape from daily routines (Uriely, 2005). When tourists taste traditional food in a tourism setting, they immerse themselves in the food tasting activity and this psychologically helps them to forget about their challenges. Hence, eating local food in a different destination setting is an important escape for many individuals.

Aesthetic dimension

Aesthetics refer to individuals’ comprehension and interpretation of the physical environment, including atmosphere, designs, spatial layout, relics and symbols (Bitner, 1992). Aesthetic experience involves passive participation as the individual has little influence on the experiential outcome. Stated differently, in the aesthetic context, the individual or tourist is immersed in an activity, but this activity has little effect on the individual’s environment. Aesthetic

experiences are largely subjective and contextual; hence, aesthetic judgments can differ from one individual to the other (Kirillova, Lehto, Fu, & Cai, 2014).

In the food context, aesthetic experience can be observed in the tourists' judgment of the appeal of the food (as a product) itself as well as its surrounding environment (i.e., the context within which local food is consumed). Food aesthetics can be related to the sensory aspects of visual appearance, smell, and taste (Bjork & Kappinen-Raisanen, 2014). Nicely prepared and garnished local food with pleasant taste can enhance the aesthetic judgment and experience of tourists.

Despite the extensive use of these four dimensions in various studies, important food experience elements such as socialization (i.e., communion with friends and others), authenticity, and localness (local food cultural attributes) are not fully accounted for within the experience economy model.

2.8 Tourists' local food experience

Tourists' local food experience has received ample research interest (Agyeiwaah et al., 2019; Adongo et al., 2015; Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2014; Kim et al., 2020; Quan & Wang, 2004; Sthapit, 2017; Sthapit et al., 2019; Wijaya, King, Nguyen & Morrison, 2013; Williams et al., 2019). Local food consumption by tourists serves physiological needs and also functions as a form of attraction at a destination. To the tourist, consuming local food complements the opportunity for enjoyment, relaxation, freedom, and a sense of authenticity (Mak et al., 2012; Mkono et al., 2013). Consistent with the theory of cultural capital, eating traditional food in a tourism setting enhances the acquisition of cultural knowledge among visitors and allows them to

experience local culture (Fields, 2002; Hjalager & Richards, 2002). It also helps tourists to make new friends.

From the supply perspective, an authentic traditional menu and recipe represent a priceless cultural asset, even for lesser-known destinations, while representing a destination's unique ethnic or local identity (Chang et al., 2010; Choe & Kim, 2019). Therefore, developing a destination's indigenous ethnic food product can stimulate culture and tourism (Caber et al., 2018; Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009; Kim, et al., 2009), enhance national image and brand (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Seo et al., 2017), and diversify a destination's tourism resource (Agyeiwaah, et al, 2019; Ellis et al., 2018).

Tourism researchers have come up with various conceptualizations to measure tourist local food experience. These attempts have resulted in different outcomes; however, a consensus among the different conclusions pertains to local food consumption experience serving both utilitarian and hedonic functions. Utilitarian experiences or functions highlight what Quan and Wang (2004) refer to as “an extension of the ontological comfort of home” (pp. 301) where local foods are eaten as a simple necessity of everyday life. The utilitarian perspective affirms that tourists ingest local foods on a tourism trip for physiological purposes – i.e. to provide them with the necessary energy to continue their tourism activities.

From the hedonic standpoint, consuming local food at a destination provides pleasurable outcomes. Here, tourists seek to consume novel foods and derive novel food experiences. Consuming local food for hedonic purposes can translate into “peak touristic experiences” (Quan & Wang, 2004) whereby tourists feel positive emotions due to excitement, entertainment, sensory stimulation, and delight (Kim & Choe, 2019). Further, tourists can gain memorable tourism

experiences through the hedonistic function of local food consumption (Sthapit, 2017; Stone et al., 2018).

Beyond these two viewpoints, Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello's (2009) brand experience model has been used to examine local food experience (Cao, Li, DiPietro, & So, 2019; Mohamed, Hewedi, Lehto & Maayouf, 2020). Brakus et al. (2009) critiqued previous studies on their inability to fully capture the experiential dimensions of a product. The authors argued that the experience of a product transcends its utilitarian function to include many components. Subsequently, they proposed four aspects of experience: affective, sensory, behavioral, and intellectual. Affective experience comprises emotions, and sentiments. Sensory experience denotes aural, gustatory, auditory, tactile and olfactory perceptions. Behavioral experience is more physical and participatory, while intellectual experience encompasses knowledge-gaining and it is epistemic in nature. Sahin, Zehir and Kitapci (2011) concurred with Brakus et al. (2009) proposition by arguing that product experience includes cognitions, behavioral, affection, and sensorial responses.

Local food experience is described by many food tourism researchers to possess distinct features, and hence can be differentiated from tangible products and services (Choe & Kim, 2018). Consequently, Andersson and Mossberg (2004) argued that the local food consumption experience should be characterized as multidimensional. Mohamed et al. (2020), for instance, examined local food experience in relation to sensorial experience, intellectual experience, affective experience, and behavioral experience. Previously, Letarte, Dube and Troche (1997) revealed that the underlying factors of food experience involve emotional experience, social experience, sensorial experience, and functional benefits. Similarly, Schifferstein (2010) noted aspects of sensory, meaning, aesthetics, and emotions to encapsulate food experience. Even though previous studies explored the multidimensional nature of tourists' food experiences from a conceptual perspective,

they were unable to examine the individual local food dimensions or test their effect on behavioral attributes. Additionally, minimal attention has been paid to examining the memorability of tourists' local food experience.

2.8.1 The multidimensional nature of local food experience

The tourists' local food experience has been described by food tourism researchers as multidimensional (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004). Hence, many food tourism researchers hold the view that tourists' local food experience involves four main dimensions of sensory food experience, sentimental/affective food experience, cognitive food experience, and behavioral food experience (Mohamed et al., 2020). Mitchell and Hall (2003) argued that consuming local food involves the senses of sight, touch, smell, and taste. Also, the sensory aspects can be derived from the setting or the surrounding in which the food is consumed (Berg & Sevon, 2014). Previous studies have highlighted the centrality of sight, smell and taste (Sutton, 2011) as these senses have been found to evoke lasting memories of the local food experience, and they tend to be integral in tourists' decisions as far as food and drinks at a destination are concerned (Rousta & Jamshidi, 2020). Food tourism researchers have documented the important role of sensory perceptions in psychological and physiological appreciation of a destination's local food product as well as its impact in shaping the totality of tourists' destination experience (Kim & Eves, 2012; Kivela & Crofts, 2006).

Cognitive food experience has been explained to encompass varied opportunities to seek knowledge and stimulate one's curiosity and thoughts about the culture and local food of a destination (Getz, 2000; Hjalager & Richards, 2002). Tourists are stimulated by an eagerness to experience the indigenous culture of a people, including their local food. Tasting local food at a

destination provides tourists with epistemic benefits because tourists find local foods as a medium through which they can enhance their knowledge or cultural capital (Adongo et al., 2015; Choe & Kim, 2018; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Chang, Kivela and Mak (2011) revealed that tourists taste local foods to understand the symbolic meanings as well as learn the history of and enhance their knowledge about a destination's local food. The unique ingredients used to prepare local foods, the traditional food preparation, and preservation methods can be considered authentic and knowledge-enhancing (Kim, Park, & Xu, 2020). Schifferstein (2010) state that destinations can exchange cultures and learn more from each other through local food. This can enable tourists to exhibit who they are through local food.

Affective food experience involves tourists' feelings, sentiments, and emotions evoked through consuming local food (Kumar & Kaushik, 2018). Past studies have revealed that the feelings derived from utilizing a product or a service significantly inform post-consumption decisions and actions. For instance, Sthapit et al. (2017) found that emotional aspects of pleasant feelings, happiness, irritation, and worry were significant in evoking memorable experiences. Within the local food consumption context, emotions such as excitement, pleasure, and joy have been recognized as significant in the food experience. Again, these emotional facets have been referred to as affective value in some studies (Choe & Kim, 2018). In their study, Kim and Choe (2019) found that eating local food is associated with emotional benefits of excitement, relaxation, and building good memories. Kivela and Crotts (2006) argue that pleasant emotions contribute to making the food experience unique.

The behavioral aspects relate to physical actions and behaviors (Mohamed et al., 2020). Local food behavioral experience can also involve the act of eating the food as well as the interaction that goes on within the eating space. Previous studies have asserted that local food

experience entails an encounter with the local food itself, how the food is served, and the environment where the eating takes place (Bjork & Kaupinnen-Raisanen, 2014). These elements constitute behavioral facets of the food experience. Experiencing local food offers a medium through which tourists can gain pleasure and interact with others. Kivela and Crofts (2006) found that foreign visitors highlighted the behavioral aspects when they visited Hong Kong. They reported that watching local chefs preparing local foods in an open kitchen, visiting local restaurants on the streets, and gaining knowledge about how to prepare local Hong Kong cuisines enhanced their overall perception and satisfaction.

Aside from these main categorizations, other studies have found local food experience to involve dimensions of food (attributes), the individual, the place, the context, and the time (Bjork & Kaupinnen-Raisanen, 2014). Hansen, Jensen and Gustafsson (2005) found five dimensions of the core product (i.e. food), the interior design of the restaurant, social interaction between restaurant guests and staff, the eating company, and the restaurant atmosphere. Andersson and Mossberg (2004) suggested the addition of level of service quality to the four dimensions of food, interior restaurant design, social interaction, and eating company. Their study underscored the importance of “context” in measuring perceived food and eating experience. Previously, Letarte, Dube and Troche (1997) identified two aspects of objective and subjective experience. The objective experience includes eating place, type of event, and type of meal while the subjective experience entails sensory experience, social context, emotional experience, and physiological benefits. Further, the authors highlighted the inclusion of sensory and social aspects in examining food experience. Meanwhile, Desmet and Schifferstein (2008) examined food experience from positive and negative perspectives and identified five dimensions: product aspect, product type, activity, context, and agent. Recently, Bjork and Kaupinnen-Raisanen (2016) identified that on-

site food experience relates to the food, the place of eating, and the behavior of people and guests. They also found restaurant environment to be influential in the food experience.

In sum, the food and eating experience can be generally classified into four broad components: cognitive, sensory, behavioral and affective. However, based on studies conducted within different contexts, the experience can be synthesized as follows: food dimension, social dimension, place dimension, time dimension, and service place dimension. The food factor encapsulates characteristics that are related to the food, including the type of food, the quality of food, the category of food, and perceptions of food authenticity and novelty. The social aspect includes perceptions about the self and other people's behavior. The place dimension explains the location where the food experience happened (this includes the external place [destination] and the service place) while the time dimension explains when a food experience happened.

2.9 Memorability

Providing memorable customer experience has been focal within the experience economy (Oh et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1999) and in tourism (Woodside & King, 2001). The importance of a memorable tourism experience is widely acknowledged (Chen & Rahman, 2018; Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017; Kim, 2018; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Tung & Ritchie, 2011) and the potentiality to produce memorable experiences is linked to destination competitiveness and distinctiveness (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Oh et al., 2007; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Recollection of events, activities, encounters, and destination attributes are considered as drivers of future decision and destination choice (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Chen & Rahman, 2018; Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017; Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010; Kim, 2018). These recollections serve as filtering mechanisms that influence positive or negative attitudes, albeit destination success is hinged more on the formation

of positive memories (Oh et al., 2007). Significantly, the examination of tourists' behavior depends not only on their on-site experience, but also on their recalled experiences (Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, & Diener, 2003; Kim & Ritchie, 2014). Travel encapsulates hedonic consumption, positive emotions, and gratification. This helps to generate lasting memories which subsequently enable recurrent reminiscence and experience sharing (Chen & Rahman, 2018; Ma, Gao, Scott & Ding, 2013).

Tourism researchers have identified the centrality of memorability in the tourism experience (Pikkemaat & Schukert, 2007; Kim, 2018) as memory is the foundation of an experience (Poulsson & Kale, 2004) and reminiscences of tourism activities are likely to remain vivid and last for a long time (Cary, 2004; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Different terminologies have been used in the literature to describe memorable experiences, including “unforgettable” (Wikstrom, 2008), “special” or “spectacular” (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), “easier to recall” (Kim, 2010), “exciting” (Ihamaki, 2012), and “embodying superlative quality” (Bharwani & Jauhari, 2013). Succinctly, memorability denotes the potentiality of the tourist to think of a particular tourism event and form a positive attitude toward the product or tourism place linked with that event (Oh et al., 2007; Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Pine & Gilmore, 1998).

Previous studies have examined the antecedents of memorability (Morgan & Xu, 2009), the essence of memorable tourism experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), the dimensionality of memorable tourism experience (Kim et al., 2012; Kim & Ritchie, 2014), and the consequence of memorable tourism experience (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018; Zhong, Busser, & Baloglu, 2017). This thesis, however, examines the dimensionality of MLFTE and its influence on outcome variables such as attitudes, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. For this study, memorability is understood and measured as

tourists' subjective assessment of a local food experience that is positively remembered and retrieved retrospectively.

2.9.1 Examining memorability as a concept

Attempts to provide a holistic understanding of memorability have been made from two main perspectives: the objectivist and subjectivist perspectives. From the objectivist school of thought, memorability is seen as an attribute of an object, a person, or event that is memorable or worth remembering (Khosla, Bainbridge, Torralba, & Oliva, 2013). Researchers within the psychological and neuroscience fields view memorability as an intrinsic attribute of a person, an object, or an event, including images, scenes, or faces, that contributes to vivid recollections either in the interim or an extended period (Anderson & Shimizu, 2007; Khosla, Bainbridge, Torralba, & Oliva, 2013; Mancas & Le Meur, 2013; Saket, Endert, & Stasko, 2016). According to the objectivist perspective, memorability can be examined using an identifiable quality that triggers a recall of an event, an encounter, or a situation. It is also intended to measure the accuracy of memory performance.

However, proponents of the subjectivist school of thought argue that memorability is examined with a subject, and should therefore be viewed as an individual's capability to keep and recollect details (Saket et al., 2016). It can also be seen as a subjective feeling that an individual remembers vividly, accurately, and confidently in the future (Rimmele, Davachi, Petrov, Dougal, & Phelps, 2011; Zimmerman & Kelley, 2010). Two main points can be deduced from the thoughts of the subjectivists. First, memorability denotes the performance of memory and the extent to which that performance is precise (Rimmele et al., 2011). Second, memorability is realized as a feeling, judgment, and prediction that individuals generate about how memorable encounters or

happenings will occur. Within this frame of mind, experiences will be considered memorable if they are thought of by the individual as unique or salient and are usually recounted vividly.

2.9.2 Autobiographic memory

A conceptual premise for this study is an examination of how memories are formed and retained. In the literature, two main forms – general episodic memory and autobiographic memory – are used to explain memory formation (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Episodic memories are general and involve reference to others while autobiographic memory is more specific and pertains to an individual's self. Given that individuals evaluate and construct their own memorable experiences, this study draws ideas from the memory formation and retention concept (i.e. autobiographic memory) to examine tourists' MLFTE.

Autobiographic memory refers to a personal remembrance of experience (Piolino, Desgranges, Benali & Eustache, 2002). It focuses on the individual and is largely emotive and affective. It also centers on personal goals and how those goals are achieved (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). According to Conway and Pleydell-Pearce (2000), autobiographic memory consists of three forms: lifetime periods, general events, and event-specific knowledge. Lifetime periods usually have defined periods and timelines – for example, reminiscing a period when an individual lived in an African country. This lifetime period encapsulates some events or encounters that affect the individual, given its vague and “lifetime” nature. Lifetime periods also form the basis of time. General events shed light on repeated and specific events of the individual. They are also known as “mini-histories” (Tung & Ritchie, 2011, p. 1375) of activities and characterize vivid memories where an inceptive recollection of memory can signal the reminiscence of subsequent events. For instance, in a specific instance, an individual can recall a particular time when s/he embarked on a

tourism trip to Ghana. Regarding repeated events, the individual can remember multiple times when s/he walked by a beach to a particular restaurant. Event-specific knowledge explains a highly specific and vivid knowledge of a past event. An event-specific knowledge can take the form of a dialogue in which a tourist asks a restaurant staff about a particular traditional ingredient that is used in preparing local food.

In addition to the three main dimensions, autobiographical memory relates to two areas of work and relationship (Chadee & Cutler, 1996). The work dimension pertains to memories that an individual has about their daily routine. The relationship dimension, on the other hand, depicts memories of relationships and connections with other people. In these two dimensions, the work aspect pertains to the self while the relationship dimension relates to connection with others. Within the food tourism context, tourists can either eat alone or do so with other people. Tasting local food with other tourists and guests enables social connection and relationship building that generate pleasant memories of a trip. Again, eating with others enables tourists to engage with service staff and be a part of the service experience.

Considering that tourism experience is subjectively constructed by the tourist and reflect their perspectives and interpretations, remembered food tourism experience can be said to relate to autobiographic memory. Hence, recalled food tourism experience could entail cognitive, affective, behavioral, sensory, and social/physical factors.

2.9.3 Measurement of memorability

Given that memorability has been examined from two distinct perspectives, researchers traditionally use either the subjective or objective approach or their combination (Arnold, 2011). Subjective measurements rely on an individual's judgments or beliefs about memorable encounters

or events. Within the subjective context, researchers use qualitative measurements through self-reporting or in-depth interviews. Interpretive principles and qualitative paradigms such as social constructivism and phenomenology are commonly used to examine the subjective accounts and meanings of individuals' memorable experiences. Using this approach, detailed reports of individuals' feelings and their constructions of memorable experiences are realized. Tung and Ritchie (2011), for instance, used the subjective approach to examine the essence of memorable experience and found four main dimensions of “affect”, “expectations”, “consequentiality”, and “recollection”. Chandralal, Rindfleish and Valenzuela (2015) also used netnography to examine tourists' memorable experiences using narratives from travel blogs. They revealed that bloggers typically detail positive experiences in their memorable narratives and such positive experiences are related to seven thematic areas, namely shared experiences, local people, perceived novelty, personal experiences, life and culture, perceived serendipity, effective emotions related to memorable experience, and expert tourist guides and tour operator services.

Objective measures use behavior-based indication such as tests of performance, scores, and ratings (Campos et al., 2017; Schraagen & van Dongen, 2005) to appraise memory precision. Within the tourism context, objective measures involve the use of quantitative approaches to examine memorable experiences. Survey techniques together with probability sampling approaches and Likert-scale type questions have been predominantly used. Here, sampled respondents are asked to indicate their responses to a series of questions by rating the scores of each item after which cumulative scores are calculated using statistical analyses. This approach offers a more objective measure of the memorability phenomenon. For example, Kim and Ritchie (2014) used the MTE scale to cross-validate respondents' memorable tourism experiences and their study confirmed the accuracy of the seven identified dimensions of the MTE Scale. The

influence of memorable tourism experience on outcome variables such as destination image, destination loyalty, behavioral intention, and satisfaction has been documented in several studies (Adongo et al., 2015; Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017; Kim, 2018; Kim et al., 2010; Tsai, 2016; Zhang, Wu, & Buhalis, 2018).

Recently, a combination of subjective and objective measures has been employed by tourism researchers to provide a holistic understanding of memorability. This approach can be found in scale development studies and mixed methods studies (Cao et al., 2019; Kim et al. 2012). Servidio and Ruffolo (2016) also employed a mixed-method design to examine tourists' memorable experiences through narratives.

In this thesis, the subjective and objective approaches will be combined. The subjective approach will be utilized through content analysis and in-depth interviews to identify new items on MLFTE. A quantitative approach will then be used to develop the scale and test it on several outcome variables.

2.10 The local food and memory nexus

The connection between food and memory has been advanced in the literature, with researchers affirming food consumption to involve the indulgence of the five senses (Sutton, 2010; Vignolles & Paul-Emmanuel, 2014). Senses have been noted to have a strong connection to memory and scholars have even argued that memory may be connected to a sense (Sutton, 2011). Food consumption experience encapsulates sensory, emotional, cognitive, and behavioral aspects – these are significant in memory (Dube & Le Bel, 2003; Letarte et al., 1997; Sthapit, 2017). When tourists experience unique food experiences, those experiences are stored in their memory for future recollection (Stone et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2019). Scholars have identified the memory

of tourists as one of the most significant outcomes of a tourism trip (Braun LaTour, Grinley & Loftus, 2006; Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013). Nonetheless, the operationalization of memory in research has been complex as it involves several facets that relate to social, collective, or individual memory. That said, Holtzman (2006) describes memory as a process that involves giving meaning to previous events and encounters either at an individual or a more collective level.

A significant taxonomy used to elucidate memory is its categorization into episodic and semantic (Kowalski & Westen, 2009). Episodic memories reflect the events that an individual has experienced – for instance, a previous food tasting experience. Semantic memory explicates information that is stored as facts. Reminiscences of previous experiences are fetched from episodic memory, indicating some level of consciousness in such recollections (Kowalski & Westen, 2009). Previous research has elucidated the importance of understanding the impact and the significant role of memories. Scholars have found that encounters or events become unforgettable when they are unique or novel and have symbolic meanings (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2014; Kauppinen-Raisanen et al., 2013; Quan & Wang, 2004). For example, local food experience can be stored in memory when a tourist experiences a new form of local food symbolic of a local festival, or when it depicts the unique culture of a group of people. Furthermore, it can be stored in memory when it serves as a means to recreate nostalgic experiences or when it is associated with something iconic (Braun LaTour et al., 2007).

2.11 Conceptualization of MLFTE

Experience, as a concept, has received multiple interpretations from researchers in different fields (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Oh et al., 2007). However, within the tourism context, it is largely conceived as involving tourists' emotional, spiritual, physical, and intellectual interaction

with an object or an impression felt during a trip (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Tung and Ritchie (2011, p. 1369) state that tourist experience involves “an individual’s subjective evaluation and undergoing (i.e., cognitive, affective, and behavioral) of events related to his/her tourist activities which commence before (i.e., planning and preparation), during (i.e., at the destination), and after the trip (i.e., recollection)”.

Within the memorability context, authors have conceptualized memorable tourism experiences by emphasizing its subjective nature (Kim et al., 2012; Tsai, 2016). This is underpinned by the fact that the memorability of an experience is what the individual tourist evaluates, processes, and stores in memory. Therefore, a tourism experience felt by different people could be interpreted differently based on the individuals' evaluation and how they have stored that experience in memory (Ooi, 2005). Researchers are of the view that memorable tourism experiences are usually special and spectacular and they provide an exhilarating and a deep sense of gratification that is appreciated by tourists for a long time (Arnould & Price, 1993; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

Memorable tourism experience denotes tourists’ subjective evaluation of a tourism experience and their ability to easily retain and recall events (Kim, 2009; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). It encapsulates pleasant experiences that are remembered and retrieved retrospectively (Kim et al., 2012; Tsai, 2016). Tourism experiences that have made a positive mark on the memories of tourists can serve as a basis for new preferences and expectations (Larsen, 2007) as well as inform future consumption and travel decisions (Agapinto, Pinto, & Mendes, 2017).

The link between memorable tourism experience and food tourism experience has been discussed in the literature. Eating local food in a tourism setting involves intellectual, affective, behavioral, and sensory aspects that make a positive impact on tourists (Kim et al., 2012; Stone et

al., 2018; Sthapit et al., 2019; Williams, Yuan, & Williams, 2019). For instance, through food tourism, tourists get the opportunity to taste novel foods and experience local restaurants that are different from what they are familiar with (Kim & Eves, 2012). Again, tourists can build relationships and learn new ways of food preparation (Adongo et al., 2015; Di Clemente et al., 2018; Stone et al., 2018). Tsai (2016) asserts that tourists stimulate their senses and become excited through tasting local foods. Thus, the memories of the experience become a significant outcome of the food tourism experience (Sthapit, 2017).

Some conceptual arguments have been advanced in the literature concerning the memorability of food tourism experience. Central to these arguments is the recognition of the tourists' perspective in explaining the memorability of the experience. The subjective nature of the recollected experience has been dominant. Again, the memorability of food tourism experience has been recognized to span a myriad of "special" and positive encounters with the food tourism system. Further, tourists' ability to retrieve their food tourism experience from memory and use it for further decision making have been important. Therefore, synthesizing these points and drawing on ideas from Tsai (2016), this study conceptualizes MLFTE as a tourism-related experience in which a tourist generates positive memories and attitudes after s/he undergoes unique and spectacular food tourism activities, interactions, or events in person.

2.12 The dimensionality of MLFTE

Since the seminal works of various scholars on memorable tourism experience (Kim et al., 2012; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Tung & Ritchie, 2011), some research attempts have been made to extend the memorability concept into other domains of the tourism field. The food tourism literature, in particular, has seen some growth in the number of studies devoted to

understanding tourists' cognitive processes, how they form memorable experiences, and how they retain experiences in memory. Further, some attempts have been made at unraveling the factors that make up memorable local food experience within different destination contexts (Adongo et al., 2015; Sthapit, 2017; Sthapit et al., 2019; Stone et al., 2018; Tsai et al., 2018; Williams, Yuan & Williams, 2019). Previous studies have shown that when tourists derive pleasant and spectacular local food experience, they generate lasting and more positive memories of their unique experience (Di Clemente et al., 2020; Sthapit et al., 2019; Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016; Williams et al., 2019). Quan and Wang (2004) developed a model to examine tourists' local food consumption and argued that the food experience can be described as a "peak experience" or a "supporting experience" contingent on the levels of intensification and memorability. That is, if a local food consumption experience is a peak experience, it can leave an indelible mark on tourists' memories.

From different perspectives and contexts, food tourism researchers have conceptualized and identified some dimensions that inform tourists' memorable local food experiences. Significant within these explorations have been the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Within the quantitative perspective, Kim et al.'s (2012) MTE scale has gained utility (Adongo et al., 2015; Tsai, 2016). This scale identifies dimensions of novelty, hedonism, involvement, meaningfulness, refreshment, knowledge gaining, and local culture, and authors (Sthapit, Del Chiappa et al., 2019; Tsai, 2016) have found elements such as knowledge-gaining, local culture, hedonism, and novelty to be important to the local food experience. However, the scale is critiqued for its inability to fully capture novel components of memorable local food experience (Stone et al., 2018).

Novelty denotes a sense of newness or having a feel of a different local food experience (Quan & Wang, 2004). The search for new food experience has been highlighted as a significant

driver for many tourists and it is a core input for memories (Sthapit, 2017; Tse & Crotts, 2005). From a cultural perspective, experiencing local food enables tourists to appreciate unique cultures, including cooking and eating methods as well as hosts' friendliness and behavior (Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Wijaya, King, Nguyen & Morrison, 2017). Experiencing local cultures through local food enhances the memorability of tourists (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). The opportunity to enhance tourists' intellectual capital through learning local food history, local ingredients, and the local food culture of the destination is significant in forming tourists' memories. The sensorial aspects derived from consuming local food outside tourists' usual environment has been identified as significant in tourists' memories. Kim et al. (2009) posit that refreshment is about the state of mind of the tourist and the degree to which they engage in experiences that is manifested in a state of being energized or liberated.

Tourists' level of interest and involvement in traditional food activities and consumption is essential in creating memories of their experience. For instance, their involvement in local food preparation/cooking, tasting, buying of ingredients, and serving makes their experience memorable (Getz, 2000; Kim, 2010; Tsai, 2016). Further, tourists can derive meaningful experiences from their food activities (Tsai, 2016) as a meaningful food experience leaves a lasting impact on tourists' memories and enhance tourists' personal development (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Tsai, 2016). Much of the experience associated with travel has been linked to sensation-seeking (Otto & Ritchie, 1996). Similarly, local food consumption has a hedonistic element that can arouse tourists' emotions through sensory stimulation, entertainment, and enjoyment (Kim & Eves, 2012; Mak et al., 2012; Wang, Park & Fesenmaier, 2012).

Beyond the quantitative perspective that used pre-existing scales to examine memorable local food experiences, qualitative studies have unraveled other factors that inform tourists' memorable local food experiences. Using a grounded theory approach, Sthapit (2017), for instance, identified factors such as "local food attributes/taste", "novelty", "authenticity", "hospitality", "togetherness and social interaction", "servicescape", and "food souvenirs". The researcher elucidated that a significant component of a memorable food tourism experience is what is served to the tourist – i.e., local food. Hence, the attributes and the taste of local foods are imperative in forming a memorable food tourism experience. Again, the originality or authenticity of the local food, as well as the experience, is important in the memories of tourists. The camaraderie and socialization through the food experience are essential to many food tourists as they enjoy eating local food with friends, family, significant others, and other local people. Such shared eating experiences are usually memorable to tourists. Additionally, the hospitality of the hosts/service providers, the settings of eateries as well as opportunities to take home food-related souvenirs are important aspects that are memorable to tourists.

Stone et al. (2018) identified five broad factors that lead to memorable food or culinary travel experiences: "food", "location/setting", "companions", "occasion", and "touristic elements". These factors notwithstanding, they argued that a single element such as the setting of a restaurant, the local food, or the view of an eatery can be adequate to create a memorable food/culinary experience. In their further exploration of the "touristic elements", Stone et al. (2018) found the following dimensions: "novelty", "authenticity", "nostalgia", "variety", "surprise", "desire to return", "emotions/sensuality", "satisfaction", and "hedonism". More recently, Williams et al. (2019), through an inductive qualitative approach and triangulation, delineated attributes that inform memorable gastro-tourists' experiences. These attributes

pertained to “authenticity”, “sociability”, “emotions”, “foodie risk-taking”, “co-created relationships”, “travel stages”, and “deliberate and incidental tourists”.

In sum, some components have been identified by food tourism researchers to relate to the memorable food tourism experience. However, owing to contextual limitations as well as different perspectives, there is a lack of consensus or understanding on the dimensionality of MLFTE. A more comprehensive exploration and the development of a valid and reliable scale can provide clarity on this research area. This thesis therefore builds on previous studies and uses a rigorous process to identify the pertinent dimensions and develop a scale that can adequately measure memorable experiences within the food tourism context.

2.13 Attitude toward local food consumption

Attitude, as a theoretical concept, has stimulated research interests especially in psychology, marketing, and management. The definition of attitude has been provided from different perspectives, with Bohner and Wanke (2002) succinctly explaining attitude as a summary appraisal of an object. Kollmus and Agyeman (2002) view attitude as an enduring positive or negative feeling that an individual has about a person, object, or situation. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) delineate attitude as a psychological inclination shown by assessing an object with some amount of favor or disfavor. They argue that “inclination” has a more natural connotation and it can either be temporary or permanent. Previous scholars (e.g. Krech & Crutchfield, 1948) have highlighted the enduring nature of attitude. However, attitudes may not necessarily be lasting, but may change over time and in different situations. Individuals’ resistance to eating certain foods, their affection for a particular meal, or their attachment to an icon can be related to attitudes

(Bohner & Wanke, 2002). Scholars have argued that attitudes serve as a strong determinant of individuals' behaviors (Bagozzi, 1992).

Efforts to understand attitudes have been made within the tourism context (e.g. Huang & Hsu, 2009), with such efforts dominating the food tourism context. Tourists can develop an attitude toward a destination or local food and such attitudes can have an impact on their future decisions and behaviors. Soltani, Nejad, Azad, Taheri and Gannon (2021) argued that attitude toward local food can be seen as tourists' response to local foods or food service providers. Nonetheless, Choe and Kim (2018) postulated that tourists' attitude toward local food is a psychological tendency that is shown by a summary evaluation of local food that exhibits some degree of favor or disfavor. This definition provides a broader picture as it elucidates the cognitive and affective aspects of attitude. Further, it suggests that attitudes may be expressed following an encounter with an object or an event. As local food consumption is an experiential activity, this definition suggests that tourists can generate attitudes (through a summary evaluation) based on their local food experience. In line with this, the current study adopts Choe and Kim's (2018) definition of tourists' attitude toward local food.

In the literature, attitudes have generally been examined using a binary approach: the direct indirect approaches. Comparatively, the direct approach has gained wider utility based on its simpler and easy-to-use mechanism. Researchers employ a direct approach to elicit information from respondents using multiple items. Doing this, the Likert-type format and the semantic differential approach are frequently adopted. Respondents are inquired to show the extent of their agreement to attitude-related statements that are usually on a five or seven-point scaled-item (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). Regarding the indirect approach, researchers elicit information from respondents using a disguised format with experiments. They do so by using a manipulation

mechanism to examine the attitudes of participants towards the experimental stimuli. Of the two approaches, the direct approach is more useful and popular given its preciseness and reliability (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

Scholars argue that the degree to which an individual positively assesses an object translates to a favorable likelihood to experience that object (Bagozzi, 1992). Zhang (2008), for instance, found a positive association between attitudes and behavioral intention by explaining that tourists who have positive attitudes toward a limited-service hotel tend to patronize the same brand in the future, regardless of the price increase of the hotel. Furthermore, the study uncovered that tourists were willing to recommend or make positive pronouncement about the hotel brand to family, friends, and other people.

Some studies have examined tourists' attitudes within the food tourism context. For example, Phillips, Asperin, and Wolfe (2013) examined US residents' attitudes toward Korean food and found that respondents who had a more positive attitude were likely to eat Korean food and visit Korea than respondents who had negative attitudes. Choe and Kim's (2018) study revealed that the values derived from consuming local food significantly inform tourists' attitudes toward local food. The values of "taste/quality", "emotion", and "epistemic" significantly influenced tourists' attitude toward local food. Furthermore, the significant impact of "attitude toward local food" on "destination image", "intention to recommend local food", and "intention to revisit a food tourism destination" was identified. Recently, Soltani et al. (2021) identified the significant influence of tourists' local food consumption value, tourists' local food experiential value, and social media influencers on tourists' attitude toward local food. They also found that tourists' attitudes toward local food lead to behavioral intentions of recommendation and revisiting.

Since memories of tourists' local food experience are important in tourists' cognitive activities, examining tourists' attitude toward local food will provide a broader understanding of how tourists' memorable local food experience can inform their attitudes. Furthermore, this will be essential in destination management and marketing activities.

2.14 The concept of subjective wellbeing

Subjective wellbeing is an important subject of interest among scholars within psychology, management, tourism, and leisure (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; McCabe & Johnson, 2013; Uysal, Sirgy & Kruger, 2018). It denotes an individual's subjective or positive assessment of their overall life, including leisure (Diener & Lucas, 2004). Subjective wellbeing can also refer to a sense of comfort, happiness, and prosperity of the individual (McCabe & Johnson, 2013) and it is an aspect of positive psychology that explains people's affective and mental appraisal of their lives (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999; Mayer, Machado, Marques & Nunes, 2019). Diener (1984) discussed three attributes of subjective wellbeing. First, it involves a subjective feeling of the individual. Second, it is assessed positively by an individual, and third, it encapsulates an individual's overall assessment of life. Previous scholars argued that positive emotions associated with individuals' subjective wellbeing have an important influence on their mid and long-term behaviors (Carter, 2004). Thus, Uysal, Sirgy, Woo and Kim (2016) emphasized the importance of examining the mechanism of subjective wellbeing from a tourism perspective using tourists' emotions and experiences.

Two main philosophical traditions have been used to explicate wellbeing: hedonic and eudaimonic. Hedonic wellbeing encapsulates positive emotions, pleasure, and happiness (Vada, Prentice & Hsiao, 2019) and pertains to undergoing more enjoyable states and satisfaction with

life. Hedonic wellbeing is traditionally connected with subjective wellbeing whereas eudaimonic wellbeing captures the importance of self-realization, meaningful life, and personal growth (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Waterman, 1993; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff, 1989).

The theories of flow and optimal experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988, 1990), as well as the bottom-up spill over (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Diener, 1984; Sirgy, 2019), have used to explain wellbeing within the tourism context (Sirgy, Kruger, Lee & Yu, 2011; Sthapit et al., 2019). The flow and optimal experience theory posits that individuals increase their levels of happiness and wellbeing when they participate in activities that are highly engaging and which utilize their attention and skills (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988). In this context, the experience generated typically involves some level of intellectual, physical exploration, and tasks that result in clear goals and immediate feedback. The bottom-up spill-over theory states peoples' life satisfaction is usually underscored by satisfaction with an array of life domains. Thus, affect within a specific life domain accumulates and spills over to life in general (Sirgy & Lee, 2006). Since tourism involves activities that promote positive affect in various life domains, this positive affect translates into individuals' life satisfaction (Sirgy et al., 2011). For instance, a tourist can experience positive affect based on a previous trip. This feeling of satisfaction may stem from interacting with new people, sharing experiences, or making new friends. These positive feelings can increase his/her wellbeing and affect his/her overall sense of wellbeing or life satisfaction.

Various studies have examined the nexus between tourism and subjective wellbeing (Filep, 2014; Kim, Lee, Uysal, Kim & Ahn, 2015; Nawijn & Mitas, 2012; Saayman, Li, Uysal & Song, 2018). Tourism researchers postulate that traveling for leisure is an exercise that is undertaken in pursuit of happiness and it significantly informs tourists' wellbeing (Bimonte & Faralla, 2015; Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Furthermore, participation in tourism activities evokes positive mental

feelings that enhance tourists' subjective wellbeing (Wang, Liu, Huang & Chen, 2020). Uysal, Perdue, and Sirgy (2012) noted that tourists' satisfaction with their vacation in a tourism setting affects their life domains and overall life satisfaction. Furthermore, pleasant memories of tourism activity, as a hedonic experience, are important in tourists' subjective wellbeing (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018; Sthapit, Coudounaris & Bjork, 2019). Sthapit (2018) corroborated that memories reflect the existence of the extraordinary and added that when tourists return from a trip, they remember and recreate memories of their experience, enabling them to relive the experience for a long time (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Tung et al., 2017).

Within the food tourism context, a few studies examined how food tourism, as well as the memorability of tourists' local food tourism, informs their wellbeing. Tourists' overseas food consumption involves a highly sensual, emotional, social, and environmental engagement and can impact tourists' subjective wellbeing. For example, Apaolaza, Hartmann, D'Souza and Lopez (2018) indicated that organic food consumption has a significant effect on individuals' subjective wellbeing. In a recent study, Pourfakhimi, Nadim, Prayag and Mulcahy (2020) identified a connection between tourists' local food consumption and subjective wellbeing. Sthapit et al. (2019) examined tourists' memorable local food experience and hedonic wellbeing and found that tourists' who had pleasant memories of their local food experience had enhanced hedonic wellbeing.

2.15 Intention to recommend in the context of food tourism

Tourists' behavioural intention has been examined using theoretical support from the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) view behavioral intention as the chances that an

individual will undertake a particular behavior. It depicts the perceptual status or idiosyncratic inclination of an individual before enacting an actual behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975). Intention is influenced by attitudes and subjective norms and many studies have posited behavioral intention to become useful as an evaluative response to a product or situation as well as an important future goal (Leong, Ab Karim, Awang & AbuBakar, 2017). Understanding tourists' intentions is important in developing strategies to attract tourists and ensuring that they make positive recommendations about a tourism product or destination. Destination managers can allocate their scarce resources effectively in their marketing strategies based on knowledge of tourists' behavioral intentions.

Tourists' intention to recommend is crucial and its centrality has been identified in different contexts (Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, & Del Chiappa, 2017; Widjaja et al., 2020). Recommendation intentions signify, among others, an affirmation of tourists' affinity to a tourism product or a destination (Hosany & Prayag, 2013) and this is evident when tourists derive unique, satisfactory, or memorable tourism experiences. Tourists tend to make positive pronouncements or recommendations so that family, friends, and other people can visit a tourism destination and have a similar experience (Hosany & Witham, 2010).

Intention to recommend is also central in the food tourism context as it reveals tourists' positive intentions about a destination and a local food (Choe & Kim, 2018). Tourists communicate their experiences and make positive word-of-mouth recommendation when they derive positive local food experiences (Phillips et al., 2013; Adongo et al., 2015). Recent studies have furthermore contended that the proliferation and utility of the internet enable tourists to show their intentions about local food and food tourism destinations. Kim and Choe (2019), for instance, postulated that an intention to leave positive reviews and share photos of local food and food tourism destination

on social media (for example, Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, YouTube, etc.) are important items in the food tourism context.

Studies that have examined tourists' intentions have identified antecedents such as consumer value, destination image, service quality factors, and tourist satisfaction. For instance, Duman and Mattila (2005) found that factors such as novelty, control, and hedonics had a strong influence on the behavioral intentions of customers of cruise ships. Kivela and Crofts (2006) identified that local foods in Hong Kong influenced tourists' evaluation of the destination and informed some travelers' revisit to the same destination to consume local foods. Adongo et al. (2015) examined tourists' memorable food experiences and identified local culture to influence tourists' intention to recommend local foods to their family, friends, and other people. Tsai (2016) also revealed a strong connection between tourists' memorable food experiences and behavioral intention, with hedonism, local culture, knowledge, and refreshment having significant effects. Recently, Choe and Kim (2018) found that tourists' attitude towards local food positively and significantly influenced their intentions to inform others about local foods and their intentions to patronize a destination for food tourism.

Drawing on ideas from the theory of planned behavior, this thesis assesses the intentions of tourists within the memorable local food tourism context. Important items of recommendation, saying positive things about local food, and leaving positive reviews on social media will be utilized in the study.

2.16 Destination loyalty in the context of food tourism

The tourism literature has long directed attention on explicating factors that determine tourists' visitation, revisit patterns, and variables that strengthen tourists' emotional bonds to

destinations (Crompton, 1979; Lau & McKercher, 2004; Sun, Chi & Xu, 2013). Among these explorations, tourists' loyalty behaviors have come up strongly. Loyalty denotes a "deeply held commitment to re-patronize or re-buy a product or service consistently in the future" (Oliver, 1999, p. 3). Regarding food tourism, it connotes tourists' strong willingness or commitment toward a tourism destination and its local food resource (Di-Clemente et al., 2019).

Investigation of destination loyalty is essential for both academics and practitioners. For destination managers, knowledge of destination loyalty is essential in explaining tourists' expenditure and income generation. This is because when tourists are loyal to a destination, they are more likely to extend their stay and spend more (Opperman, 2000). Besides, marketing costs are lower for tourists who are repeating their visits as opposed to targeting first-time or new visitors (Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu, 2014). As revealed by other scholars, tourists' loyalty behaviors are strengthened through positive and memorable experiences (Sun, Chi & Xu, 2013).

Researchers have employed different approaches to analyze tourists' loyalty behaviors. While some researchers examined loyalty from an attitudinal or behavioral perspective, others used a combination of both approaches (Zhang et al., 2014). The attitudinal element explains tourists' attitude toward a destination or an attraction, while the behavioral relies on a parsimonious utilization of repeat visits (Opperman, 2000; Pritchard & Howard, 1997). Chen and Gursoy (2001), however, argue that an amalgam of attitudinal and behavioral perspectives provides a better illustration of tourists' loyalty toward destinations because focusing solely on repeat visits may not wholly explain tourists' loyalty. This view is even more crucial in the food tourism context because tasting local food inherently involves an affective component that can be significant in determining tourists' loyalty behaviors. Furthermore, as various destinations are leveraging local food to gain a competitive advantage, it is important to examine tourists' loyalty behaviors within

the food tourism context. Previous studies within food tourism have traditionally relied on behavioral aspects of revisits and recommendations as proxies for destination loyalty (Di-Clemente et al., 2019; Folgado-Fernandez, et al., 2017). However, there is the need to incorporate items that capture commitment in order to enhance understanding of this concept. Various scholars (Stylos & Bellou, 2019; Yoo, Donthu & Lee, 2000) have proposed that elements that denote tourists' willingness to continue their tourism activities despite constraints at a destination, consistent consideration of a destination as a first choice in future decisions, a strong commitment to a destination, and consistent choice of a particular destination in future travel can be used to adequately measure destination loyalty.

In consonance with arguments from previous studies, this thesis examines destination loyalty using a composite approach that combines attitudinal and behavioral factors. Since destination loyalty has not been adequately examined within the food tourism context, both attitudinal and behavioral items will be taken from previous tourism studies and applied in the food tourism context.

2.16.1 Measurement of destination loyalty in the context of food tourism

As loyalty generally denotes individuals' re-patronage or re-purchase behavior consistently in future, previous studies in marketing, and hospitality and tourism have utilized several items to measure loyalty (Di-Clemente et al., 2019; Gounaris & Stathakopoulos, 2004; Grisaffe, 2001; Kim, Kim & Hwang, 2020; Perez & Del Bosque, 2015). Commonly, these measurement items reflect the behavioral, attitudinal and reasoned action perspectives. For example, Kim et al. (2020) examined customer loyalty in the retail industry using revisit and recommendation intentions as measurement items. Similarly, Chi (2012) measured destination loyalty as an intention to revisit a

tourism destination and a willingness to recommend a tourism destination. Li, Hua, Fu and Liu (2021) measured loyalty behaviors in the travel context using “I will recommend the travel agency to others”, “I will spread positive word of mouth about the travel agency” and “I will rebook the travel agency again”. Within these studies and others, the authors did not distinguish between loyalty items of intention to revisit and intention to recommend; instead, they measured them as a single construct.

However, the present study contends that food tourism entails a type of travel in which food experiences occur as a major activity and /or tourists are driven to select a destination to experience local food. Furthermore, tourists can develop a commitment toward a local food tourism destination to experience local food again consistently in the future (Soltani et al., 2020). Given these reasons, there is the need to explore tourists’ loyalty within food tourism adequately using separate constructs. This can provide a deeper understanding and help determine which loyalty behavior attribute tourists more likely engage in. As previous memorability researchers have argued, tourists will more likely recommend or bring others to a tourism destination than revisit it because of the notion of that they may not have the same memorable tourism experience as they had previously (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Nonetheless, this assertion may be different in the food tourism context because the elements characterizing memorable local food tourism experience are distinct from general tourism experiences (Stone et al., 2021; Williams et al., 2019). Hence, the need to examine loyalty using separate constructs is imperative. The importance of examining loyalty behaviors as separate constructs in food tourism has been highlighted in a previous food tourism study (e.g., Choe & Kim, 2018). Recently, Rasoolimanesh, Seyfi, Hall and Hatamifar (2021) examined memorable tourism experiences and tourists’ loyalty behaviors in a heritage tourism context using two separate constructs of revisit intention and word-of-mouth intentions.

A similar approach was also used in Kim's (2018) study on memorable tourism experience and destination loyalty.

Based on the foregoing, this study measures loyalty using two separate constructs: word-of-mouth or intention to recommend, and tourists' loyalty to a food tourism destination. Intention to recommend will be denoted by items of "I would like to say positive things about a destination's local food" and "I would like to recommend a destination's local food to friends and family". Loyalty to a food tourism destination will focus more on commitment aspects and be represented by items such as "I think that I have a strong commitment toward a food tourism destination to eat its local food again", "I would like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future tourism destination to eat local food", and "I think that eating local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food".

2.17 Summary

This chapter has presented a review of the literature. It began by examining key concepts and previous studies on food tourism. It then discussed "experiences" from different perspectives and examined previous studies on experiences. The experience economy model and the notion of memorability were also examined. Further, the nexus between local food consumption and memorability were discussed, leading to an exploration of the dimensionality of MLFTE in previous studies. Finally, topics on attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend and destination loyalty were thoroughly examined. The next chapter presents the conceptual model and outlines the hypotheses formulated for the study.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the reason for developing a scale for MLFTE. It also outlines the conceptual framework of the study and the hypotheses that guide the study.

3.2 Development of conceptual model and hypotheses

3.2.1 Proposed conceptual model

A conceptual model is proposed that is founded on a thorough literature review. Salient variables are identified and interrelationships among these identified variables are examined. The model, which depicts constructs and their corresponding interrelationships, is illustrated in Figure 3.1. From the model, the MLFTE dimensions are hypothesized to positively influence attitude toward local food. Attitude toward local food consumption is hypothesized to positively affect subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Last, food tourism place, food-related personality trait, and food tasting experience are proposed to moderate the relationships among the various constructs.

Dimensions of MLFTEs

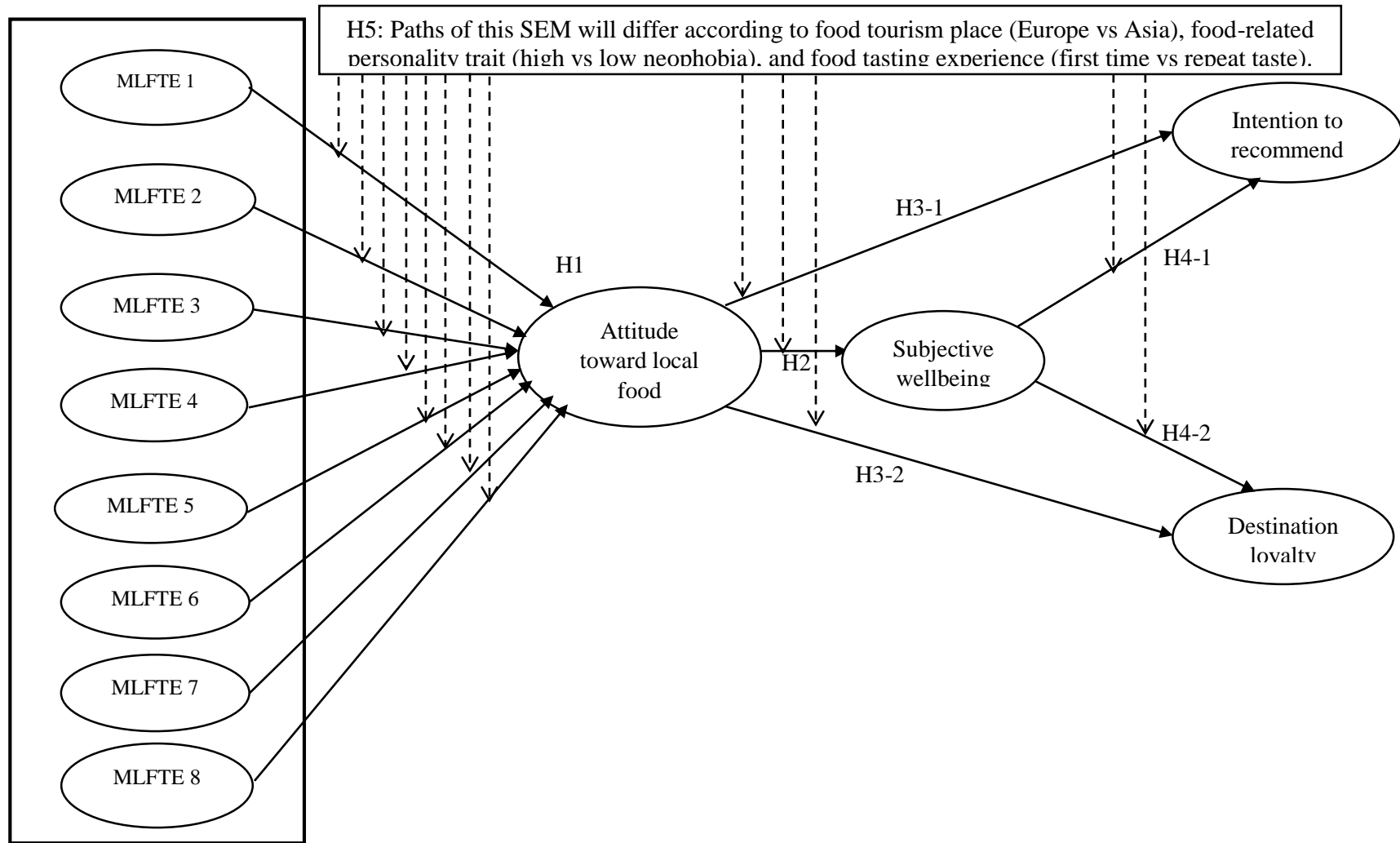


Figure 3.1 Proposed conceptual framework

Note: MLFTEs denote Memorable Local Food Tourism Experiences.

3.2.2 Relationship between MLFTE and attitude toward local food consumption

In marketing, the consumer experience has been explained to convey intellectual and emotional states that consumers go through when they interact with a product or an event (Li, Daugherty, & Biocca, 2001). The experience gained through such interaction can be direct or indirect based on the extent of possible interactions with the product. An experience that makes a positive impact on consumers results in favorable attitudes and intentions toward a product (Dong & Siu, 2013; Meng & Cui, 2020; Pleyers & Poncin, 2020; Reimer & Kuehn, 2005; Sthapit et al., 2017; Tussyadiah, Wang, Jung, & tom Dieck, 2018). The memorability of an experience (i.e., cognition) has been espoused by authors to connect strongly with subsequent attitude (i.e., emotion) towards a product or an event (Coghlan & Pearce, 2010; Kim et al 2012). Bagozzi (1992) and Lazarus' (1991) cognitive appraisal theory has been useful in explaining the connection between cognition and emotion (attitude) in cognitive psychology. Scholars have further affirmed that more pleasant experiences evoke positive memories that shape tourists' subsequent attitudinal evaluations and behavioural intentions (Han & Kim, 2009; Meng & Cui, 2020; Oh et al., 2007).

Research on the connection between memorable experience and attitude toward products has gained momentum over the years, especially in the marketing and retail contexts. However, this research area has gained little traction in tourism, especially in the food tourism context. Malim and Birch (1989) draw on the tripartite model to explain that attitude towards a product has a combination of psychological, emotional, and behavioral components. However, Eagly and Chaiken (2007) argue that attitudes can be expressed based on only one component or any combination. Ajzen (1991) corroborates this by explaining attitude as a psychological tendency that is informed by an evaluation of an event, encounter, or behavior. Choe and Kim (2018) situate this in the food context by explaining attitude toward local food as a psychological tendency that

is expressed as a summary evaluation of particular food with a degree of favor or disfavor. This suggests that attitudes can be developed based on an individual's experience and evaluation of a product (in this context, local food) (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007; Phillips, Asperin & Wolfe, 2013). Within the consumer behavior literature, the semantic differential approach and Likert-type scale have been largely used to measure attitude. Specific items indicating positivity, favorability, pleasantness, and good have been used to examine individuals' attitudes (with favor or disfavor) towards a product or an event (Bohner & Wanke, 2002; Phillips et al., 2013).

Scholars have explained memorability in the food tourism context as an experience that involves positive memories generated after a tourist undergoes unique food tourism activities (Sthapit, 2017; Tsai, 2016). The multidimensional nature of memorability in the food context has also been identified as previous studies have unraveled certain factors. Kim et al. (2012) revealed seven broad factors that characterize memorable tourism experience. Sthapit's (2017) qualitative study identified seven broad factors – “local specialties and food attributes”, “authenticity”, “novelty”, “togetherness and social interaction”, “hospitality”, “servicescape”, and “food souvenirs” – as the dimensions of memorable local food experience. Stone et al.'s (2018) qualitative study revealed “novelty”, “authenticity”, “nostalgia”, “variety”, “surprise”, “desire to return”, “emotions/sensuality”, “satisfaction”, and “hedonism” as facets of touristic elements in memorable food experience. Currently, there is no consensus on the dimensions of MLFTE in the literature.

Memorable tourism experience is significant in shaping tourists' attitude toward local food consumption (Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017; Dong & Siu, 2013; Kim et al., 2010; Reimer & Kuehn, 2005; Sthapit et al., 2017). MLFTE through unique taste, relaxation, meaningful food consumption, new knowledge, local food culture, among others can boost tourists' desires and

subsequent attitudes to consume local foods at a destination. Tourists in their local food explorations form social relationships and deepen social connections at exotic destinations (Tsai, 2016). When a psychological or emotional relationship with local foods is established, a positive attitude can be formed on the basis of local food consumption. Generating new knowledge and the learning of different cultures through food consumption provoke positive memories and attitudes following the consumption experience (Adongo et al., 2015; Sthapit et al., 2017). Tourists derive some sense of refreshment and energy from overseas food consumption as it offers a liberation from the psychological and physical fatigue related with travel.

Some studies have found that memorable food experience can inform tourists' attitude toward local food. For example, Kauppinen-Raisanen et al.'s (2013) study revealed that food memories can affect attitudes and determine food acceptance, which can affect tourists' desire to relive the experience in the future. Kivela and Crofts's (2006) work also showed that food is integral in influencing tourists' overall attitude following local food intake in a tourism setting as well as their overall destination experience. Different connections have also been made in other contexts (Meng & Cui, 2020; Tussyadiah et al., 2018). However, Choe and Kim's (2018) study evidenced that individual dimensions of local food consumption outcomes can have varying effects on attitude toward local food. After examining seven local food consumption outcomes, they found that local food taste and quality, emotions derived from consuming local food, and knowledge-gaining aspects significantly influence attitude toward local food.

In spite of the studies above, there are no studies on the linkage between the individual facets of memorable food tourism experience and subsequent attitudes toward local food. In this study, attitude toward local food is anticipated to be different across the individual dimensions of MLFTE. In other words, the individual dimensions of MLFTE will each have an effect on attitude

toward local food. Given this idea, the hypothetical model breaks down the memorable food tourism experience into seven facets tentatively based on previous studies: taste, novelty, authenticity, hedonism, social interaction, knowledge-gaining, hospitality, and servicescape. In light of the discussion above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: MLFTE dimensions positively influence attitude toward local food.

3.2.3 Relationship between attitude toward local food and subjective wellbeing

An increasing amount of research within dietetics and nutrition has examined how food consumption influences the health and wellbeing of individuals (Apaolaza, Hartmann, D'Souza & Lopez, 2018; Bublitz, Peracchio, et al., 2013). Block et al. (2011) used “food wellbeing” to explain the positive cognitive, affective, physical and social outcomes that individuals experience through food tasting. “Wellbeing” is a complex concept, especially when it comes to how individuals perceive wellbeing within food contexts (Apaolaza et al., 2018; Ares, de Saldamando, Gimenez, & Deliza, 2014). Nonetheless, Ares et al. (2015) assert that food-related wellbeing entails five domains: health, calmness, happiness, satisfaction with life, and positive emotions. In their study, they found that eating food improves the wellbeing of individuals. The impacts of food consumption on perceived wellbeing were strongly associated with pleasure, emotional, and perceived physical health of individuals. Their study validates claims that food consumption does not only affect individuals’ wellbeing within the nutritional context, but it also increases hedonic aspects (Guillemin et al., 2016; Rozin, Bauer & Catanese, 2003) that subsequently affects consumers’ wellbeing.

Within the social research context, subjective wellbeing has been used to express a sense of comfort, happiness, and prosperity of the individual (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Tourism

researchers have linked tourism experiences with tourists' subjective wellbeing and life satisfaction, revealing that undertaking a vacation or participating in leisure/tourism activity at a destination enhances tourists' happiness and their life satisfaction (Dolnicar, Yanamandram, & Cliff, 2012; Gao, Kerstetter, Mowen & Hickerson, 2018; Nawijn, 2011; Saayman, Li, Uysal, & Song, 2018; Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Yu, 2011; Sthapit et al., 2019). Memorable tourism experiences have also been posited to contribute to tourists' happiness and wellbeing (Morgan & Xu, 2009; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Different models have been used to understand subjective wellbeing in the tourism context. However, Gao et al. (2018) argue that wellbeing is best considered as encapsulating hedonic (i.e. subjective wellbeing) and eudaimonic dimensions. Recognizing that research in tourism has mainly focused on the subjective dimensions, with local food consumption involving hedonic components, this study adopts the hedonic and eudaimonic items (using happiness and life satisfaction) (Diener et al., 1985; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) to offer a better explanation of subjective wellbeing within the context of memorable food tourism.

Empirical evidence for the influence of MLFTE on the subjective wellbeing of tourists can hardly be found in the literature. There are also few studies that have examined the connection between attitude toward local food consumption and subjective wellbeing. That said, Sthapit et al. (2019) found a strong direct effect of memorable local culinary experiences on tourists' hedonic wellbeing. Their findings confirm an earlier study by Sthapit and Coudounaris (2018) who noted that tourists' reminiscences of a trip positively affected their subjective wellbeing. Opperman and Cooper (1999) maintain that engaging in an activity that generates memorable experiences enhances the subjective feelings of wellbeing. In another study, Ares et al. (2015) found that the organic component is important among food characteristics when consumers were asked to describe food and its effect on their wellbeing. Vega-Zamora, Torres-Ruiz, Murgado-Armenteros

and Parras-Rosa (2014) found that individuals related excitement and pleasure with the intake of organic foods. Further, some studies have tested the linkage between food consumption and consumers' subjective wellbeing whereas others have examined the opposite directional effect of wellbeing on consumers' motivations to consume organic foods. For example, Bauer et al.'s (2013) study revealed that health orientation and hedonism were two main motives of organic food purchases.

Making inference from previous studies which argued that individuals form favorable attitudes on the basis of their positive consumptive and memorable experiences (Choe & Kim, 2018; Dong & Siu, 2013; Reimer & Kuehn, 2005; Sthapit et al., 2017), one can assert that positive attitudes toward local food can lead to a positive disposition, which in turn can affect tourists' subjective wellbeing. Previous studies have emphasized the connection between positive memorability and improved subjective wellbeing (Huang et al., 2019; Sthapit et al., 2019). Accordingly, a positive attitude generated as a result of positive memories of a local food experience can significantly affect tourists' subjective wellbeing. Kim and Choe (2019) found that tourists' attitudes toward local food consumption is associated with consumption outcomes including the pursuit of personal happiness, entertainment, socialization, self-satisfaction and achievement. In an earlier study, Mkono et al. (2013) revealed that a positive food attitude is associated with an enhancement in personal fulfillment. Hernandez-Mogollon, Di-Clemente and Campon-Cerro (2020) found that positive states deriving from food-based experiences and memorability inform life quality and wellbeing. Against this backdrop, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Attitude toward local food positively influences subjective wellbeing.

3.2.4 Relationship between attitude toward local food and intention to recommend

Previous studies on individuals' attitudes have demonstrated that attitude plays an important role in post-consumption decisions or behaviors (Bagozzi, Dholakia & Basuroy, 2003; Maio & Haddock, 2010). The tri-component attitude model and the theories of reasoned action and planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) have provided a strong theoretical foundation on how individuals' attitudes, in combination with cognition and subjective norms, influence behavioral intention. Food tourism researchers have theorized that tourists generate favorable attitudes when they consume local foods (Choe & Kim, 2018). Moreover, attitude toward local food represents a response that is elicited after experiencing local food at an overseas destination and such responses can influence tourists' intention to recommend local food or intention to make positive pronouncements and leave positive reviews on social media (Choe & Kim, 2018; Kim & Choe, 2019; Soltani, Nejad, Azad, Taheri, & Gannon, 2021).

As a precursor of behavioral intentions, attitude has been examined in diverse contexts in the literature. For example, Zhang (2008) found that tourists' positive attitude towards a hotel significantly affected their intention to recommend the hotel. Miao and Haddock (2010) contend that attitudes informed individuals' behavior toward their environments. Within the food context, Lee (2009) postulate that tourists' positive attitude toward the local food in a tourism setting has a high tendency to impact their recommendation intentions about that destination to others. It has also been shown that residents who have positive attitudes toward local food have intentions of recommending local Korean food (Phillips et al. 2013).

Based on empirical evidence from previous studies, it can be asserted that attitudes drive tourists' intentions towards local foods. Therefore, a favorable attitude toward a local food

experience is significant in explaining tourists' intention to recommend local food to others. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3-1: Attitude toward local food positively influences intention to recommend.

3.2.5 Relationship between attitude toward local food and destination loyalty

The connection between attitude toward local food and tourists' loyalty behavior is yet to receive adequate attention in the food tourism literature (Di-Clemente et al., 2019). Nonetheless, previous marketing researchers argued that commitment toward a product or a brand triggers subsequent patronage, irrespective of a situational influence (Oliver, 1999). Similarly, a positive attitude toward a product can inform high loyalty behavior because the individual evaluates a product or an experience with a degree of favor that subsequently heightens their commitment toward that product. When a tourist generates a positive attitude toward local food, s/he likely has a high commitment toward a local food or a food tourism destination and attempt to have more of such food experience at the destination. Di-Clemente et al. (2019) note that when tourists are loyal to a food tourism destination, they will prefer to stay longer and experience more of the destination. Furthermore, these tourists consider that food tourism destination as the first-choice option for food tourism among other competing destinations (Stylos & Bellou, 2019; Yoo, Donthu & Lee, 2000). Stylos and Bellou (2019) affirm that tourists' commitment toward a destination can reflect in their willingness to continue a holiday activity despite constraints in the destination.

Previous studies also indicated that tourists' high valuing of their local food experience provokes a positive emotional rapport with a destination (Silkes, Cai & Lehto, 2013; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Furthermore, the relationship between satisfaction and destination loyalty has been

verified within the food context (Zhang, Chen & Hu, 2019). Within the memorability context, Di-Clemente et al. (2019) found that tourists' memorable food experience positively affects destination loyalty. They also revealed that tourists' desire to consume local food as well as their pleasant memories of the food tourism experience trigger positive destination loyalty behaviors. Although empirical evidence linking attitude toward local food to loyalty to a food tourism destination is scarce, deducing that tourists' positive attitude toward local food positively affects their commitment toward a food tourism destination is possible because as tourists evaluate local food favorably, they tend to consider a food tourism destination as their first choice, exhibit a strong desire to subsequently taste local food at that destination or attempt to further explore other local food at the destination. Consequently, this hypothesis is posited:

H3-2: Attitude toward local food positively influences destination loyalty.

3.2.6 Relationship between subjective wellbeing and intention to recommend

Individuals' wellbeing as an important predictor of behavioral intentions (Cho et al., 2020; Lin, 2014) has been discussed in different fields. While behavioral intention connotes one's propensity to engage in a certain behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975), an evaluation of their happy state and life satisfaction associated with a tourism or leisure activity can inform the individual's intention positively (Lin, 2014; Mannell & Klieber, 1997). In the same vein, consuming local food at an overseas tourism destination provides positive experiences that can enhance the happiness and life satisfaction of tourists, thereby leading to a positive intention to recommend local food (Apaolaza et al., 2018; Pourfakhimi et al., 2020; Sthapit et al., 2019). Previous studies examined the connection between subjective wellbeing and behavioural intentions in different contexts and revealed a strong connection between these two variables (Kim et al., 2012; Lin, 2014). Within

the leisure context, Cho's (2020) study revealed that the life satisfaction of leisure participants significantly informs their intention to recommend. Lin (2014) found that tourists who evaluate their well-being highly likely recommend hot springs.

These studies notwithstanding, few empirical attempts have been made to examine tourists' subjective wellbeing and intention to recommend within the memorable local food tourism context. The present study fills this gap by empirically testing this relationship. In an earlier study, Kim and Choe (2019) indicated that local food consumption value, comprising items such as the pursuit of a healthy life, self-satisfaction, and achievement, positively influences tourists' intention to recommend local food, and willingness to spread positive messages through reviews on social media. In light of this idea, the current study proposes that when tourists evaluate their well-being as positive on the basis of their local food tourism experience, they become inclined make positive recommendations about local food to other people. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4-1: Subjective wellbeing positively influences intention to recommend.

3.2.7 Relationship between subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty

Previous studies postulated that positive outcomes of tourism experience such as positive emotions, quality of life, and subjective wellbeing are significant in influencing loyalty behaviors (Hernandez-Mogollon et al., 2020; Wang, Liu, Huang & Chen, 2020; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007). For example, Hosany and Prayag's (2013) study revealed that tourists who have higher positive emotions have greater loyalty perceptions. Similarly, Jamaludin et al.'s (2016) paper illustrated that people's wellbeing (i.e., positive affect and life satisfaction) significantly predicts destination loyalty. In a spa tourism context, Han, Kiatkawsin, Jung and Kim (2018) found that travelers'

positive affective response to spa wellness tourism experience significantly informed their overall satisfaction and destination loyalty formation. In a recent study, Wang et al. (2020) found a significant positive effect between tourists' subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty.

Local food consumption experience has been posited to positively inform tourists' subjective wellbeing (Di-Clemente et al., 2019; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). However, the connection between tourists' subjective wellbeing and their loyalty behaviors has gained little traction. This relationship is central in explaining how tourists evaluate their life satisfaction or their positive state after a food tourism activity informs their commitment to a food tourism destination. Graham and Markowitz's (2011) work demonstrate that life satisfaction has a strong effect on an individual's commitment and intention to stay longer at a destination. Hernandez-Mogollon et al. (2020) also affirm that local food that is enjoyed through quality experiences enhances the quality of life and subsequently encourages tourists' loyalty to experiential food-based practices. Based on the notion that local food experience can enhance tourists' subjective wellbeing, it suffices to propose that tourists who evaluate their wellbeing positively after a MLFTE can exhibit a strong loyalty behavior toward a food tourism destination. In view of this notion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4-2: Subjective wellbeing positively influences destination loyalty.

3.2.8 Moderating effects of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (food neophobia), and food tasting experience on SEM

Tourists' memories of food tourism experience can be perceived differently based on where the experience occurred. Previous studies argued that situational factors such as the tourism environment can influence the nature of tourists' experience (Chi & Qu, 2008; Kim, 2014). Within

the food tourism context, experiences can be elicited within a small context such as a local restaurant or a locality, or in a large context such as a destination country. In this study, a food tourism place is used to denote a destination country where tourists had their MLFTE. The uniqueness of tourism destinations is evident in their attributes, making one tourism destination different from another (Uriely, 2005). Kim (2014) state that attributes of a destination, including hospitality, service quality, activities, and local food culture or history, are important in determining memorable tourism experiences. Furthermore, contrasts in culinary cultures or settings of a destination country can elicit different experiences from different tourists. For instance, a tourist who travels to France for food tourism may have a different food tourism experience and perceive it differently from their experience in Japan. Although a limited conceptual argument about the moderating role of food tourism place in the memorable local food tourism literature appears, some studies have suggested that experiences, attitudes, and knowledge about food differ in certain contexts. For example, Piha et al. (2018) examined consumers' knowledge and their tendency to patronize insect food by using Northern Europe and Central Europe as research contexts. They found that in Central Europe, experiences that are directly related to products and food neophobia were greater predictors of the idiosyncratic and unbiased knowledge of consumers compared with those in Northern Europe. Furthermore, consumers within the Northern European context have a more positive attitude toward insect food than consumers in Central Europe. Tsai's (2010) study also revealed differences in a shopping mall entertainment context. Given that food tourism occurs in different places and is marked by different destination attributes, the idea that tourists' MLFTE will be perceived differently according to food tourism place can be posited. In this thesis, European and Asian destination countries will be used as proxies for food tourism place.

Apart from food tourism place, food-related personality trait can inform tourists' MLFTE (Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016; Kim, Suh, & Eves, 2010). Food-related personality trait refers to personal characteristics or attitudes that individuals exhibit toward food (Ji et al., 2016). Within the literature, food neophobia and novelty-seeking are used to denote food-related personality trait. Strong food neophobia explains a predisposition to dislike or be suspicious about a novel or unfamiliar food (Lai, Wang, Khoo-Lattimore, 2020; Pliner & Salvy, 2006). Conversely, low food neophobia depicts novelty-seeking persons who like to try new food, have adequate local food knowledge, and consider local food as an essential part of their experience. Food neophobia may be considered as a psychological activity or a response (Caber et al., 2018). Studies have also found food-related personality traits to associate strongly with tourists' preferences, place attachment, destination image, and experiences (Hsu & Scott, 2020; Ji et al., 2016; Lai et al., 2020). Furthermore, scholars have revealed that tourists who show a high food neophobia tend to exhibit a low attitude toward local food, are skeptical about food safety, and are unaccustomed with host culinary cultures and eating methods whereas tourists with low neophobia (i.e., novelty seekers) have positive attitude and high tolerance for novel food (Lai et al., 2020). Given the psychological nature of food neophobia (i.e. high and low) and the outcomes from previous studies, deducing that plausible differences exist between tourists with high neophobia and those with low neophobia in their perception of MLFTEs, attitude toward local food, wellbeing, and loyalty behaviors is possible.

Tourists' MLFTE and evaluation can differ among tourists based on their food tasting experience. Tourists who have previous experience with tasting local food at a tourism destination likely interpret their MLFTE differently. Furthermore, their attitude toward local food can be perceived differently from a tourist who is tasting local food for the first time. The tourism

literature has revealed considerable differences between first-time and repeat visitors (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Li, Chen, Kim & Petrick, 2008; McKercher & Wong, 2004). On the one hand, first-timers are more exploratory in nature and participate in a wide range of activities, resulting in varied experiences. Repeat visitors, on the other hand, are more destination-aware and pragmatic in nature (Lau & McKercher, 2004). Li et al.'s (2008) study revealed that in their destination experience evaluation, repeat visitors feel more positive and are satisfied than first-time tourists. In the restaurant context, Ryu and Han (2011) found that first-time and repeat visitors perceive their experiences differently when they evaluate restaurants' physical environment. Tse and Crotts (2005) found that repeat visitors undertake a wider range of novel food explorations than first-time tourists. These findings notwithstanding, the literature is unclear about the moderating role of food tasting experience within the memorable local food tourism literature. Meanwhile, an examination of these variables can advance our understanding of how tourists perceive their MLFTE differently on the basis of their attributes.

From the foregoing discussion about the moderating roles of food tourism place, food-related personality trait, and food tasting experience, the study hypothesizes that the patterns of significance on path coefficients will differ across the groups within the aforementioned moderating variables. The statistical significance of paths starting from the MLFTE of tourists through attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty is different among the groups (i.e., food tourism in Europe vs. food tourism in Asia, high vs. low neophobia, first-time to taste local food vs. repeat taste) in the above-mentioned moderating variables. The following hypotheses are, thus, proposed:

H5: Food tourism place (Europe vs Asian countries) (H5-1), food neophobia (high vs. low) (H5-2), food tasting experience (first-timer vs. repeated) (H5-3) moderate the effects of the proposed model among MLFTEs and outcome variables.

3.3 Summary

After a review of previous theoretical and empirical studies, this chapter has formulated nine main hypotheses and proposed a conceptual model to test the effect of MLFTE on tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. H1 examines the effects of the various dimensions of MLFTE on attitude toward local food. H2 determines the influence of attitude toward local food on subjective well-being. H3-1 examines the effect of attitude toward local food on intention to recommend. H3-2 explores the impact of attitude toward local food on destination loyalty. H4-1 determines the influence of subjective well-being on intention to recommend. H4-2 explores the effect of subjective well-being on destination loyalty. The moderating roles of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience are hypothesized (H5-1, H5-2, H5-3) among the various paths within the conceptual model. The next chapter explicates the methodological procedures of the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter presents the methodological procedures of the study. First, it provides insights into the philosophy that guides the study. Following this, issues regarding the procedure for developing a MLFTE scale are outlined and discussed. Other topics, including the choice and justification of the study area, specification of items and domain of construct, and the generation of an initial pool for the scale, are also explained. Further, the chapter discusses the techniques, methods, and approaches that were employed to select the study participants and conduct the pilot-test, the main survey as well as the data analysis. Lastly, a summary is provided to conclude the chapter.

4.2 Philosophical perspectives of the study

This section explains the philosophical, epistemological, and ontological stance of the study. Philosophical assumptions are a set of beliefs that explain what should be studied, how research should be conducted, and how the results of a study should be interpreted (Bryman, 2008). In other words, philosophical assumptions are general views about the world that a researcher holds (Creswell, 2009). Given the objectives of the study, the study adopts the positivist philosophy of research. Research grounded in positivism emphasizes conceptualization, objective empirical observation of individual behavior, testing of resulting behavior about a set of probabilistic causal laws, and deductive logic to explain the general pattern of a social phenomenon (Song, 2017).

Epistemologically, this study utilizes a scientific method of objective, observable, and measurable facts to make generalizations about the memorable local food tourism phenomenon. The study also uses statistical approaches and methods to explain MLFTE and its interrelationship between outcome variables of attitude towards local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Epistemologically, the outcome of this study will enhance knowledge on MLFTEs. Furthermore, the findings will be useful for predictions and generalizations.

Ontologically, this study emphasizes that reality is external, independent, and objective. Hence, the measurement of reality using a quantitative approach is appropriate for this study. This study argues that a causal relationship exists among MLFTE, attitude towards local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. These hypothesized relationships are consistent with the positivist ontological ideology, which asserts that reality causes exist and causality is the rule of nature (Cresswell, 2012).

4.3 Research design

As with scale development studies, this study adopts a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to scientific inquiry. It must be noted, however, that given the objectives of the study, the quantitative approach is more dominant than the qualitative approach. Specifically, the qualitative aspect of the study enabled the gathering of qualitative data through content analysis and in-depth interviews with experts and a tourist who had the experience of consuming local foods in their tourism activity. This approach is employed in this study because it ensures reliability, validity, and objectivity of results, thereby contributing to a better understanding of the MLFTE phenomenon.

4.4 Development of an MLFTE scale

Efforts to understand “experience” within hospitality and tourism have been made by several researchers. Many authors have provided different conceptualizations and made research attempts to comprehensively measure and explain the tourism experience. In recent years, Kim et al.’s (2012) memorable tourism experience scale has gained wider utility in explaining tourism experience. The scale is composed of seven constructs: “novelty”, “hedonism”, “refreshment”, “local culture”, “involvement”, “meaningfulness”, and “knowledge gaining”.

Despite its applicability within the broader tourism experience context, its wholesale utility within the local food context does not provide a comprehensive picture of MLFTE as it overlooks other pertinent aspects. For example, the memorable tourism experience scale has been criticized for restricting the local culture construct to only social interactions with local community members, thereby overlooking the impact of local food on the tourism experience (Sthapit et al., 2019). More so, the scale ignores important food and dining-related dimensions like servicescape attributes, service experience, and sensorial aspects of local food experience. Local food consumption is a notable activity that amplifies the tourism experience (Adongo et al., 2015; Tsai, 2016). It is also one of the tourism-related activities that make tourists reminisce about their experience as it arouses the senses and elicits mental, affective, and physical recollections (Holtzman, 2006; Sutton, 2010). However, the centrality of local food in contributing to the tourism experience is not captured adequately in the memorable tourism experience scale. Given these drawbacks, it is crucial to develop a reliable and valid scale that can measure tourists’ MLFTE.

The extant literature points out some common steps of scale development. Hinkin (1998), for instance, identified six steps to scale development. They are (1) item generation, (2)

administration of questionnaire, (3) reduction of initial items, (4) performance of confirmatory factor analysis, (5) convergent/discriminant validity, and (6) replication. Despite these steps, researchers do not completely agree on the sequence of steps to develop a scale. Nonetheless, many studies commence scale development with the identification of items through a thorough literature review. After the identification of items, constructs are identified and developed. Next, a series of content and construct validity checks, pretesting of items, revision, and pilot testing of the research instrument are initiated. The process ends with a final revision of the items, a confirmation of validity and reliability of the constructs and the conduct of the main survey (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003, 2017).

The present study follows the proposition of Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2003) to develop a reliable and valid scale that measures MLFTE. The scale is developed in seven stages: (1) construct domain specification, (2) item generation, (3) experts' review of the collection of items, (4) purification of measurement, (5) data collection, (6) assessment of reliability and validity, (7) main survey. Figure 4.1 presents this seven-step procedure. Even though these steps have been applied in the fields of marketing and psychology, they are not fully utilized in research on memorable local food tourism.

Figure 4.1 Procedure for developing MLFTE scale

Stage	Method
<p><u>Stage 1</u> Specification of construct definition and conceptualization</p>	<p>Literature review of studies on memorable tourism experience including gastronomic experiences in overseas tourism destinations.</p> <p>Four academics reviewed the texts and ascertained the items.</p>
<p><u>Stage 2</u> Generation of a pool of items and determination of the format for measurement</p>	<p>Literature review of studies on tourists' MLFTE</p>
<p><u>Stage 3</u> Experts' review of the pool of items</p>	<p>In-depth interview with 10 experts; checking for content validity check; checking for construct validity</p>
<p><u>Stage 4</u> Pre-test</p>	<p>Purification of the items using 50 doctoral students.</p> <p>Content validity check and construct validity check.</p>
<p><u>Stage 5</u> Pilot test (Assessment of reliability)</p>	<p>Pilot test using two groups:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A sample of 100 US tourists who visited European countries (except the UK) and a sample of 100 US tourists who visited Asian countries since 1st January 2017. <p>EFA to check the factor dimensionality; reliability test.</p>
<p><u>Stage 6</u> Main survey (Assessment of reliability and validity)</p>	<p>Main survey using 900 US tourists who had MLFTE in Europe except UK (n=450) and Asian countries (n=450) since 1st January 2017.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - EFA and CFA. - Check for data reliability coefficient, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and criterion validity (predictive validity)
<p><u>Stage 7</u> Main survey (Testing hypotheses)</p>	<p>Analyses: Structural equation modelling; Multi-group analysis</p>

4.5 Specification of items and domains of construct

Previous studies (Churchill, 1979; Hinkin, 1998) have proposed that the initial stage of scale development scale is the identification and definition of the domains of a construct. Here, researchers need to determine their inclusion and exclusion criteria in order to clearly establish the items that need to be measured (DeVellis, 2017). Concerning the notion governing sampling of domains, it is nearly impossible for the researcher to exhaust all items for the domain of interest. Thus, the selected items must be adequate to represent the constructs that are being examined (Hinkin, 1998).

Within the literature, some studies have examined memorable tourism experiences from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives (Adongo et al., 2015; Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Kim, 2014; Kim et al., 2012; Sthapit, 2017; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). However, identifying the dimensions of MLFTE has been challenging given the paucity of studies and the type of approaches utilized in the studies. For instance, a common limitation pertains to the specificity of a destination's local food and characteristics that only pertain to a destination. This approach generates different factors/dimensions that are pertinent to those destinations only. Consequently, there is a lack of consensus on the specific dimensions of MLFTE from a perspective that can be generalized to different destinations.

The review of relevant literature identified 12 broad themes that relate to MLFTE. They include novelty, hedonism, refreshment, meaningfulness, authenticity, local food culture, knowledge-gaining, hospitality (service quality), social interaction, ambience and aesthetics, food souvenirs, local food attributes and taste (sensory experience). These items are operationalized/defined as follows:

Novelty/curiosity refers to the newness sought by the tourist through local food consumption (Quan & Wang, 2004) and it also expresses the difference in the local food experience sought by the tourist to a food tourism destination compared to his/her previous experience (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Hedonism explains the sensual pleasure which includes thrill, excitement, pleasure, and indulgence in the food tourism experience (Stone et al., 2018). Refreshment elucidates tourists' escape from their usual routine and stressful environments to relax and recharge through eating local food (Tsai, 2016). Meaningfulness explains an avenue through which tourists find relevance and significance through local food consumption in their tourism activity (Adongo et al., 2015). Local food culture is defined as an opportunity presented to the tourist to experience unadulterated local cultures through local food consumption (Sthapit, 2017). Knowledge pertains to tourists enhancing their intellectual capital through learning the history of local foods as well as exploring new forms of knowledge and learning how to prepare local foods at a tourism destination (Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Tsai, 2016).

Authenticity refers to tourists' experience of traditional foods that depict the identity of the local people in a tourism destination. Authentic local foods can be perceived by the tourist as genuine, original and real (Williams et al., 2019). Social interaction explains tourists' opportunities to connect and engage with family, friends, and local people through tasting local food in a tourism context (Kauppinen-Räsänen et al., 2013). Hospitality (service quality) refers to tourists' general feeling of warmth or welcome within the foodservice environment. It can also explain the extent to which the service staff is evaluated by the tourist as helpful, friendly, well-mannered, and eager to go the extra mile (Stone et al., 2018). Ambience and aesthetics depict an immersion in the local food experience through the physical environment (including, layout, décor, background music, etc.) of the local restaurant or eating environment (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; Sthapit, 2017).

It connects tourists visual and non-visual senses to the eating environment and results in a positive subconscious effect leading to a memorable local food experience (Richardson, Lefrid, Munyon, & Rasoolimanesh, 2019). Local food attributes are the core characteristics of the food and its sensory aspects (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2016). Food souvenirs explain the utilization of tangible local food items for the purpose of reconstructing, serving as a reminder, and possibly spreading a food-related or sensory experience (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016; Sthapit, 2017).

4.6 Generation of a pool of items and determination of the format for measurement

The generation of items to examine specified domains is the second step in scale development (Churchill, 1979). Therefore, to maintain a connection with the in-depth interviews and guarantee content validity in the final scale, the logical partitioning or classification-from-above (i.e. deductive approach) (Hinkin, 1998, p. 106) was used. This approach utilizes theoretical definitions of constructs generated from the literature review (DeVellis, 2003). The initial items used to measure MLFTE were derived from past studies on food experience, local food experience, memorable local food experience, memorable tourism experience, and food tourism experience. A total of 75 items were identified from 26 studies (Table 4.1). Also, the Likert-type measurement format was employed for this study given its wide applicability and utility in the tourism literature. This format also provides a reliable measure for examining perceptions, beliefs, experiences, and attitudes and offers a way to measure respondents' extent of agreement on the measurement items (DeVellis, 2003).

Table 4.1 Initial pool of MLFTE items

Novelty/curiosity		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1.	Once-in-a-lifetime experience	✓						✓							✓										✓	✓	✓
2.	Unique experience	✓				✓		✓	✓						✓	✓				✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
3.	Different from previous experiences	✓						✓	✓						✓							✓			✓		
4.	New food experience	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓			✓						✓	✓	✓			✓
5.	Stimulates my curiosity to learn new things																					✓				✓	
6.	Different styling of food				✓	✓			✓																		
Hedonism		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
7.	It was exciting							✓	✓						✓					✓			✓		✓	✓	✓
8.	Enjoyed this experience	✓							✓	✓					✓						✓		✓		✓		
9.	Thrilled about having this experience								✓						✓											✓	
10.	Sensory-stimulating experience							✓		✓																	
11.	Arouses my fantasy									✓							✓										
12.	It was fun							✓										✓		✓	✓						✓
Refreshment		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
13.	It was liberating	✓								✓					✓											✓	
14.	It was refreshing	✓													✓											✓	
15.	Revitalized through this experience	✓													✓											✓	
16.	I enjoyed a sense of freedom														✓										✓		
17.	Relaxing																✓										
18.	Comfortable			✓																✓							✓
19.	Cheerful	✓																									
Meaningfulness		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
20.	I ate something meaningful during this tourism experience	✓													✓											✓	
21.	I ate something important	✓													✓											✓	
22.	I learned about myself	✓						✓	✓						✓											✓	

23.	I ate something purposeful									✓								✓												
24.	To make self-renewal					✓		✓																						
Local culture		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
25.	Closely experienced local food culture	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓					✓	✓	✓					✓			✓		✓	✓	✓		
26.	I experienced friendly people through my local food experience	✓						✓	✓					✓	✓								✓		✓			✓		
27.	Good impressions about the local people							✓	✓						✓										✓	✓				
Knowledge		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
28.	I experienced how to prepare local foods	✓																											✓	
29.	I gained knowledge from this experience	✓	✓						✓						✓	✓					✓					✓	✓	✓		
30.	Learnt history of new food	✓							✓					✓													✓			
31.	Enhanced intellectual capacity		✓				✓		✓												✓						✓	✓		
32.	Helped to develop a better appreciation of what we ate								✓		✓																			
33.	I learned new skills	✓					✓		✓																					
Authenticity		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
34.	Authentic food experience				✓	✓		✓	✓				✓			✓		✓			✓	✓	✓					✓		
35.	Genuine food				✓																	✓	✓					✓		
36.	Food is special							✓			✓		✓	✓		✓							✓							
37.	Local food is unique				✓																		✓	✓						
38.	Genuine and peripheral location of the place										✓																			
Social interaction		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
39.	Socialize with friends and family		✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓				✓				✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	
40.	Eating local food helped me to connect with restaurant staff											✓											✓	✓						

41.	Local food made me think about my relationship with others										✓																	✓	✓	
42.	Eating local food in a local restaurant felt like family											✓			✓							✓								
43.	Brought a sense of togetherness									✓		✓							✓	✓	✓	✓								
44.	Build a dining company with other people		✓		✓			✓	✓		✓							✓												
45.	I built friendship(s) with other people through the experience		✓				✓	✓	✓										✓	✓	✓	✓						✓		
Hospitality (Service quality)		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
46.	Staff are caring							✓	✓																					✓
47.	Staff are welcoming										✓			✓									✓							✓
48.	Knowledgeable restaurant staff							✓	✓										✓			✓								✓
49.	Staff provided friendly service	✓						✓	✓		✓			✓																✓
50.	Staff are responsive											✓		✓					✓				✓	✓						✓
51.	The local restaurant feels like “home away from home”										✓																			
52.	The restaurant staff explained menu item ingredients to me											✓			✓													✓		
53.	The servers explained to me how menu items were prepared and cooked								✓			✓																		
54.	Quality and excellent restaurant service	✓	✓			✓			✓		✓			✓					✓					✓						
Food souvenirs & Nostalgia		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
55.	I buy food souvenirs to eat later at home																	✓					✓			✓				
56.	I purchased a local food item to remind me of my																	✓					✓	✓	✓					

	food tourism experience in a destination																										
57.	I purchase a local food item for my friends and family																✓					✓		✓			✓
	Ambience and aesthetics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
58.	Exotic restaurant ambience				✓	✓						✓	✓						✓				✓	✓			
59.	Pleasant restaurant environment				✓	✓						✓	✓										✓	✓			
60.	Clean surroundings				✓																		✓	✓			
61.	Attractive interior restaurant design		✓		✓							✓	✓						✓				✓	✓			
62.	Attractive exterior restaurant design											✓	✓											✓			
63.	Appealing restaurant atmosphere					✓						✓	✓						✓				✓	✓			
64.	The plate and cups used to serve food is attractive											✓											✓	✓			
65.	Safe and convenient restaurant surrounding				✓	✓							✓											✓			
	Local food attributes and taste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
66.	Tasty food	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓		✓	✓				✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓				✓
67.	Has a good smell	✓		✓						✓			✓				✓			✓		✓	✓				
68.	The food was colorful			✓						✓			✓								✓						
69.	High quality food		✓	✓									✓				✓	✓									
70.	Well-cooked food			✓																							
71.	Healthy food					✓				✓			✓					✓			✓						
72.	Organic/natural food			✓														✓									
73.	Well-packaged and well-presented food			✓								✓	✓									✓					
74.	The food contains a lot of fresh ingredients			✓						✓							✓					✓	✓				
75.	Easily digestible			✓																							

References: 1. Adongo et al. (2015); 2. Andersson and Mossberg (2004); 3. Baah et al. (2019); 4. Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2014); 5. Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2016); 6. Chandralal and Valenzuela (2013); 7. Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015); 8. Chandralal et al. (2015); 9. Desmet and Schifferstein (2008); 10. Goolaup and Mossberg (2017); 11. Hansen et al. (2005); 12. Kauppinen-Raisanen et

al. (2013); 13. Kim (2014); 14. Kim et al. (2012); 15. Kivela and Crotts (2009); 16. Letarte et al. (1997); 17. Lin and Mao (2015); 18. Magnini and Thelen (2008); 19. Piramanayagam et al. (2020); 20. Quan and Wang (2004); 21. Sthapit (2017); 22. Stone et al. (2018); 23. Stone et al. (2019); 24. Tsai (2016); 25. Tung and Ritchie (2011); 26. Williams et al. (2019).

4.7 Experts' review of the initial pool of items

Having generated an initial set of items, in-depth interviews were conducted to identify items that are suitable and measure each domain of MLFTE and to develop novel items that may have been overlooked in the initial step. For this stage, a non-probability sampling approach (i.e., purposive sampling) was utilized in selecting the interviewees. This approach is justified as it requires collecting data from participants who have the required knowledge to provide relevant information for the study (Churchill, 1979). This approach also enables the researcher to capture heterogeneity within a particular population (Maxwell, 2005). Interview guides were used based on the issues identified in the literature.

Ten (10) interviewees were selected for the interviews and they comprised a local restaurant manager, a local restaurant staff, five academics, two doctoral students, and one experienced international tourist who consumed local foods in tourism activity. The interviews were conducted face-to-face and online (via Zoom) between April and May 2020 and the medium of communication was English. English was used because all the interviewees were fluent in English and it was their preferred language for the interview. The academics had extensive knowledge of scale development and had published widely on food tourism in reputable journals. The local restaurant manager and staff had more practical knowledge and were experienced in food issues as it pertains to tourists. The doctoral students had adequate knowledge of scale development and food tourism. The international tourist had a full-time job. The interviewees were carefully chosen because of their experience and interest in food tourism research. The interviews lasted for about 30 minutes. Information on the profile of the interviewees has been presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 A profile of respondents for the in-depth interviews

No	Gender	Age	Occupation	Recent travel destination	Interview length
1	Male	54	Professor	South Korea	30 minutes
2	Male	62	Professor	United Kingdom	23 minutes
3	Male	48	Associate Professor	South Africa	26 minutes
4	Female	37	Assistant Professor	United States of America	30 minutes
5	Male	38	Senior Lecturer	Canada	25 minutes
6	Female	30	Doctoral Student	Singapore	22 minutes
7	Female	37	Doctoral Student	United Kingdom	27 minutes
8	Male	42	Local restaurant manager	China	24 minutes
9	Female	29	Local restaurant staff	Malaysia	21 minutes
10	Male	40	Company employee	Germany	29 minutes

The interviews were conducted using three main procedures. First, participants were asked to recall memories of their local food experience during their most recent trip (See Appendix 1). In particular, the interviewees were asked to provide a vivid description of their local food tourism experience. To initiate the interview, open-ended questions on participants' memorable experiences with local foods were asked. To enhance interactivity, further probing was done based on the responses provided.

Second, a catalogue of items from the thorough review of the literature was given to the interviewees to assess the extent of agreement for the items on the scale. The interviewees evaluated these items and examined the content validity regarding item definition, meaning, and how it reflected their experience. Based on the interviewees' feedback, items that were found to be redundant or unclear were modified or excluded. Third, participants were probed again to recall their experience and expound their MLFTE. During this stage, items that were not generated at the literature review stage were identified and included.

The interviews were conducted in compliance with ethical standards. First, the consent of the interviewees was sought and the aim of the study, together with any potential harm of the study, was unambiguously explained to the interviewees. Second, respondents were assured of their anonymity and confidentiality. Third, the interviewees were informed of the possibility to discontinue the interview at any time. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed after which participants were contacted to review the new list of items that had been generated. Finally, an amendment was made to the items that had been generated after they had been reviewed by the interviewees.

After revising the initial list of items, the interviewees were invited to re-examine and provide comments on the newly generated items. DeVellis (2003) asserts that this exercise provides the researcher with more quality information that can inform the researcher's final judgment or decision. The initial items generated from the literature were 75; however, following the experts' recommendation to delete and merge certain items, a reduced pool of 64 items was used for further analysis. The details of the deletion and merger of items have been presented in the next section.

4.7.1 Amendment of items for MLFTE

4.7.1.1 Amendment of items in novelty/curiosity

The list of items was presented to the experts and based on their inputs, the item "different styling of food" (item 6), under the domain "novelty/curiosity" was eliminated. The experts explained that the terminology "different styling" was unclear as the phrase connotes multiple meanings. Also, tourists may not know what goes into "the styling" of local food; hence, measuring the different styling of food is difficult. Further considerations were made for the remaining items

regarding modifications for further clarity. Item 3 “different from previous experiences” was reworded to “my experience was different from my previous dining experience”. According to the experts, the phrase “different from previous experiences” could connote an experience that is outside of the food experience. To better contextualize the statement, the phrase “my previous dining experience” was suggested as a replacement. A similar observation was made for Item 4 where “new food experience” was modified to “my experience was novel”. Changing the wording from the present form to the past was important as the items sought to measure food tourism experiences retrospectively. For instance, “unique experience” (item 2) was re-phrased to “my experience was unique”. Based on the input from experts, introducing the statements under this domain with “my experience” was regarded appropriate to provide more clarity and enhance comprehension. Table 4.3 presents the amendments made based on the input from the experts.

Table 4.3 Amendment of items to indicate novelty/curiosity

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	Once-in-a lifetime experience → “my experience was a once-in-a-lifetime event”
2	Unique experience → “my experience was unique”
3	Different from previous experiences → “my experience was different from my previous dining experience”
4	New food experience → “my experience was novel”
5	Stimulates my curiosity to learn new things → “my experience stimulated my curiosity to learn new things”
6	Tasting local food makes me experience different styling of food → Deleted

4.7.1.2 Amendment of items in hedonism

Six items under the “hedonism” domain were either modified or deleted. Item 5 which denotes “arouses my fantasy” was removed. The experts suggested that the phrase “arouses my fantasy” was vague and had a negative connotation; hence, it was not appropriate within the food tourism context. Although they agreed that consuming local food provided hedonistic functions, eating local food was quite complex to arouse a tourists’ fantasy. Again, questions were raised about the word “fantasy” as the experts suggested that it had multiple meanings and was not appropriate within the context. Further modifications were made to the remaining items regarding the use of the past form of the verb and brevity of statements. In line with the experts’ opinions, introducing the statements under this domain with “my experience” helped to improve clarity and enhance comprehension. Table 4.4 summarizes the amendments.

Table 4.4 Amendment of items to indicate hedonism

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	It was exciting → “my experience was exciting”
2	Enjoyed this experience → “my experience was pleasurable”
3	Thrilled about having this experience → “my experience was delightful”
4	Sensory stimulating experience → “my experience was sensory-stimulating”
5	Arouses my fantasy → Deleted
6	It was fun → “my experience was entertaining”

4.7.1.3 Amendment of items in refreshment

Item 4, “I enjoyed a sense of freedom”, was considered by the experts to be synonymous with “It was liberating” (item 1); hence, it was merged with “I became liberated” (item 1). Subsequent amendments were made for the remaining items. Particularly, the use of the phrase “I became” was identified by the experts and they explained that the phrase connotes a situation where the tourist gets into a different state after consuming local food. They also explained that “became” connotes a different feeling or state where the tourist becomes rejuvenated after their initial state. Table 4.5 shows the amendment in the domain refreshment.

Table 4.5 Amendment of items to indicate refreshment

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	It was liberating → Merged to “I became liberated”
2	It was refreshing → “I became refreshed”
3	Revitalized through this experience → “I became revitalized”
4	I enjoyed a sense of freedom → “Merged to I became liberated”
5	Relaxing → “I became relaxed”
6	Comfortable → “I became comfortable”
7	Cheerful → “I became cheerful”

4.7.1.4 Amendment of items in meaningfulness

Based on experts’ evaluation, four items were deemed vague as they were complex to express meaning in the food tourism context. For instance, Item 5 “To make self-renewal” was regarded as broad and complex within the local food consumption context. According to the

experts, self-renewal involves an amalgam of elements that makes an individual become anew. Consequently, this item was deleted. Similarly, Item 1 “I ate something meaningful during this tourism experience” was deemed to lack clarity as it is complex to capture local food products as meaningful. The experts argued that at best, it is the experience that is described as meaningful and not the local food itself. A similar concern was raised about Item 3 “I learned about myself”, Item 4 “I achieved something purposeful”, and Item 2 “I ate something important”.

To provide proper context for the “meaningfulness” domain, the experts suggested four new items (see Table 4.6). These items, according to the experts, were more practical and could capture meaning within the local food tourism context. Further, modifications were made regarding the tense of the verb as statements were constructed to reflect the past. Table 4.6 provides details of the amendments made in the “meaningfulness” domain.

Table 4.6 Amendment of items to indicate meaningfulness

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	I ate something meaningful during this tourism experience → Replaced
2	I ate something important → Replaced
3	I learned about myself → Replaced
4	I achieved something purposeful → Replaced
5	To make self-renewal → Replaced
New item	I ate local food with traditional tableware
New item	I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.)
New item	I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.)
New item	I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, etc.)

4.7.1.5 Amendment of items in knowledge and/or cultural learning

According to the experts, the “local culture” and “knowledge” domains depicted tourists’ immersion and learning about the local food culture of a destination. They, however, suggested a merger of these two domains since they both conveyed an enhancement of intellectual capital or enhancement of local food cultural knowledge. Based on their suggestion, the domain was named “knowledge and/or cultural learning”. Under this domain, nine items were identified and upon evaluation by the experts, four were retained. Item 7 “Enhanced intellectual capacity” was merged with Item 5 “I gained knowledge from this experience” and Item 8 “Helped to develop a better appreciation of what we ate”. These three items were reconstructed as “I gained new knowledge about the country’s local food”. Item 2 “I experienced friendly people through my local food experience” was regarded to reflect socialization instead of knowledge or cultural learning. This item was subsequently used and rephrased in the socialization domain. Item 3 “Good impressions about local people” was deleted because the experts explained that it did not directly reflect the domain of knowledge or cultural learning in the food context. Item 4 “I experienced how to prepare local foods” was rephrased as “I learned about how to prepare local foods”. Item 9 “I learned new skills” was reformulated as “I gained new skill about local food”. Other modifications were made to the sentence structure of the items to ensure consistency. The amendments made to the items have been presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Amendment of items to indicate knowledge and/or cultural learning

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	Closely experienced local food culture → “I closely experienced the local culture of the country”
2	I experienced friendly people through my local food experience → Moved to socialization domain
3	Good impressions about local people → Deleted
4	I experienced how to prepare local foods → “I learned about how to prepare local foods”
5	I gained knowledge from this experience → Merged to “I gained new knowledge about the country’s local food”
6	Learnt history of new food → “I learned about the history of the country’s local food”
7	Enhanced intellectual capacity → Merged to “I gained new knowledge about the country’s local food”
8	Helped to develop a better appreciation of what we ate → Merged to “I gained new knowledge about the country’s local food”
9	I learned new skills → “I gained new skill about local food”
New item	I learned about local food presentation and style of eating in the country
New item	I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country

4.7.1.6 Amendment of items in authenticity

Item 5 “genuine and peripheral location of the destination” was deemed redundant and hence it was deleted. Each item was checked by all the interviewees after which the sentences were modified. This helped to ensure consistency, brevity, and clarity of meaning. Item 1 “had an authentic food experience” was modified as “I ate authentic local food”. Item 2 “genuine food” was rephrased as “I ate genuine local food”. Item 3 “food is special” was reformulated as “I ate special local food”. Item 4 “local food is unique” was reconstructed as “I ate traditional food”.

Table 4.8 provides further details of the amendment.

Table 4.8 Amendment of items to indicate authenticity

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	Had an authentic food experience → “I ate authentic local food”
2	Genuine food → “I ate genuine local food”
3	Food is special → “I ate special local food”
4	Local food is unique → “I ate traditional food”
5	Genuine and peripheral location of the place → Deleted

4.7.1.7 Amendment of items in social interaction

Seven items were generated for the “social interaction” domain. Based on the input of the experts, the items were either rephrased or merged. For instance, Item 5 “brought a sense of togetherness” was merged with Item 1 “experience of local food helped me to socialize with other people”. Further modifications were made to the retained statements. Introducing each statement with the phrase “my experience” was deemed appropriate by the experts. Table 4.9 presents information on the amendments.

Table 4.9 Amendment of items to indicate social interaction

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	Socialize with friends and family → Merged to “my experience helped me to socialize with other people”
2	Eating local food helped me to connect with restaurant staff → “my experience helped me to connect with restaurant staff ”
3	Local food made me think about my relationship with others → “my experience made me think about my relationship with others”
4	Eating local food in a local restaurant felt like family → “my experience of eating local food in a local restaurant felt like family”
5	Brought a sense of togetherness → Merged to “my experience helped me to socialize with other people”
6	Build a dining company with other people → “my experience helped me to build a dining company with other people”
7	I built friendship(s) with other people through the experience → “my experience helped me to build friendship with other people”

4.7.1.8 Amendment for items in hospitality (service quality)

After consultation with the experts, Item 8 “the servers explained to me how menu items were prepared and cooked”, Item 7 “the restaurant staff explained menu item ingredients to me”, and Item 3 “knowledgeable restaurant staff” were merged as they all connote expertise or knowledge of restaurant staff. Further modifications were made regarding sentence structure and wording in order to ensure brevity and clarity. The experts recommended that beginning the statement with “the local restaurant staff” would enhance clarity and consistency. The details of changes can be found in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Amendment of items to indicate hospitality (service quality)

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	Staff are caring → The local restaurant staff were caring
2	Staff are welcoming → The local restaurant staff were welcoming
3	Knowledgeable restaurant staff → Merged to “the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable”
4	Staff provided friendly service → The local restaurant staff were friendly
5	Staff are responsive → The local restaurant staff were responsive
6	The local restaurant feels like “home away from home” → The local restaurant was similar to a “home away from home”
7	The restaurant staff explained menu item ingredients to me → Merged to “the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable”
8	The servers explained to me how menu items were prepared and cooked → Merged to “the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable”
9	Quality and excellent restaurant service → The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service

4.7.1.9 Amendment of items in food souvenirs/nostalgia

Amendments were made to the three items under the “food souvenirs/nostalgia” domain. The experts recommended that Item 1 “I buy food souvenirs to eat later at home” and Item 3 “I purchased a local food item for my friends and family” should be merged as they carried a similar meaning. Also, they agreed that the local foods of many destinations could not be stored and taken back to tourists’ home countries for consumption. Hence, these items were rephrased as “the local food experience gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends”. Item 2 “I purchased a local food item to remind me of my food tourism experience in a destination” was rephrased as “the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience”. A new suggestion was made to include “the local food generated tangible memories” in the list of items under this domain. The details of the amendment have been provided in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Amendment of items to indicate food souvenirs/nostalgia

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	I buy food souvenirs to eat later at home → Merged to “the local food experience gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends”
2	I purchased a local food item to remind me of my food tourism experience in a destination → “the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience”
3	I purchased a local food item for my friends and family → Merged to “the local food experience gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends”
New item	The local food generated tangible memories

4.7.1.10 Amendment of items in ambience and aesthetics

Seven items were retained for the “ambience and aesthetics” domain. Item 7 “The plate and cups used to serve food is attractive” was deleted because it was redundant. Modifications were also made to the sentences to promote brevity and clarity. Beginning the statements with “the local restaurant” was highly recommended in this regard. For instance, Item 2 “I experienced pleasant surroundings of local restaurants” was rephrased as “the local restaurant’s surrounding was pleasant”. The details of the amendment have been presented in Table 4.12

Table 4.12 Amendment of items to indicate ambience and aesthetics

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	Exotic restaurant ambience → The local restaurant’s ambience was exotic
2	Pleasant restaurant environment → The local restaurant’s surrounding was pleasant
3	Clean surroundings → The local restaurant’s surrounding was clean and hygienic
4	Attractive interior restaurant design → The local restaurant’s interior design was attractive
5	Attractive exterior restaurant design → The local restaurant’s exterior design was attractive
6	Appealing restaurant atmosphere → The local restaurant’s atmosphere was appealing
7	The plate and cups used to serve food is attractive → Deleted

8	Safe and convenient restaurant surrounding → The local restaurant’s surrounding was safe and convenient
---	--

4.7.1.11 Amendment of items in local food attributes (sensory experience)

Under the “local food attributes (sensory experience)” domain, Item 10 “easily digestible” was deleted because it was redundant. The remaining items were amended based on sentence structure in order to ensure consistency and clarity. For example, Item 1 “tasty food” was modified to “I ate tasty local food”. Preceding the statements with the phrase “I ate” was recommended by the experts. A new item was suggested to be included in the list of items. The details of the amendments have been presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Amendment of items to indicate local food attributes (sensory experience)

No	Items modified, deleted, or introduced
1	Tasty food → I ate tasty local food
2	Has a good smell → I ate nice-smelling local food
3	The food was colorful → I ate colorful local food
4	High quality food → I ate high-quality local food
5	Well-cooked food → I ate well-cooked local food
6	Healthy food → I ate healthy local food
7	Organic/natural food → I ate organic/natural food
8	Well-packaged and well-presented food → I ate local food that was well-packaged and well-presented
9	The food contains a lot of fresh ingredients → I ate local food with fresh ingredients
10	Easily digestible → Deleted
New item	I ate local food with pleasant texture

4.7.2 Revision of items for MLFTE

4.7.2.1 Amendment of items in MLFTE scale

The input of the experts helped to generate and amend the measurement items for the MLFTE survey. The initial examination of the literature revealed 75 items. Based on the experts' input, the items were reduced to 64 (see Table 4.14). It is important to consider the modification of the label for the domain of the items. The new domain descriptions were “knowledge and/or cultural learning” and “symbolism and nostalgia”. Again, it must be noted that items with similar meanings were merged. The newly generated items include “I ate local food with traditional tableware”, “I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.)”, “I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.)”, and “I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, etc.)”. Other newly generated items include “I learned about local food presentation and style of eating in the country”, “I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country”, “The local food generated tangible memories”, and “I ate local food with pleasant texture”.

Revisions were made to some items and they include “my experience was a once-in-a-lifetime event”, “my experience was unique”, “my experience was different from my previous dining experience”, “my experience was novel”, and “my experience stimulated my curiosity to learn new things”. Other revised items include “my experience was exciting”, “my experience was pleasurable”, “my experience was delightful”, “my experience was sensory-stimulating”, and “my experience was entertaining”. Further revisions were made to reflect items such as “I became liberated”, “I became refreshed”, “I became revitalized”, “I became relaxed”, “I became comfortable”, and “I became cheerful”. Other revisions were made in the items and details of this have been presented in Table 4.14.

Based on the experts' evaluation, 11 items were deleted: “different styling of food”, “arouses my fantasy”, “I ate something meaningful during this tourism experience”, “I ate something important”, “I achieved something purposeful”, “I learned about myself”, “To make self-renewal”, “Good impressions about local people”, “Genuine and peripheral location of the place”, “The plate and cups used to serve food is attractive”, and “easily digestible”.

Table 4.14 Revision of items in MLFTE scale after in-depth interviews

No	Items of novelty/curiosity
1	My experience was a once-in-a-lifetime event
2	My experience was unique
3	My experience was different from my previous dining experience
4	My experience was novel
5	My experience stimulated my curiosity to learn new things
No	Items of hedonism
1	My experience was exciting
2	My experience was pleasurable
3	My experience was delightful
4	My experience was sensory-stimulating
5	My experience was entertaining
No	Items of refreshment
1	I became liberated
2	I became refreshed
3	I became revitalized
4	I became relaxed
5	I became comfortable
6	I became cheerful
No	Items of meaning-making
1	I ate local food with traditional tableware
2	I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.)
3	I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.)
4	I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, etc.)
No	Items of knowledge and/or cultural learning
1	I closely experienced the local culture of the country
2	I learned about how to prepare local foods
3	I gained new knowledge about the country's local food
4	I learned about the history of the country's local food
5	I learned about local food presentation and style of eating in the country

6	I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country
7	I gained new skill about local food
No	Items of authenticity
1	I ate authentic local food
2	I ate genuine local food
3	I ate special local food
4	I ate traditional food
No	Items of social interaction
1	My experience helped me to socialize with other people
2	My experience helped me to connect with restaurant staff
3	My experience helped me to build a dining company with other people
4	My experience helped me to build friendship with other people
5	My experience made me think about my relationship with others
6	My experience of eating local food in a local restaurant felt like family
No	Items of hospitality (service quality)
1	The local restaurant staff were caring
2	The local restaurant staff were welcoming
3	The local restaurant staff were knowledgeable
4	The local restaurant staff were responsive
5	The local restaurant staff were friendly
6	The local restaurant was similar to a “home away from home”
7	The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service
No	Items of symbolism/nostalgia
1	The local food experience gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends
2	The local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience
3	The local food generated tangible memories
No	Items of ambience and aesthetics
1	The local restaurant’s ambience was exotic
2	The local restaurant’s surrounding was pleasant
3	The local restaurant’s surrounding was clean and hygienic
4	The local restaurant’s interior design was attractive
5	The local restaurant’s exterior design was attractive
6	The local restaurant’s atmosphere was appealing
7	The local restaurant’s surrounding was safe and convenient
No	Items of local food attributes and taste
1	I ate tasty local food
2	I ate nice-smelling local food
3	I ate colorful local food
4	I ate high-quality local food
5	I ate healthy local food
6	I ate organic/natural food
7	I ate local food that was well-packaged and well-presented
8	I ate local food with fresh ingredients
9	I ate well-cooked local food

4.7.2.2 Amendment of items on attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty, and moderating variable – food neophobia

Based on the input of the experts, amendments were made to the dependent variables (Table 4.15). Attitude toward local food consisted of four items that were modified from previous studies (Bredahl, 2001; Choe & Kim, 2018; Hsu & Chen, 2014). These four items captured the terms “enjoyable”, “favorable”, “positive”, and “satisfying”. Since attitude toward local food denotes a psychological tendency that is expressed by a summary evaluation of local food (Choe & Kim, 2018), the items were personalized to reflect the attitude of the individual. Hence, the phrase “to me” was used to complete the statement. Again, introducing the sentence with “eating local food in the traveled country was...” important for providing context. For example, Item 1 under this domain reads as follows: “eating local food in the traveled country was favorable to me”. The details of the amendment have been presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Amendment of items in attitude toward local food

No	Items of attitude toward local food
1	Attitude to patronize organic food is extremely favorable → Eating local food in the traveled country was favorable to me
2	Attitude to patronize organic food is extremely positive → Eating local food in the traveled country was positive to me
3	Attitude to patronize organic food is extremely pleasant → Eating local food in the traveled country was enjoyable to me
4	Attitude to patronize organic food is extremely good → Eating local food in the traveled country was satisfying to me

Items for measuring subjective wellbeing were adopted from Diener, Emmons and Larsen (1985), Gao, Kerstetter, Mowen and Hickerson (2018) and Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999). Since

the subjective wellbeing items have been predominantly used in psychology, they were modified to suit the food tourism context. Doing this, the phrase “After eating local food in the traveled country...” was used to contextualize the items. Also, the phrase “I felt that...” was used to precede the items. For example, Item 1, “in most ways my life is close to ideal” was rephrased as “After eating local food in the traveled country...I felt that my life was close to ideal”. Additionally, the verb form was changed from the present to the past. The change of tense was necessary to reflect the recollection of a past or memorable local food experience. The details of the amendment have been presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 Amendment of items in subjective wellbeing

No	Items of attitude toward local food
1	In most ways my life is close to ideal → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life was close to ideal
2	I’m satisfied with my life → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was satisfied with my life
3	So far I have gotten the most important things that I want in life → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life
4	I am happy with my life → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was happy with my life
5	The conditions of my life are excellent → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life conditions were excellent
6	I am better physically and mentally → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was better physically and mentally
7	I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs
8	In general, I feel that I am in charge of the situation in which I live → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was in charge of my own situation
9	I think that it is important to have new experiences that challenge you to think about yourself and the world

	→ After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective
10	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them → After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had done something purposeful

Items for measuring intention were identified from previous studies (Choe & Kim, 2018; Kim & Choe, 2019; Kivela & Crofts, 2006). Intention was captured in this study based on an intention to revisit, recommend, share, or make a positive pronouncement on social media based on tourists' memorable experiences. In amending the items, cognizance was given to providing a time frame such as "within the next five years" to indicate preciseness of time for respondents and reduce measurement errors. The details of the amendment have been presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Amendment of items in intention

No	Items of intention
1	I will recommend (the country's food) to my family and/or friends → I'd like to recommend the traveled country's local food to families and/or friends
2	I will say positive things about (the country's food) to other people → I'd like to say positive things about the traveled country's local food to others
3	I will leave positive reviews and share photos of (the country's food) on social media (e.g. Facebook, blog, video clips, messenger) → I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of the traveled country's local food on social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.)
4	I will revisit the (country) to explore more diverse (country's local food) within the next five years → I'd like to revisit the traveled country to explore diverse local foods within the next five years

Destination loyalty is another endogenous variable that was examined. Items for measuring this variable were taken from the studies of Di-Clemente et al. (2019), Stylos and Bellou (2019), and Yoo, Donthu, and Lee (2000). Since this study considers destination loyalty as a strong commitment towards a destination and its local food resource and subsequent decision to choose

the destination to taste its local food consistently in the future, items that indicate a commitment to a destination were also applied. Hence, these items had to be modified to suit the food tourism context. For example, Item 1 “I consider (country) as my first choice to take future destinations” was modified as “I’d like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food”. Item 2 “I will not visit other destinations if a visit to (country) is feasible” was rephrased as “I’d not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the traveled country is feasible”. Item 3 “I would like to continue holidaying and stay longer in (country)” was reformulated as “I think that I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to taste its local food again”. Item 4 “Visiting this (country) again will be worthwhile to explore other parts” was reconstructed as “I think that eating the traveled country’s local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food”. The details of the amendments have been presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Amendment of items in destination loyalty

No	Items of destination loyalty
1	I consider (country) as my first choice to take future destinations → I’d like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food
2	I will not visit other destinations if a visit to (country) is feasible → I’d not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the traveled country is feasible
3	I would like to continue holidaying and stay longer in (country) → I think that I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to taste its local food again
4	Visiting this (country) again will be worthwhile to explore other parts → I think that eating the traveled country’s local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food again

Moderating variables of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience were examined in this study. Since food neophobia was measured on a scale, Pliner and Hobden’s (1992) food neophobia scale items were utilized in this study. To contextualize the items, the

phrase “during overseas travel” was used to complete the statements. For example, the original statement “I do trust new foods” was modified to “I do not trust local food when I travel overseas”. Also, the statement “if I do not know what it is in a food, I will not try it” was modified as “if I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel”. The statement ‘I am afraid to eat things I have never had before’ was modified as “I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel”. The details of the amendments have been presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Amendment of items in food neophobia

No	Items of food neophobia
1	I am constantly sampling new and different food → I am inclined to eat new and different food during overseas travel
2	I do not trust new foods → I do not trust new local food when I travel overseas
3	If I do not know what it is in a food, I will not try it → If I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel
4	I like foods from different cultures → I like local food from different cultures when I travel overseas
5	Ethnic foods look weird to eat → Local food seems unappealing to eat during overseas travel
6	At dinner parties, I will try new foods → I am eager to try new local food during overseas travel
7	I am afraid to eat things I have never had before → I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel
8	I am very particular about the foods I will eat → I am particular about the local food that I eat during overseas travel
9	I will eat almost anything → I am inclined to eat nearly any local food during overseas travel
10	I like to try new ethnic restaurants → I am inclined to try new local restaurants and eat local food during overseas travel

4.8 Purification of items

Following the experts' input through the in-depth interviews, the items were purified. Churchill (1979) posits that the process of purification entails pre-testing, analyses, and a check of validity. This is undertaken to check the validity and applicability of the generated items by streamlining the measurement items. At this stage, fifty doctoral students who major in tourism and hospitality were selected for this exercise. These doctoral students had adequate knowledge of food tourism and scale development and had experienced local cuisines in their previous tourism travel. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used to examine the respondents' extent of agreement with each statement. The instrument also allowed respondents to provide comments on the items (see Appendix 2).

The utility of the seven-point Likert-type scale was warranted by the fact that it ensured accuracy of responses and optimizes reliability of items (Colman, Norris, & Preston, 1997; Finstad, 2010). It was also "relatively easy" to use (Preston & Colman, 2000, p. 12) and it mirrors a respondent's "true evaluation" (Finstad, 2010, p. 109). Lastly, it enabled an easy comparison with other studies on food experience as these studies had also employed the seven-point Likert-type scale format (Choe & Kim, 2018; Di-Clemente et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2012). The questionnaires were either emailed or delivered physically to the respondents. The exercise was undertaken in July 2020.

4.8.1 Summary of items after purification for MLFTE scale

The input from the experts and respondents showed that each domain may be perceived differently based on an individual's experience. It was also important to situate the items within the destination (or country) and memorability context. Accordingly, introducing the items with the

phrase “eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because...” was suggested by the respondents to enhance comprehension, provide a context, and facilitate ease of response. The respondents further stressed the need to construct the items in the past tense as the study participants would be required to recall a past event from memory. At this stage, the sentence construction for some of the items were modified. For example, under the “novelty/curiosity” domain, the phrase “my experience” was replaced with “it was”. This was necessitated by the introduction of the preceding phrase “eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because...”. Similar modifications were made for the items under “hedonism” and “social interaction”. Also, Item 4 under “hedonism” “my experience was sensory-stimulating” was modified as “it stimulated my senses”. After the purification process, four items were removed because of low mean scores. These items were also deleted because the respondents agreed that they lacked clarity and were inappropriate for measuring MLFTE experience. After incorporating the respondents’ suggestions, the items were proofread by a language editing company to ensure that all the items were properly worded, coherent and intelligible. Finally, 60 items remained for further evaluation. A summary of the items after purification has been presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20 Revision of measurement items to measure MLFTE

Novelty/curiosity	
No.	Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because...
1	it was a once-in-a-lifetime event
2	it was unique
3	it was different from my previous dining experience
4	it was novel
5	it stimulated my curiosity to learn new things
Hedonism	
No.	Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because...
1	it was exciting
2	it was pleasurable
3	it was delightful

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 4 | it stimulated my senses |
| 5 | it was entertaining |

Refreshment

- | | |
|-----|---|
| No. | Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because... |
| 1 | I became liberated |
| 2 | I became refreshed |
| 3 | I became revitalized |
| 4 | I became relaxed |
| 5 | I became comfortable |
| 6 | I became cheerful |

Meaning-making

- | | |
|-----|--|
| No. | Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because... |
| 1 | I ate local food with traditional tableware |
| 2 | I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.) |
| 3 | I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.) |
| 4 | I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, etc.) |

Knowledge and/or cultural learning

- | | |
|-----|---|
| No. | Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because... |
| 1 | I closely experienced the local culture of the country |
| 2 | I learned about how to prepare local foods |
| 3 | I gained new knowledge about the country's local food |
| 4 | I learned about the history of the country's local food |
| 5 | I learned about local food presentation and style of eating in the country |
| 6 | I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country |

Authenticity

- | | |
|-----|---|
| No. | Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because... |
| 1 | I ate authentic local food |
| 2 | I ate genuine local food |
| 3 | I ate special local food |
| 4 | I ate traditional food |

Social interaction

- | | |
|-----|---|
| No. | Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because... |
| 1 | My experience helped me to socialize with other people |
| 2 | My experience helped me to connect with restaurant staff |
| 3 | My experience helped me to build a dining company with other people |
| 4 | My experience helped me to build friendship with other people |

Hospitality (service quality)

- | | |
|-----|---|
| No. | Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because... |
| 1 | The local restaurant staff were caring |
| 2 | The local restaurant staff were welcoming |
| 3 | The local restaurant staff were knowledgeable |
| 4 | The local restaurant staff were responsive |
| 5 | The local restaurant staff were friendly |
| 6 | The local restaurant was similar to a "home away from home" |

7	The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service
Symbolism & nostalgia	
No.	Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because...
1	the local food experience gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends
2	the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience
3	the local food generated tangible memories
Ambience and aesthetics	
No.	Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because...
1	The local restaurant's ambience was exotic
2	The local restaurant's surrounding was pleasant
3	The local restaurant's surrounding was clean and hygienic
4	The local restaurant's interior design was attractive
5	The local restaurant's exterior design was attractive
6	The local restaurant's atmosphere was appealing
7	The local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient
Local food attributes and taste	
No.	Eating local food in the traveled country was memorable to me because...
1	I ate tasty local food
2	I ate nice-smelling local food
3	I ate colorful local food
4	I ate high-quality local food
5	I ate healthy local food
6	I ate organic/natural food
7	I ate local food that was well-packaged and well-presented
8	I ate local food with fresh ingredients
9	I ate local food with pleasant texture

4.8.2 Summary of items after purification for attitude towards local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty, and moderating variable of food neophobia

Following the experts' input and suggestions from the doctoral students, the items for measuring attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty were refined to suit the context of the study. They were also subjected to proofreading by a language editing company to ensure that they were properly worded and comprehensible. As shown in Table 4.21, the domain specifying "attitude toward local food" had four items. The domain "subjective

wellbeing” consisted of ten items while intention had four items. Further, “destination loyalty” had four items and the moderating variable, “food neophobia”, had ten items.

Table 4.21 Revision of measurement items for attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty, and moderating variable of food neophobia

No	Items of attitude toward local food
1	Eating local food in the traveled country was enjoyable to me
2	Eating local food in the traveled country was favorable to me
3	Eating local food in the traveled country was positive to me
4	Eating local food in the traveled country was satisfying to me
No	Items of subjective wellbeing
	After eating local food in the traveled country...
1	I felt that my life was close to ideal
2	I felt that I was satisfied with my life
3	I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life
4	I felt that my life conditions were excellent
5	I felt that I was better physically and mentally
6	I felt that I was happy with my life
7	I felt that I was confident about my own opinions
8	I felt that I was in charge of my own situation
9	I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective
10	I felt that I had done something purposeful
No	Items of intention
1	I’d like to recommend the traveled country’s local food to families and/or friends
2	I’d like to say positive things about the traveled country’s local food to others
3	I’d like to leave positive reviews and share photos of the traveled country’s local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.)
4	I’d like to revisit the traveled country to explore diverse local foods within the next five years
No	Items of destination loyalty
1	I’d like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food
2	I’d not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the traveled country is feasible
3	I think that I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to eat its local food again
4	I think that eating the traveled country’s local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food
No	Items of food neophobia
1	I am inclined to eat new and different food during overseas travel
2	I do not trust new local food when I travel overseas

3	If I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel
4	I like local food from different cultures when I travel overseas
5	Local food seems unappealing to eat during overseas travel
6	I am eager to try new local food during overseas travel
7	I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel
8	I am particular about the local food that I eat during overseas travel
9	I am inclined to eat nearly any local food during overseas travel
10	I am inclined to try new local restaurants and eat local food during overseas travel

4.9 Pilot test

After revising the generated items, a pilot study was conducted to ensure that the scale was well constructed and could be generalized. The goal of the pilot study was to confirm and validate the content of the instrument and ascertain possible challenges with respect to the design and methods of the data collection. Employing a purposive sampling approach, the pilot study was conducted using an online panel of 200 participants via Qualtrics. The respondents were asked to answer four screening questions: (1) whether they had MLFTE in European countries other than the UK and Asian countries since 1 January 2017, (2) whether consuming local food was a major motivation and an important activity in their travel, (3) whether they traveled for leisure/pleasure, and (4) whether they were residing in the US at the time of data collection. Only samples who met these criteria were used for data analysis. The sample sizes were categorized into a European food-tasting cohort (n=100) and an Asian food-tasting cohort (n=100).

The use of a time frame (i.e. within three years) is justifiable as it helps to overcome memory decay and enables individuals to recall the most memorable experience (Kim, 2014; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Sthapit, 2017). The choice of US tourists was informed by the fact that they are a top global outbound tourism market (UNWTO, 2019) and they travel to European and Asian countries for leisure or vacation (National Travel and Tourism Office [NTTO], 2019; UNWTO,

2019). Further, this market has been found to generate a significant portion of culinary tourists globally (Stone et al., 2018) and they consume local foods during their tourism travel (NTTO, 2019). The measurement of memorable local food tourism was stated in English.

4.9.1 Data screening

The data were screened to determine the quality that can inform further analysis. Specifically, the data were examined to detect outliers, missing values, and check for normality (Kline, 2011). To do this, box plots and descriptive analysis are useful to detect possible issues at the initial stages of the analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Huang, Beaman, Chang, & Hsu, 2008). To appropriately screen the data, the Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 20 software was used.

Further attention was paid to checking respondents who provided the same level of responses (i.e. straight-line responses) across the items. Again, since the data were collected using an online source, it was necessary to check the duration used to complete the survey. Missing values were not recorded as the online survey was designed in a manner that required respondents to answer all the questions. However, the SPSS software was used to check for missing values and the results returned no such cases. Finally, the data were checked for normality using skewness and kurtosis variations. The result suggested that the data was negatively skewed. Nonetheless, the univariate institutionalized kurtosis mostly showed positive values, indicating a normal distribution. Table 4.22 provides details of the descriptive analysis.

Table 4.22 Descriptive analysis using a sample of US tourists who have had MLFTE (Europe and Asia) in the pilot test

Items	MFTE in European countries (N=100)						MFTE in Asian countries (N=100)					
	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis		Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis			
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
it was a once-in-a lifetime event	5.25	1.45	-0.90	0.24	0.01	0.48	5.54	1.40	-1.22	0.24	1.38	0.48
it was unique	5.84	1.15	-1.42	0.24	2.84	0.48	5.96	1.30	-1.55	0.24	2.44	0.48
it was different from my previous dining experience	5.51	1.25	-1.02	0.24	1.33	0.48	5.81	1.28	-1.12	0.24	0.52	0.48
it was novel	5.47	1.32	-1.09	0.24	1.08	0.48	5.61	1.16	-0.80	0.24	0.65	0.48
it stimulated my curiosity to learn new things	5.83	1.02	-0.65	0.24	-0.13	0.48	5.86	1.14	-1.23	0.24	2.40	0.48
it was exciting	5.82	0.94	-0.46	0.24	-0.26	0.48	6.00	1.37	-1.99	0.24	3.30	0.48
it was pleasurable	6.11	0.85	-0.71	0.24	0.39	0.48	6.11	0.98	-1.39	0.24	2.72	0.48
it was delightful	6.07	0.96	-1.34	0.24	2.92	0.48	6.08	1.00	-1.33	0.24	2.34	0.48
it stimulated my senses	5.98	0.95	-0.74	0.24	0.04	0.48	5.93	1.03	-1.28	0.24	2.72	0.48
it was entertaining	5.89	0.98	-0.94	0.24	1.63	0.48	6.15	0.99	-1.20	0.24	1.33	0.48
I became liberated	5.07	1.37	-0.35	0.24	-0.57	0.48	5.37	1.53	-1.15	0.24	1.03	0.48
I became refreshed	5.61	1.06	-0.76	0.24	0.48	0.48	5.92	1.09	-0.65	0.24	-0.69	0.48
I became revitalized	5.65	1.22	-0.97	0.24	1.32	0.48	5.83	1.20	-1.03	0.24	0.67	0.48
I became relaxed	5.75	1.18	-1.10	0.24	1.44	0.48	5.83	1.21	-1.14	0.24	0.99	0.48
I became comfortable	5.82	1.07	-0.80	0.24	0.60	0.48	5.81	1.28	-1.36	0.24	1.93	0.48
I became cheerful	5.83	1.13	-1.12	0.24	2.15	0.48	5.75	1.23	-0.78	0.24	0.13	0.48
I ate local food with traditional tableware	5.73	1.17	-1.34	0.24	3.01	0.48	5.88	1.30	-1.53	0.24	2.36	0.48
I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.)	5.25	1.47	-1.02	0.24	0.52	0.48	5.56	1.31	-1.65	0.24	3.40	0.48

I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence etc.)	4.45	1.89	-0.49	0.24	-1.09	0.48	5.21	1.55	-1.14	0.24	0.69	0.48
I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks etc.)	5.48	1.43	-1.19	0.24	1.24	0.48	6.02	1.11	-1.08	0.24	0.48	0.48
I closely experienced the local culture of the country	5.85	1.09	-1.53	0.24	3.31	0.48	6.05	1.00	-0.72	0.24	-0.60	0.48
I gained new knowledge about the country's local food	5.77	1.12	-1.17	0.24	1.55	0.48	5.87	1.00	-0.96	0.24	0.94	0.48
I learned about the history of the country's local food	5.77	1.13	-1.09	0.24	1.38	0.48	5.90	1.09	-1.63	0.24	3.51	0.48
I learned about local food presentation and style of eating in the country	5.64	1.32	-1.50	0.24	2.12	0.48	5.82	1.08	-1.17	0.24	1.94	0.48
I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country	5.80	1.09	-0.97	0.24	0.95	0.48	5.70	1.42	-1.30	0.24	1.23	0.48
I ate authentic local food	6.02	1.15	-1.25	0.24	3.93	0.48	6.11	1.08	-1.03	0.24	3.06	0.48
I ate genuine local food	6.01	0.88	-0.92	0.24	1.30	0.48	6.17	1.00	-1.23	0.24	1.32	0.48
I ate special local food	5.74	1.09	-1.09	0.24	2.46	0.48	6.14	0.95	-1.36	0.24	2.68	0.48

I ate traditional food	6.06	0.90	-1.06	0.24	1.49	0.48	6.14	0.91	-0.78	0.24	-0.31	0.48
it helped me to socialize with other people	5.63	1.38	-1.37	0.24	1.80	0.48	5.75	1.10	-1.00	0.24	1.48	0.48
it helped me to connect with restaurant staff	5.62	0.99	-0.81	0.24	0.93	0.48	5.79	1.09	-0.84	0.24	0.24	0.48
it helped me to enjoy the dining company of other people	5.90	0.98	-1.18	0.24	2.07	0.48	6.06	0.97	-1.33	0.24	2.67	0.48
it helped me to build friendship with other people	5.57	1.15	-1.14	0.24	1.81	0.48	5.97	1.08	-1.18	0.24	1.41	0.48
The local restaurant staff were caring	6.00	0.86	-0.67	0.24	-0.06	0.48	5.89	1.11	-0.96	0.24	0.38	0.48
The local restaurant staff were welcoming	6.06	0.98	-1.75	0.24	3.64	0.48	6.03	0.97	-1.01	0.24	1.09	0.48
The local restaurant staff were knowledgeable	5.90	1.03	-1.83	0.24	3.36	0.48	5.95	1.17	-1.46	0.24	2.14	0.48
The local restaurant staff were friendly	5.96	0.99	-1.62	0.24	3.16	0.48	6.00	1.02	-0.75	0.24	-0.33	0.48
The local restaurant staff were responsive	5.98	0.90	-0.56	0.24	-0.45	0.48	6.03	1.07	-1.33	0.24	2.05	0.48
The local restaurant was similar to a “home away from home”	5.52	1.09	-1.06	0.24	1.76	0.48	5.77	1.02	-0.85	0.24	0.49	0.48
The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service	6.06	0.86	-0.89	0.24	0.90	0.48	6.15	0.90	-0.97	0.24	0.68	0.48
the local food experience gave me something symbolic to	5.76	1.04	-1.11	0.24	2.01	0.48	5.81	1.34	-1.37	0.24	1.51	0.48

share with my family and friends												
the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience	5.45	1.34	-0.90	0.24	0.34	0.48	5.65	1.27	-0.95	0.24	0.54	0.48
The local food generated tangible memories	5.75	1.10	-1.09	0.24	1.57	0.48	6.03	1.08	-1.74	0.24	3.52	0.48
The local restaurant's ambience was exotic	5.12	1.30	-0.45	0.24	-0.06	0.48	5.89	1.24	-1.71	0.24	3.88	0.48
The local restaurant's surrounding was pleasant	5.84	1.08	-1.34	0.24	3.12	0.48	6.06	0.87	-0.67	0.24	0.23	0.48
The local restaurant's surrounding was clean and hygienic	5.99	0.86	-1.25	0.24	3.74	0.48	5.92	1.01	-1.27	0.24	2.41	0.48
The local restaurant's interior design was attractive	5.86	0.94	-1.04	0.24	1.90	0.48	5.79	1.13	-0.86	0.24	0.03	0.48
The local restaurant's exterior design was attractive	5.79	1.01	-0.65	0.24	-0.10	0.48	5.91	1.17	-1.39	0.24	2.58	0.48
The local restaurant's atmosphere was appealing	5.87	1.04	-1.38	0.24	2.79	0.48	5.91	1.15	-1.91	0.24	3.62	0.48
The local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient	6.05	0.90	-0.69	0.24	-0.29	0.48	5.97	1.15	-1.53	0.24	2.77	0.48
I ate tasty local food	6.09	0.98	-1.25	0.24	1.59	0.48	5.87	1.30	-1.50	0.24	2.08	0.48
I ate nice-smelling local food	6.05	1.02	-1.62	0.24	4.94	0.48	6.14	0.97	-1.29	0.24	1.69	0.48

I ate high-quality local food	6.08	0.92	-1.04	0.24	0.87	0.48	6.19	0.87	-0.85	0.24	-0.06	0.48
I ate healthy local food	5.58	1.22	-0.96	0.24	0.72	0.48	5.99	1.04	-1.14	0.24	1.26	0.48
I ate organic/natural food	5.27	1.59	-1.05	0.24	0.38	0.48	5.78	1.19	-1.19	0.24	1.76	0.48
I ate local food that was well-packaged and well-presented	5.91	1.16	-1.66	0.24	3.64	0.48	5.98	1.07	-1.01	0.24	0.57	0.48
I ate local food with fresh ingredients	6.16	0.84	-1.15	0.24	1.78	0.48	6.12	0.94	-1.15	0.24	1.35	0.48
I ate local food with pleasant texture	5.92	1.03	-0.91	0.24	0.42	0.48	5.99	1.04	-1.14	0.24	1.04	0.48

Note: SD= Standard deviation; SE= Standard Error.

4.9.1.1 Demographic characteristics of respondents in the pilot study

Table 4.23 depicts the sociodemographic and travel characteristics of respondents in the pilot study. These characteristics include gender, marital status, ethnicity, educational level, occupation, age, and annual household income (before tax). Regarding travel characteristics, the following variables were included: travel mode, food tasting experience, travel purpose, and countries visited. The result shows that for the European cohort, the proportion of male tourists (51.0%) were more than their female counterparts (49.0%). The sample was also dominated by individuals in their 30s (36.0%), followed by respondents in their 40s (26.0%). Hence, it was not surprising that the majority (74.0) being married. In terms of educational level, a little over a third (41.0%) were college graduates while 34.0% were college students. Moreover, an overwhelming majority were Caucasian (83.0%), followed by Asian-Americans (7.05%). With regard to occupation, most of the respondents were company employees (43.0%), with 11.0% being retirees. The majority were earning US\$ 140,000 or more as annual household income.

In terms of travel characteristics, most of the respondents (71.0%) identified as independent travelers. Again, most (62.0%) were tasting the local food of the traveled country for the first time and had traveled for leisure/pleasure (72.0%). In terms of the country visited for local food tasting, France (17.0%), Spain (12.0%), and Italy (11.0%) were among the countries where respondents answered that they had their MLFTEs.

Table 4.23 Profile of respondents in the pilot test

US tourists who had MLFTEs in European countries (N=100)			US tourists who had MLFTEs in Asian countries (N=100)		
Variable	Category	Percentage (%)	Variable	Category	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	51.0	Gender	Male	55.0
	Female	49.0		Female	45.0
Age	20s	13.0	Age	20s	17.0
	30s	36.0		30s	47.0
	40s	26.0		40s	27.0
	50s or older	25.0		50s or older	9.0
Marital status	Single	21.0	Marital status	Single	27.0
	Married	74.0		Married	70.0
	Others	5.0		Others	3.0
Educational level	High school or below	12.0	Educational level	High school or below	18.0
	College student	13.0		College student	7.0
	College graduate	41.0		College graduate	44.0
	Graduate school	34.0		Graduate school	31.0
Ethnicity	Caucasian	83.0	Ethnicity	Caucasian	66.0
	African American	5.0		African American	13.0
	Asian American	7.0		Asian American	17.0
	Hispanic	3.0		Hispanic	4.0
	Others	2.0		Others	0.0
Travel mode	Package tour	27.0	Travel mode	Package tour	21.0
	Independent traveler	71.0		Independent traveler	78.0
	Others	2.0		Others	1.0
Local food tasting experience in the traveled country	First time	62.0	Local food tasting experience in the traveled country	First time	60.0
	Repeat taste	38.0		Repeat taste	40.0
Purpose of travel	Pleasure	72.0	Purpose of travel	Pleasure	76.0
	Business	18.0		Business	20.0
	Visit friends/relatives	9.0		Visit friends/relatives	4.0
	Other	1.0		Other	0.0
Occupation	Company employee	43.0	Occupation	Company employee	54.0

	Self-owned business	6.0		Self-owned business	6.0
	Civil servant	2.0		Civil servant	2.0
	Agricultural/fishery	1.0		Agricultural/fishery	0.0
	Professional	8.0		Professional	9.0
	Housewife	4.0		Housewife	3.0
	Technician	1.0		Technician	1.0
	Student	8.0		Student	8.0
	Sales/service	6.0		Sales/service	5.0
	Education	4.0		Education	3.0
	Retired	11.0		Retired	5.0
	Others	6.0		Others	4.0
Annual household income (before tax)	Less than US\$ 20,000	7.0	Annual household income (before tax)	Less than US\$ 20,000	9.0
	US\$ 20,000-39,999	6.0		US\$ 20,000-39,999	18.0
	US\$ 40,000-59,999	14.0		US\$ 40,000-59,999	5.0
	US\$ 60,000-79,999	8.0		US\$ 60,000-79,999	11.0
	US\$ 80,000-99,999	13.0		US\$ 80,000-99,999	11.0
	US\$ 100,000-119,999	14.0		US\$ 100,000-119,999	15.0
	US\$ 120,000-139,999	14.0		US\$ 120,000-139,999	10.0
	US\$ 140,000 or more	24.0		US\$ 140,000 or more	21.0
European countries where they answered they had MLFTEs	France	17.0	Asian countries where they answered they had MLFTEs	Japan	22.0
	Spain	12.0		China	21.0
	Italy	11.0		Thailand	9.0
	Germany	8.0		Bangladesh	6.0
	Switzerland	5.0		South Korea	5.0
	Greece	5.0		Hong Kong	4.0
	Portugal	4.0		Philippines	4.0
Nationality	U.S. citizens	100.0	Nationality	U.S. citizens	100.0

The demographics of US tourists who traveled to Asian countries showed a similar trend to that of those who traveled to Europe. The gender distribution revealed the dominance of males

(55.0%) over females (45.0%). Also, respondents in their 30s were in the majority (47.0%), followed by respondents in their 40s (27.0%). More than two-thirds were married (70.0%) and were college graduates (44.0%). Most respondents were Caucasian (66.0%), followed by Asian-Americans (17.0%). In terms of occupation, company employees dominated the sample (54.0%), followed by professionals (9.0%) and students (8.0%). About 21.0% were earning US\$ 140,000 or more as their annual household income (before tax).

Regarding travel characteristics, 78.0% were independent travelers and were tasting the country's local food for the first time (60.0%). In terms of purpose of travel, the majority had visited for leisure/pleasure (76.0%). The results show that Japan (22.0%), China (21.0%), and Thailand (9.0%) were the top three countries that were most visited by the respondents. This trend is consistent with the data provided by NTTDO (2019), which shows that China and Japan are the top two countries visited by US tourists to Asia in 2019.

4.9.1.2 Exploratory factor analysis of European MLFTE in the pilot study

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to identify the underlying domains of MLFTE for each data set. The EFA is a colossal data reduction technique that prioritizes components and their underlying variables (Hair et al., 2010). As a lead-up to the EFA, the principal axis factoring method was used to examine the underlying dimensions (Hair et al., 2010). The factors extracted from the MLFTE scale correlated with each other to some degree. Hence, oblique rotation was used as recommended by Field (2018).

Items with communalities and factor loadings below 0.45 were removed based on recommendations in past studies (Hair et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2014). However, if either one of the communalities was greater than 0.45 or if one of the factor loading values was higher than 0.45 in

both datasets, the item was retained. Based on this, four out of the 60 items were deleted. Table 4.24 shows the list of items that were removed.

Table 4.24 Items removed through the first EFA

No	Description of deleted items
1.	I ate traditional food
2.	I ate colorful local food
3.	I learned how to prepare local food
4.	I ate local food with a pleasant texture

Following the removal of the four items, EFA was performed on each dataset. For the European dataset, Bartlett’s test of Sphericity (2990.168) was found to be significant at $p=0.000$. Also, the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) coefficient of 0.848 attested the appropriateness of the EFA technique on the data. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), Bartlett’s test of sphericity should be significant at $p<0.05$ for the EFA to be considered appropriate. Also, the KMO index should range from 0-1, with 0.6 suggested as the minimum value. Factor loadings of ≥ 0.32 and eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 are recommended and suitable for EFA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The communalities for each variable which depict the variances explained by the factors ranged from 0.467 to 0.821, implying that the factors accounted for 47% to 82% of the variance.

Also, Cronbach’s alpha, a scale reliability measure, was used to check the internal consistency of the items. The reliability of the scale ranged between 0.75 and 0.90. Hair et al. (2010) maintain that for good scale reliability, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient should be significant at ($\alpha \geq 0.70$). Subsequently, the principal axis factoring with oblique rotation was performed on the initial 56 items. The output shows a reduction of the items to 38, forming seven main dimensions of MFTE. These domains were labeled “sensory appeal and authentic experience”, “ambience and aesthetics”, “relaxation and energizing”, “conviviality”, “hospitable service

experience”, “exotic food cultural knowledge/learning”, and “hedonism”. Together, the factors explained 62.55% of the total variance. The mean scores ranged from 4.45 to 6.16, indicating a general agreement with the measurement items. Table 4.25 shows the findings of the exploratory factor analysis of items associated with MLFTE in Europe.

Table 4.25 Exploratory factor analysis of MLFTE in European countries in the pilot study

Domains and items	Communalities	Factor loadings	Mean
Domain 1: Sensory appeal and authentic experience (Eigenvalue= 15.30, Variance explained= 38.32%, Cronbach’s α = .90, Grand mean= 6.04)			
I ate local food with fresh ingredients	0.73	0.83	6.16
I ate nice-smelling local food.	0.57	0.73	6.05
I ate authentic local food.	0.65	0.70	6.02
The local restaurant staff were friendly.	0.56	0.64	5.96
I ate tasty local food.	0.59	0.61	6.09
I ate high-quality local food.	0.61	0.57	6.08
The local restaurant staff were responsive.	0.64	0.51	5.98
The local restaurant’s space was clean and hygienic.	0.48	0.45	5.99
Domain 2: Ambience and aesthetics (Eigenvalue= 3.38, Variance explained= 7.67%, Cronbach’s α = .88, Grand mean= 5.90)			
The local restaurant’s interior design was attractive.	0.71	0.79	5.86
The local restaurant’s surrounding was pleasant.	0.56	0.75	5.84
I ate genuine local food.	0.56	0.69	6.01
It was delightful.	0.71	0.67	6.07
The local restaurant’s atmosphere was appealing.	0.56	0.62	5.87
The local food generated tangible memories.	0.52	0.58	5.75
The local restaurant staff were knowledgeable.	0.59	0.56	5.90
I closely experienced the local culture of the country.	0.72	0.45	5.85
Domain 3: Relaxation and energizing (Eigenvalue=2.02, Variance explained= 4.28%, Cronbach’s α =.85, Grand mean=5.45)			
I became refreshed	0.67	0.82	5.61
I became revitalized	0.82	0.82	5.65
I became relaxed	0.80	0.73	5.75
I became comfortable	0.61	0.71	5.82
I became liberated	0.58	0.62	5.07
I became cheerful	0.73	0.47	5.83

I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.).	0.60	0.45	4.45
Domain 4: Conviviality (Eigenvalue=1.89, Variance explained= 3.97%, Cronbach's α =.75, Grand mean=5.65)			
It helped me enjoy the dining company of other people	0.66	0.74	5.90
It helped me build friendships with other people.	0.62	0.67	5.57
I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, silverware, etc.).	0.47	0.48	5.48
Domain 5: Hospitable service experience (Eigenvalue=1.70, Variance explained= 3.40%, Cronbach's α =.83, Grand mean=5.85)			
The local restaurant staff were caring.	0.72	0.70	6.00
The local restaurant staff were welcoming.	0.79	0.63	6.06
The local restaurant was similar to a 'home away from home'.	0.53	0.59	5.52
The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service.	0.70	0.53	6.06
It helped me connect with restaurant staff.	0.62	0.46	5.62
Domain 6: Exotic food cultural learning (Eigenvalue=1.47, Variance explained=2.81%, Cronbach's α =.81, Grand mean=5.74)			
I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country.	0.58	0.69	5.80
I learned about traditional methods of food presentation and style of eating in the country.	0.67	0.53	5.64
I gained new knowledge about the country's local food.	0.58	0.49	5.77
I learned about the history of the country's local food.	0.49	0.47	5.77
Domain 7: Hedonism (Eigenvalue=1.17, Variance explained=2.10%, Cronbach's α =.76, Grand mean=5.97)			
It was pleasurable.	0.69	0.64	6.11
It stimulated my senses.	0.72	0.58	5.98
It was exciting.	0.47	0.45	5.82

Another exploratory factor analysis was conducted on US tourists who had MLFTE in Asian countries. Table 4.26 provides information on the domains and items associated with MLFTE in Asian countries. The factor analysis generated eight underlying domains, with 41 items having eigenvalues larger than 1.0. Cumulatively, the factors explained 70.29% of the total variance. The KMO coefficient of 0.87 confirmed the fittingness of the EFA technique on the data. Hair et al. (2010) maintain that values ≥ 0.60 indicate a good factor structure. Bartlett's test of sphericity was 3089.15 (df=820, p=0.000), which shows that at least a factor existed in the factor

structure. The communalities for the variables ranged from 0.56 to 0.82, which suggests that the factors accounted for 56% to 82% of the variance in the variables.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the eight domains ranged between 0.71 and 0.92. The values surpassed the 0.70 threshold as suggested by Nunnally (1978). Based on the analysis, the eight domains were labeled "hospitable service experience", "relaxation and energizing", "exotic food cultural learning", "ambience and aesthetics", authentic experience, "local food attributes", "gastronomic novelty", and "meaning-making". Their mean scores were between 5.65 and 6.23.

Table 4.26 Exploratory factor analysis of MFTE in Asian countries in the pilot study

Domains and items	Communalities	Factor loadings	Mean
Domain 1: Hospitable service experience (Eigenvalue= 17.17, Variance explained= 41.88%, Cronbach's α =.92 , Grand mean=6.01)			
The local restaurant staff were welcoming.	0.83	0.93	6.03
The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service.	0.74	0.78	6.15
The local restaurant staff were friendly.	0.79	0.78	6.00
It helped me connect with restaurant staff.	0.62	0.76	5.85
The local restaurant staff were knowledgeable.	0.70	0.71	6.01
It helped me build friendships with other people.	0.70	0.61	6.00
The local restaurant was similar to a 'home away from home'.	0.66	0.59	5.77
The local restaurant staff were responsive.	0.70	0.55	6.06
The local restaurant staff were caring.	0.71	0.49	5.99
It was entertaining.	0.66	0.47	6.21
Domain 2: Relaxation and energizing (Eigenvalue= 2.48, Variance explained= 6.06%, Cronbach's α =.91, Grand mean=5.91)			
I became liberated.	0.73	0.85	5.65
I became refreshed.	0.74	0.84	5.94
I became comfortable.	0.76	0.81	5.91
I became revitalised.	0.77	0.79	5.89
I became relaxed.	0.81	0.77	5.89
it was exciting.	0.63	0.50	6.19

Domain 3: Exotic food cultural learning (Eigenvalue=2.10, Variance explained=5.11%, Cronbach's α =.78, Grand mean=5.94)			
The local restaurant's ambience was exotic.	0.77	0.92	5.97
I ate local food that was well-presented and well-packaged.	0.70	0.67	6.06
I learned about traditional methods of food presentation and style of eating in the country.	0.59	0.53	5.90
I gained new knowledge about the country's local food.	0.73	0.50	5.95
I became cheerful.	0.73	0.47	5.81
Domain 4: Ambience and aesthetics (Eigenvalue=1.72, Variance explained=4.19%, Cronbach's α =.82, Grand mean=6.04)			
The local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient.	0.66	0.71	6.06
The local restaurant's space was clean and hygienic.	0.66	0.67	5.95
The local restaurant's atmosphere was appealing.	0.66	0.60	5.99
I ate special local food.	0.68	0.56	6.17
Domain 5: Authentic experience (Eigenvalue=1.56, Variance explained=3.80%, Cronbach's α =.84, Grand mean=5.97)			
It was a once-in-a-lifetime event.	0.60	0.76	5.80
I ate genuine local food.	0.67	0.74	6.23
I ate tasty local food.	0.78	0.67	6.06
the local restaurant's interior design was attractive.	0.67	0.57	5.79
I ate local food with traditional tableware (e.g., traditional bowls and plates).	0.74	0.51	6.06
It helped me socialise with other people.	0.57	0.45	5.85
Domain 6: Local food attributes (Eigenvalue=1.44, Variance explained=3.52%, Cronbach's α =.73, Grand mean=6.03)			
I ate healthy local food.	0.71	0.77	6.02
I ate organic/natural food.	0.63	0.71	5.88
I ate high-quality local food.	0.65	0.45	6.19
Domain 7: Gastronomic novelty (Eigenvalue=1.26, Variance explained=3.08%, Cronbach's α =.83, Grand mean=5.97)			
It was different from my previous dining experience.	0.72	0.88	6.02
It was novel.	0.71	0.78	5.73
It was unique.	0.71	0.59	6.12
I learned about the history of the country's local food.	0.78	0.55	5.99
Domain 8: Meaning-making (Eigenvalue=1.09, Variance explained=2.65%, Cronbach's α =.71, Grand mean=5.92)			
I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.).	0.69	0.93	5.74

it stimulated my senses.	0.72	0.62	5.99
I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, silverware, etc.).	0.73	0.53	6.02

Following analysis of the two data sets, not many differences were identified in the outcomes. Therefore, apart from the four deleted items, the rest of the items were retained for further examination in the main survey.

After the EFA for the domains of the MLFTE, another EFA was conducted on attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty regarding tourists who had their experience in European countries (Table 4.27). As an initial measure, items with communalities less than 0.4 were considered for removal. A similar action was taken for factor loadings less than 0.45 (Lee et al., 2014; Stevens, 2002). The EFA performed on attitude towards local food revealed a four-item single factor solution. The eigenvalues were greater than 1.0 and the KMO was 0.69. Bartlett's test of sphericity was 151.598 (df=6, p=0.000). Also, communalities for the items ranged from 0.55 to 0.78, signifying a 55% to 78% of the variance in the variables. The items explained 64.16% of the total variance. Regarding the mean scores, they were found to range from 6.01 to 6.15.

Another EFA was performed on ten items to measure subjective wellbeing associated with the MFTE. A single factor solution was produced where the eigenvalue was >1.0. The items explained 57.57% of the total variance. The KMO was 0.88 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was 575.629 (df=45, p=0.000). Communality values ranged from 0.53 to 0.66, which show that the factors accounted for 53% to 66% of the variance. The mean scores ranged from 5.32 to 5.64.

The extraction of items on intention generated a single factor solution with the eigenvalue \geq 1.0. The factor explained 50.88% of the variance in the variable. KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.68 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was 65.933 (df=6, p=0.000). Communalities

for this factor explained 51% to 70% of the variance in the dimension. The internal consistency using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .65 and the mean scores ranged from 5.30 to 5.98.

The factor indicating destination loyalty consisted of four items and it produced a single factor solution. The eigenvalue was >1.0 and the factor explained 54.41% of the variance. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.63 and Bartlett's test of sphericity of 99.492 (df=6, p=0.000) supported the factorability of the data. The items for this domain were internally consistent at a Cronbach's alpha of .70. The communalities for each item ranged from 0.48 to 0.75, suggesting that the factor explained 48% to 75% of the variance in this domain. The mean values ranged from 4.58 to 5.60.

Table 4.27 EFA of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty in the pilot study (European data set)

Domains and items	Communalities	Factor loadings	Mean
Domain 1: Attitude toward local food (Eigenvalue=2.57, Variance explained=64.16 %, Cronbach's α =.81., Grand mean=6.13)			
Eating local food in the traveled country was positive to me	0.78	0.88	6.14
Eating local food in the traveled country was satisfying to me	0.65	0.81	6.12
Eating local food in the traveled country was favorable to me	0.59	0.77	6.09
Eating local food in the traveled country was enjoyable to me	0.55	0.74	6.15
Domain 2: Subjective wellbeing (Eigenvalue=5.75, Variance explained=57.57 %, Cronbach's α =.92, Grand mean=5.49)			
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life conditions were excellent	0.66	0.81	5.50
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life was close to ideal	0.61	0.78	5.32
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was in charge of my own situation	0.61	0.78	5.58

After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective	0.61	0.78	5.38
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had done something purposeful	0.58	0.77	5.50
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs	0.57	0.76	5.58
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was satisfied with my life	0.55	0.74	5.64
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life	0.55	0.74	5.43
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was better physically and mentally	0.53	0.73	5.39
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was happy with my life	0.48	0.70	5.61
Domain 3: Intention to recommend (Eigenvalue=2.04 , Variance explained=50.88 %, Cronbach's α =.65, Grand mean=5.78)			
I'd like to say positive things about the traveled country's local food to others	0.70	0.84	5.98
I'd like to recommend the traveled country's local food to families and/or friends	0.59	0.77	5.96
I'd like to revisit the traveled country to explore diverse local foods within the next FIVE years	0.51	0.71	5.89
I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of the traveled country's local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.)	0.45	0.49	5.30
Domain 4: Destination loyalty (Eigenvalue=2.18, Variance explained=54.41%, Cronbach's α = .70, Grand mean=5.27)			
I think I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to eat its local food again	0.75	0.87	5.56
I'd like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food	0.63	0.79	5.36
I'd not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the traveled country is feasible	0.52	0.65	4.58
I think that eating the traveled country's local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food	0.48	0.62	5.60

EFA was also conducted on the aforementioned variables using the Asian data set. Table 4.28 provides information on the results. The extraction of items on attitude toward local food generated a single factor solution. The eigenvalue was found to be greater than 1.0. Overall, the domain consisted of four items and the KMO was 0.64. Bartlett's test of sphericity of 199.341

(df=6, p=0.000) confirmed the factorability of the data. The items were shown to be internally consistent at a Cronbach's alpha of 0.83. The communalities for this dimension explained 52% to 78% of the variance in the variable. The mean values were found to range from 6.05 to 6.28.

The extraction of ten items on subjective wellbeing associated with MFTE generated a single factor solution and the eigenvalue was 1.0. This factor accounted for 53.78% of the variance. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.87 and Bartlett's test of sphericity of 540.355 (df=45, p=0.000) supported the factorability of the data. Community scores further indicate that 0.45 to 0.65 of the variance was accounted for by the factor. The mean scores ranged from 5.64 to 6.00 and the items were found to be internally consistent at a Cronbach's alpha of .90.

The factor analysis using four items to measure intention also generated a single factor solution. As required, the eigenvalue was found to be greater than 1.0 and the KMO of 0.63 exceeded the threshold of 0.60 suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Bartlett's test of sphericity of 79.599 (df=6, p=0.000) supported the factorability of the data. The communality scores indicate that 44% to 58% of the variance was accounted for by the factor. The items were found to be internally consistent at a Cronbach's alpha of .70 and the mean scores ranged from 5.61 to 6.06.

The extraction of items on destination loyalty produced a single factor solution. The eigenvalue was >1.0 and the factor explained 51.99% of the variance. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.68 and Bartlett's test of sphericity of 71.285 (df=6, p=0.000) confirmed the factorability of the data. The items for this domain were internally consistent at a Cronbach's alpha of .73. The communalities for each item ranged from 0.42 to 0.62, which suggests that the factor explained 42% to 62% of the variance in this domain. The mean values ranged from 5.28 to 5.91.

Table 4.28 EFA of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty in the pilot study (Asian data set)

Domains and items	Communalities	Factor loadings	Mean
Domain 1: Attitude toward local food (Eigenvalue=2.72, Variance explained=67.94%, Cronbach's α =.83, Grand mean=6.16)			
Eating local food in the traveled country was favorable to me	0.78	0.89	6.20
Eating local food in the traveled country was positive to me	0.76	0.87	6.13
Eating local food in the traveled country was enjoyable to me	0.65	0.81	6.28
Eating local food in the traveled country was satisfying to me	0.52	0.72	6.05
Domain 2: Subjective wellbeing (Eigenvalue=5.37, Variance explained=53.78%, Cronbach's α =.90, Grand mean=5.80)			
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was happy with my life	0.65	0.81	6.00
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was better physically and mentally	0.64	0.80	5.81
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was satisfied with my life	0.63	0.79	5.71
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life conditions were excellent	0.61	0.78	5.82
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs	0.61	0.78	5.89
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had done something purposeful	0.60	0.75	5.79
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life	0.50	0.71	5.66
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life was close to ideal	0.50	0.70	5.75
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was in charge of my own situation	0.45	0.67	5.64
After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective	0.45	0.51	5.92
Domain 3: Intention to recommend (Eigenvalue=2.13, Variance explained=53.36%, Cronbach's α =.70, Grand mean=5.87)			
I'd like to revisit the traveled country to explore diverse local foods within the next FIVE years	0.58	0.76	5.83
I'd like to say positive things about the traveled country's local food to others	0.57	0.75	6.06

I'd like to recommend the traveled country's local food to families and/or friends	0.55	0.74	6.00
I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of the traveled country's local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.)	0.45	0.66	5.61
Domain 4: Destination loyalty (Eigenvalue=2.08, Variance explained=51.9%, Cronbach's α =.73, Grand mean=5.69)			
I think that eating the traveled country's local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food	0.62	0.79	5.91
I'd like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food	0.62	0.79	5.90
I think I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to eat its local food again	0.61	0.78	5.70
I'd not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the traveled country is feasible	0.45	0.50	5.28

4.9.1.3 Revision of questionnaire for the main survey

Having validated the measurement items via in-depth interviews with experts, pre-test by doctoral students in hospitality and tourism, and a pilot study using two data sets (Europe MFTE: $N=100$, Asia MFTE: $N=100$), the questionnaire was revised for the main survey. A total of 78 items (i.e., MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty) were used for the questionnaire. Based on a careful process of scale development and validation, the items were considered valid and reliable before the main survey was launched. The details of the retained items for the main survey have been presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29 Major items retained for the main study

Novelty/curiosity	
1.	it was a once-in-a-lifetime event
2.	it was unique
3.	it was different from my previous dining experience
4.	it was novel
5.	it stimulated my curiosity to learn new things
Hedonism	

1. it was exciting
2. it was pleasurable
3. it was delightful
4. it stimulated my senses
5. it was entertaining

Refreshment

1. I became liberated
2. I became refreshed
3. I became revitalized
4. I became relaxed
5. I became comfortable
6. I became cheerful

Meaning-making

1. I ate local food with traditional tableware
2. I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.)
3. I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.)
4. I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, etc.)

Knowledge/culture

1. I closely experienced the local culture of the country
2. I gained new knowledge about the country's local food
3. I learned about the history of the country's local food
4. I learned about local food presentation and style of eating in the country
5. I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country

Authenticity

1. I ate authentic local food
2. I ate genuine local food
3. I ate special local food

Local food attributes and taste

1. I ate tasty local food
2. I ate nice-smelling local food
3. I ate high-quality local food
4. I ate healthy local food
5. I ate organic/natural food
6. I ate local food that was well-packaged and well-presented
7. I ate local food with fresh ingredients

Social interaction

1. it helped me to socialize with other people
2. it helped me to connect with restaurant staff
3. it helped me to enjoy the dining company of other people
4. it helped me to build friendship with other people

Hospitality (service quality)

1. The local restaurant staff were caring

2. The local restaurant staff were welcoming
 3. The local restaurant staff were knowledgeable
 4. The local restaurant staff were responsive
 5. The local restaurant staff were friendly
 6. The local restaurant was similar to a “home away from home”
 7. The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service
-

Symbolism & nostalgia

1. The local food generated tangible memories
 2. The local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience
 3. The local food gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends
-

Ambience and aesthetics

1. The local restaurant’s ambience was exotic
 2. The local restaurant’s surrounding was pleasant
 3. The local restaurant’s surrounding was clean and hygienic
 4. The local restaurant’s interior design was attractive
 5. The local restaurant’s exterior design was attractive
 6. The local restaurant’s atmosphere was appealing
 7. The local restaurant’s surrounding was safe and convenient
-

Attitude toward local food

1. Eating local food in the traveled country was favorable to me
 2. Eating local food in the traveled country was positive to me
 3. Eating local food in the traveled country was enjoyable to me
 4. Eating local food in the traveled country was satisfying to me
-

Subjective wellbeing

1. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life was close to ideal
 2. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was satisfied with my life
 3. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life
 4. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life conditions were excellent
 5. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was better physically and mentally
 6. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was happy with my life
 7. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was confident about my own opinions
 8. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was in charge of my own situation
 9. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective
 10. After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had done something purposeful
-

Intention to recommend

1. I'd like to recommend the traveled country's local food to families and/or friends
 2. I'd like to say positive things about the traveled country's local food to others
 3. I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of the traveled country's local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.)
 4. I'd like to revisit the traveled country to explore diverse local foods within the next five years
-

Destination loyalty

1. I'd like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food
 2. I'd not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the traveled country is feasible
 3. I think that I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to eat its local food again
 4. I think that eating the traveled country's local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food
-

4.10 Main survey

The main survey was conducted using a purposive sampling approach to select US tourists who had their MLFTE in a European country (excluding the United Kingdom [UK]) and another sample of US tourists who had their MLFTE in Asian countries. The process of data collection and analysis is subsequently explained.

4.10.1 Sample frame

To set the criteria and properly define the sample frame for the main study, tourists were purposively selected based on the following parameters. First, the individual must agree to have had a MLFTE. Second, since this study aims to develop a scale that can be generalized to wider populations and contexts, two continents – Europe (excl. The UK) and Asia – were selected. Emphasis must be made on Europe only (one data set) and Asia only (one data set). The reason

for excluding those who traveled to the UK was the similarity in food menus and culture between the UK and the US (Sajadmanesh et al., 2017; Warde, 2009). The third requirement for inclusion in the sample is the time frame within which the MLFTE occurred. Based on the existing literature, this study used a period of three years (i.e., since January 2017) (Kim, 2014; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Sthapit, 2017). This study considers that using a specific time frame helps to overcome memory decay and helps individuals to recall their most recent memorable experience (Kim & Ritchie, 2014). Fourth, since this study measures MLFTE, the respondent must agree that eating local food of the traveled country was a major motivation and *an important part* during their tourism activity. Lastly, the individual must reside in the US. US tourists were selected because they are one of the segments that dominate the global outbound tourism market (UNWTO, 2019). They also travel to Europe and Asian countries for leisure or vacations (National Travel and Tourism Office [NTTO], 2019; UNWTO, 2019). Importantly, they constitute a significant portion of culinary tourists globally (Stone et al., 2018); hence, consuming destinations' local foods is a significant activity during their tourism travel (NTTO, 2019). Only respondents who met these criteria were used for the study.

4.10.2 Sample size

The determination of sample size in scale development studies is important and this depends on the number of items per construct. As a requirement, adequate representation in the sample is essential to ensure validity. Scholars have argued that a large sample size ensures a higher chance of obtaining statistical significance (Cohen, 1988). Thus, Hair et al. (2010, p. 102) state that researchers must ensure that the minimum sample size is to have “at least five times as many observations as the number of variables to be analyzed.” For example, if the number of

variables is 60, then the minimum sample size should be 300. Other studies also recommend a sample size between 300 and 500. Based on recommendation in past studies (e.g. Choe & Kim, 2018; Kim et al., 2012; Kim & Ritchie, 2014), this study reckons that a small sample size could be problematic, especially since structural equation modeling will be used to analyze the constructs. Consequently, a sample size of 950 was determined for the study.

4.10.3 Data collection

Qualtrics, a renowned online panel data collection company, was employed to undertake the data collection. The use of the online approach is justified by its ability to reach a large set of audience as well as overcome geographic barriers and other challenges associated with face-to-face interactions. Also, given the increasing use of internet technologies and electronic gadgets such as phones and tablets by many segments, it was important to use this approach. Scholars have furthermore argued that the use of online panel is effective in reaching particular segments which hitherto would have been challenging to reach using other survey methods (Gronlund & Strandberg, 2014). Moreover, relative cost advantages, ease of use, time-saving, quick dissemination of survey, and the current situation with COVID-19, which prohibits face-to-face or direct physical contact, informed the use of this data collection approach. These advantages, notwithstanding, a major challenge encountered in using the online panel pertains to the use of the non-probability sampling approach in selecting respondents (Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006).

The instrument used for this study was designed using Qualtrics' survey design tool, a tool that has a good interface, provides an enhanced visual presentation, and is easy to use. The contents of the instrument were worded in English because it is the language that is widely used by the target population (i.e., US tourists). The survey was undertaken from October to December 2020.

An aggregate of 950 questionnaires were collected. However, 25 questionnaires were excluded because they were completed within a time frame of two minutes.

4.11 Data analysis

Two main software, namely Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) version 25 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 25, were used to analyze the data. They were used in order to combine their strengths, thereby enabling the study objectives to be adequately answered. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data for this study. Specifically, means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis values and percentages were used to examine the normality and socio-demographic characteristics, travel characteristics, and other factors that served as explanatory variables. Upon receipt of the data, they were carefully examined to check for missing values and outliers. Since this study used the services of Qualtrics, the challenge of missing data was overcome as respondents were made to respond to all the questions using the 'force response' function in the Qualtrics survey tool. Outliers were also checked.

4.11.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

In scale development, previous studies (Byrne, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999) have suggested the use of EFA and CFA to explore and confirm the psychometric structure of a scale. Consequently, the EFA was used in this study to explore the factor structure of the MFTE scale. The EFA is more appropriate for exploring the structure of scales that are in their initial stages of development (Byrne, 2010). Again, it is favored over the principal component analysis (PCA) as it is more suitable to represent multiple variables in the analysis (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). In line with this, the EFA was utilized based on the items generated from the

pilot study. The suitability and adequacy of the data for the EFA were based on the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of ≥ 0.80 and Bartlett's test of sphericity of $p \leq 0.05$. The principal axis factoring technique with oblique rotation was used to examine the dimensional structure of the items (Field, 2013). Eigenvalue ≥ 1 was used to extract the factors and ≥ 0.4 loadings on a factor and a communality of ≥ 0.4 were used as thresholds for retaining an item (Hair et al., 2010).

4.11.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

The confirmatory factor analysis was also employed because it can confirm the underlying factor solution and items that have been extracted as well as guide the re-specification of the model (Byrne, Lam & Fielding, 2008; Hair et al., 2010). Also, such an analysis is suitable for normally distributed data, and given the number of cases (i.e. 950), it was appropriate to use the covariance-based CFA technique. Moreover, it is robust and stringent for model validation (Byrne, 2010). As a requirement to use the CFA, the estimates of the parameters of the model, the variance explained, the covariance of the generated dimensions, and residual error variance of the observed variables were examined. Model fit indices such as Chi-square statistic, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) were also examined (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2016).

4.11.3 Validity and reliability

The scale was examined for validity and reliability and this was made possible through the CFA and computation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. In the CFA, convergent validity and discriminant validity were examined and as used in previous studies, the average variance

extracted (AVE) ≥ 0.5 , signifies a convergent validity. Also, the discriminant validity was examined by juxtaposing the scores of the squared correlation coefficients with the AVE values. Greater AVE scores signal support for discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). To examine the reliability of the items in each of the factors, composite reliability was checked and computed using Cronbach's alpha. An alpha value of ≥ 0.7 was used as the threshold (Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

4.11.4 Structural equation modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test and examine the hypothesized model. In this study, a causal relationship between MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty was hypothesized. Also, the moderating effect of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience was hypothesized among the paths among the constructs. SEM is effective in modeling complex relationships between multivariate data as it uses both factor analysis and multiple regression techniques (Hair et al., 2010). It is effective in examining the causal relationships among exogenous variables and endogenous variables and overcomes the challenge associated with analyzing multiple-layer causal relationships. Therefore, based on the strengths of this technique as well as the objectives and hypotheses of the study, SEM was used for the study.

4.11.5 Summary

This chapter examined the methodological procedures of the study. It examined, among other issues, the philosophical underpinnings and research design used for the study. The steps used in developing a valid and reliable scale as outlined by various scholars were examined and followed.

Specifically, the identification of items and domains of constructs, item generation from the extant literature, experts' verification of the initial set of items, purification of the items, and pilot testing were discussed. Additionally, issues about the main survey – sampling frame, sample size, and data collection – were examined. Lastly, the chapter described the data processing and analytical techniques. The next chapter presents the results.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. It discusses the data screening process, the profile of the respondents (i.e., their sociodemographic characteristics and travel characteristics), and the cross-validation of the data. Issues of reliability and validity are also examined. Additionally, the exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and results of the structural equation modeling are presented. Finally, the formulated hypotheses are tested.

5.2 Data screening

The data were screened using the following criteria: (1) whether respondents had MLFTE in European countries other than the UK and Asian countries since 1 January 2017, (2) whether consuming local food was a major motivation and an important activity in their travel, (3) whether the respondent traveled for leisure/pleasure, and (4) whether the respondent was resident in the US at the time of data collection. Individuals who did not satisfy all the aforementioned criteria were excluded from the study.

5.3 Missing data and outliers

Scholars have emphasized the need for researchers to examine missing data in multivariate analysis as they potentially affect the outcome of a study (Kline, 2011). In this study, issues about missing data were not identified as the survey was designed using Qualtrics' "force response" function; hence, respondents were compelled to respond to all questions in the survey. Box plots and descriptive analysis were used to examine outliers subsequent to which 25 questionnaires were

identified as outliers and were removed because of insincere answers – i.e., providing one answer throughout the survey. Consequently, 900 questionnaires were used for the data analysis.

5.4 Normality test

Before performing the data analysis, the data were subjected to a normality test. Scholars have argued that checking for normality of the data is essential for structural equation modeling and it involves using skewness and kurtosis checks (Hair et al., 2010). A negatively skewed data signifies that the modal scores are higher than the mean score. Conversely, positive skewness means that the modal scores are lesser than the mean. Absolute skewness values that are greater than 3 are considered highly skewed (Kline, 2011). George and Mallery (2016) suggest that skewness results around ± 2 can be considered acceptable limits of normality. However, Brown (2006) recommends that for SEM, skewness scores between -3 and $+3$ are acceptable while a kurtosis range of -10 to $+10$ is appropriate. In this study, an absolute cut-off value of 8.0 for kurtosis was considered acceptable (Kline, 2011, p. 63).

As shown in Table 5.1, the absolute value of skewness was within the range of 0.88 and 1.83. Kurtosis index ranged from 0.01 and 3.77. Although some items had kurtosis values slightly higher than 3.0, they were retained because of their importance to the study. Therefore, it is important to state that the findings for these items may be slightly biased.

Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics and univariate normality test for measurement items ($N=900$)

Item	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
(Nov_1) It was a once-in-a lifetime event	5.48	1.48	-1.12	0.08	0.80	0.16
(Nov_2) It was unique	6.08	1.06	-1.83	0.08	3.01	0.16
(Nov_3) It was different from my previous dining experience	5.91	1.15	-1.47	0.08	2.86	0.16
(Nov_4) It was novel	5.63	1.26	-1.10	0.08	1.30	0.16
(Nov_5) It stimulated my curiosity to learn new things	6.01	1.13	-1.54	0.08	2.12	0.16
(Hed_1) It was exciting	6.07	1.04	-1.55	0.08	3.14	0.16
(Hed_2) It was pleasurable	6.23	0.88	-1.57	0.08	3.77	0.16
(Hed_3) It was delightful	6.19	0.91	-1.72	0.08	3.34	0.16
(Hed_4) It stimulated my senses	6.01	1.01	-1.19	0.08	1.91	0.16
(Hed_5) It was entertaining	6.04	1.01	-1.29	0.08	2.55	0.16
(Ref_1) I became liberated	5.19	1.48	-0.67	0.08	0.01	0.16
(Ref_2) I became refreshed	5.77	1.16	-1.10	0.08	1.73	0.16
(Ref_3) I became revitalized	5.61	1.21	-0.92	0.08	1.12	0.16
(Ref_4) I became relaxed	5.84	1.14	-1.23	0.08	2.27	0.16
(Ref_5) I became comfortable	5.92	1.06	-1.19	0.08	2.19	0.16
(Ref_6) I became cheerful	5.89	1.07	-1.26	0.08	2.55	0.16
(MN_1) I ate local food with traditional tableware	5.85	1.25	-1.51	0.08	2.64	0.16
(MN_2) I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.)	5.51	1.45	-1.16	0.08	0.99	0.16
(MN_3) I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.)	4.78	1.80	-0.58	0.08	-0.75	0.16
(MN_4) I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks, etc.)	5.73	1.39	-1.50	0.08	2.31	0.16
(KC_1) I closely experienced the local culture of the country	6.01	1.05	-1.56	0.08	3.15	0.16
(KC_2) I gained new knowledge about the country's local food	5.99	1.08	-1.32	0.08	2.39	0.16
(KC_3) I learned about the history of the country's local food	5.83	1.19	-1.35	0.08	2.30	0.16
(KC_4) I learned about traditional methods of food presentation and style of eating in the country	5.78	1.21	-1.30	0.08	2.01	0.16

(KC_5) I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country	5.85	1.16	-1.34	0.08	2.35	0.16
(Auth_1) I ate authentic local food	6.18	1.00	-1.65	0.08	3.63	0.16
(Auth_2) I ate genuine local food	6.22	0.92	-1.47	0.08	3.20	0.16
(Auth_3) I ate special local food	5.98	1.13	-1.40	0.08	2.54	0.16
(Auth_4) I ate traditional food	6.12	0.97	-1.48	0.08	3.59	0.16
(Soc_1) It helped me to socialize with other people	5.79	1.24	-1.23	0.08	1.57	0.16
(Soc_2) It helped me to connect with restaurant staff	5.56	1.32	-1.03	0.08	0.98	0.16
(Soc_3) It helped me to enjoy the dining company of other people	5.82	1.18	-1.22	0.08	1.85	0.16
(Soc_4) It helped me to build friendship with other people	5.69	1.29	-1.15	0.08	1.33	0.16
(SE_1) The local restaurant staff were caring	5.91	1.11	-1.31	0.08	2.23	0.16
(SE_2) The local restaurant staff were welcoming	6.06	1.05	-1.56	0.08	3.22	0.16
(SE_3) The local restaurant staff were knowledgeable	6.04	1.02	-1.40	0.08	2.86	0.16
(SE_4) The local restaurant staff were friendly	6.07	1.02	-1.42	0.08	3.05	0.16
(SE_5) The local restaurant staff were responsive	5.96	1.04	-1.49	0.08	3.45	0.16
(SE_6) The local restaurant was similar to a “home away from home”	5.49	1.40	-1.08	0.08	0.93	0.16
(SE_7) The local restaurant provided quality and excellent service	6.04	1.07	-1.54	0.08	3.46	0.16
(Sym_1) the local food experience gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends	5.92	1.12	-1.24	0.08	1.82	0.16
(Sym_2) the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience	5.51	1.38	-0.92	0.08	0.28	0.16
(Sym_3) The local food generated tangible memories	5.93	1.14	-1.47	0.08	2.85	0.16
(Serv_1) The local restaurant’s ambience was exotic	5.50	1.42	-1.16	0.08	1.19	0.16
(Serv_2) The local restaurant’s surrounding was pleasant	6.05	1.01	-1.52	0.08	3.71	0.16
(Serv_3) The local restaurant’s surrounding was clean and hygienic	6.02	0.98	-1.42	0.08	3.51	0.16
(Serv_4) The local restaurant’s interior design was attractive	5.95	1.07	-1.45	0.08	3.02	0.16
(Serv_5) The local restaurant’s exterior design was attractive	5.90	1.12	-1.25	0.08	2.01	0.16
(Serv_6) The local restaurant’s atmosphere was appealing	6.01	1.06	-1.61	0.08	3.47	0.16

(Serv_7) The local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient	6.03	1.03	-1.47	0.08	3.44	0.16
(TST_1) I ate tasty local food	6.15	1.10	-1.38	0.08	3.43	0.16
(TST_2) I ate nice-smelling local food	6.16	0.99	-1.68	0.08	3.57	0.16
(TST_3) I ate high-quality local food	6.16	0.97	-1.58	0.08	3.60	0.16
(TST_4) I ate healthy local food	5.81	1.25	-1.33	0.08	1.85	0.16
(TST_5) I ate organic/natural food	5.45	1.50	-1.01	0.08	0.58	0.16
(TST_6) I ate local food that was well-packaged and well-presented	5.98	1.15	-1.62	0.08	3.50	0.16
(TST_7) I ate local food with fresh ingredients	6.13	1.00	-1.73	0.08	3.52	0.16
(TST_8) I ate local food with pleasant texture	6.01	1.04	-1.38	0.08	2.83	0.16
(Att_1) Eating local food in the traveled country was enjoyable to me	6.11	0.96	-1.41	0.08	3.02	0.16
(Att_1) Eating local food in the traveled country was favorable to me	5.58	1.31	-0.94	0.08	0.74	0.16
(Att_1) Eating local food in the traveled country was positive to me	6.05	0.97	-1.03	0.08	1.13	0.16
(Att_1) Eating local food in the traveled country was satisfying to me	6.11	0.98	-1.46	0.08	3.14	0.16
(SWB_1) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life was close to ideal	5.56	1.22	-0.86	0.08	0.77	0.16
(SWB_2) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was satisfied with my life	5.77	1.10	-1.05	0.08	1.65	0.16
(SWB_3) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life	5.62	1.23	-1.07	0.08	1.31	0.16
(SWB_4) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that my life conditions were excellent	5.68	1.22	-1.02	0.08	1.15	0.16
(SWB_5) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was better physically and mentally	5.60	1.24	-0.86	0.08	0.52	0.16
(SWB_6) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was happy with my life	5.90	1.07	-1.11	0.08	1.70	0.16
(SWB_7) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs	5.72	1.18	-0.99	0.08	1.22	0.16

(SWB_8) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I was in charge of my own situation	5.73	1.18	-1.00	0.08	1.09	0.16
(SWB_9) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective	5.76	1.22	-1.22	0.08	1.83	0.16
(SWB_10) After eating local food in the traveled country, I felt that I had done something purposeful	5.75	1.15	-1.08	0.08	1.57	0.16
(FI_1) I'd like to recommend the traveled country's local food to families and/or friends	6.16	1.00	-1.69	0.08	3.14	0.16
(FI_2) I'd like to say positive things about the traveled country's local food to others	6.17	0.92	-1.25	0.08	2.07	0.16
(FI_3) I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of the traveled country's local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.)	5.68	1.43	-1.41	0.08	1.81	0.16
(FI_4) I'd like to revisit the traveled country to explore diverse local foods within the next FIVE years	6.03	1.14	-1.58	0.08	3.01	0.16
(DL_1) I'd like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food	5.53	1.35	-0.92	0.08	0.56	0.16
(DL_2) I'd not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the traveled country is feasible	4.78	1.82	-0.49	0.08	-0.81	0.16
(DL_3) I think I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to eat its local food again	5.60	1.29	-1.11	0.08	1.33	0.16
(DL_4) I think that eating the traveled country's local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food	5.87	1.13	-1.20	0.08	1.94	0.16

5.5 Descriptive results of the respondents

5.5.1 Sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents

Table 5.2 presents the background characteristics of the respondents surveyed for the study. Seven sociodemographic attributes of gender, age, marital status, educational level, ethnicity, occupation, and annual household income were examined. With regard to the US tourists who traveled to Europe, the results in Table 5.2 show that the majority (55.6%) were female. The highest percentage was above 50 years (33.3%, followed by those in their thirties (30.9%). For marital status, the majority were married (60.4). Their educational level showed that the majority were college graduates (46.7%) and 33.3% had had graduate school education. For ethnic identity, an overwhelming majority (77.3%) identified as Caucasian. An exploration of respondents' occupational status revealed that 40.4% were company employees, followed by the retired (11.0%) and 10.2% who identified as professionals. The highest percentage of annual household income-earning was in the category of US\$ 140,000 or more (24.7%), followed by US\$ 40,000-59,999 (15.3%) and US\$ 80,000-99,999 (12.0%). As already mentioned, the respondents who were surveyed were US nationals and were residents in various cities in the US.

Their travel characteristics revealed that close to two-thirds were independent travelers (64.2%) and most of them (61.1%) were tasting the local food of the destination country for the first time. The main purpose of travel was for pleasure (79.1%). The countries where respondents answered they had their MLFTEs were France (19.1%), Italy (15.6%), Spain (9.8%), and Germany (9.3%).

Table 5.2 The profile of respondents in the main study

US tourists who had MLFTEs in European countries (excl. The UK) (N=450)			US tourists who had MLFTEs in Asian countries (N=450)		
Variable	Category	Percentage (%)	Variable	Category	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	44.2	Gender	Male	62.2
	Female	55.6		Female	37.3
Age	20s	12.9	Age	20s	14.2
	30s	30.9		30s	44.9
	40s	22.9		40s	29.6
	50s or older	33.3		50s or older	11.3
Marital status	Single	34.0	Marital status	Single	26.2
	Married	60.4		Married	69.8
	Others	5.6		Others	4.0
Educational level	High school or below	11.6	Educational level	High school or below	5.6
	College student	8.4		College student	6.7
	College graduate	46.7		College graduate	42.0
	Graduate school	33.3		Graduate school	45.8
Ethnicity	Caucasian	77.3	Ethnicity	Caucasian	74.0
	African American	7.6		African American	5.3
	Asian American	7.6		Asian American	17.1
	Hispanic	5.1		Hispanic	2.7
	Others	2.4		Others	0.9
Travel mode	Package tour	27.3	Travel mode	Package tour	25.1
	Independent traveler	64.2		Independent traveler	73.1
	Others	8.4		Others	1.8
Local food tasting experience in the traveled country	First time tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling	61.1	Local food tasting experience in the traveled country	First time tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling	58.4
	Repeat tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling	38.9		Repeat tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling	41.6
Purpose of travel	Pleasure	79.1	Purpose of travel	Pleasure	77.3
	Business	8.7		Business	14.4
	Visit friends/relatives	8.7		Visit friends/relatives	7.6
	Others	3.6		Others	0.7

Occupation	Company employee	40.4	Occupation	Company employee	55.1
	Self-owned business	6.7		Self-owned business	6.9
	Civil servant	2.2		Civil servant	0.9
	Professional	7.6		Professional	12.9
	Housewife	4.7		Housewife	2.9
	Technician	1.1		Technician	1.3
	Student	2.4		Student	4.9
	Sales/service	2.7		Sales/service	2.2
	Education	4.7		Education	2.9
	Retired	16.4		Retired	5.6
	Others	10.4		Others	4.4
Annual household income (before tax)	Less than US\$ 20,000	10.2	Annual household income (before tax)	Less than US\$ 20,000	3.1
	US\$ 20,000-39,999	10.2		US\$ 20,000-39,999	8.4
	US\$ 40,000-59,999	15.3		US\$ 40,000-59,999	9.8
	US\$ 60,000-79,999	10.4		US\$ 60,000-79,999	13.6
	US\$ 80,000-99,999	12.0		US\$ 80,000-99,999	11.6
	US\$ 100,000-119,999	7.8		US\$ 100,000-119,999	12.2
	US\$ 120,000-139,999	9.3		US\$ 120,000-139,999	10.7
	US\$ 140,000 or more	24.7		US\$ 140,000 or more	30.7
European countries where they answered they had MLFTEs	France	19.1	Asian countries where they answered they had MLFTEs	China	30.0
	Italy	15.6		Japan	20.2
	Spain	9.8		Thailand	8.0
	Germany	9.3		India	6.4
Nationality	U.S. citizens	100.0	Nationality	U.S. citizens	100.0

With respect to US tourists who traveled to Asian countries, their profile showed a dominance of males (62.2%). Furthermore, those in their thirties (44.9%) and forties (29.6)

outnumbered the other age groups. The majority were also married (69.8%). Concerning educational level, most of the respondents had graduate school education (45.8%), followed by college graduates (42.0%). An overwhelming majority were Caucasian (74.0%), followed by Asian-Americans (17.1%). Their occupational status showed a dominance of company employees (55.1%), followed by professionals (12.9%) and those who owned their businesses (6.9%). For annual household income, the majority were earning US\$ 140,000 or more (30.7%), followed by US\$ 60,000-79,999 (13.6%).

Their travel characteristics showed that 73.1% were independent travelers and more than a half (58.4%) were tasting the local food of the destination country for the first time during traveling. More than two-thirds were traveling for pleasure. The most visited Asian countries for food tourism were China (30.0%), Japan (20.2%), Thailand (8.0%), and India (6.4%).

5.6 Cross-validation of data

Based on scholars' (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2016) recommendation on the need to address cross-validation issues, the data obtained for the study were initially merged into one dataset and were subsequently divided into two because confirmatory factor analysis models are not supposed to be performed using the results of the exploratory factor analysis with the same sample. De Vellis (2017) asserts that such an approach enhances generalization and ensures reliable results. Accordingly, using the "random sample of cases" function in SPSS, the data were randomly divided into two equal parts made up of 450 samples each. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the first dataset to identify the underlying dimensions while confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the second dataset.

5.7 Exploratory factor analysis of the measurement model (1st part of the dataset, N=450)

5.7.1 EFA of MLFTE

To identify the underlying dimensions of MLFTE, principal axis factoring with promax rotation was used. This rotation method has been identified by scholars to be useful for a large dataset (Field, 2013). Again, the principal axis factoring extraction is useful for generating factors that account for common variance in the primary data and is suitable when an assumption of normality is violated (Bartholomew, 1980). Different thresholds have been suggested for factor loadings, with some scholars arguing for 0.5, 0.3, and 0.2 based on sample size (Stevens, 2002; Field, 2013). Nonetheless, Blunch (2008) states that factor loading ≥ 0.4 is appropriate. In this study, only factors with eigenvalue ≥ 1 and communality threshold of ≥ 0.4 were considered for retention. Also, the use of scree plots enhances visualization as factors above the elbow will be considered candidates for retention (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The results of the EFA have been presented in Table 5.3. The KMO value of 0.951 illustrates that the 450 exploratory sample size was adequate and suitable for the study. Also, Bartlett's test of sphericity of 9811.964 ($p < 0.01$) depicted the factorability of the measurement model. The factors were extracted based on an eigenvalue of ≥ 1 and a communality threshold of ≥ 0.4 . Based on these, 18 items were removed. Following this, the EFA was run again using the promax rotation method.

The EFA revealed eight unique dimensions with 38 well-fitted items and they explained 57.5% of the variance in MLFTE. Communalities in these dimensions ranged from 0.44 to 0.71, which suggests 44% to 71% in the specific dimensions. The Cronbach's alpha score for each dimension was above 0.70, which suggests satisfactory internal consistency of each dimension (Hair et al., 2010). The eight factors were labeled "relaxation and energizing", "hospitable service

experience”, “ambience and aesthetics”, “learning exotic food culture”, “sensory appeal and authentic experience”, “hedonic food experience”, “conviviality”, and “gastronomic novelty and curiosity”.

Table 5.3 EFA results of MLFTE (n=450)

Domains and items	Communalities	Factor loadings	Mean
Domain 1: <i>Relaxation and energizing</i> (Eigenvalue=14.72, Variance explained= 37.6%, Cronbach’s α =.88, Grand mean=5.70)			
I became comfortable.	0.66	0.85	5.88
I became revitalised.	0.64	0.78	5.54
I became refreshed.	0.71	0.75	5.74
I became relaxed.	0.62	0.71	5.83
I became cheerful.	0.54	0.64	5.85
I became liberated.	0.52	0.63	5.28
Domain 2: <i>Hospitable service experience</i> (Eigenvalue=2.35, Variance explained=5.01%, Cronbach’s α =.90, Grand mean=6.01)			
the local restaurant staff were friendly.	0.61	0.84	6.05
the local restaurant staff were responsive.	0.55	0.77	5.93
the local restaurant staff were welcoming.	0.67	0.75	6.08
the local restaurant staff were caring.	0.60	0.72	5.94
the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable.	0.63	0.64	6.05
the local restaurant provided quality and excellent service.	0.58	0.55	5.99
Domain 3: <i>Ambience and aesthetics</i> (Eigenvalue=1.80, Variance explained=3.60%, Cronbach’s α =.86, Grand mean=6.00)			
the local restaurant’s interior design was attractive.	0.62	0.86	5.95
the local restaurant’s exterior design was attractive.	0.57	0.77	5.93
the local restaurant’s atmosphere was appealing.	0.60	0.71	6.03
the local restaurant’s space was clean and hygienic.	0.47	0.67	5.99
the local restaurant’s surrounding was pleasant.	0.52	0.51	6.06
the local restaurant’s surrounding was safe and convenient.	0.51	0.51	6.04
Domain 4: <i>Learning exotic food culture</i> (Eigenvalue=1.61, Variance explained=3.20%, Cronbach’s α =.86, Grand mean=5.92)			
I learned about traditional methods of food presentation and style of eating in the country.	0.62	0.72	5.83

I learned about the history of the country's local food.	0.60	0.72	5.85
I gained new knowledge about the country's local food.	0.51	0.67	6.00
I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country.	0.58	0.64	5.87
I closely experienced the local culture of the country.	0.55	0.58	6.04
Domain 5: Sensory appeal and authentic experience (Eigenvalue=1.42, Variance explained=2.60%, Cronbach's α =.81, Grand mean=6.21)			
I ate authentic local food.	0.60	0.75	6.24
I ate genuine local food.	0.58	0.74	6.26
I ate tasty local food.	0.51	0.67	6.17
I ate nice-smelling local food.	0.44	0.54	6.18
Domain 6: Hedonic food experience (Eigenvalue=1.20, Variance explained=2.05%, Cronbach's α =.85, Grand mean=6.10)			
it was entertaining.	0.60	0.77	6.18
it was exciting.	0.62	0.73	6.02
it was pleasurable.	0.59	0.63	6.06
it stimulated my senses.	0.53	0.60	6.25
It was delightful	0.52	0.56	5.98
Domain 7: Conviviality (Eigenvalue=1.11, Variance explained=1.81%, Cronbach's α =.80, Grand mean=5.83)			
it helped me enjoy the dining company of other people.	0.60	0.76	5.91
it helped me build friendships with other people.	0.70	0.70	5.71
it helped me socialize with other people.	0.50	0.57	5.86
Domain 8: Gastronomic novelty and curiosity (Eigenvalue=1.02, Variance explained=1.55%, Cronbach's α =.76, Grand mean=5.99)			
it was different from my previous dining experience.	0.56	0.64	5.87
it was unique.	0.48	0.61	6.07
it stimulated my curiosity to learn new things.	0.59	0.43	6.04

With a grand mean of 5.70, Domain 1 “relaxation and energizing” had six items that relate to the invigoration of the individual after experiencing local food. Domain 2 “hospitable service experience” explained 5.01% of the variance with an internal consistency value (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.90. This domain explained issues relating to the warmth and hospitable attributes of local restaurant staff. Domain 3 “ambience and aesthetics” depicted issues that relate to the appeal and physical settings of the local restaurant. The fourth factor, “learning exotic food culture” explained 3.20% of the variance and had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86. This factor had items that relate to the

traditional food culture of the destination. It also explained avenues for local food cultural learning. Domain 5 “sensory appeal and authentic experience” had four items that depict the sensory aspects of local food through taste, smell, and sight as well as the authenticity of local food. This domain explained 2.60% of the variance and had a grand mean of 6.21. “Hedonic experience” is Domain 6 and it related to the emotional and pleasurable aspect of the local food experience. For Domain 7, items that relate to friendliness and socialization associated with the local food experience described this factor. It was subsequently labeled “conviviality”. Lastly, with a general level of agreement to the items (grand mean=5.99) and a reliability coefficient of 0.76, Domain 8 “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” had items that convey the distinctiveness of the local food experience. This domain explained 1.55% of the variance.

5.7.2 EFA of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty

Following the EFA on MLFTE, another exploratory factor analysis was performed on the dependent variables. These are attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Akin to the first EFA, items with factor loadings < 0.4 and communalities < 0.4 were candidates for exclusion (Field, 2013; Stevens, 2002). The results of the EFA have been presented in Table 5.4.

First, attitude toward local food was a single factor solution made up of four items. In terms of its suitability, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was 0.823 and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was 769.337 ($df=6$, $p=0.000$). Communalities for the items ranged from 0.52 to 0.67, suggesting that the factors accounted for 52% to 67% of the variance in the variables. The mean values ranged from 5.58 to 6.11 and recorded an internal consistency of 0.86. This dimension explained 59.80% of the total variance.

Second, EFA on subjective wellbeing produced a single factor solution. The eigenvalue was ≥ 1 . This dimension had a KMO of 0.936, indicating its adequacy and suitability for analysis. Bartlett's test of sphericity of 2410.281 ($p < 0.01$) indicated the factorability and possibility of the measurement items. Communality values ranged from 52% to 69%. This dimension explained 57.32% of the variance in subjective wellbeing. The mean scores ranged from 5.60 to 5.95, indicating a general level of agreement with the measurement items.

Table 5.4 EFA results of attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty (n=450)

Domains and items	Communalities	Factor loadings	Mean
Domain 1: Attitude toward local food (Eigenvalue= 2.79, Variance explained= 59.80%, Cronbach's α =.86 , Grand mean= 5.96)			
it was positive to me.	0.67	0.82	6.05
it was enjoyable to me.	0.60	0.78	6.11
it was favorable to me.	0.59	0.77	5.58
it was satisfying to me.	0.52	0.72	6.11
Domain 1: Subjective wellbeing (Eigenvalue=6.12 , Variance explained=57.32%, Cronbach's α =.92, Grand mean=5.74)			
I felt that I was satisfied with my life.	.69	0.83	5.71
I felt that I was better physically and mentally.	.61	0.78	5.80
I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs.	.60	0.78	5.95
I felt that I was happy with my life.	.59	0.77	5.64
I felt that my life was close to ideal.	.55	0.74	5.79
I felt that I was in charge of my own situation.	.54	0.74	5.66
I felt that my life conditions were excellent.	.53	0.73	5.60
I felt that I had done something purposeful.	.52	0.72	5.78
I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life.	.52	0.72	5.77
Domain 1: Intention to recommend (Eigenvalue=1.66, Variance explained=66.34%, Cronbach's α =.80, Grand mean=6.20)			
I'd like to say positive things about the traveled country's local food to others.	0.66	0.82	6.17
I'd like to recommend the traveled country's local food to families and/or friends.	0.65	0.82	6.16

Domain 1: Destination loyalty (Eigenvalue=2.09, Variance explained=55.25%, Cronbach's α =.78, Grand mean=5.70)

I think I have a strong commitment towards the traveled country to eat its local food again.	0.45	0.65	5.56
I'd like to consider the traveled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food.	0.67	0.82	5.59
I think that eating the traveled country's local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food.	0.57	0.75	5.93

After running an EFA for the third variable, a single factor solution was generated that comprised two items of intention to recommend the traveled country's local food to others and intention to say positive things about the country's local food to others. The eigenvalue was ≥ 1 . The communalities for this domain ranged from 0.65 to 0.66. The KMO was 0.653 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was 489.034 ($df=1$, $p=0.000$), indicating that the data were suitable for the EFA. This domain had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.80, with the mean values ranging from 6.01 to 6.17. Together, this factor explained 66.34% of the variance. This factor was subsequently labeled "Intention to recommend".

Fourth, destination loyalty composed of three items that generated a single factor solution. The eigenvalue was ≥ 1 and this dimension was considered suitable based on the KMO of 0.691 and Bartlett's test of sphericity of 714.709 ($df=3$, $p=0.000$). This domain had a grand mean of 5.70, suggesting a general level of agreement with the measurement items. Again, Cronbach's alpha score of 0.78 suggests internal consistency of the items. The communalities ranged from 0.45 to 0.67. Together, this domain explained 55.25% of the variance in destination loyalty.

5.8 Confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model ($N=450$)

Structural equation modeling involves a combination of regression model and factor analysis. It has two components of a measurement model and a structural or a path model. In this study, the confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the measurement model using the second dataset. This was used to confirm the dimensions explored in the EFA with the first dataset. To ensure the appropriateness of the model fit to the data, several model fit indices of normed Chi-square (χ^2/df), comparative fit index (CFI), goodness of fit index (GFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used. Some scholars have proposed threshold for these indices: normed Chi-square between 1 and 5, $CFI \geq 0.8$, $RMSEA \leq 0.8$, $TLI \geq 0.8$, and $GFI > 0.8$ (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Hair et al., 2010; Marsh, Hau & Wen, 2004; Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, & Summers, 1977).

The Chi-square statistic is important in CFA and it is used to explain the extent to which the measurement model and the structural model explain the observed covariance matrix (Hair et al., 2010). A model is deemed not to have a good fit when there are significant differences in the matrices. Nonetheless, an attribute of Chi-square is its sensitivity to sample size and number of indicators; hence, the significance value is reduced with large sample sizes. Scholars such as Hair et al. (2010) have proposed a sample size of 200 for more reliable outcomes. Hu and Bentler (1999) are also of the view that a χ^2/df statistic of 1 to 3 is appropriate.

Construct validity and reliability of the observed variables are also essential in SEM. Construct validity explains the degree to which “the measured variables represent the theoretical latent construct that they are designed to measure” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 609). Both discriminant and convergent validity are important to examine construct validity. According to Kline (2011), convergent validity is realized when the inter-correlations of measurement items are moderate in

magnitude or share a high proportion of variance. By contrast, Hair et al. (2010) explain discriminant validity as a measurement of theoretically unrelated construct. These explanations notwithstanding, convergent validity is examined using three forms. First, the standardized factor loadings should be ≥ 0.5 . Second, the AVE should be ≥ 0.5 , and third, construct reliability values should be ≥ 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010; Stevens, 2002). Discriminant validity is also attained when the estimated AVE of a construct exceeds that of the square multiple correlation coefficient (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The results of the CFA have been outlined in Table 5.5. The results show that apart from the Chi-square value ($\chi^2=2887.610, p=0.000$), there is overall statistical support for the indices used in this dataset. The normed Chi-square was, however, found to be within the acceptable threshold ($\chi^2/df = 2.06$). Moreover, other fit indices of CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.05, and GFI = 0.8 showed a generally acceptable model fit. The standardized factor loadings were found to be above 0.5 (Stevens, 2002). The AVE values were calculated and were found to be above 0.50, which indicates an acceptable level of convergence. The composite reliability scores were also found to be ≥ 0.7 . Regarding discriminant validity, the square root of AVE values was found to exceed that of the inter-construct correlations on the dataset (Hair et al., 2010); hence, the measurement model indicated discriminant validity.

Table 5.5 CFA results of the measurement model (n=450)

Construct	Items	Estimate	Standard Error	t-value	p-value	Standardized factor loading	AVE	C.R.
Relaxation and energizing	Rel6	1.00				0.72		
	Rel5	1.21	0.08	15.24	***	0.77		
	Rel4	1.30	0.10	13.08	***	0.65	0.54	0.87
	Rel3	1.04	0.06	16.59	***	0.74		
	Rel2	1.23	0.09	14.02	***	0.78		
	Rel1	1.13	0.08	14.74	***	0.74		
Hospitable service experience	Hosp2	1.00				0.81		
	Hosp6	1.04	0.06	18.84	***	0.79		
	Hosp5	0.93	0.05	17.72	***	0.76	0.58	0.89
	Hosp4	1.00	0.06	15.81	***	0.70		
	Hosp3	0.96	0.06	17.05	***	0.73		
	Hosp1	0.98	0.05	18.15	***	0.77		
Ambience and aesthetics	Aesth6	1.00				0.79		
	Aesth5	0.81	0.05	16.67	***	0.74		
	Aesth4	0.89	0.05	16.69	***	0.74	0.57	0.89
	Aesth3	0.95	0.05	17.65	***	0.77		
	Aesth2	0.94	0.06	16.01	***	0.72		
	Aesth1	0.87	0.05	17.21	***	0.76		
Learning exotic food culture	Fcult5	1.00				0.73		
	Fcult4	1.07	0.08	13.77	***	0.69		
	Fcult3	1.02	0.07	15.10	***	0.75	0.52	0.84
	Fcult2	1.05	0.07	14.26	***	0.72		
	Fcult1	1.17	0.08	14.38	***	0.72		
Sensory appeal and authentic experience	Sens1	1.00				0.68		
	Sens3	0.99	0.07	13.67	***	0.74		
	Sens2	1.15	0.08	14.87	***	0.72	0.52	0.81
	Sens4	1.09	0.09	12.79	***	0.74		
Hedonic experience	Hed5	1.00				0.70		
	Hed4	0.96	0.08	12.66	***	0.65		
	Hed3	0.90	0.06	13.98	***	0.73	0.51	0.84
	Hed2	0.96	0.07	13.28	***	0.78		
	Hed1	1.00	0.08	13.42	***	0.70		
Conviviality	Conv5	1.00				0.72		

	Conv4	1.07	0.07	15.21	***	0.78	0.59	0.81
	Conv2	1.15	0.07	15.55	***	0.80		
<hr/>								
Gastronomic novelty and curiosity	Nov3	1.00				0.76		
	Nov2	0.94	0.07	14.59	***	0.73	0.54	0.78
	Nov1	0.86	0.06	14.24	***	0.71		
<hr/>								
Attitude	Att4	1.00				0.81		
	Att3	1.05	0.05	19.42	***	0.83	0.63	0.81
	Att2	0.90	0.06	15.61	***	0.70		
	Att1	1.02	0.06	17.26	***	0.84		
<hr/>								
Subjective wellbeing	SWB1	1.00				0.75		
	SWB2	0.92	0.05	19.17	***	0.74		
	SWB3	0.92	0.06	14.61	***	0.69		
	SWB4	1.11	0.06	17.71	***	0.82	0.57	0.92
	SWB5	1.07	0.07	16.47	***	0.76		
	SWB6	0.94	0.06	17.05	***	0.79		
	SWB7	1.02	0.06	16.34	***	0.76		
	SWB8	0.98	0.06	15.24	***	0.71		
	SWB10	0.96	0.06	16.15	***	0.75		
<hr/>								
Intention to recommend	INT1	1.00				0.85	0.64	0.78
	INT2	0.81	0.05	16.27	***	0.75		
<hr/>								
Destination loyalty	DL1	1.00				0.69		
	DL3	1.06	0.08	13.68	***	0.76	0.51	0.76
	DL4	0.88	0.07	12.75	***	0.70		

$\chi^2=2887.610, p=(0.000); CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.90; RMSEA = 0.05; GFI = 0.8$

- Note:** 1. AVE = $(\sum \text{standardized factor loading}^2) / [(\sum \text{standardized factor loading}^2) + \sum \text{measurement error}]$.
2. Composite Construct Reliability = $(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 / [(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 + (\sum \text{measurement error})]$.
3. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 5.6 Correlation, square root of AVE, mean and standard deviations (n=450)

	REL	HOSP	AESTH	FCUL	SENS	HED	CON	NOV	ATT	Well	INT	DL
REL	0.734											
HOSP	0.554**	0.761										
AESTH	0.582**	0.744**	0.754									
FCUL	0.575**	0.497**	0.518**	0.721								
SENS	0.498**	0.680**	0.612**	0.541**	0.722							
HED	0.642**	0.587**	0.603**	0.600**	0.625**	0.712						
CON	0.619**	0.555**	0.560**	0.660**	0.542**	0.538**	0.770					
NOV	0.507**	0.506**	0.463**	0.629**	0.577**	0.631**	0.514**	0.734				
ATT	0.484**	0.658**	0.671**	0.422**	0.671**	0.583**	0.429**	0.460**	0.796			
Well	0.722**	0.620**	0.651**	0.534**	0.524**	0.591**	0.598**	0.439**	0.562**	0.752		
INT	0.459**	0.605**	0.589**	0.467**	0.611**	0.547**	0.406**	0.494**	0.634**	0.512**	0.798	
DL	0.619**	0.446**	0.491**	0.513**	0.400**	0.463**	0.519**	0.368**	0.410**	0.656**	0.490**	0.717
Mean	5.699	6.023	5.986	5.864	6.143	6.117	5.714	6.009	6.254	5.664	6.160	5.644
Std.												
Dev	0.971	0.873	0.857	0.939	0.843	0.746	1.097	0.955	0.809	0.956	0.865	1.017

Note: (REL) Relaxation and energizing, (HOSP) Hospitable service experience, (AESTH) Ambience and aesthetics, (FCUL) Learning exotic food culture, (SENS) Sensory appeal and authentic experience, (HED) Hedonic food experience, (CON) Conviviality, (NOV) Gastronomic novelty and curiosity, (ATT) Attitude toward local food, (Well) Subjective wellbeing, (INT) Intention to recommend, and (DL) Destination loyalty.

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

5.9 Confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model (whole dataset, $N=900$)

After the cross-validation of the data, the measurement model was tested on the entire sample (i.e., $N=900$). The results showed an overall supportive level of fit to the data, except the Chi-square value which showed ($\chi^2=3396.533$, $p=0.000$) (Table 5.7). Chi-square has, however, been critiqued as being sensitive to sample size. Hence, given the sample size of this study, the Chi-square value is expected. Nonetheless, other model fit indices were sufficient to evaluate the model. The Goodness-of-fit indices of CFI =0.93, TLI =0.93, RMSEA = 0.04, and GFI =0.88 indicated that all the requirements necessary for a good model fit were met. The normed Chi-square value was ($\chi^2/df = 2.42$). The standardized factor loadings for the items were between 0.69 and 0.83, signifying that they exceeded the 0.5 threshold.

Table 5.7 CFA results of the measurement model ($N=900$)

Construct	Items	Estimate	Standard Error	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	Standardized factor loading	AVE	C.R.
Relaxation and energizing	Rel6	1.00				0.69		
	Rel5	1.19	0.06	20.21	***	0.76		
	Rel4	1.38	0.08	18.41	***	0.69	0.54	0.88
	Rel3	1.03	0.05	21.87	***	0.71		
	Rel2	1.31	0.07	19.45	***	0.79		
	Rel1	1.24	0.06	20.51	***	0.78		
Hospitable service experience	Hosp2	1.00				0.76		
	Hosp6	1.05	0.04	23.92	***	0.77		
	Hosp5	1.00	0.04	23.87	***	0.78	0.58	0.89
	Hosp4	1.04	0.05	22.40	***	0.74		
	Hosp3	1.03	0.04	23.99	***	0.78		
	Hosp1	0.99	0.04	23.46	***	0.76		
Ambience and aesthetics	Aesth6	1.00				0.74		
	Aesth5	0.92	0.04	20.94	***	0.71		
	Aesth4	0.97	0.05	21.50	***	0.73	0.54	0.87

	Aesth3	1.08	0.05	22.88	***	0.78		
	Aesth2	1.05	0.05	20.84	***	0.71		
	Aesth1	1.02	0.05	21.13	***	0.72		
<hr/>								
Learning exotic food culture	Fcult5	1.00				0.71		
	Fcult4	1.14	0.06	19.99	***	0.73		
	Fcult3	1.03	0.05	20.51	***	0.75	0.53	0.85
	Fcult2	1.12	0.06	20.08	***	0.74		
	Fcult1	1.18	0.06	20.25	***	0.74		
<hr/>								
Sensory appeal and authentic experience	Sens1	1.00				0.69		
	Sens3	0.99	0.06	17.75	***	0.73		
	Sens2	1.15	0.06	19.11	***	0.71	0.52	0.81
	Sens4	1.10	0.06	17.28	***	0.75		
<hr/>								
Hedonic experience	Hed5	1.00				0.71		
	Hed4	1.01	0.05	19.39	***	0.70		
	Hed3	0.89	0.04	19.92	***	0.72	0.52	0.85
	Hed2	0.97	0.05	19.39	***	0.77		
	Hed1	1.01	0.05	19.95	***	0.72		
<hr/>								
Conviviality	Conv5	1.00				0.71		
	Conv4	1.02	0.05	20.358	***	0.76	0.58	0.81
	Conv2	1.19	0.05	21.508	***	0.81		
<hr/>								
Gastronomic novelty and curiosity	Nov3	1.00				0.79		
	Nov2	0.93	0.05	20.42	***	0.72	0.53	0.77
	Nov1	0.80	0.04	19.05	***	0.67		
<hr/>								
Attitude	Att4	1.00				0.80		
	Att3	1.02	0.04	25.50	***	0.81	0.62	0.87
	Att2	0.90	0.04	22.29	***	0.72		
	Att1	0.99	0.04	24.23	***	0.81		
<hr/>								
Subjective wellbeing	SWB1	1.00				0.73		
	SWB2	0.92	0.04	25.96	***	0.75		
	SWB3	0.99	0.05	21.26	***	0.72		
	SWB4	1.11	0.05	24.46	***	0.82		
	SWB5	1.06	0.05	22.74	***	0.76	0.57	0.92
	SWB6	0.94	0.04	23.28	***	0.78		
	SWB7	0.98	0.04	22.00	***	0.74		
	SWB8	0.96	0.05	21.54	***	0.73		
	SWB10	0.96	0.04	22.08	***	0.74		
<hr/>								
Intention to recommend	INT1	1.00				0.83	0.65	0.79

	INT2	0.86	0.04	23.75	***	0.78		
Destination								
loyalty	DL1	1.00				0.69		
	DL3	1.04	0.05	19.32	***	0.76	0.53	0.77
	DL4	0.90	0.05	19.00	***	0.74		
$\chi^2=3396.533, (p=0.000); GFI = 0.88; CFI = 0.93; TLI = 0.93; RMSEA = 0.04$								

Note: 1. AVE = $(\sum \text{standardized factor loading}^2) / [(\sum \text{standardized factor loading}^2) + \sum \text{measurement error}]$.

2. Composite Construct Reliability = $(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 / [(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 + (\sum \text{measurement errors})]$.

3. *** $p < 0.001$.

The calculated AVE values showed that the values were ≥ 0.5 , thereby confirming convergent validity. Also, the composite reliability values surpassed the cut-off value of 0.7. Moreover, there was no concern for discriminant validity issues as inter-construct correlations were not higher than the square root of AVE values (Hair et al., 2010). Accordingly, the main dataset meets the requirements for the proposed model and hence the proposed model can be considered sufficiently reliable and valid to examine the structural model.

Table 5.8 Correlation, square root of AVE, mean and standard deviations (N=900)

	REL	HOSP	AESTH	FCUL	SENS	HED	CON	NOV	ATT	Well	INT	DL
REL	0.738											
HOSP	0.541**	0.763										
AESTH	0.535**	0.706**	0.732									
FCUL	0.592**	0.534**	0.526**	0.731								
SENS	0.415**	0.592**	0.564**	0.529**	0.722							
HED	0.625**	0.592**	0.585**	0.587**	0.575**	0.725						
CON	0.550**	0.552**	0.537**	0.630**	0.490**	0.505**	0.763					
NOV	0.505**	0.546**	0.476**	0.596**	0.525**	0.607**	0.467**	0.725				
ATT	0.459**	0.619**	0.619**	0.444**	0.600**	0.626**	0.427**	0.446**	0.786			
Well	0.665**	0.579**	0.615**	0.531**	0.479**	0.566**	0.568**	0.472**	0.544**	0.754		
INT	0.426**	0.574**	0.568**	0.477**	0.573**	0.558**	0.383**	0.462**	0.617**	0.499**	0.806	
DL	0.593**	0.504**	0.518**	0.528**	0.400**	0.500**	0.518**	0.422**	0.433**	0.643**	0.527**	0.728
Mean	5.689	6.014	5.992	5.892	6.177	6.108	5.770	6.000	6.279	5.703	6.161	5.669
Std.												
Dev	0.964	0.847	0.824	0.908	0.805	0.759	1.048	0.924	0.777	0.927	0.872	1.042

Note: (REL) Relaxation and energizing, (HOSP) Hospitable service experience, (AESTH) Ambience and aesthetics, (FCUL) Learning exotic food culture, (SENS) Sensory appeal and authentic experience, (HED) Hedonic food experience, (CON) Conviviality, (NOV) Gastronomic novelty and curiosity, (ATT) Attitude toward local food, (Well) Subjective wellbeing, (INT) Intention to recommend, and (DL) Destination loyalty.

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

5.10 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

After testing the measurement model, structural equation modeling was performed to test the conceptual model. The maximum likelihood estimation method was used in AMOS. Before testing the hypotheses of this model, fit indices were examined. The Chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2=3956.920, p=0.000$), which implies a poor fit to the data. However, the normed Chi-square value was ($\chi^2/df = 2.7$), which indicates an acceptance. Other model fit indices such as the CFI=0.92, RMSEA =0.44, GFI=0.86, and TLI=0.91 supported the conceptual model.

To avoid issues of multicollinearity between the endogenous and exogenous variables, variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance were examined. According to Dattalo (2013), values that exceed 4.0 for VIF and tolerance less than 2.0 indicate the existence of multicollinearity. Other scholars have suggested VIF values greater than 10 to signal multicollinearity (Kleinbaum, Kupper, Muller, Nizam, & Nizati, 1988). The VIF and tolerance values were computed in linear regression (with the eight independent variables and attitude toward local food as the dependent variable) using SPSS. Based on computations, the analysis showed that the highest VIF was 2.51 (hospitable service experience) and the lowest tolerance was 0.40 (hospitable service experience). This shows that there were no multicollinearity issues.

5.11 Testing of hypotheses

Five main hypotheses were formulated for this study. Hypothesis 1 was, however, divided into eight sub-hypotheses based on the number of extracted factors at the exploratory stage and they examined the direct effects of MLFTE on attitude toward local food. Together, 13 direct effects were examined as shown in Table 5.10 and Figure 5.1. Also, three moderating effects were examined among the hypothesized paths.

5.11.1 Direct effects

The direct regression paths among the twelve constructs were examined and the results have been presented in Table 5.9. As can be observed, 9 out of the 13 proposed path coefficients were significant at either the 0.01, 0.05, or 0.001 level.

Hypothesis 1-1 postulates that relaxation and energizing will positively influence tourists' attitude toward local food. This was tested by examining the relationship between "relaxation and energizing" and "attitude toward local food". The result showed that the path coefficient was not statistically significant ($\beta=0.05$, $t=1.05$, $p>0.05$). This means that tourists who have more memories of relaxation and energizing may not have a positive attitude toward local food. Therefore, Hypothesis 1-1 is not statistically supported.

Hypothesis 1-2 proposes that hospitable service experience will positively affect attitude toward local food. Outcome of the path coefficient from "hospitable service experience" to "attitude toward local food" depicted that the relationship was statistically significant ($\beta=0.19$, $t=3.52$, $p<0.001$). This means that tourists who have memories of a hospitable service experience in a local restaurant tend to show a positive attitude toward local food. Thus, hypothesis 1-2 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 1-3 states that ambience and aesthetics will positively influence attitude toward local food. The result indicated that the path coefficient between the two constructs was statistically significant ($\beta=0.28$, $t=5.34$, $p<0.001$). Consequently, tourists who have memorable experience of the ambience and aesthetics of a local restaurant have a higher propensity to show a positive attitude toward local food. Thus, hypothesis 1-3 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 1-4 postulates that learning exotic food culture will positively impact attitude toward local food. This was done by examining the coefficient between "learning exotic food

culture” and “attitude toward local food”. The result revealed that the path coefficient was not statistically significant ($\beta=0.02$, $t=0.26$, $p>0.05$). Hence, tourists who have memories of learning an exotic food culture of a place may not automatically have a positive attitude toward local food. Accordingly, there is no statistical support for hypothesis 1-4.

Hypothesis 1-5 posits that sensory appeal and authentic experience will positively affect attitude toward local food. The result indicated a statistically significant relationship between the two constructs ($\beta=0.29$, $t=5.77$, $p<0.001$). Consequently, tourists who have memorable experience of sensory appeal and authentic food experience have a higher tendency to exhibit a positive attitude toward local food. Accordingly, hypothesis 1-5 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 1-6 states that hedonic experience will positively influence attitude toward local food. The hypothesis was verified by examining the path coefficient between “hedonic experience” and “attitude toward local food”. The outcome revealed a statistically significant relationship between the two constructs ($\beta=0.37$, $t=6.40$, $p<0.001$). This implies that tourists who have memories of hedonic experiences associated with local food are have a higher likelihood of generating a positive attitude toward local food. Hence, hypothesis 1-6 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 1-7 proposes that conviviality will positively affect attitude toward local food. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between “conviviality” and “attitude toward local food”. The result showed that the path coefficient between these two constructs was not statistically significant ($\beta=0.05$, $t=1.08$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, tourists who have memories of conviviality do not necessarily have a positive attitude toward local food. This hypothesis is therefore not statistically supported.

Hypothesis 1-8 proposes that gastronomic novelty and curiosity will positively influence attitude toward local food. The hypothesis was tested on the path coefficient between “gastronomic

novelty and curiosity” and “attitude toward local food”. The result revealed that the relationship between the two constructs was significant ($\beta=0.13$, $t=2.22$, $p<0.05$). This implies that tourists who had highly novel or unique memorable local food experiences had a high tendency to generate a positive attitude toward local food. Therefore, hypothesis 1-8 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 2 posits that attitude toward local food will have a positive effect on subjective wellbeing. This hypothesis was verified by examining the path coefficient between “attitude toward local food” and “subjective wellbeing”. The path coefficient from attitude toward local food and subjective wellbeing is statistically significant ($\beta=0.70$, $t=16.98$, $p<0.001$). Thus, tourists who have a high level of positive attitude toward local food have a high level of subjective wellbeing. Accordingly, hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3-1 states that attitude toward local food will have a positive influence on intention to recommend. This was verified by examining the path coefficient between “attitude toward local food” and “intention to recommend”. A statistically significant result was found between the two constructs ($\beta=0.79$, $t=15.40$, $p<0.001$). This implies that tourists who have a high level of positive attitude toward local food have a high intention to recommend local food to others. Therefore, hypothesis 3-1 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 3-2 states that attitude toward local food will positively affect destination loyalty. This hypothesis was verified by examining the path coefficient between “attitude toward local food” and “destination loyalty”. The path coefficient between the two constructs was statistically significant ($\beta=0.26$, $t=5.49$, $p<0.001$). Therefore, tourists who have a high level of positive attitude toward local food are likely to have a high destination loyalty. Consequently, hypothesis 3-2 is statistically supported.

Hypothesis 4-1 states that subjective wellbeing will positively affect intention to recommend. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between “subjective wellbeing” and “intention to recommend”. The result showed that the path coefficient was not statistically significant ($\beta=0.05$, $t=1.11$, $p>0.05$). This implies that tourists who evaluate their wellbeing highly do not necessarily have high intention to recommend local food to others.

Hypothesis 4-2 proposes that subjective wellbeing will have a positive influence on destination loyalty. This was verified by examining the path coefficient between “subjective wellbeing” and “destination loyalty”. The result showed a statistically significant relationship between the two constructs ($\beta=0.58$, $t=10.94$, $p<0.001$). Therefore, tourists who have a high level of subjective wellbeing are likely to have a high destination loyalty. Accordingly, hypothesis 4-2 is statistically supported.

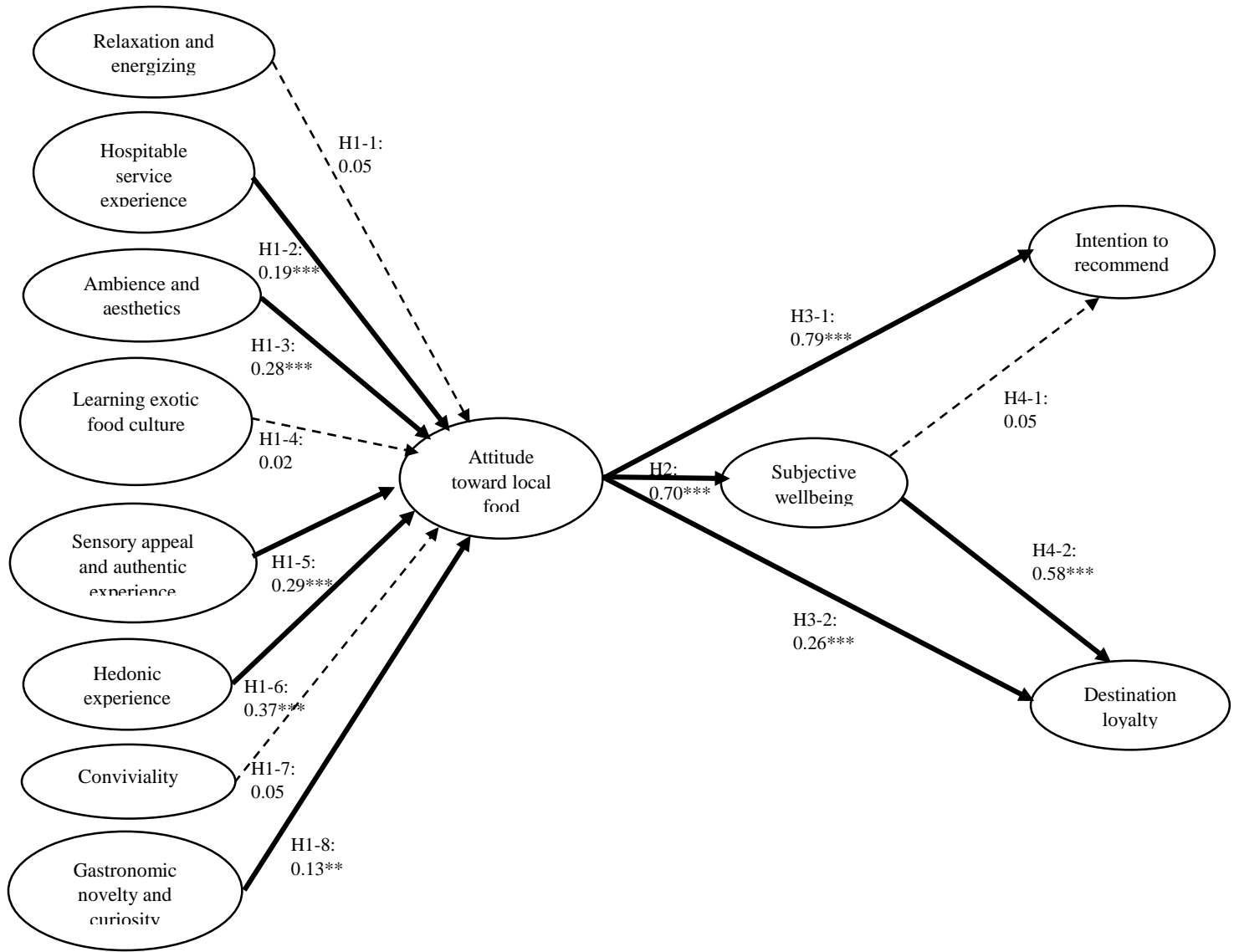
Table 5.9 Results of the direct path for the structural model (N=900)

Hypothesis	Path	Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Decision
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing → Attitude toward local food	0.05	1.05	0.293	Reject
H1-2	Hospitable service experience → Attitude toward local food	0.19	3.52***	0.000	Accept
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics → Attitude toward local food	0.28	5.34***	0.000	Accept
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture → Attitude toward local food	0.02	0.26	0.797	Reject
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.29	5.77***	0.000	Accept
H1-6	Hedonic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.37	6.40***	0.000	Accept
H1-7	Conviviality → Attitude toward local food	0.05	1.08	0.277	Reject
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity → Attitude toward local food	0.13	2.22**	0.027	Accept
H2	Attitude toward local food → Subjective wellbeing	0.70	16.98***	0.000	Accept
H3-1	Attitude toward local food → Intention to recommend	0.79	15.40***	0.000	Accept
H3-2	Attitude toward local food → Destination loyalty	0.26	5.49***	0.000	Accept
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing → Intention to recommend	0.05	1.11	0.266	Reject
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing → Destination loyalty	0.58	10.94***	0.000	Accept

$\chi^2=3956.920$, ($p=0.000$); CFI = 0.92; TLI = 0.91; RMSEA = 0.04; GFI = 0.86.

** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure 5.1 Results of the direct path for the structural model (N=900)



** $p < 0.001$, * $p < 0.01$.

5.11.2 Moderating effect

Three moderators of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience were examined. For food tourism place, respondents who traveled to Europe for food tourism were classified as one group and those who traveled to Asia for food tourism were categorized as another group. In terms of food neophobia, the respondents were classified as high food neophobia and low food neophobia. The categories of first-time to taste and repeat taste were used for food tasting experience.

5.11.3 Measurement invariance

Before examining the moderating effect of food tourism place in the proposed model, measurement invariance was performed to determine the measurement model across the two groups (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). To assess the measurement invariance, the χ^2 difference test was used. Here, the measurement models are deemed invariant when there is no significant difference in the χ^2 result (Yoo, 2002). Using recommendations from previous studies (Han, Back & Barrett, 2009; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998), a non-restricted model using CFA was originally examined, after which an assessment of the full metric invariance confirmatory factor analysis model was undertaken. The details of this examination using Asian and European continents have been presented in Table 5.10.

Upon further examination, the goodness of fit indices of each group showed an acceptable level of fit to the data. Also, full metric invariance was supported based on a comparison of the χ^2 difference between the unconstrained model and the fully constrained invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=50.17 < χ^2 .01 (44) = 68.71), suggesting that the two groups were invariant (Yoo, 2002). Thus,

the full metric invariance model was used as a baseline to test the structural invariance across the two groups (Asia and Europe).

Table 5.10 Measurement invariance for Asia (n=450) and Europe (n=450)

Models	Asia vs Europe		
	χ^2 /df	$\Delta\chi^2$ /df	CFI (RMSEA)
Non-restricted	5972.895/2800		.92(.036)
Full metric invariance of CFA model (L(X)Y=IN*)	6023.065/2844	50.17/44 ^a	.92(.035)

Note: *IN=invariance.

- a. Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) < $\chi^2_{.01}$ (44) = 68.71; hence, the full metric invariance model was supported.

5.11.4 SEM results of food tourism to Asia and food tourism to Europe

To examine the paths among the constructs and the groups under examination (i.e., Asia and Europe), structural equation modeling was performed. As shown in Tables 5.11 and 5.12, some similarities and differences existed between the two groups. Further inspection of the model fit indices showed that regarding the Asian dataset, aside from the Chi-square value (χ^2 (1425) = 3007.6, $p = 0.000$) (however, normed Chi-square = 2.1), the other model fit indices were satisfactory. The CFI showed 0.89, TLI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.05, and GFI = 0.81. The result showed that out of 13 path coefficients, eight were statistically significant. These significant paths were from sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.23$, $t=3.00$, $p<0.01$), ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.20$, $t=2.44$, $p<0.05$), hedonic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.34$, $t=3.30$, $p<0.001$), gastronomic novelty and curiosity to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.20$, $t=1.96$, $p<0.05$), attitude toward local food to

subjective wellbeing ($\beta=0.77$, $t=12.74$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to intention to recommend ($\beta=0.96$, $t=10.72$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.59$, $t=7.31$, $p<0.001$), and subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.28$, $t=3.75$, $p<0.001$). The results of the direct paths for the structural model for the group that traveled to Asia have been depicted in Figure 5.2.

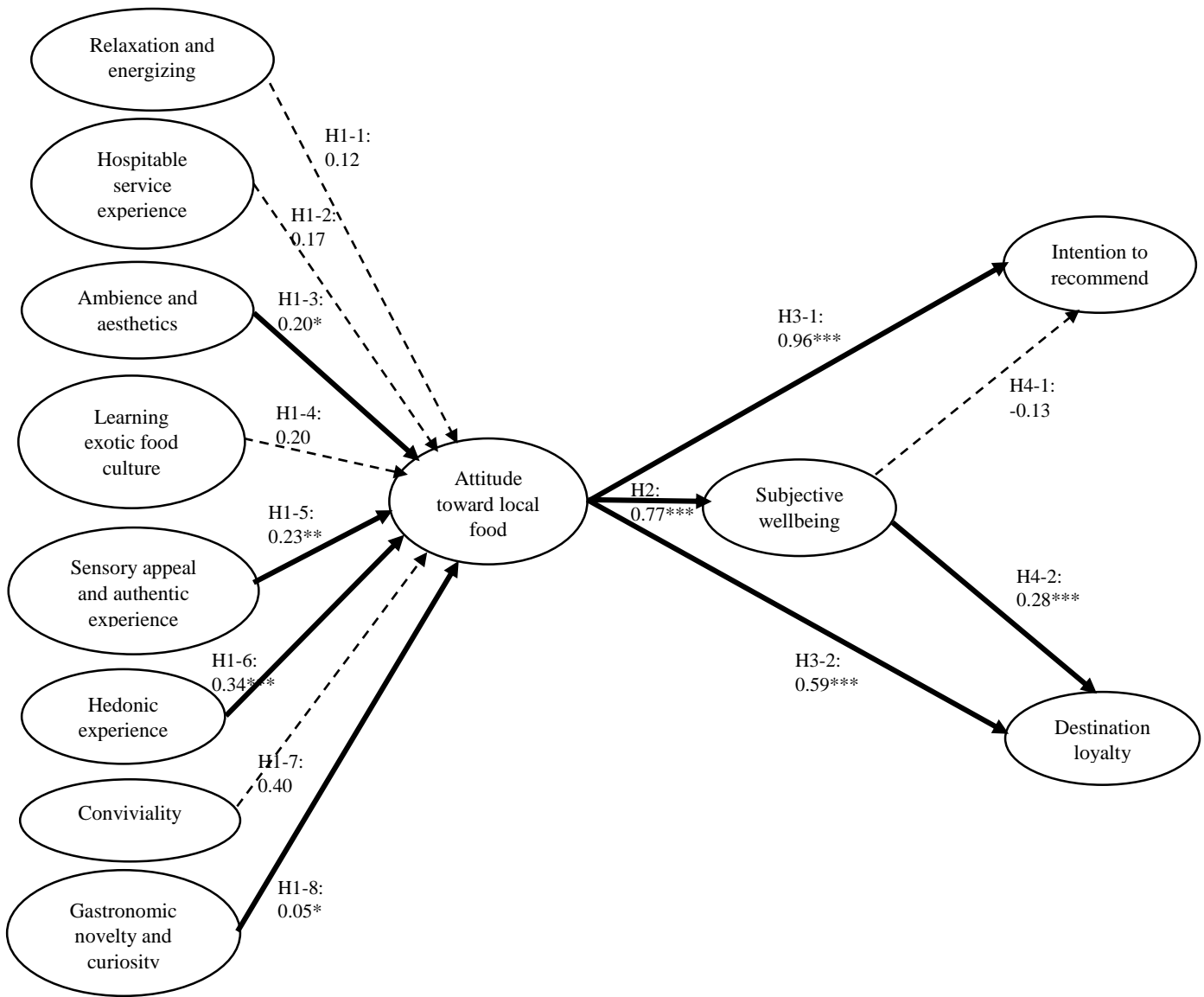
Table 5.11 Results of the SEM analysis of food tourism to Asia (n=450)

Hypo thesis	Path	Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing → Attitude toward local food	0.12	1.86	0.06
H1-2	Hospitable service experience → Attitude toward local food	0.17	1.79	0.07
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics → Attitude toward local food	0.20	2.44*	0.02
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture → Attitude toward local food	0.20	1.85	0.06
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.23	3.00**	0.00
H1-6	Hedonic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.34	3.30***	0.000
H1-7	Conviviality → Attitude toward local food	0.40	0.49	0.63
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity → Attitude toward local food	0.20	1.96*	0.05
H2	Attitude toward local food → Subjective wellbeing	0.77	12.74***	0.000
H3-1	Attitude toward local food → Intention to recommend	0.96	10.72***	0.000
H3-2	Attitude toward local food → Destination loyalty	0.59	7.31***	0.000
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing → Intention to recommend	-0.13	-1.70	0.09
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing → Destination loyalty	0.28	3.75***	0.000

$\chi^2=3007.668$, ($p=0.000$); CFI = 0.89; TLI = 0.88; RMSEA = 0.05; GFI = 0.81.

*** $p<0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$.

Figure 5.2 Results of the direct path for the structural model (Food tourism to Asia group)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

With respect to the group that traveled to Europe, the results of the model fit indices displayed a satisfactory level of fit to the data: normed Chi-square = 2.5 ($\chi^2(1425) = 3506.215$, $p=0.000$), CFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.87, RMSEA = 0.06, and GFI = 0.78. Out of 13 path coefficients, nine were statistically significant and those relationships were from hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.16$, $t=2.28$, $p<0.05$), learning exotic food culture to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.18$, $t=2.19$, $p<0.05$), sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.37$, $t=5.12$, $p<0.001$), ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.34$, $t=3.30$, $p<0.001$), hedonic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.36$, $t=5.26$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing ($\beta=0.64$, $t=11.74$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to intention to recommend ($\beta=0.67$, $t=10.50$, $p<0.001$), subjective wellbeing to intention to recommend ($\beta=0.16$, $t=2.85$, $p<0.01$), and subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.75$, $t=9.46$, $p<0.001$). The results of the SEM analysis and the direct path for the structural model of the European group have been presented in Table 5.12 and Figure 5.3. Figure 5.4 shows the results of the direct path for the structural model of the two datasets.

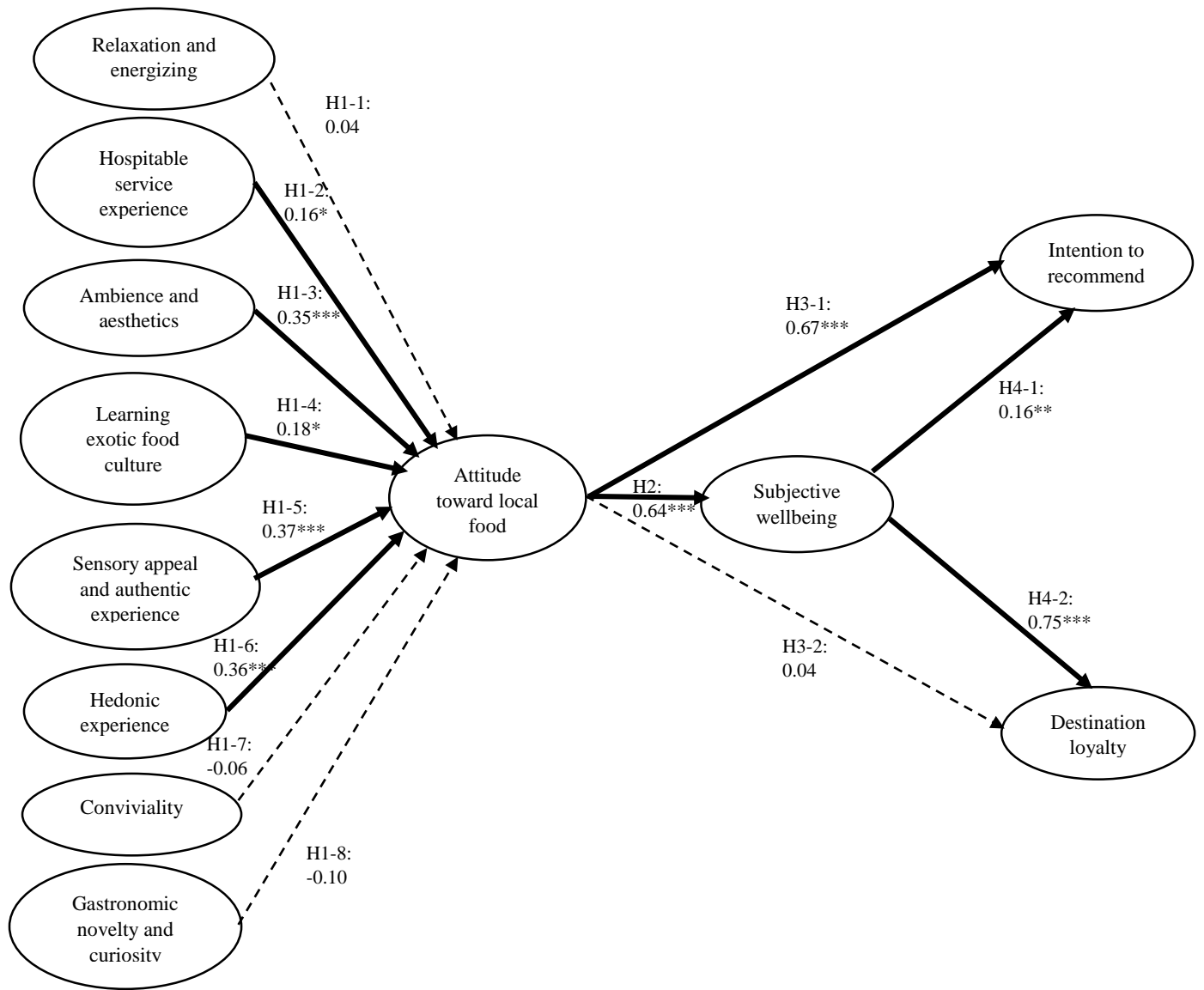
Table 5.12 Results of the SEM analysis of food tourism to Europe (n=450)

Hypothesis	Path	Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing → Attitude toward local food	0.04	0.61	0.54
H1-2	Hospitable service experience → Attitude toward local food	0.16	2.28*	0.02
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics → Attitude toward local food	0.35	4.86***	0.000
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture → Attitude toward local food	0.18	2.19*	0.03
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.37	5.12***	0.000
H1-6	Hedonic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.36	5.26***	0.000
H1-7	Conviviality → Attitude toward local food	-0.06	-0.90	0.37
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity → Attitude toward local food	-0.10	-1.34	0.18
H2	Attitude toward local food → Subjective wellbeing	0.64	11.74***	0.000
H3-1	Attitude toward local food → Intention to recommend	0.67	10.50***	0.000
H3-2	Attitude toward local food → Destination loyalty	0.04	0.63	0.53
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing → Intention to recommend	0.16	2.85**	0.004
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing → Destination loyalty	0.75	9.46***	0.000

$\chi^2 = 3506.215$, ($p=0.000$), CFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.87, RMSEA = 0.06, GFI = 0.78.

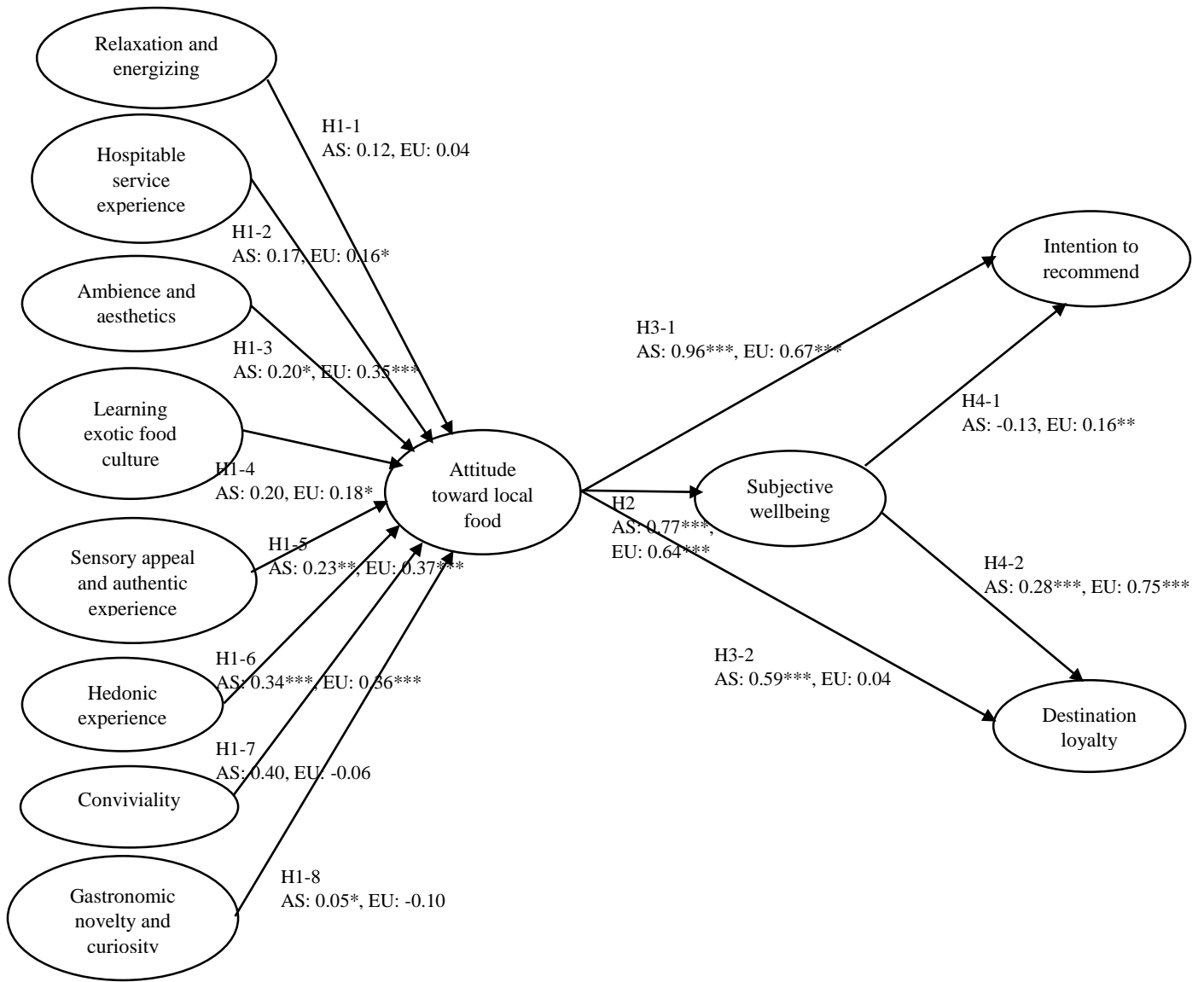
*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 5.3 Results of the direct path for the structural model (Food tourism to Europe group)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 5.4 Results of the direct path for the structural model (Food tourism to Asia and Food tourism to Europe)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

5.11.5 Structural invariance

Following the measurement invariance, the structural invariance was tested. This was done to ascertain whether the proposed structural model is equivalent across the two groups. As a requirement, the Chi-square difference test was undertaken between the baseline model (i.e., the full metric invariance of the structural model) and the full path invariance of the structural model (i.e. invariance of paths across the two groups) (Yoo, 2002). The result indicated that the Chi-square difference between the baseline model (full metric invariance model) and the full path invariance model was significant. This implies that full structural invariances were not supported between the group that traveled to Asia and the group that traveled to Europe ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=75.42 > χ^2 .01 (13) = 27.68). The findings suggest that the paths between the group that traveled to Asia and the group that traveled to Europe were different or were not equivalent to a degree. Table 5.13 presents information on the structural invariances between the Asian group and the European group.

Table 5.13 Structural invariance for food tourism to Asia (n=450) and food tourism to Europe (n=450)

	Models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$ /df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Asian group and European group	Full metric invariance model (L(X)Y=IN)	6567.0	2894		0.88	0.88	0.04
	Full path invariance model (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN) ^a	6642.428	2907	75.428/13	0.88	0.87	0.04

Note: ^a Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=75.42 > χ^2 .01 (13) = 27.68, therefore there is no support for full structural invariance, and the paths across the two groups are not the same.

5.11.6 Invariance test for the paths

The outcomes of the invariance test for the specific paths between the Asian cohort and the European cohort have been presented in Table 5.14. The invariance of an individual path between the aforementioned groups was examined one after the other. For example, one specific path coefficient (hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food) was compared between the baseline model and the constrained model between the two groups. All paths in the baseline model were subsequently examined and compared one after the other with the Asian and the European cohorts.

The result of the cross-group invariance test showed some differences between the Asian cohort and the European cohort. Specifically, 8 out of the 13 had significant differences. The coefficient value of the path from ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the European group than the Asian cohort. The path coefficient value from learning exotic food culture to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the European cohort than the Asian cohort. Again, the European cohort was found to be significantly greater than the Asian cohort when the path coefficient value from sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food was examined. Concerning the coefficient value from attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing, it was found that the Asian cohort was significantly greater than the European cohort. The path coefficient value from attitude toward local food to intention to recommend revealed a greater significance for the Asian cohort than the European cohort. An examination of the path coefficient value from attitude toward local food to destination loyalty showed that the Asian cohort was significantly greater than the European cohort. Further examination of the path coefficient value from subjective wellbeing to intention to recommend revealed that the European cohort was significantly greater than the Asian cohort.

Finally, the path coefficient value for the path from subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty showed that the European group was significantly greater than the Asian cohort. Thus, the moderating role of food tourism place has been partially verified and Hypothesis 5-1 is partially supported.

Table 5.14 Structural invariances for the food tourism to Asia group and food tourism to Europe group

Hypothesis	Path	Asian cohort vs. European cohort	
		χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2/df$
	Free model	6567.0/2894	
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing to attitude toward local food	6567.70/2895	0.70/1
H1-2	Hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food	6567.00/2895	0.00/1
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food	6570.20/2895	3.20/1*
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture to attitude toward local food	6574.78/2895	7.78/1***
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food	6570.31/2895	3.31/1*
H1-6	Hedonic experience to attitude toward local food	6567.43/2895	0.43/1
H1-7	Conviviality to attitude toward local food	6567.07/2895	0.07/1
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity to attitude toward local food	6567.65/2895	0.65/1
H2	Attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing	6580.53/2895	13.53/1***
H3-1	Attitude toward local food to intention to recommend	6587.68/2895	20.68/1***
H3-2	Attitude toward local food to destination loyalty	6605.01/2895	38.01/1***
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing to intention to recommend	6575.94/2895	8.94/1***
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty	6585.13/2895	18.13/1***

Note: * The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.1}(1) = 2.701$).

** The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.05}(1) = 3.842$).

*** The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.01}(1) = 6.635$).

5.11.7 Measurement invariance for food-related personality trait (food neophobia)

The moderating effect of food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia) was examined by conducting a multi-group analysis. The neophobia items were adopted from previous studies (Chen, 2007; Kim, Suh & Eves, 2010) and were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 7 =Strongly Agree). Before conducting the multigroup analysis, an EFA was conducted on eight items. Two items, “I am eager to try new local food during overseas travel” and “I like foods from different cultures when I travel overseas” were removed because of low factor loadings. The result revealed a single factor solution with the eigenvalue ≥ 1.0 . The factor model explained 51.97% of the variance. The KMO was 0.77 and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was 2520.84 (df=15, $p=0.000$). Communalities indicated that the factors accounted for approximately 37% to 80% of the variance in the variables.

Following the EFA, the food neophobia variable was transformed from a continuous to a categorical variable. Since this study is interested in individuals who have a high vs low neophobia trait, the sample was divided into two (using 4.0 value =neutral) such that values below 4.0 were designated as low neophobia and values above 4.0 were categorized as high neophobia. This resulted in $n=582$ (64.0%) for low neophobia and $n=318$ (35.3%) for high neophobia.

Table 5.15 EFA results of neophobia trait (N=900)

Domains and items	Communalities	Factor loadings	Mean
Domain 1: Neophobia trait (Eigenvalue= 3.12, Variance explained= 51.97, Cronbach's α =0.80, Grand mean=3.12)			
I do not trust new local food when I travel overseas	0.80	0.89	3.42
If I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel	0.75	0.87	3.76
Local food seems unappealing to eat during overseas travel	0.73	0.85	3.40
I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel	0.76	0.87	3.58
I am inclined to try new local restaurants and eat local food during overseas travel (R)	0.37	0.45	2.30
I am inclined to eat new and different local foods during overseas travel (R)	0.40	0.41	2.26

(**R**) = items which were reverse coded.

As a lead-up to examining the moderating effect of food neophobia in the proposed model, measurement invariance analysis was undertaken to ascertain the invariance of the measurement model between the two groups (i.e., high and low). The Chi-square difference test was used to examine this invariance. Taking a cue from Yoo (2002), a non-restricted model was initially assessed, followed by the full metric invariance CFA model. The result of the measurement invariance test has been presented in Table 5.16.

The goodness of fit indices of the two groups indicated an acceptable level of fit to the data. This notwithstanding, there was no support for the full metric invariance because a Chi-square difference existed between the baseline model and the full metric invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=95.65 > χ^2 .01 (44) = 68.71). This implies that the factor loadings across the two groups for the proposed constructs were not equivalent. Scholars have proposed the use of partial metric invariance test in situations where the requirements of the full metric invariance are not met (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthen, 1989; Milfont & Fischer, 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000; Yoo, 2002). Following this recommendation – and as a pragmatic

compromise – the partial metric invariance test was conducted. In doing this, the invariance constraints were released one after the other based on parameter changes until the partial metric invariance model was supported ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=46.82 < χ^2 .01 (38) = 61.16). In all, six items (Item Rel6, Item Aesth6, Item Nov3, Item Att1, Item DL4, Item Well3) were released and all other measurement items were constrained for the invariance. The partial metric invariance model was utilized as the baseline model for further structural invariance analysis (Yoo, 2002).

Table 5.16 Measurement invariance for high neophobia (n=318) and low neophobia (n=582)

Models	High vs Low		
	χ^2 /df	$\Delta\chi^2$ /df	CFI (RMSEA)
Non-restricted	5957.70/2800		.90(.035)
Full metric invariance of CFA model (L(X)Y=IN*)	6054.35/2844	95.65/44 ^a	.90(.035)
Partial metric invariance of CFA	6004.52/2838	46.82/38 ^b	.90(.035)

Note: *IN=invariance.

a. Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) > χ^2 .01 (44) = 68.71; hence, the full metric invariance model was not supported.

b. Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) < χ^2 .01 (38) = 61.16; hence, the partial metric invariance model was supported (after the release of six items of invariance constraints).

5.11.8 SEM results of the low neophobia group and the high neophobia group

SEM was performed for the neophobia groups after examining the measurement invariance. The results of the SEM revealed differences and similarities between the two groups. Revealing the SEM results of the two neophobia groups depicts a process of identifying the moderating effect of food-related personality trait in this structural equation model. An investigation of the model fit indices on the high neophobia group showed a satisfactory level of

fit to the data. Within this dataset, the normed Chi-square value was 2.62 ($\chi^2 (1425) = 3732.39, p = 0.000$), the CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.05, and the GFI = 0.80. Further checks on the paths showed that out of the 13 coefficients, 6 were statistically significant. These significant relationships were the paths from ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.15, t=2.28, p<0.05$), hedonic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.18, t=2.19, p<0.05$), attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing ($\beta=0.64, t=12.61, p<0.001$), attitude toward local food and intention to recommend ($\beta=0.73, t=12.04, p<0.001$), attitude toward local food and destination loyalty ($\beta=0.19, t=3.54, p<0.001$), and subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty ($\beta=0.49, t=4.66, p<0.001$). The outcomes of the SEM analysis of the high neophobia group and its pictorial representation have been presented in Table 5.17 and Figure 5.5.

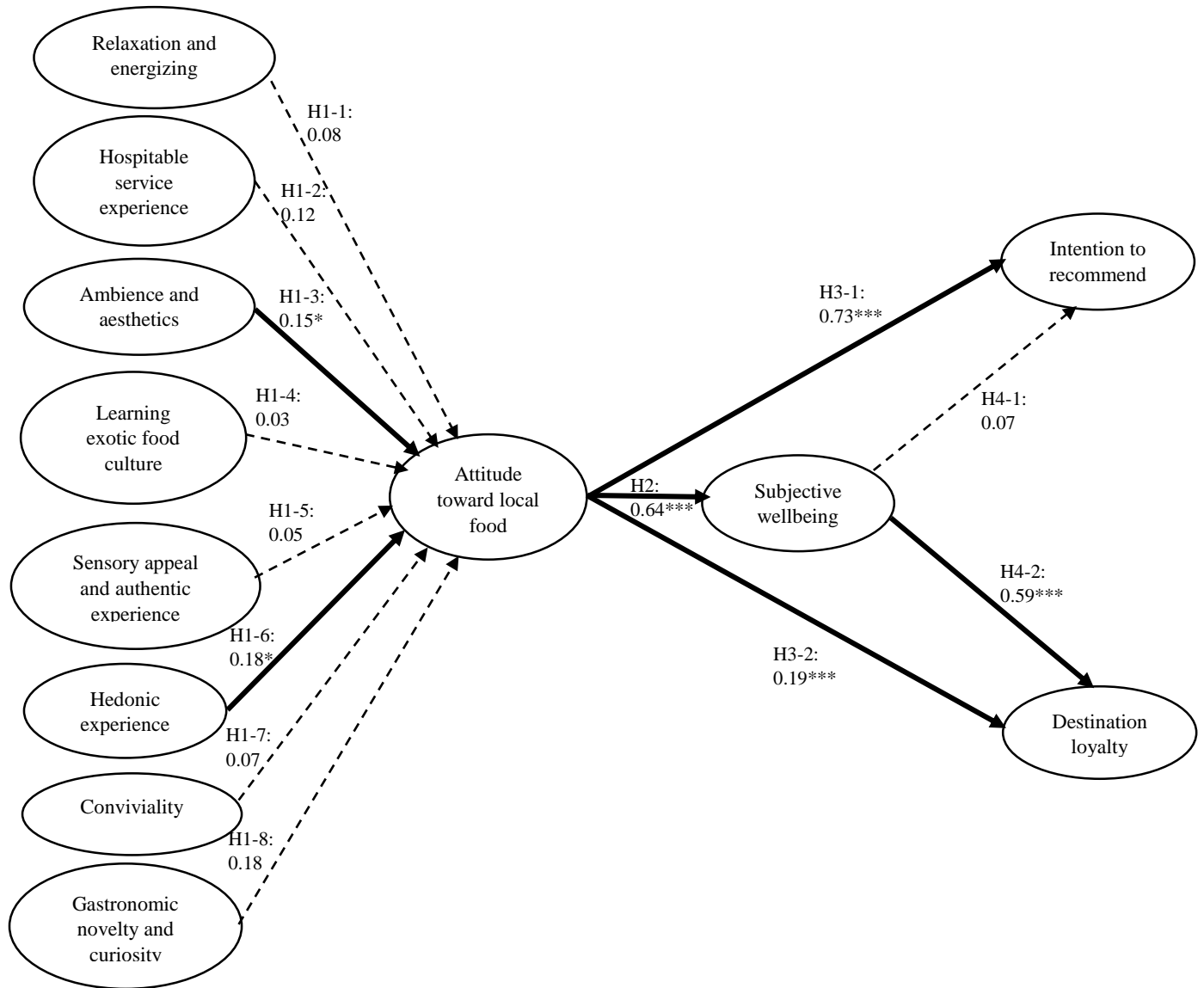
Table 5.17 Results of the SEM analysis of the high neophobia group (n=318)

Hypothesis	Path	Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing → Attitude toward local food	0.08	1.24	0.22
H1-2	Hospitable service experience → Attitude toward local food	0.12	1.68	0.09
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics → Attitude toward local food	0.15	2.28*	0.02
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture → Attitude toward local food	0.03	0.32	0.75
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.05	0.77	0.44
H1-6	Hedonic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.18	2.19*	0.03
H1-7	Conviviality → Attitude toward local food	0.07	-1.25	0.21
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity → Attitude toward local food	0.18	-1.62	0.11
H2	Attitude toward local food → Subjective wellbeing	0.64	12.61***	0.000
H3-1	Attitude toward local food → Intention to recommend	0.73	12.04***	0.000
H3-2	Attitude toward local food → Destination loyalty	0.19	3.54***	0.000
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing → Intention to recommend	0.07	0.73	0.46
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing → Destination loyalty	0.49	4.66***	0.000

$\chi^2=3732.39$, ($p=0.000$); CFI = 0.89; TLI = 0.88; RMSEA = 0.05; GFI = 0.80.

*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 5.5 Results of the direct path for the structural model (high neophobia group)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

With regard to the low neophobia group, the result of the model fit indices showed that the normed Chi-square value was 1.98 ($\chi^2(1425) = 2820.59, p = 0.000$), the CFI = 0.87, TLI = 0.86, RMSEA = 0.06, and the GFI = 0.76. Additional inspection of the path coefficients showed that 9 out of the 13 path coefficients were statistically significant. These significant paths were found between hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta = 0.38, t = 3.37, p < 0.001$),

ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.42$, $t=4.24$, $p<0.001$), sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.45$, $t=5.90$, $p<0.001$), hedonic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.46$, $t=4.78$, $p<0.001$), gastronomic novelty and curiosity to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.16$, $t=2.20$, $p<0.05$), attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing ($\beta=0.82$, $t=11.77$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to intention to recommend ($\beta=0.78$, $t=6.99$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.40$, $t=3.97$, $p<0.001$), and subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.59$, $t=9.55$, $p<0.001$). Table 5.18 and Figure 5.6 depict the outcomes of the SEM analysis as well as the results of the direct path of the structural model for the low neophobia group. Figure 5.7 shows the result of the direct path for the structural model of the two datasets.

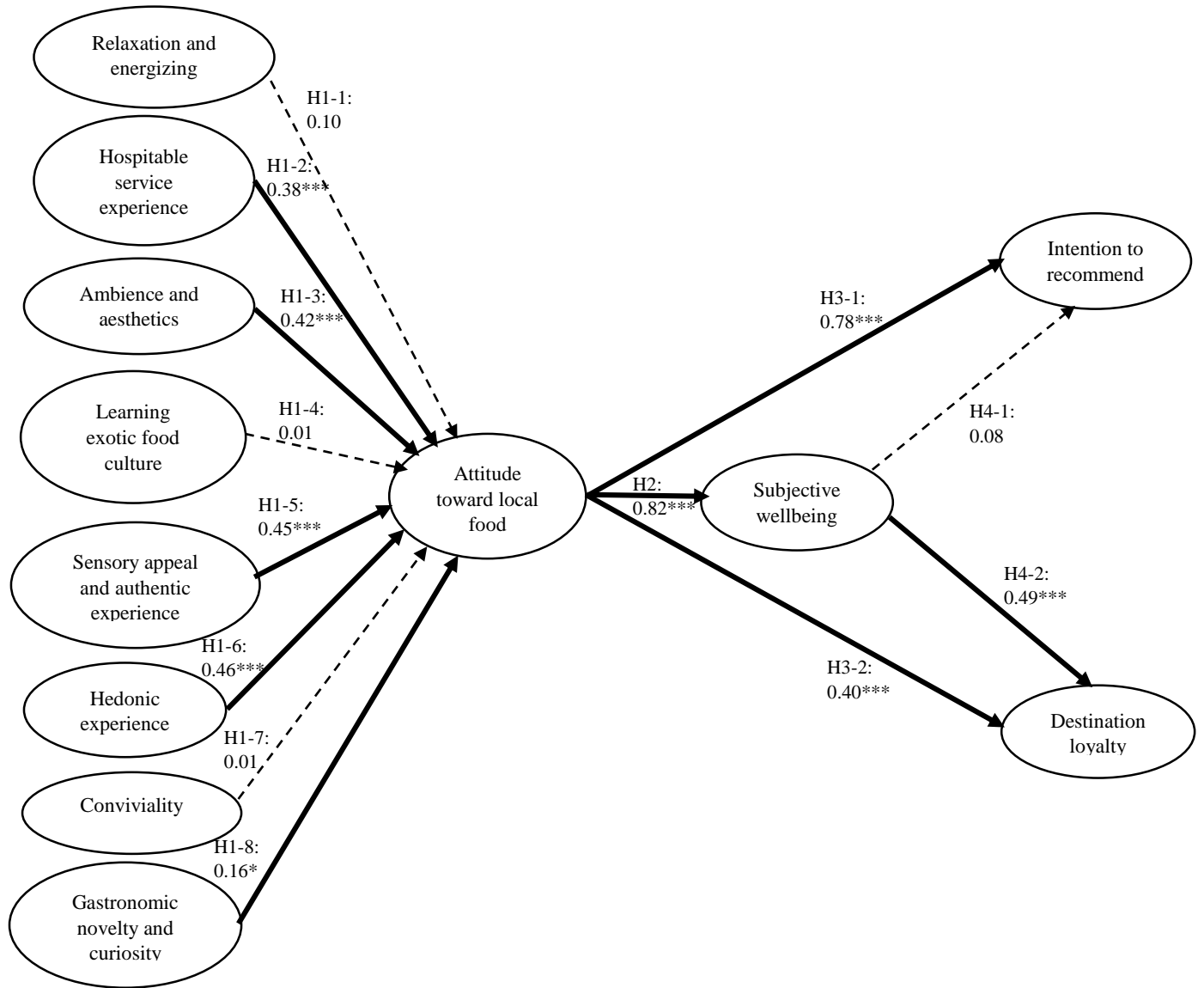
Table 5.18 Results of the SEM analysis of the low neophobia group (n=582)

Hypothesis	Path	Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing → Attitude toward local food	0.10	1.30	0.19
H1-2	Hospitable service experience → Attitude toward local food	0.38	3.37***	0.000
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics → Attitude toward local food	0.42	4.24***	0.000
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture → Attitude toward local food	0.01	0.10	0.92
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.45	5.90***	0.000
H1-6	Hedonic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.46	4.78***	0.000
H1-7	Conviviality → Attitude toward local food	0.01	0.06	0.95
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity → Attitude toward local food	0.16	2.20*	0.03
H2	Attitude toward local food → Subjective wellbeing	0.82	11.77***	0.000
H3-1	Attitude toward local food → Intention to recommend	0.78	6.99***	0.000
H3-2	Attitude toward local food → Destination loyalty	0.40	3.97***	0.000
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing → Intention to recommend	0.08	1.65	0.09
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing → Destination loyalty	0.59	9.55***	0.000

$\chi^2=2820.59, (p=0.000)$; CFI = 0.87; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.06; GFI = 0.76.

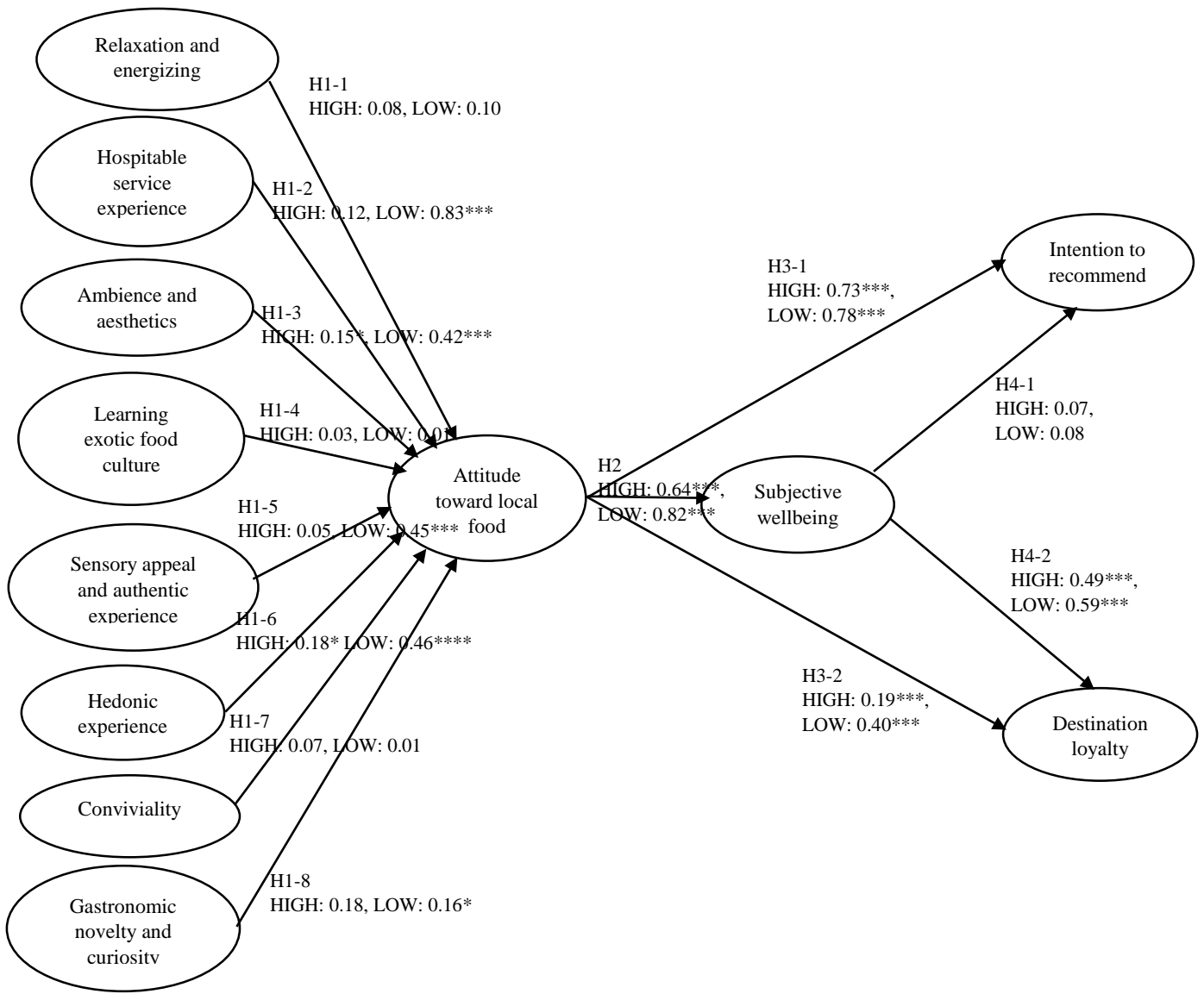
*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 5.6 Results of the direct path for the structural model (low neophobia group)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 5.7 Results of the direct path for the structural model (both high and low neophobia groups)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

5.11.9 Structural invariance

To ensure that the proposed structural model is equivalent between the two groups, structural invariance was tested. As a requirement, the Chi-square difference test was performed between the baseline model (i.e., the partial metric invariance model) and the full path invariance model. Examination of the model displayed a satisfactory fit to the data. The result of the Chi-square difference between the partial metric invariance model and the full path invariance model was significant. This suggests that full structural invariances were not supported between the high neophobia group and the low neophobia group ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=57.08 > χ^2 .01 (13) = 27.68). The finding subsequently revealed that the paths between the high neophobia group and the low neophobia group were different or dissimilar.

Table 5.19 Structural invariance for high neophobia (n=318) and low neophobia (n=582)

	Models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$ /df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
High neophobia group vs.	Partial metric invariance model (L(X)Y=IN)	6601.66	2888		0.88	0.88	0.04
Low neophobia group	Full path invariance model (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN) ^a	6658.74	2901	57.08/13	0.88	0.87	0.04

Note: ^a Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=57.08 > χ^2 .01 (13) = 27.68, therefore there is no support for full structural invariance, and the paths across the two groups are not the same.

5.11.10 Invariance test for the paths

The outcomes of the invariance test for the specific paths between the high neophobia group and the low neophobia group have been presented in Table 5.20. The invariance of one specific path between the two groups was examined one after the other. For example, one specific path coefficient (relaxation and energizing to attitude toward local food) was matched between the

baseline model and the constrained model between the high and low neophobia groups. Following this, the remaining paths were examined and compared.

Evidence from the cross-group invariance test suggests that the high and low neophobia groups had a significant difference in 5 out of the 13 paths. The path coefficient from hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the low neophobia group than the high neophobia group. The path coefficient from ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the low neophobia group than the high neophobia group. The path coefficient from sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the low neophobia group than the high neophobia group. The path coefficient from hedonic experience to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the low neophobia group than the high neophobia group. Lastly, the path coefficient from subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty was significantly greater in the low neophobic group than the high neophobic group. Based on these findings, the moderating role of food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia) has been partially verified and thus Hypothesis 5-2 is partially supported.

Table 5.20 Structural invariances for the high neophobia group and the low neophobia group

Hypothesis	Path	High neophobia group vs. Low neophobia group	
		χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2/df$
	Free model	6601.66/2888	
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing to attitude toward local food	6601.82/2889	0.16/1
H1-2	Hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food	6607.59/2889	5.93/1**
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food	6609.33/2889	7.67/1***
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture to attitude toward local food	6601.76/2889	0.09/1
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food	6617.42/2889	15.76/1***
H1-6	Hedonic experience to attitude toward local food	6606.25/2889	4.59/1**
H1-7	Conviviality to attitude toward local food	6601.70/2889	0.04/1
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity to attitude toward local food	6601.89/2889	0.23/1
H2	Attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing	6601.67/2889	0.01/1
H3-1	Attitude toward local food to intention to recommend	6601.68/2889	0.02/1
H3-2	Attitude toward local food to destination loyalty	6602.45/2889	0.79/1
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing to intention to recommend	6601.67/2889	0.01/1
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty	6604.89/2889	3.23/1*

Note: * The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.1}(1) = 2.701$).

** The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.05}(1) = 3.842$).

*** The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.01}(1) = 6.635$).

5.11.11 Measurement invariance

The moderating effect of food tasting experience was hypothesized in the proposed model. Before examining this effect, a measurement invariance test was undertaken to ascertain the invariance of the measurement model between the two groups (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The Chi-square difference test has gained wider popularity and applicability as far as the testing of measurement invariance is concerned. The measurement model is considered invariant when the Chi-square does not indicate a significant difference (Yoo, 2002). Consequently, in line with

previous studies (Han, Back & Barrett, 2009), a non-restricted model using CFA was originally examined, after which an assessment of the full metric invariance of the CFA model was undertaken.

Following this examination, the goodness of fit indices of each group suggested a supportive fit to the data. This notwithstanding, full metric invariance was not supported as Chi-square differences existed between the non-restricted model and full metric invariance model in the two groups ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=66.58 > χ^2 .05 (44) = 60.48). This suggests that the factor loadings between the two groups for the proposed constructs were not equivalent. The use of partial metric invariance test has been proposed by various scholars in situations where the requirements of the full metric invariance are not met (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthen, 1989; Milfont & Fischer, 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000; Yoo, 2002). Based on this recommendation, the partial metric invariance test was conducted. In doing this, the invariance constraints were released one after the other based on parameter changes until the partial metric invariance model was supported ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=41.46 < χ^2 .01 (40) = 63.69). In all, four items (Item Fcult2, Item Fcult4, Item Sens3, and Item Att2) were released and all other measurement items were constrained for the invariance. The partial metric invariance model was utilized as the baseline model for further structural invariance analysis (Yoo, 2002). Table 5.21 presents information on the measurement invariance for food tasting experience (i.e., first-time to taste cohort and repeat taste cohort).

Table 5.21 Measurement invariance for first-time to taste cohort (N=538) and repeat taste cohort (N=362)

Models	First-time to taste cohort vs Repeat taste cohort		
	χ^2 /df	$\Delta\chi^2$ /df	CFI (RMSEA)
Non-restricted	6026.229/2800		.90(.036)
Full metric invariance of CFA model (L(X)Y=IN*)	6093.077/2844	66.85/44 ^a	.90(.036)
Partial metric invariance of CFA	6067.685/2840	41.46/40 ^b	.90(.036)

Note: *IN=invariance.

a. Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) > $\chi^2_{.05}$ (44) = 60.48; accordingly, the full metric invariance model was not supported.

b. Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) < $\chi^2_{.01}$ (40) = 63.69; accordingly, the partial metric invariance model was supported (after the release of four items of invariance constraints).

5.11.12 SEM results of the first time to taste cohort and repeat taste cohort

Before proceeding to test the structural invariance of the groups in the model, SEM was conducted for the groups. The details of the analysis are presented in Table 5.22 and Figure 5.8. The outcomes revealed differences and similarities of the estimated paths in the two groups. Depicting the results of the SEM is a process of identifying the moderating effect of food tasting experience in this structural equation model.

An initial examination of the model fit indices for the first-time to taste cohort revealed an acceptable fit to the data. The normed Chi-square value revealed 2.38 (χ^2 (1425) = 3401.56, $p = 0.000$), the CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.05, and GFI = 0.81. Out of the 13 path coefficients, 8 were statistically significant. These significant relationships were found on the paths from hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.18$, $t=2.64$, $p<0.01$), sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.20$, $t=2.76$, $p<0.01$), ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.37$, $t=5.43$, $p<0.001$), hedonic experience to

attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.32$, $t=4.89$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing ($\beta=0.71$, $t=13.56$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to intention to recommend ($\beta=0.76$, $t=11.22$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.14$, $t=2.24$, $p<0.05$), and subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.64$, $t=8.81$, $p<0.001$).

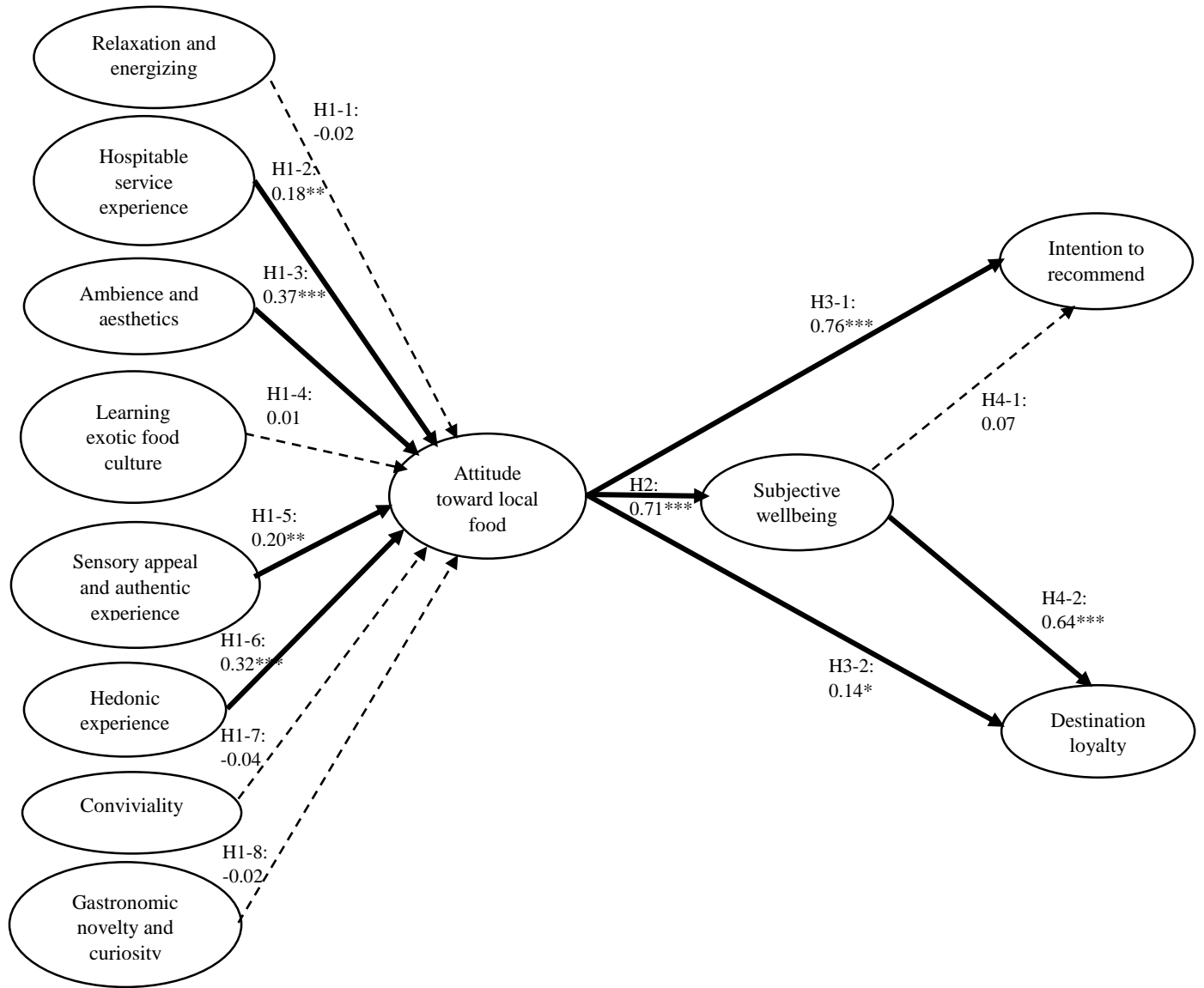
Table 5.22 Results of the SEM analysis of the first-time to taste cohort (n=538)

Hypothesis	Path	Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing → Attitude toward local food	-0.02	-0.39	0.70
H1-2	Hospitable service experience → Attitude toward local food	0.18	2.64**	0.01
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics → Attitude toward local food	0.37	5.43***	0.000
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture → Attitude toward local food	0.01	0.04	0.97
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.20	2.76**	0.01
H1-6	Hedonic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.32	4.89***	0.000
H1-7	Conviviality → Attitude toward local food	-0.04	-0.55	0.58
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity → Attitude toward local food	-0.02	-0.25	0.80
H2	Attitude toward local food → Subjective wellbeing	0.71	13.56***	0.000
H3-1	Attitude toward local food → Intention to recommend	0.76	11.22***	0.000
H3-2	Attitude toward local food → Destination loyalty	0.14	2.24*	0.03
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing → Intention to recommend	0.07	1.16	0.25
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing → Destination loyalty	0.64	8.81***	0.000

$\chi^2=3401.56$, ($p=0.000$); CFI = 0.89; TLI = 0.88; RMSEA = 0.05; GFI = 0.81.

*** $p<0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$.

Figure 5.8 Results of the direct path for the structural model (first-time to taste cohort)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

After examining the first-time to taste cohort, the model fit indices were checked for the repeat taste cohort. The model fit indices showed a supportive level of fit to the data: normed Chi-square 2.26 ($\chi^2=3229.074$ (1425), $p=0.000$, CFI = 0.87, TLI = 0.86, RMSEA = 0.06, and GFI = 0.75). In all, out of the 13 path coefficients, 8 were found to be statistically significant. The significant paths were from hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.27$, $t=3.08$, $p<0.01$), sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.36$, $t=3.99$, $p<0.001$), hedonic experience to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.48$, $t=3.50$, $p<0.001$), gastronomic novelty and curiosity to attitude toward local food ($\beta=0.19$, $t=1.96$, $p<0.05$), attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing ($\beta=0.70$, $t=10.88$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to intention to recommend ($\beta=0.87$, $t=10.94$, $p<0.001$), attitude toward local food to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.47$, $t=6.37$, $p<0.001$), and subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty ($\beta=0.46$, $t=6.28$, $p<0.001$). The details of the analysis have been depicted in Table 5.23 and Figure 5.9.

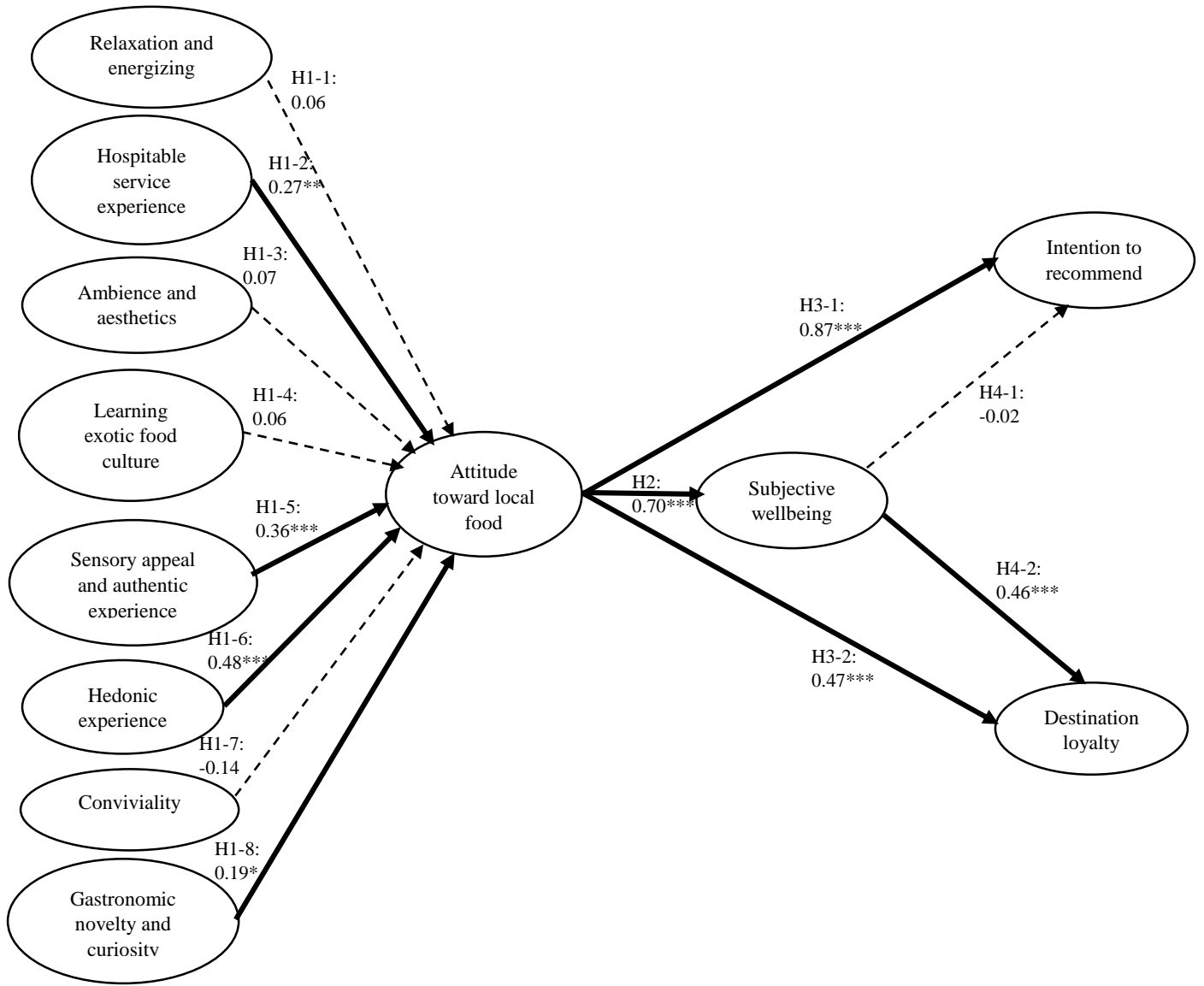
Table 5.23 Results of the SEM analysis of the repeat taste cohort (n=362)

Hypothesis	Path	Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing → Attitude toward local food	0.06	0.74	0.46
H1-2	Hospitable service experience → Attitude toward local food	0.27	3.08**	0.01
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics → Attitude toward local food	0.07	0.69	0.49
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture → Attitude toward local food	0.06	0.59	0.56
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.36	3.99***	0.000
H1-6	Hedonic experience → Attitude toward local food	0.48	3.50***	0.000
H1-7	Conviviality → Attitude toward local food	-0.14	-1.70	0.09
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity → Attitude toward local food	0.19	1.96*	0.05
H2	Attitude toward local food → Subjective wellbeing	0.70	10.88***	0.000
H3-1	Attitude toward local food → Intention to recommend	0.87	10.94***	0.000
H3-2	Attitude toward local food → Destination loyalty	0.47	6.37***	0.000
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing → Intention to recommend	-0.02	-0.23	0.82
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing → Destination loyalty	0.46	6.28***	0.000

$\chi^2=3229.074$, ($p=0.000$); CFI = 0.87; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.06; GFI = 0.75.

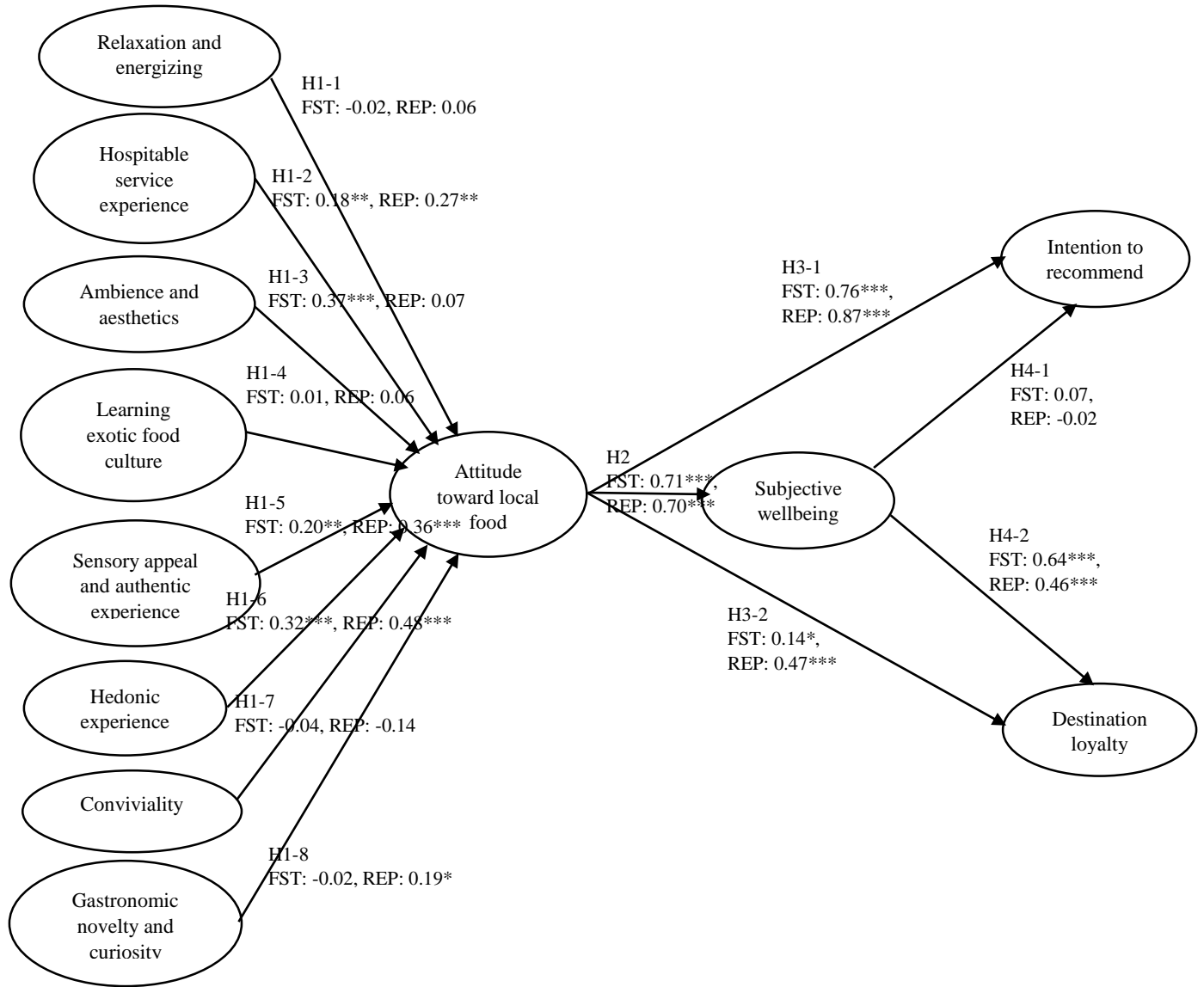
*** $p<0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$.

Figure 5.9 Results of the direct path for the structural model (repeat taste cohort)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 5.10 Results of the direct path for the structural model (both first-time to taste cohort and repeat taste cohort)



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

5.11.13 Structural invariance

Following the SEM for the two groups, structural invariance was tested for the paths in the model. The baseline model was developed by analyzing the whole model which was centered on the partial metric invariance model. Also, the full path invariance model was generated where all the causal paths were made to be invariant across the groups. To ensure that the paths were equal, the test for the Chi-square difference between the baseline model and the full path invariance model was conducted.

The result showed that the Chi-square difference between the baseline model and the full path invariance model was significant, suggesting that full structural invariances were not supported between the first-time to taste cohort and repeat taste cohort ($\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=46.30 > χ^2 .01 (13) = 27.68). The findings further suggested that the paths between the first-time to taste group and the repeat group were different. Table 5.24 shows the result of the structural invariance between the first-time group and the repeat taste group.

Table 5.24 Structural invariance for the first-time to taste cohort (N=538) and repeat taste cohort (N=362)

	Models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$ /df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
First-time to taste group vs. Repeat taste group	Partial metric invariance model (L(X)Y=IN)	6674.91	2890		0.88	0.87	0.04
	Full path invariance model (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN) ^a	6721.22	2903	46.30/13	0.88	0.87	0.04

Note: ^a Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2$ (df)=46.30 > χ^2 .01 (13) = 27.68, therefore there is no support for the full structural invariance, and the paths across the two groups are dissimilar.

5.11.14 Test of invariance for the paths

The result of the invariance test for the individual paths between the first-time to taste group and the repeat taste group has been presented in Table 5.25. The invariance of one particular path between the two groups was examined one after the other. For example, one specific path coefficient (relaxation and energizing to attitude toward local food) was contrasted between the baseline model and the constrained model between the first-time to taste group and the repeat taste group. Afterward, the remaining paths were examined and compared.

The result of the cross-group invariance test showed that 7 out of the 13 paths were significantly different between the first-time to taste group and the repeat taste group. It was found that the coefficient value from sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the repeat taste group than the first-time to taste group. A further exploration of the path coefficient from ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food revealed the first-time to taste group to be significantly greater than the repeat taste group. The path coefficient from gastronomic novelty and curiosity to attitude toward local food was significantly greater in the repeat taste group than the first-time to taste group. In terms of the path coefficient value from attitude toward local food and subjective wellbeing, the first-time to taste group was found to be greater than the repeat taste group. Conversely, the repeat taste group was found to be greater than the first-time to taste group when the path between attitude toward local food and intention to recommend was examined. Similarly, the repeat taste group was found to be significantly greater than the first-time to taste group when the path between attitude toward local food and destination loyalty was examined. Finally, the path coefficient between subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty showed that the first-time to taste group was significantly greater

than the repeat taste group. In sum, it can be asserted that the moderating role of food tasting experience has been partially verified and thus Hypothesis 5-3 is partially supported.

Table 5.25 Structural invariances for the first-time to taste group and the repeat taste group

Hypothesis	Path	First-time to taste group vs. Repeat taste group	
		χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2/df$
	Free model	6674.91/2890	
H1-1	Relaxation and energizing to attitude toward local food	6675.766/2891	0.86/1
H1-2	Hospitable service experience to attitude toward local food	6674.932/2891	0.02/1
H1-3	Ambience and aesthetics to attitude toward local food	6683.175/2891	8.27/1***
H1-4	Learning exotic food culture to attitude toward local food	6675.093/2891	0.18/1
H1-5	Sensory appeal and authentic experience to attitude toward local food	6678.104/2891	3.19/1**
H1-6	Hedonic experience to attitude toward local food	6675.228/2891	0.32/1
H1-7	Conviviality to attitude toward local food	6675.715/2891	0.81/1
H1-8	Gastronomic novelty and curiosity to attitude toward local food	6678.183/2891	3.27/1**
H2	Attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing	6680.253/2891	5.34/1**
H3-1	Attitude toward local food to intention to recommend	6684.465/2891	9.56/1***
H3-2	Attitude toward local food to destination loyalty	6691.477/2891	16.57/1***
H4-1	Subjective wellbeing to intention to recommend	6675.696/2891	0.79/1
H4-2	Subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty	6679.407/2891	4.50/1**

Note: * The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.1}(1) = 2.701$).

** The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.05}(1) = 3.842$).

*** The source of significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2/df > \Delta\chi^2_{0.01}(1) = 6.635$).

5.12 Summary

This chapter presented the results of the study. It discussed how the data were screened, how missing data were treated, and how the normality of the data was tested. The background characteristics of the respondents was also given, followed by a cross-validation of the data. An EFA was performed on the calibration sample whereas a CFA was used on the validation sample. The results revealed that tourists' MLFTE comprise eight domains. Assumptions of content validity, construct validity, and discriminant validity were addressed. Structural equation modeling was performed and 9 out of 13 hypotheses were supported. The hypotheses of the moderators of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience were also partially supported. The next chapter discusses the findings and implications of the study.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings and the theoretical and practical implications of the study. The discussion is based on the four research objectives.

6.2 Research objective 1: Development of a scale to measure MLFTE

This study followed the procedures outlined in past studies (e.g., Choe & Kim, 2019; Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003) in the development and validation of a scale to measure MLFTE. An extensive examination of the literature on MLFTEs was undertaken based on which 12 thematic domains were identified. Following a rigorous filtering process of the items, review from experts, pre and pilot tests, and the performance of EFA and CFA on the items, eight memorable local food tourism domains were identified. These domains were “relaxation and energizing”, “hospitable service experience”, “ambience and aesthetics”, “learning exotic food culture”, “sensory appeal and authentic experience”, “hedonic experience”, “conviviality”, and gastronomic novelty and curiosity”.

“Relaxation and energizing” denote an emotional state and depth of experiential engagement that helps a tourist to recharge or relax (Adongo et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2009; Tsai, 2016). It is also one of the functions or end products of consuming food. Tourists become recharged when they consume local foods because local food provides them with energy and enhances their mental and emotional states. Such positive outcomes as a result of consuming local food results in pleasant memories for tourists. Previous studies only partially addressed relaxation and energizing in the memorable local food experience literature; nonetheless, an indication of its significance to tourist segments who travel to different destinations is found. Tsai (2016) identified refreshment as an

important component of the memorability of tourists in Taiwan. Similar outcomes were realized by Adongo et al. (2015) within the African context. Thus, this thesis empirically demonstrates that relaxation and energizing is an important MLFTE for tourists.

“Hospitable service experience” describes the warmth, knowledge, and friendliness that service staff extends to tourists within their facilities. For tourists seeking to enjoy local food in local restaurants, the general feeling of being welcomed through positive staff attitudes, service delivery, and staff knowledge is unforgettable. Previous studies (Canny, 2014; Sthapit, 2017; Stone et al., 2018) revealed that friendly and courteous services from restaurant staff contribute to satisfaction and enhance memorability. Thus, the hospitable attributes of local restaurant staff are integral in the memorability of tourists’ food tourism experience as empirically demonstrated in this study.

Tourists' appreciation of the beauty, settings, and traditional designs of local restaurants is important in enhancing their memorable experience. Tourists desire to have experiences that are aesthetically pleasing to their senses or are “wonderful” and can be admired and shared with other people (Kirillova & Lehto, 2015; Kirillova, Lehto, Fu & Cai, 2014). The aesthetics of local restaurants as evidenced by traditional restaurant designs, their meanings, themes/ambiance, and other facets of the physical surroundings of the service settings play a significant role in tourists’ local food experience. Stone et al. (2018) demonstrated that the settings of local restaurants enhance their beauty and are important in tourists’ MLFTE. The “ambiance and aesthetics” component of memorable local food experience has only been tangentially addressed in the food tourism literature. The present study empirically demonstrates its centrality in the enhancement of tourists’ MLFTE.

“Learning exotic food culture” describes a deep mental involvement through learning and experiencing different kinds of food and food cultures of a host destination. The enhancement of intellectual and cultural capital through local food consumption has been identified in previous studies (Choe & Kim, 2019; Kim & Choe, 2019; Tikkanen, 2007; Tsai, 2016), but has not been adequately addressed in the memorable local food experience literature. The cultural capital theory, for instance, posits local food tasting as a form of “habitus” or behavior by which a tourist can acquire knowledge through experiencing the culture of a group of people (Chang et al., 2011; Getz, 2000; Tikkanen, 2007). Some studies identified local culture and knowledge-gaining as different constructs (Adongo et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2012). However, as stipulated by the cultural capital theory, experiencing local food in a tourism setting involves learning activities through which tourists can expand their horizon and experience the food culture of locals (Tikkanen, 2007). The items of learning exotic food culture indicate that tourists who have this memorable experience further learn about the traditional methods of food preparation and style of eating, local food history, and traditional ingredients and recipes of the host, thereby enhancing their understanding about the culture of the host destination. This thesis demonstrates that the experience of exotic food cultures through learning is a significant component of MLFTE.

Eating tasty and authentic local food during a tourism trip is an experience that tourists seek to enjoy. Sensory appeal and perceptions play significant physiological and psychological roles in tourists’ local food experience (Furst, Connors, Bisogni, Sobal & Falk, 1996; Kim et al., 2009). The experience of authentic local food ‘in its traditional setting’ accompanied by unique tastes serves to make a mark in the memories of tourists. Previous studies emphasized the utility of all five senses (Boniface, 2001; Vignolles & Paul-Emmanuel, 2014) in the local food consumption activity, whereas the sense of smell and taste have been found to make a strong imprint on the

minds of tourists (Dann & Jacobsen, 2002; Fields, 2002; Kauppinen-Raisanen et al., 2013; Kivela & Crofts, 2006). This study finds that sensory appeal and authentic experience are key in the MLFTE.

“Hedonic experience” denotes excitement and sensation-seeking associated with the local food experience (Kim et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2009). This MLFTE construct has been underscored in previous studies (Adongo, et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2012; Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Tsai, 2016). Scholars have asserted that tourism and food tasting activities are inherently hedonistic and aid in tourist satisfaction and future behaviors. Kim et al. (2009 p. 425), for example, revealed that tourists find their food tasting experience to be “exciting and thrilling” and memorable. Thus, this study clarifies that gaining an exciting, entertaining, and sensation-stimulating food-related experience is an important element in tourists’ MLFTE.

“Conviviality” describes the togetherness, friendliness, and social pleasures of dining together and sharing local food (Bradley, 2018; Germov, Williams & Freji, 2011). Tourists find it pleasurable when they eat local food with family and close associates. More importantly, they become fulfilled and joyful when they connect with the local community. Enhancement of bonds through socialization and enjoyment of local dining company is essential in creating MLFTE. Previous studies revealed that togetherness and socialization are significant in tourists’ food experiences (Kim et al., 2009; Sthapit, 2017; Stone et al., 2018). While this construct is in line with previous studies, it has been given little attention in the memorable local food tourism literature.

Lastly, “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” is identified as MLFTE. The quest to experience “something different” is important to tourists during their tourism activity and the consumption of novel foods satisfies such desires. Previous studies suggested that tourists are excited when they

experience local food that is “new” or “very different” from what they are familiar with. Also, their curiosity is satisfied when they experience unusual foods and environments for the first time (Stone et al., 2018; Tse & Crotts, 2005). Research has found that tourists tend to remember distinctive, atypical, or new events and experiences more than familiar ones (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016).

The dimension of “relaxation and energizing” included six items. The second factor “hospitable service experience” had six items. The third “ambience and aesthetics” consisted of six items whereas “learning exotic food culture” comprised five items. “Sensory appeal and authentic experience” produced four items and the sixth “hedonic experience” had five items. The last two dimensions “conviviality” and “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” had three items each. The mean score of sensory appeal and authentic experience (6.21) was the highest, followed by hedonic experience (6.10) and hospitable service experience (6.01). Ambience and aesthetics followed next with a mean value of 6.00 whereas gastronomic novelty and curiosity had a mean value of 5.99. With a mean score of 5.92, learning exotic food culture was next, followed by conviviality (5.83). The domain with the least mean score was relaxation and energizing (5.70). MLFTE was measured and applied within the European and Asian local food contexts with a sample of US tourists. “Sensory appeal and authentic experience” and “hedonic experience” ranked high in the MLFTE among US tourists to European and Asian countries. However, “conviviality” and “relaxation and energizing” were the least among other domains. These findings advocate that the sensorial and emotional aspects of the food experience are most important in the MLFTE among US food tourists.

6.3 Research objective 2: Examination of the effects of MLFTE on attitude toward local food

The hypothesis to examine the influence of MLFTE on tourists' attitude toward local food was sub-divided into eight hypotheses. This was done to enhance understanding of the effects of the multidimensionality of MLFTE. The results revealed that “hospitable service experience”, “ambience and aesthetics”, “sensory appeal and authentic experience”, “hedonic experience”, and “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” significantly and positively influenced attitude toward local food among US tourists. Conversely, “relaxation and energizing”, “learning exotic food culture”, and “conviviality” did not influence attitude toward local food in the European and Asian local food contexts.

H1-1, postulated as “relaxation and energizing positively affects tourists' attitude toward local food”, was not supported ($\beta=0.05$, $t=1.05$, $p>0.05$). This result is quite surprising given that revitalization/liberation associated with local food consumption has been found to evoke positive emotions in some contexts (Uysal et al., 2012; Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016). Some reasons can be adduced to explain this surprising result. First, it is possible that although relaxation and energizing are memorable, consuming local food and getting relaxed or revitalized is considered an expected outcome and hence may not be ‘extraordinary’ to evoke positive attitudes, especially during a tourism trip. Naturally, individuals become relaxed or energized after eating. So, when this happens, it is likely to be regarded as an end product. Kauppinen-Raisanen et al. (2013) indicated how tourists regard some positively remembered eating experiences as ordinary whereas others were extraordinary. Second, it is plausible that relaxation and energizing was not regarded as a core part of the food tourism experience, unlike other constructs. Moreover, this dimension had the lowest mean score (5.70) among the other memorable local food tourism domains.

Therefore, some tourists may not have many “relaxation and energizing” memories by eating local food. Hence, this may not lead to an overall positive attitude toward local food.

The influence of “hospitable service experience” on “attitude toward local food” was significant ($\beta=0.19$, $t=3.52$, $p<0.001$). Thus, H1-2 was supported. Although these constructs are the first to be tested within the food memorability context, the result resonates with previous studies that identified that restaurant staff functional practices, service orientation, or positive attitudes such as friendliness, courtesy, responsiveness, and knowledge enhance customers’ emotions and satisfaction (Ha & Jang, 2010; Kim, 2011; Liu & Jang, 2009). Kuo (2007) found that tourists generate a positive disposition and become satisfied when they experience positive service attitudes from hospitality staff. Liu and Jang (2009) also found that customers show concern about service staff reliability in local restaurants. In the same vein, this thesis reveals that tourists are increasingly paying attention to restaurant service staff attitude and performance. Therefore, experiencing local restaurants where restaurant staff exhibit positive performance and attitudes is important in creating MLFTE that leads to positive tourists’ attitude toward local food. Alhelalat, Habiballah and Twaissi (2017) investigated the impacts of restaurant employee personal and functional service behaviors and found that the more restaurant staff exhibits positive personal, functional attitude and performance, the more customers become satisfied.

H1-3, “ambience and aesthetics positively affects tourists’ attitude toward local food”, was supported ($\beta=0.28$, $t=5.34$, $p<0.001$). The more tourists’ visual senses are stimulated through the appreciation of the beauty of local restaurants or eatery, the more they positively evaluate local food. The pleasantness, setting, and ambience of a local restaurant can enhance the emotions of tourists and encourage them to taste local food in the restaurant. The connection between tourists’ emotional/attitudinal states and environmental stimuli has been theoretically explained in

Mehrabian and Russel's (1974) Stimulus-Organism-Response paradigm. Previous studies identified the role of restaurant setting in enhancing customers' evaluation of a tourism and hospitality product (Han & Ryu, 2009; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Liu & Jang, 2009; Ryu, Lee & Kim, 2012). Bitner (1992) and Liu and Jang (2009) noted that the setting of a restaurant has a direct association with customers' cognitive affective and attitudinal responses. The appreciation of the beauty of a local restaurant is significant in tourists' memories (Sthapit, 2017; Stone et al., 2018) because they see something special and obtain positive emotions such as happiness. The current study corroborates the findings of previous research that indicated that tourists' emotions are enhanced when they eat out in pleasant restaurant environments. Within the memorable local food tourism context, this study shows that having memories about the ambience and aesthetics of a local restaurant is important in establishing overall attitude of tourists toward local food.

H1-4, "learning exotic food culture positively affects tourists' attitude toward local food", was not supported ($\beta=0.02$, $t=0.26$, $p>0.05$). This is a surprising result because some studies have shown that tourists who experience different food cultures through the learning of traditional methods of local food preparation or the gaining of knowledge about traditional ingredients and recipes tend to have positive evaluations or responses (Choe & Kim, 2018; Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Kim & Choe, 2019). However, in this study, the dominance of first-time food-tasting tourists to a destination country may partly explain this surprising result. First-time food tasting tourists usually exercise some caution or hesitation when they engage in local food consumption or food tourism activities for the first time (Tse & Crotts, 2005). Hence, their degree of openness of immersion into the local culture through local food consumption or learning may be limited compared with tourists who have previous experiences of tasting local food (Ryu & Jang, 2006; Tse & Crotts, 2005; Wijaya et al., 2017). Another possible reason is that tourists did not generate

positive attitudes because opportunities to learn local culinary cultures and methods through practice were limited. Despite these plausible reasons, further examination of this relationship is warranted using different samples in different food tourism contexts.

H1-5, “sensory appeal and authentic experience positively affects tourists’ attitude toward local food”, was supported ($\beta=0.29$, $t=5.77$, $p<0.001$). This result is supported by previous studies (Choe & Kim, 2018; Dann & Jacobsen, 2002; Kauppinen-Raisanen et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2009; Kivela & Crofts, 2006). The more tourists perceive memories of tasty and authentic local food, the more they positively evaluate local food. Choe and Kim (2018) found that the consumption value of taste significantly informs tourists' overall appraisal of local food in Hong Kong. Kim et al. (2009) also noted that flavor is a significant criterion for local food consumption and many tourists consume local food that they evaluate as tasty. Local food taste and smell are important sensual experiences that inform memorability (Boniface, 2001; Sthapit, 2017). Furthermore, eating authentic and tasty local food served in its real place is important in evoking an overall positive appraisal of local food.

H1-6, “hedonic experience positively affects tourists’ attitude toward local food”, was supported ($\beta=0.37$, $t=6.40$, $p<0.001$). This result supports previous studies and is in consonance with the hedonic consumption paradigm which associates tourism product consumption with fun, enjoyment, sensory stimulation, and amusement (Dunman & Mattila, 2005; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Woodside, 2008). The local food experience is hedonic in nature (Stone et al., 2018). For instance, Kim and Choe (2019) found that tourists describe their local food tasting as an exciting, pleasurable, entertaining, and sensory-stimulating experience (Kim & Choe, 2019; Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016). Tourists’ perception of pleasure in the MLFTE can lead to overall positive attitudes such as positivity, satisfaction, favorability, and enjoyment. Hence, the result of

this study suggests that as tourists perceive more food tourism memories associated with fun and enjoyment, they generate more favorable attitudes toward local food.

H1-7, “conviviality positively affects tourists’ attitude toward local food”, was not supported ($\beta=0.05$, $t=1.08$, $p>0.05$). This result is different from previous studies that revealed that eating with companions and socializing with other tourists and locals evoke desirable responses from tourists (Kim et al., 2009; Sthapit, 2017; Warde & Martens, 2000). However, the finding is in line with Choe and Kim (2018) who found that interaction value derived from local food consumption does not generate a positive attitude toward local food. While Choe and Kim (2018) related the outcome to the nature of measurement items in their study, desirable outcomes generated from social interaction can also be more connected to social engagements than an overall appraisal of local food. Furthermore, having a positive attitude toward local food based on conviviality can be perceived differently on the basis of dietary restrictions because tourists who have dietary restrictions may enjoy the sociability of the experience without necessarily having a positive attitude toward local food. Again, the extent of social engagement and the familiarity of tourists with the local people and terrain may be useful in providing more perspectives. Hence, future studies need to investigate this relationship in other contexts.

Lastly, “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” exerted a positive and significant effect on tourists’ attitude toward local food” ($\beta=0.13$, $t=2.22$, $p<0.05$). Thus, H1-8 was supported. This finding is in consonance with previous studies that found that novel food consumption is important to tourists (Choe & Kim, 2018; Quan & Wang, 2004; Tsai, 2016; Tse & Crotts, 2005) as it contributes to the arousal of positive emotions and favorable attitudes (Kim & Choe, 2019; Mak et al., 2012). Tasting new local foods signifies an experience that is different from a previous one, unique, or a once-in-a-lifetime experience as well as an indication of an authentic experience (Kim

et al., 2012; Tsai, 2016; Wijaya et al., 2013). Memories of such novel local food experiences can make tourists to have a positive attitude toward local food. Stone et al.'s (2018) study showed that tourists became happy when they expressed their memories of novel food eaten during their tourism trip. The result of this study has empirically demonstrated that as tourists have more positive memories of novel local food experiences, they are more likely to express a positive attitude toward local food.

In summary, the connection between the MLFTE dimensions and attitude toward local food was largely supported. Dimensions of hospitable service experience, ambience and aesthetics, sensory appeal and authentic experience, hedonic experience and gastronomic novelty and curiosity were found to be stronger than relaxation and energizing, learning exotic food culture, and conviviality. Experiences that relate to quality service provision (hospitable staff services and restaurant aesthetics and ambience) and local food attributes (i.e., sensory, authenticity and novel food) can be emphasized in food tourism destination marketing activities. However, possible reasons for less effective memorable local food tourism domains may be attributed to tripographic or personality-related attributes.

6.4 Research objective 3: Examination of the effect of attitude toward local food on subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty

H2, “attitude toward local food positively affects subjective wellbeing”, was supported ($\beta=0.70$, $t=16.98$, $p<0.001$). Tourists who had appraised local food positively also evaluated their wellbeing positively. This result is meaningful in that studies have elucidated the centrality of positive emotions and dispositions in enhancing the wellbeing of individuals (Diener, Sandvik, Pavot, & Gallagher, 1991; Huang, Cheng & Chang, 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Similarly, food

tourism researchers (Choe & Kim, 2018; Soltani et al., 2021) have noted the contribution of local food consumption during a holiday activity in enhancing tourists' positive attitudes of favor, positivity, and pleasantness. Pourfakhimi, Nadim, Prayag and Mulcahy (2020) revealed that local food consumption experience significantly informs tourists' subjective wellbeing. However, the connection between attitude toward local food and subjective wellbeing is yet to be empirically examined in the food tourism literature. This study empirically demonstrates that a strong link exists between attitude toward local food and subjective wellbeing in that when tourists form more positive attitudes about their memorable local food experience, they tend to evaluate their wellbeing more positively. Thus, tourists associate their lives with happiness, satisfaction, and being better emotionally and psychologically based on the favorable attitudes of their local food experience.

H3-1 states that "attitude toward local food" positively affects "intention to recommend" and H3-2 postulates that "attitude toward local food" positively affects "destination loyalty". Both hypotheses were supported ($\beta=0.79$, $t=15.40$, $p<0.001$; $\beta=0.26$, $t=5.49$, $p<0.001$). Support for these findings can be linked to the tenets of the theory of planned behavior which emphasizes that consumer attitudes are linked to future behaviors. These findings also lend support to previous studies in the food tourism context (Choe & Kim, 2018; Phillips et al., 2013; Ryu & Jang, 2006). For instance, Choe and Kim (2018) found that tourists who have favorable attitudes toward local food are more inclined to recommend local food than those who have no such attitudes. Kim and Choe (2019) also observed a positive connection between positive emotions and intention to recommend local food among tourists in Hong Kong. Phillips et al. (2013) revealed that the attitudes of US residents toward Korean food inform their intentions to patronize Korean food.

In this thesis, tourists' loyalty to a destination connotes a deeply held commitment marked by a consideration of a destination as the first choice for local food tasting as well as a further commitment to exploring more local foods at the destination. Di Clemente et al. (2019) found that tourists who have pleasant memories of their local food experience become upbeat and demonstrate loyalty to visited destinations. Given that commitment involves tourists' affection toward a food tourism destination, this study empirically demonstrates that a positive attitude held by tourists after their local food tasting experience significantly inform their commitment and loyalty to a food tourism destination.

Based on the measurement items of the study, tourists who evaluate local food favorably can have a high level of intention to say positive things about a food tourism destination and recommend its local food to others. Moreover, they have a strong commitment to taste local food again and consider a food tourism destination as the first choice for food tourism.

6.5 Research objective 4: Examination of the influence of subjective wellbeing on intention to recommend and destination loyalty

H4-1 posits that "subjective wellbeing positively affects intention to recommend" and H4-2 states that "subjective wellbeing affects destination loyalty". H4-1 was not supported; however, H4-2 was supported. The result of H4-2 supports that of previous studies in different tourism contexts (Jamaludin, Sam, Sandal & Adam, 2016; Wang, Liu, Huang & Chen, 2020). Wang et al. (2020) found that tourists who evaluate their wellbeing more positively tend to have more loyalty to a destination in a destination fascination context. Lee, Kruger, Whang, Uysal and Sirgy (2014) also found that tourists' perceived wellbeing is significant in improving their loyalty to a destination in the natural wildlife tourism context. Subjective wellbeing reflects overall inner

feelings (Diener, 1984); thus, a positive evaluation of such feelings based on the local food experience of tourists can inform their commitment to a food tourism destination. Previous studies in the food tourism context have not adequately examined this connection. The current research demonstrates that within the food tourism context, when tourists evaluate their wellbeing more positively, they likely commit to a food tourism destination.

The result of the H4-1 was found to contradict studies that have identified a significant and positive relationship in other tourism contexts (Cho, 2020; Cho, Chiu & Tan, 2020; Lin, 2014). A plausible reason for this can be the measurement items that were used (i.e., recommendation of local food and positive pronouncement). That is, tourists are likely to be more positive toward revisiting a destination for more food-related experience that will enhance their wellbeing compared to making pronouncements or recommendations.

6.6 Research objective 5: Examination of the moderating effects of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (food neophobia), and food tasting experience on the relationships among tourists' MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty

To promote clarity, the discussion will be done under three sub-sections based on the three moderators – food tourism place, food-related personality trait, and food tasting experience.

6.6.1 Moderating role of food tourism place

Some similarities and differences were observed between the Asian group and the European group when the moderating effect of food tourism place was examined on tourists' MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty.

The results of the SEM showed that MLFTE influenced attitude toward local food differently in the two groups. The European group supported the transference of “hospitable service experience” and “learning exotic food culture” to “attitude toward local food”. However, findings from the Asian group did not support the hypothesis that “hospitable service experience” and “learning exotic food culture” highly inform “attitude toward local food”. The reason why “hospitable service experience” and “learning exotic food culture” did not generate a positive attitude among the Asian cohort can be attributed to the sample characteristics which involves Asian-Americans. This is because Asian-Americans are more likely to be familiar and have adequate knowledge about Asian food cultures. As exotic food culture involves learning local food culture, history, and traditional methods of eating, they might have already accrued this knowledge and hence would be more motivated by other aspects (such as novelty) than learning the local food culture in Asian countries. Based on this, they may not necessarily generate a positive attitude toward local food within Asian destinations.

The findings from the Asian group supported a relationship of “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” to “attitude toward local food”. This depicts that the US group that traveled to Asian countries and gained novel food tasting experiences are likely to generate a positive attitude toward local food. This finding is instructive in that US tourists are generally noted to be adventurous and hence have a high tendency to explore novel local foods (Stone et al., 2018). As novel local foods signify newness and elicit different experiences, tourists would more likely generate a positive attitude toward local food in Asian destination contexts. Asian local foods are marked by distinctive flavors, smell and appearance than local foods in other regions; therefore, the novelty associated with eating local Asian food in Asian destinations can enable a generation of positive attitude toward local food. An implication of this result is that destination marketing organizations

(DMOs) in Asia which target US tourists need to emphasize the uniqueness and novelty associated with Asian food. For DMOs in Europe, marketing efforts must center around friendly and quality restaurant service delivery and opportunities that enable tourists to learn about local cuisines in Europe. Given that European food is quite popular among US tourists, opportunities to learn about the preparation of such foods can entice US tourists as well as enhance their overall attitudes toward local food in Europe.

The SEM analysis also revealed that similarities existed in both groups regarding the hypotheses “ambience and aesthetics” to “attitude toward local food”, “sensory appeal and authentic experience” to “attitude toward local food”, and “hedonic experience” and “attitude toward local food”. A closer look at the standard coefficients revealed that the European group had a higher appreciation among the hypotheses of the aforementioned dimensions, leading to a more positive attitude toward local food than the Asian group. It indicates that the European group showed a higher agreement with the following hypotheses: ambience and aesthetics inform positive attitude toward local food, sensory appeal and authentic experience informs a positive attitude toward local food, and hedonic experience leads to a positive attitude toward local food. These results can be explained by the ‘sense of connection’ with western foods and local restaurants among US tourists. Moreover, US tourists in Europe connected more and were familiar with “western” food tastes and local restaurants. Previous studies noted that the mechanism of immersion or connection can enhance the appreciation of an object or an environment and how individuals respond to it (Kirillova & Lehto, 2015; Yamamoto & Lambert, 1994).

Another result of the SEM showed a similarity in the hypothesis “attitude toward local food” significantly influence “subjective wellbeing” between the two groups. A similar trend was identified in the paths between “attitude toward local food” and “intention to recommend” as well

as “subjective wellbeing” and “destination loyalty”. All the aforementioned relationships were positively significant between the two groups. However, the Asian group supported the relationship of “attitude toward local food” and “destination loyalty”, while the European group did not. Furthermore, the European group supported the positive relationship between “subjective wellbeing” and “intention to recommend”. A possible explanation for the hypothesis that the Asian group supported the relationship of “attitude toward local food” and “destination loyalty” is that the Asian-American segment is more likely to have strong ties with their “motherland” or their roots. Hence, finding that the Asian group has loyalty to Asian countries is fitting. Conversely, support for the hypothesis “subjective wellbeing positively affects intention to recommend” by the European group may be explained by the inclusion of the Caucasian segment which may have more affinity with western-based countries based on their wellbeing (i.e., Europe).

The result of the invariance test of the path was expected to provide additional findings based on an examination of the Chi-square difference of each path. Regarding both groups, significant Chi-square differences were observed in 8 out of the 13 paths. Most of the Chi-square differences have already been examined by comparing the result of the SEM analysis (see Section 5.11.6). Nonetheless, the Asian group had high support for the hypotheses “attitude toward local food” and subjective wellbeing” and “attitude toward local food” and “intention to recommend”. By contrast, the European group had high support for the hypothesis “subjective wellbeing” and “destination loyalty”. These findings hold implications for DMOs when targeting US tourists using positive affect states and wellbeing through local food. For example, Asian countries seeking to stimulate additional recommendations and positive pronouncements from US tourists may emphasize positive affect states on the basis of local food experience.

6.6.2 *Moderating role of food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia)*

Informed by the assertion that tourists' personality traits play a crucial role in their attitudes, food experiences and food-related decisions, this study examined how tourists' food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia) influences the relationship among the paths in MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Evidence from previous studies (Chang et al., 2010; Ji et al., 2016; Lai et al., 2020) suggested that tourists' attitude toward local or novel food is shaped by their food-related personality traits. High food neophobia involves a strong hesitance toward novelty as such tourists tend to avoid unknown or unfamiliar food (Mak et al., 2017). Conversely, low food neophobia – akin to novelty-seeking – describes tourists who enjoy and are willing to try new local food at a tourism destination (Lai et al., 2020; Okumus et al., 2021).

Against this backdrop, it was necessary to examine whether potential differences exist between tourists with high food neophobia and low food neophobia concerning the relationships among MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. The results of the SEM analysis revealed some similarities and differences among the high neophobia group and the low neophobia group.

First, tourists' MLFTE influenced attitude toward local food differently in the two groups. Unsurprisingly, tourists who exhibited a low neophobia showed a stronger support for transferring the five domains of MLFTE to attitude toward local food than the high neophobic group. Specifically, their strong support was for “hospitable service experience”, “ambience and aesthetics”, “sensory appeal and authentic experience”, “hedonic experience”, and “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” to “attitude toward local food”. This result lends support to previous studies that revealed that tourists with low neophobia (i.e., novelty-seekers) tend to explore novel food

and consider local food an essential part of their experience (Getz et al., 2014; Lai et al., 2020; Mak et al., 2017; Okumus, Dedeoglu, & Shi, 2021). By exploring novel local foods, tourists with low neophobia tend to appreciate different local food tastes and smells and the authenticity of local food. They also gain new experiences that are different from their previous food explorations. Additionally, their desire to immerse themselves in local culinary cultures enables them to enjoy the atmosphere, hospitality, and traditional setting of local restaurants. Lai et al. (2020) noted that tourists who have low food neophobia tend to be positive in their disposition toward local food and food tourism destinations than those with high neophobia.

Second, the low neophobic group exhibited a strong support for the relationship between “attitude toward local food” and “subjective wellbeing”. A similar outcome was identified in the paths between “attitude toward local food” and “intention to recommend” and between “attitude toward local food” and “destination loyalty”. It suggests that tourists who are more open to experiencing novel foods and culinary cultures develop more positive attitudes toward local food and evaluate their wellbeing more positively than those who are hesitant. This finding is aligned with previous studies (Ji et al., 2016; Okumus et al., 2021) because since low neophobic tourists have a natural tendency to experience local foods, they develop strong connections to local foods and cultures, thereby enhancing their affective states, wellbeing, and loyalty behaviours. However, high neophobic tourists who are skeptical in their approach may not be interested in local food and this can subsequently affect their wellbeing.

Third, the findings of the low neophobic group support a stronger positive relationship between subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty than the high neophobic group. This finding is not surprising as a strong evaluation of one’s wellbeing has been found to result in loyalty toward a destination (Jamaludin et al., 2016). Considering that low neophobic tourists likely derive novel

experiences from their local food exploration, they show high support for the connection between subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty. As previously mentioned, low neophobic tourists are likely to evaluate their wellbeing higher than high neophobic tourists because of the many food-related activities that they (neophobic tourists) engage in as well as the experiences that they derive. Consequently, low neophobic tourists show a higher level support for the transference of subjective wellbeing to destination loyalty than high neophobic tourists who are more conservative.

Fourth, the result of the invariance test of the path (see Table 5.20) revealed that 5 out of the 13 paths had significant Chi-square differences for the two groups. These include “hospitable service experience” to “attitude toward local food”, “ambience and aesthetics” to “attitude toward local food”, “sensory appeal and authentic experience” to “attitude toward local food”, “hedonic experience” to “attitude toward local food”, and “subjective wellbeing” to “destination loyalty”. The Chi-square differences have already been examined and discussed by comparing the result of the SEM analysis (see Section 5.11.10). Further checks on the coefficients and t-values between the two groups reinforce the analysis made in Section 5.11.10 This study empirically demonstrates that low neophobic tourists evaluate their local food experiences differently from high neophobic tourists. Their perception or evaluation reflects a higher support in MLFTEs, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. The implications of these findings for marketing will be discussed later in this chapter.

6.6.3 Moderating role of food tasting experience

Two groups of first-time to taste and repeat taste were investigated for potential differences when the moderating effect of food tasting experience was examined on the relationships among

MLFTE, tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. The result showed some similarities and differences between the two groups.

First, the first-time to taste cohort showed support for ambience and aesthetics and attitude toward local food whereas the repeat taste cohort did not support this hypothesis. This finding is in consonance with past studies that found that first-time tourists pay more attention to the physical settings than repeat tourists in the hotel context (Dedeoglu, Bilgihan, Buonincontri, & Okumus, 2018). However, it contradicts the study of Ryu and Han (2011) who found that restaurant design and table settings played a greater role for repeat visitors than first-time visitors. A reason for this finding can be attributed to tourists' main motivation. This is because tourists who have tried the same local food before (i.e., repeat taste group) are likely to be more motivated to make further exploration to taste local food in a destination. Therefore, they may be more focused on the food itself than the ambience and aesthetic aspects of a local restaurant. First time tourists, on the other hand, may focus more on the ambience and aesthetic aspects than the local food.

Generally, first time tourists have been noted to have a good appreciation of destination aesthetics (Kirillova et al., 2014). Thus, as the results of this study demonstrate that tourists who are tasting local food for the first time are more likely to generate positive attitudes on the basis of the aesthetics of local restaurants, they are likely to place more value on the beauty and setting of a local restaurant than those who have previous food tasting experience. In general, encountering a new object or environment setting elicits a "wow" feeling that those who are tasting local food for the first time are more likely to experience compared to repeat visitors because repeat visitors might already have had that experience. Hepburn (1966) theorized that the senses of an observer are engaged when s/he sees an object for the first time and this enhances the process of aesthetic appreciation. Consequently, it can be argued that first-time to taste tourists' encounter with the

physical and communicative elements of a local restaurant can generate a positive attitude because of the pleasantness and/or elegance of a local restaurant.

Second, “gastronomic novelty and curiosity” contributed to the enhancement of “attitude toward local food” of the repeat taste cohort only. This result contrasts previous studies that associated novelty seeking and curiosity with first-time tourists (Fluker & Turner, 2000; McKercher & Wong, 2004). Nevertheless, it is in line with Tse and Crotts (2005) who found that repeat tourists undertake various novel food explorations more than first-time tourists in Hong Kong. Lau and McKercher (2004) also found that repeat visitors are driven by consumption and hence they tend to engage in activities such as dining at destinations. Comparatively, repeat visitors are more motivated, confident and open in their approach toward local food consumption and hence place more importance on novel local foods, which leads to them having more positive attitudes than first-time tourists. Wijaya et al.’s (2017) study revealed that repeat visitors appreciate the authenticity of local food better than first-time tourists. Meanwhile, first-time tourists tend to be hesitant and express concerns about local food. Fuchs and Reichel (2011) found that first-time tourists were more concerned about food safety issues at a destination. A practical implication of this is that destination managers in Europe and Asia can leverage this finding to generate tourists’ positive attitude toward local food, and provide varied and novel traditional foods when targeting repeat visitors or tourists who have had a previous experience with local food. For service providers and destination marketers in Asia, it will be useful to maintain the traditional nature of their local food offerings.

Third, the result of the SEM analyses revealed similarities between the two groups in the hypotheses “attitude toward local food” and “subjective wellbeing”. Similar observations were made in the paths between “attitude toward local food” and “intention to recommend”, “attitude

toward local food” and “destination loyalty”, and “subjective wellbeing” and “destination loyalty”. The above-mentioned relationships were found to be positively significant in the two groups. A closer examination of the coefficient values between the two groups in the above-mentioned hypotheses suggests that the repeat taste cohort showed a higher support for the transference of attitude toward local food to subjective wellbeing. Again, they were found to show a higher support for the link between attitude toward local food and intention to recommend. A similar observation was made for the path from attitude toward local food to destination loyalty. Given that tourists who have tasted local food previously evaluate local food positively, they likely evaluate their wellbeing more positively. Again, they likely make recommendations, make positive pronouncements about food tourism destinations, and show loyalty to a food tourism destination on the basis of their positive attitude toward local food. However, first-time to taste tourists showed a higher support with respect to the link between subjective wellbeing and destination loyalty. This finding suggests that first-time to taste tourists show high loyalty to food tourism destinations when they have positive evaluations of their wellbeing.

Fourth, the results of the invariance test of the path (Table 5.25) provide additional findings based on an examination of the Chi-square difference of each path. Significant differences were identified in 7 of the 13 paths when the two groups were compared. Most of the Chi-square differences have been discussed by comparing the results of the SEM (see Section 5.11.14). Beyond this, an observation was made in the path analysis from “sensory appeal and authentic experience” to “attitude toward local food”. A comparison of the coefficient values between the two groups revealed that the repeat taste group displayed a higher support for the hypothesis that sensory appeal and authentic experience are linked to attitude toward local food. Tourists who are repeating their visits are identified in previous studies to have a penchant for dining and consuming

local foods at tourism destinations (Tse & Crotts, 2005). They are also characterized as having adequate knowledge and experience with the local terrain of destinations; therefore, they can express the authentic taste and smell of local food and can generate more positive attitudes toward local food than first-time tourists. Although previous studies observed the tendency of repeat visitors to consume local food, this study adds another perspective to the literature by empirically demonstrating that tourists who have a previous experience of tasting local food have a higher tendency to generate positive attitudes due to the sensory and authentic aspects of local food. Based on this finding, it will be useful for destination marketers who want to leverage local food products to emphasize the sensory and authentic aspects to US tourists. It will also be useful to promote varied and authentic local foods with unique tastes, smells, and textures to tourists who have previously tasted the local food of a destination.

6.7 Contributions of the study

The findings of this study make a useful contribution to knowledge and hold practical implications. These academic and practical implications have been presented below.

6.7.1 Academic contributions

First, this study makes an important contribution to research on memorable tourism experiences. More importantly, it enriches the literature on food tourism experiences by underscoring the significance of memorability in the local food tourism experience. Previous studies have advanced arguments on the need for attention to be paid to on-site (i.e., while at the destination) food experiences. While this call is commendable, it is important to state that remembered food tourism experiences are valued more by tourists because they have a positive impact on tourists and significantly inform tourists' future decision making on food tourism. They

also play an essential role in enhancing tourists' attitudes and wellbeing. Delivering MLFTE is crucial to maintaining sustainable competitive advantage (Stone et al., 2018; Tsai, 2016), and memorable experience has been regarded as an important concept in the tourism and hospitality industry. However, there are few studies on tourists' MLFTE; hence, identifying the kind of MLFTE that is delivered to tourists when they visit a destination is important.

In the memorable local food tourism literature, previous studies had different conclusions on the constituents of memorable local food experience. Although these studies discussed the importance of memorable local food experience, no research has attempted to develop a scale that measures tourists' MLFTE. Since most of the existing scales are too general to be applied to memorable local food experience or can only be partially adapted, they do not adequately explain tourists' MLFTE.

Second, the rigorous development and validation of a multidimensional scale for the measurement of food tourism experience of tourists are promoted. Therefore, the current study used Churchill's (1979) scale development process. It involved the specification of items centered on the extant literature, item generation from a thorough review of the literature, reviews from experts, purification of the items based on experts' review, undertaking pre-testing and pilot testing, and data collection. The instrument was tested on an online panel of US tourists who had an MLFTE and validity measures were conducted using CFA. The result of the rigorous analytical process revealed that the factor-structure was consistent among the split samples of US tourists.

Third, this study identified the components of tourists' MLFTE. Eight domains were extracted on the basis of the systematic process outlined by Churchill (1979): "relaxation and energizing", "hospitable service experience", "ambience and aesthetics", "learning exotic food culture", "sensory appeal and authentic experience", "hedonic experience", "conviviality", and

“gastronomic novelty and curiosity”. This eight-factor structure, which was not previously examined together, contributes immensely to the food tourism literature. It also confirms the hypothesis of this study that tourists’ MLFTE is multidimensional in nature, and should therefore be studied with this information in mind. It is worth mentioning, however, that some aspects of these domains lend support to qualitative studies that identified aspects of food taste, authenticity, servicescape and hospitality (Sthapit, 2017; Stone et al., 2018) as well as quantitative studies that identified hedonism, refreshment and novelty (Tsai, 2016; Kim et al., 2012). Nonetheless, through the rigorous scale development process and validation, this study identified the covariance structure of these eight domains. This contributes not only to an understanding of tourists’ MLFTE, but also to an understanding of the comparative magnitude among the domains that consist of the experience.

Fourth, the interrelationships among tourists’ MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty were examined. Tourists’ MLFTE has been proven to be effective in explaining subsequent attitude toward local food. Specifically, domains such as hospitable service experience, ambience and aesthetics, sensory appeal and authentic experience, hedonic experience, and gastronomic novelty and curiosity are effective in predicting positive attitude toward local food. Therefore, these domains are also expected to strongly predict outcomes such as tourists’ satisfaction based on their food experience, the overall quality of their tourism experience, and place attachment or evaluation. These findings make an important addition to the food tourism and hospitality marketing scholarship by offering additional insights that contribute to a better understanding of the impact of MLFTE on the attitudes of tourists.

Previous studies within the food context considered memorable local food experience as an outcome variable and paid little attention to its impacts on variables such as attitude, subjective wellbeing, intention, and loyalty. Furthermore, the only study (Sthapit et al., 2019) that has examined the effect of memorable local food experience on an outcome variable measured memorable local food experience as a unidimensional construct. The present study, however, offers a broader perspective by examining the multidimensionality of MLFTE on tourists' overall attitude toward local food.

Furthermore, this study sheds light on how tourists' overall attitude toward local food can inform their subjective wellbeing. Previous studies (Sthapit et al., 2019) examined the direct effect of memorable local food experience on tourists' hedonic wellbeing. However, no study has examined how tourists' attitude toward local food informs their subjective wellbeing. This study, therefore, builds on existing research on food tourism by demonstrating that attitude toward local food as a post-consumption evaluation enhances tourists' subjective wellbeing. It also provides additional evidence for previous studies that identified a connection between attitude toward local food and tourists' intention to recommend. In addition, this study examined destination loyalty since this construct is important in the measurement of tourists' level of commitment to food tourism destination. Unlike previous studies that examined destination image perceptions, the current study examined the connection between tourists' attitude toward local food and their loyalty to food tourism destination after they had experienced local food. The results reinforce the position of previous studies that argue that an attractive tourism product (e.g. local food) can influence tourists' loyalty to a destination.

Again, the study adds to the literature on how tourists' subjective wellbeing informs their loyalty to a food tourism destination. Given that past studies have identified the importance of

local food experience in enhancing tourists' wellbeing, this study furthers such explorations and empirically verifies the notion that tourists' subjective wellbeing based on local food experience influences their commitment/loyalty toward a food tourism destination. Although this study did not establish a connection between tourists' subjective wellbeing and intention to recommend, it presents opportunities for future research in a different context.

Last, measurement invariance, structural invariance, and invariance test of paths were examined to identify the moderating roles of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia), and food tasting experience in order to distinguish the differences among the respective influences of tourists' MLFTE on their attitude, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. The utility of the multigroup analysis as an advanced method (Kim, Lee & Prideaux, 2014; Ryu & Han, 2011) is significant in broadening the range of studies and furthering the understanding of the moderating roles of food tourism place, food-related personality trait, and food tasting experience as they relate to MLFTE.

6.7.2 Practical implications

This study provides insights and makes practical suggestions to stakeholders within the tourism and hospitality industry who aim to leverage local food resources to promote tourism. Specifically, DMOs, restaurateurs, and food marketers can gain an adequate understanding of the multidimensionality of tourists' MLFTE and know the types of MLFTE that influences tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and their loyalty to a destination. This study has demonstrated that tourists' MLFTE comprises eight different dimensions and each dimension informs tourists' attitude toward local food. Given that this study was conducted within Europe and Asian contexts, the practical implications can be suggested to

food tourism stakeholders in these regions. These implications may also apply to other destinations, especially those who have an interest in the US market segment. The practical implications of this study are as follows.

First, providing varied and quality local food that provides energy and revitalization to tourists is necessary. Relaxation and energizing that stems from local food consumption is an element that many people may overlook as it may be considered as an expected end of food consumption. However, tourists' ability to relax and be energized after eating local food is memorable. Becoming energized after eating local food in a tourism setting can encourage a tourist to further explore local food and engage in more food-related activities. Local restaurateurs can, thus, prepare local foods with ingredients that provide energy and can revitalize tourists, while maintaining the quality and authenticity of the local food. For example, in their interactions with tourists, local restaurateurs can emphasize the nutritional value of local food and its energizing or revitalization effect. In their advertising and promotional materials, DMOs and food marketers need to use messages that appeal to tourists such as emphasizing how the consumption of local food can contribute to relaxation, cheerfulness, and revitalization.

Second, the provision of high quality and hospitable service experience is an important element that needs to be emphasized to tourists. Restaurateurs, particularly those in Europe, should pay extra attention to service quality issues, especially those that pertain to service staff performance and attitudes. For example, local restaurant staff can exhibit more hospitable and knowledgeable attitudes by taking time to explain traditional food (the ingredients used to prepare such food, its nutritional value, and the cooking methods) when tourists order the food. Again, they can show warmth and engage in friendly interactions with tourists by calling tourists by their names and responding to tourists' needs by delivering prompt services. The provision of

personalized services can also enhance the experiences of tourists in local restaurants. In their marketing activities, DMOs can depict images and videos of local restaurants and staff who deliver prompt services and show friendliness, warmth, and empathy as this can a long way to inform tourists' decision making and appeal to their memories about the quality of service and the intangible service staff attitudes they can expect at the destination.

Third, in designing a foodservice space, local restauranteurs need to concentrate on the aesthetics, layout, atmosphere, and convenience of tourists, especially those visiting for the first time and tourists who have high neophobic tendencies. An enhancement in the interior environmental quality as well as the creation of a favorable local restaurant dining atmosphere is important to tourists. In doing this, local restauranteurs need to prioritize the authenticity of the restaurant environment by paying attention to their designs and decorations. For example, local restaurants in Asia (e.g., China or Hong Kong) can use various Chinese-style themes such as Chinese brush drawings, palace lanterns, and classic Chinese music to enhance tourists' experiences. Local restaurants in other destinations can use their traditional designs and elements to decorate their restaurants while ensuring the cleanliness of their setting and the comfort of tourists through seating styles and spacing. As this study has demonstrated, local restaurant aesthetics create a lasting impact on the minds of tourists and this can inform their future decision.

Fourth, opportunities that stimulate and enhance the learning of exotic food cultures are important. Local food establishments need to provide avenues that can enable tourists to practice novel cooking styles at the destination or on-site because when tourists gain more knowledge of different food cultures, they create positive memories of the experience. Accordingly, the outcomes of this study will be useful to local restauranteurs, tourism operators, DMOs, and educators as it emphasizes the significance of providing creative and epistemic local food

experiences to tourists. Such a clear learning approach, underscored by the authenticity of local food and experiences, can enhance tourists' memories. For example, local food marketers or tourism boards can use their marketing campaigns to promote the uniqueness of learning about local foods and their preparation. Video clips of tourists practicing local food preparation or learning about traditional ingredients or local food history will be important.

Fifth, tourism and hospitality boards, marketers, and local restaurant managers need to endeavor to deliver high-quality local foods with diverse flavors while making sure that authentic local foods are available to tourists. This is extremely important to tourists who have previously tasted local food in their tourism activity as well as tourists with low neophobic tendencies. Local tourism boards need to also collaborate with other stakeholders and local food businesses on the importance of including authentic aspects of the destination's culture in the recipes, food preparation and serving in order to enhance the authenticity of local foods and improve the overall experience of tourists. For example, DMOs in Asia do not need to spend much money to 'westernize' their food products. Instead, they should emphasize the localness or indigenous aspects in their food preparation methods so as to maintain the originality and distinctive tastes of their local food. Similarly, DMOs in Europe need to also collaborate with stakeholders and promote the uniqueness and authenticity of their local foods while offering many tasty cuisines. This will enhance tourists' memories of their food tourism experience.

Sixth, advertisements and marketing materials of local food should convey the pleasurable experience and excitement associated with eating local food. As hedonic experience is a significant contributor to tourists' attitude toward local food, local food businesses and food marketers need to emphasize that local foods within their destinations can generate happiness, excitement, pleasure, and a positive mood for tourists.

Seventh, providing a convivial atmosphere that offers diverse avenues for tourists to fraternize and interact with companions, family, and local people serves to enhance tourists' memories. Local restaurant businesses can design service environments such that they activate a friendly and a pleasing atmosphere for tourists, their friends, and relatives as well as local people. Moreover, while at the destination, tourists can interact with local people, tour guides, or restaurant staff as such interactions can give them positive memories. Local tourism boards and food marketers can develop promotional videos that emphasize the dynamic interactions that tourists can experience while savoring traditional food at their destinations as this can inform MLFTE.

Eighth, the uniqueness or novel experiences associated with eating local food need to be highlighted in promotional materials, particularly to repeat visitors and tourists with low neophobic tendencies. Based on the outcomes of this study, DMOs in Asia need to emphasize the uniqueness of Asian food as this was more important to US tourists who visited Asian countries. The provision of a novel food is important, among others, to enhance tourists' food experience and give food tourism destinations a competitive advantage. For destinations to continue to attract repeat visits, local food businesses need to provide varied local food while ensuring that tourists can witness and participate in different food-related activities. For example, local tourism boards can collaborate with event organizers, food vendors, and other stakeholders to promote the organization of novel food programs such as local food tours or local food bazaars. Local restaurants can also develop different local food packages and introduce new local food items on their menus while including entertaining activities such as karaoke or dance sessions. Promotional activities and/or messages emphasizing the uniqueness of local foods and food tourism-related activities at a destination while stressing the need for potential tourists to travel and experience them are essential for DMOs.

Ninth, tourists who had a positive attitude toward local food tended to evaluate their wellbeing positively. In an era where wellbeing issues and quality of life have become paramount and are being promoted, food tourism destinations can leverage this and undertake promotional activities that emphasize how tourists can enhance their wellbeing through positive feelings based on local food. For example, video clips of individuals developing positive feelings through local food and subsequently telling people how they have become better physically and mentally or how they have become happy and satisfied with their life can attract visitors and enhance the image of such destinations.

Tenth, tourists were more likely to make positive pronouncements and recommend visited food tourism destinations to friends, family, and other people. Also, they were more likely to show loyalty to visited food tourism destinations, although this was not pertinent to the US group that visited European countries. Food marketers and DMOs must, thus, understand that a positive attitude toward local food can generate positive intentions and loyalty behaviors. Knowledge about the antecedents of attitude toward local food – hospitable service experience, ambience and aesthetics, learning exotic food culture, sensory appeal and authentic experience, hedonic experience, and gastronomic novelty and curiosity – will be essential for DMOs in Europe and Asia.

Eleventh, tourists who evaluate their wellbeing positively likely exhibit loyalty to visited food tourism destinations. However, tourists only have a little tendency to recommend or make pronouncements about such destinations, except for the European group. Hence, DMOs in Europe can tailor their marketing efforts on the basis of their wellbeing to potential US tourists in order to elicit more recommendations and positive pronouncements. Furthermore, DMOs can utilize

marketing strategies that can enhance tourists' loyalty behaviors based on their wellbeing associated with local food.

Last, the levels of effectiveness of tourists' MLFTE on their attitude toward local food were different based on their background, experiences or personality traits of tourists. This comprehension can enable DMOs and local food businesses to allocate their limited resources judiciously as they can strategically take decisions on the management and provision of experiences that can be memorable to tourists. Accordingly, local tourism boards or DMOs are encouraged to champion their local food products by emphasizing the unique experiences that can be memorable to tourists.

6.8 Summary

This chapter discussed the findings of the study by drawing connections with previous studies. It also highlighted the academic and practical contributions of the study. A novel contribution of this research lies in the development of a reliable and valid scale for measuring tourists' MLFTE. Furthermore, the predictive effect of the scale was attested in the study. The scale can be used to generate other theories for future research and it can also help practitioners to co-create memorability with customers. In terms of practice, the study inspires a new dialogue among tourism scholars and industry players regarding how local food can be leveraged through the designing of experiences that can be memorable for tourists. The next chapter is the concluding chapter.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

7.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter presents an overview of tourists' MLFTE and shows how the objectives of the study were achieved. The chapter also presents the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for future research.

7.2 Overview of the study

This study aimed to develop and validate a measurement scale that assesses tourists' MLFTE. It also sought to provide a broader understanding of the dimensionality of tourists' MLFTE and test the predictive effect of the dimensions on tourists' attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty by using a sample of US tourists who had traveled and had MLFTE in European countries and Asian countries.

Chapter 1 introduced the study and stated the research gaps, research questions, and research objectives. It also presented the significance and organization of the study. The chapter initially discussed experience within the broader tourism context and then examined memorability. The link between memorability and food tourism experience was discussed, extending this connection to the need to understand tourists' attitude toward local food, their wellbeing, intention, and loyalty to food tourism destinations. Even though there is an emerging body of literature that has examined tourists' MLFTE, these studies have varied conclusions regarding which factors are more pertinent to tourists' memories. Moreover, a scale to measure tourists' MLFTE is lacking in the literature. As far as the present researcher can determine, no study has examined the effect of MLFTE on tourists' attitudes, wellbeing, intention to recommend, and loyalty behaviors. To fill these gaps, five research questions were formulated: (1) to develop a scale that can measure tourists' MLFTE;

(2) to examine the effects of tourists' MLFTE on their overall attitude toward local food; (3) to examine the influence of tourists' attitude toward local food on subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty; (4) to examine the effect of tourists' subjective wellbeing on their intention, and destination loyalty; and (5) to examine the moderating effect of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia), and food tasting experience on the relationships among tourists' MLFTE, attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty.

Chapter 2 provided a review of the literature with an initial focus on food tourism, serving as a context for subsequent discussion. Topical issues regarding the conceptualization, tourism and local food consumption nexus, categorizations of food tourists as well as past studies on food tourism were reviewed. Furthermore, Pine and Gilmore's (1998, 1999) experience economy model was reviewed and was used to commence discussions on local food experience and MLFTEs. Detailed reviews were made on memorability, its conceptualization, importance and measurement, and dimensionality within the food tourism experience context. Outcomes of MLFTE were also identified in the extant literature and discussed. They include attitude toward local food, subjective wellbeing, intention, and destination loyalty. Further, the moderating effect of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia), and food tasting experience were reviewed. This informed the development of the hypotheses and the proposed model.

Chapter 3 discussed the rationale for developing a scale for tourists' MLFTE. Both theoretical and empirical arguments were used to provide support for the hypotheses that were formulated. Altogether, 16 hypotheses were proposed of which 13 were designed to identify the direct relationships and 3 were hypotheses to identify the moderating effects. The eight dimensions of MLFTE were proposed to positively affect attitude toward local food. Attitude toward local food

was hypothesized to positively influence subjective wellbeing, intention to recommend, and destination loyalty. Subjective wellbeing was proposed to positively affect intention to recommend and destination loyalty. Finally, the moderating effect of food tourism place, food-related personality trait (i.e., food neophobia), and food tasting experience were proposed. This study categorized food tourism place into a European group and an Asian group, it classified food neophobia into high food neophobia and low food neophobia, and divided food tasting experience into first-time taste and repeat taste.

Chapter 4 presented the methodological procedures of the study. The procedure and rationale for developing tourists' MLFTE scale were discussed in this chapter. Churchill's (1979) seven-step scale development process guided the development of the scale. First, the definition of domains for tourists' MLFTE was specified. Second, initial items were generated on the basis of a thorough review of the literature. Third, experts' views were solicited on the generated items and modifications were made based on their recommendations. Fourth, a pre-test was conducted with doctoral students to ensure content validity, clarity, comprehension, and the conciseness of each item. A pilot study was also undertaken to inspect the reliability of the research instrument. Finally, the main survey was conducted using a reliable online panel data collection company, Qualtrics. A sample of US tourists who had traveled to European countries and Asian countries and had MLFTE since 2017 were used for the study.

Chapter 5 presented the results of the main survey. Collectively, 900 questionnaires were used for the study and the data were randomly split into two groups to perform cross-validation using exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Generally, the results of the EFA and CFA were found to be satisfactory. The extracted domains were relaxation and energizing, hospitable service experience, ambience and aesthetics, learning exotic food culture, sensory

appeal and authentic experience, hedonic experience, conviviality, and gastronomic novelty and curiosity. The results of the SEM revealed that 9 out of the 13 proposed path coefficients were significant. Furthermore, the multigroup analysis showed that food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience partially moderate the effects of the proposed model.

Chapter 6 discussed the results of the study based on the research objectives. It also presented the academic and practical contributions of the study. All relevant hypotheses were discussed and the various relationships were accounted for and compared with previous studies. Additionally, reasons were provided for non-significant relationships. This study successfully developed an appropriate measurement scale for tourists' MLFTE and confirmed the hypothetical relationship in the final model based on a comparison of the paths between the two datasets in the three moderating variables.

This final chapter (Chapter 7) concludes the study by presenting an overview of the study, its limitations, and suggestions for future research.

7.3 Limitations and suggestions for future research

This study has certain limitations that provide a basis for future research. The first pertains to the refinement of the MLFTE scales. Even though the items were subjected to rigorous refinement before being tested on the study sample, there will be a need for further validation in different destinations or regions. As this study was limited to MLFTE gained in European countries and Asian countries, it will be important to validate the scale with larger samples in other contexts in order to ascertain whether the 8 dimensions identified in this study can be confirmed. Following on from the confirmation, the scale can be used on other constructs to examine the relationships between MLFTE and other perceptions, image, place attachment, or behaviors.

Second, this study only examined the MLFTE that occurred in the past three years. This means that tourists that had their memorable experience before this period were excluded. Future research can use a wide range of years and examine tourists' MLFTE especially in the years preceding 2017.

Third, this study excluded tourists to the UK based on the closeness of the food menus and culture between the US and the UK. As there is an anthropological connection between the UK and US as well as their food culture, a future study can incorporate a sample of tourists to the UK and examine the homogeneity of the food cultures of the two countries in the memorability context.

Fourth, this study assessed the moderating role of food tourism place, food neophobia, and food tasting experience. It further compared the path coefficients of sets of groups of Europe vs Asia, high neophobia vs low neophobia, and first-time cohort vs repeat taste cohort. However, tourists' level of involvement and level of familiarity can also show differences in terms of their MLFTE and the relationship with outcome variables. This can be explored in a future study. Also, examining the relationship between MLFTE and the socio-demographic characteristics of tourists will be useful for DMOs and food marketers in their marketing and promotional activities. Additionally, attitude toward local food may vary based on tourists' socio-demographic characteristics, although this was not thoroughly explored in this study. Furthermore, as this study examined tourists' subjective wellbeing using hedonic wellbeing items, a future study can employ other scales or models, such as the PERMA, and test them on this study's model.

Fifth, recollection and vividness are important aspects of memorability; therefore, a future study can be extended by measuring these constructs and attempt to reconcile them with the eight dimensions of MLFTE. Further scale validation efforts need to be made by connecting the MLFTE to each of memorability dimensions.

Finally, there is a limitation on the generalization of the findings. Although the study employed a large sample, the data were collected from only the US. However, experiences can be shaped by different nationalities and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, testing this model using samples of diverse tourists (with different cultural backgrounds) will provide highly precise conclusions and enhance generalizability.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. In-depth interview guide

Memorable local food tourism experience

Introduction: Self-introduction: name and general affiliation

Purpose of interview

Thank you very much for sharing your time to discuss this issue. I am interested to know your memorable local food tourism experience in a destination. Your opinions about the topic are of utmost importance to this study. I will take notes and tape record the discussion. Please be assured that this interview will be confidential so please feel free to share your opinions with me. Please think of your memorable local food tourism experience in a destination

Please note that in this study, local food refers to food that is produced or prepared within a locality or a destination with indigenous ingredients and traditional methods.

Screening questions

- Have you tasted any local food during your tourism trip (the most recent country that you visited)?
- Do you think it is important to taste local food during your tourism trip?
- Please mention the names of some of the local foods that you tasted in your tourism trip.
- Do you think that tasting local food provides memorable experience in your tourism activity?

If participants satisfy these three criteria, the interview can proceed, otherwise terminated.

Interview questions (Part 1)

1. General views of the local food in a destination

- What are your general views about local foods in the destination that you visited?
- What are your general feelings about local foods in the destination that you visited?
- Describe your general interests of experiencing local food.

Interview questions (Part 2)

- Kindly recall your most recent and memorable local food tourism experience within the past year. What was memorable about the food tourism experience?
- What are the factors that you think contributed to your memorable local food tourism experience? Please provide a detailed description

- What do you think a memorable local food tourism entails? Could you provide your own view or definition of memorable local food tourism experience?
2. Is there any other information regarding your memorable local food tourism experience that you think would be useful for me to know? Please feel free to share

Appendix 2. Pre-test questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam:

The measurement items will be used in a survey on memorable local food tourism experience. Tourists who have tasted and have had memories of local food will be asked to respond to the questions in the survey. Please assess the applicability of the measurement items in relation to the associated construct by choosing an appropriate value on a scale of 1 (highly inapplicable) to 7 (highly applicable). Moreover, if you come up with any suggestions to improve the conciseness of the items, please provide those comments at the back of the instrument. Thank you.



Frank Badu-Baiden, PhD Student
 School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
 Email: frank.badubaiden@









Please note that in this study, local food refers to food that is produced or prepared within a locality or a destination with indigenous ingredients and traditional methods.



1. Have you had a memorable local food tourism experience during your tourism trip to a European country? (1) Yes (2) No
2. Do you think tasting local food is important in your tourism activity? (1) Not important (2) Neutral (3) Important
3. Do you think that tasting local food provides memorable experiences? (1) Yes (2) No

Part 1. The following are items in each of the memorable local food tourism experience domains. Please rate each item on a scale of 1 (highly inapplicable) to 7 (highly applicable) regarding how applicable you consider the item for evaluating memorable local food tourism experience.



Novelty/curiosity	Degree of applicability						
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly inapplicable		Neutral		Highly applicable		
my experience was a once-in-a-lifetime event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience was unique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience was different from my previous dining experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience was novel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience stimulated my curiosity to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hedonism	Degree of applicability						
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly inapplicable		Neutral		Highly applicable		

my experience was exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience was pleasurable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience was delightful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience was sensory-stimulating.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience was entertaining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Refreshment	Degree of applicability						
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	Highly  applicable		
I became liberated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I became refreshed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I became revitalised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I had a sense of freedom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I became relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I became comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I became cheerful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meaning-making	Degree of applicability						
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	Highly  applicable		
I ate local food with traditional tableware (e.g., earthenware bowls and plates).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Knowledge/culture	Degree of applicability						
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	Highly  applicable		
I learned how to cook local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I gained new knowledge about local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I learned the history of local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I closely experienced the local culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I learned traditional methods of food presentation and eating.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I learned traditional ingredients and recipes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Authenticity	Degree of applicability						
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	Highly  applicable		
I ate authentic local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate genuine local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate special local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate traditional food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food attributes and taste	Degree of applicability						



Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	 Highly applicable		
I ate tasty local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate nice-smelling local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate colourful local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate high-quality local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate healthy local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate organic/natural food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate local food with a pleasant texture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate local food with fresh ingredients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I ate local food that was well-presented and well-packaged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social interaction		Degree of applicability					
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	 Highly applicable		
my experience helped me socialise with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience helped me connect with restaurant staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience helped me build a dining company with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
my experience helped me build friendships with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hospitality		Degree of applicability					
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	 Highly applicable		
the local restaurant staff were caring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant staff were welcoming.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant staff were responsive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant staff were friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant was similar to a 'home away from home'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant provided quality and excellent service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Symbolism & nostalgia		Degree of applicability					
Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	 Highly applicable		
the local food generated tangible memories.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local food reminded me of my previous food tasting experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local food gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ambiences and Aesthetics		Degree of applicability					

Eating local food was memorable to me because...	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	 Highly applicable		
the local restaurant's ambience was exotic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant's surrounding was pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant's space was clean and hygienic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant's interior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant's exterior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant's atmosphere was appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 2. Attitude toward local food

Attitude toward local food refers to a psychological tendency expressed by a summary evaluation of local food with some degree of favour or disfavour.							
Statement	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	 Highly applicable		
Tasting local food was enjoyable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tasting local food was favourable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tasting local food was positive to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tasting local food was satisfying to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3. Subjective wellbeing after tasting local food

Subjective wellbeing refers to the degree to which an individual judges their overall quality of life as satisfactory after tasting a local food.							
Statements	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	 Highly applicable		
After experiencing local food, I felt that my life was close to ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that I was satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that my life conditions were excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that I was better physically and mentally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that I was generally happy with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

After experiencing local food, I felt that I was in charge of my own situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After experiencing local food, I felt that my life was purposeful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



Part 4. Future intention

Future intention refers to intention to revisit a food tourism destination and recommend and share food experiences on social media or via word-of-mouth communication.							
Statement	Highly inapplicable ←			Neutral	→ Highly applicable		
I will recommend the country's local food to families and/or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will say positive things about local food to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will leave positive reviews and share photos of the country's local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will revisit the country to explore diverse local foods within the next FIVE years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 5. Destination loyalty

Destination loyalty refers to a strong commitment towards a destination and its local food resource and subsequent decision to choose a particular destination to taste its local food consistently in the future.							
Statement	Highly inapplicable ←			Neutral	→ Highly applicable		
I will consider the country as my first choice of future holiday destination for food tourism.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will not visit other countries for food tourism if a visit to the travelled country is feasible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think I have a strong commitment towards the travelled country to taste local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think that tasting the travelled country's local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 6. Food neophobia

Food neophobia is a food-related personality trait that explains a tendency to decline/or avoid new food							
Statements	Highly  inapplicable			Neutral	Highly  applicable		
	1	2	3		4	5	6
I am inclined to taste new and different local foods during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not trust local food when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like local food from different cultures when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food seems unappealing to eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am inclined to try new local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am particular about the local food that I eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am inclined to eat nearly any local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am inclined to try new local restaurants and eat local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 7. Sociodemographic characteristics. Please tick (✓) the appropriate response

1. What is your gender? Male Female Other
2. What is your marital status? Single Married Other
3. What is your age? 20s or below 30s 40s 50s or older
4. What is your final education? High school or below College student College graduate Graduate school
5. What is your travel mode in the country? Package tour Independent traveller Other
6. What is your occupation? Company employee Self-owned business Civil servant Agricultural/Fishery Professional Housewife Technician Student Sales/service employee Education Retired Other

7. What was your main purpose of travel in the country? Pleasure Business Visit friends/relatives Other

8. What is your annual household income (before tax US\$)? Less than US\$ 20,000 US\$ 20,000-39,999 US\$ 40,000-59,999 US\$ 60,000-79,999 US\$ 80,000-99,999 US\$ 100,000-119,999 US\$ 120,000-139,999 US\$ 140,000 or more

If any, please provide your general comments about the instrument and how to improve the conciseness of the items.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

Appendix 3. Pilot survey questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam:

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. This is a study to examine your **memorable local food tourism experience**. Please indicate your viewpoints about the following statements and be assured that all information will be kept confidential and be used for **RESEARCH PURPOSE ONLY**. This survey will take about 15 minutes. Thank you once again for your participation.

Frank Badu-Baiden, PhD Student
School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Email: frank.badubaiden@

Please note that in this study, local food refers to food that is produced or prepared within a locality or a destination with indigenous ingredients and traditional methods.

- Have you had a **memorable local food tourism experience** during your travel to European (excluding the United Kingdom) countries **since 1st January 2017**?

- No (You may discontinue the survey)
- Yes (Please continue the survey)

- **IF YES**, please indicate the country and major travel city where you had your memorable local food experience.

Country..... Major travel city.....

- Please indicate the month and year in which you visited the country?
.....

- Was eating local food an **important part** during your stay **in the travelled country**? Not important Neutral Important

Part 1: Please recall your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**.

4. Was eating local food **one of your major motivations** during your stay **in the travelled country**?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
5. What was your **general impression** about the local food that you ate during your stay **in the travelled country**?

Not impressed Neutral Impressed

6. Was it your first time to eat **the travelled country's** local food? First time tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling Repeat tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling

7. Your ethnic background? Caucasian African-American Asian-American Hispanic Other

Please indicate your agreement to the statements below. 1 = Strongly Disagree (**SD**); 2 = Disagree (**D**); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (**SWD**); 4 = Neutral (**N**); 5 = Somewhat Agree (**SWA**); 6 = Agree (**A**); 7 = Strongly Agree (**SA**)

No		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
1.	it was a once-in-a-lifetime event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	it was unique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	it was different from my previous dining experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	it was novel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	it stimulated my curiosity to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
6.	it was exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	it was pleasurable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	it was delightful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	it was entertaining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	it stimulated my senses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
11.	I became liberated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I became refreshed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I became revitalised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I became relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I became comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I became cheerful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
17.	I ate local food with traditional tableware (e.g., traditional bowls and plates).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20.	I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
21.	I gained new knowledge about the country's local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I learned about how to prepare local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I learned about the history of the country's local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I closely experienced the local culture of the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I learned about traditional methods of food presentation and style of eating in the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
27.	I ate authentic local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I ate genuine local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	I ate special local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I ate traditional food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
31.	I ate tasty local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I ate nice-smelling local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I ate colorful local food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I ate high-quality local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	I ate healthy local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	I ate organic/natural food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	I ate local food with a pleasant texture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	I ate local food with fresh ingredients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	I ate local food that was well-presented and well-packaged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
40.	My experience helped me to socialize with other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	My experience helped me to connect with restaurant staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	My experience helped me to build a dining company with other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

43.	My experience helped me to build friendship with other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
44.	the local restaurant staff were caring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	the local restaurant staff were welcoming.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	the local restaurant staff were friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	the local restaurant staff were responsive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	the local restaurant was similar to a 'home away from home'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	the local restaurant provided quality and excellent service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
51.	the local food generated tangible memories.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	the local food gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
54.	the local restaurant's ambience was exotic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	the local restaurant's surrounding was pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	the local restaurant's space was clean and hygienic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57.	the local restaurant's interior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58.	the local restaurant's exterior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59.	the local restaurant's atmosphere was appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60.	the local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 2. Please evaluate your **overall attitude** towards local food **in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (**SD**); 2 = Disagree (**D**); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (**SWD**); 4 = Neutral (**N**); 5 = Somewhat Agree (**SWA**); 6 = Agree (**A**); 7 = Strongly Agree (**SA**).

No	Attitude toward local food in the travelled country	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
----	---	----	---	-----	---	-----	---	----

1.	Eating local food in the travelled country was enjoyable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Eating local food in the travelled country was favourable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Eating local food in the travelled country was positive to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Eating local food in the travelled country was satisfying to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3. Please evaluate your **wellbeing** based on your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (**SD**); 2 = Disagree (**D**); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (**SWD**); 4 = Neutral (**N**); 5 = Somewhat Agree (**SWA**); 6 = Agree (**A**); 7 = Strongly Agree (**SA**).

No	Subjective wellbeing	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	After eating local food in the travelled country,...							
1.	I felt that my life was close to ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I felt that I was satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I felt that my life conditions were excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I felt that I was better physically and mentally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I felt that I was happy with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I felt that I was in charge of my own situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I felt that I had done something purposeful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4. Please evaluate **your future intention** based on your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (**SD**); 2 = Disagree (**D**); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (**SWD**); 4 = Neutral (**N**); 5 = Somewhat Agree (**SWA**); 6 = Agree (**A**); 7 = Strongly Agree (**SA**)

No	Future intention	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I'd like to recommend the travelled country's local food to families and/or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I'd like to say positive things about the travelled country's local food to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of the travelled country's local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4.	I'd like to revisit the travelled country to explore diverse local foods within the next FIVE years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
----	--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Part 5. Please evaluate **your loyalty** based on your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (**SD**); 2 = Disagree (**D**); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (**SWD**); 4 = Neutral (**N**); 5 = Somewhat Agree (**SWA**); 6 = Agree (**A**); 7 = Strongly Agree (**SA**)

No	Destination loyalty	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I'd like to consider the travelled country as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I'd not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to the travelled country is feasible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I think I have a strong commitment towards the travelled country to eat its local food again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I think that eating the travelled country's local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 6. Please evaluate your inclination or reluctance for local food in your overseas travel. 1 = Strongly Disagree (**SD**); 2 = Disagree (**D**); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (**SWD**); 4 = Neutral (**N**); 5 = Somewhat Agree (**SWA**); 6 = Agree (**A**); 7 = Strongly Agree (**SA**)

No	Food neophobia	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I am inclined to eat new and different local foods during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I do not trust local food when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	If I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I like local food from different cultures when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Local food seems unappealing to eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I am eager to try new local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I am particular about the local food that I eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I am inclined to eat nearly any local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I am inclined to try new local restaurants and eat local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 7. Background characteristics. Please tick (✓) the appropriate response

1. What is your gender? Male Female Other
2. What is your marital status? Single Married Other
3. What is your age? 20s or below 30s 40s 50s or older
4. What is your final education? High school or below College student College graduate Graduate school
5. What is your travel mode in the travelled country? Package tour Independent traveller Other
6. What is your occupation? Company employee Self-owned business Civil servant Agricultural/Fishery Professional Housewife Technician Student Sales/service employee Education Retired Other
7. What was your main purpose of travel in the country? Pleasure Business Visit friends/relatives Other
8. What is your annual household income (before tax US\$)? Less than US\$ 20,000 US\$ 20,000-39,999 US\$ 40,000-59,999 US\$ 60,000-79,999 US\$ 80,000-99,999 US\$ 100,000-119,999 US\$ 120,000-139,999 US\$ 140,000 or more
9. What is your current resident city?
10. What is your nationality?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

Appendix 4. Main survey (European version)

Dear Sir/Madam:

I would like to invite you to participate in this study concerning **memorable local food tourism experience**. Please complete the following sets of questions and be assured that all information will be kept confidential and be used for **RESEARCH PURPOSE ONLY**. I appreciate your time and willingness to participate.

Frank Badu-Baiden, PhD Student
 School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
 Email: frank.badubaiden@

Please note that in this study, local food refers to food that is produced or prepared within a locality or a destination with indigenous ingredients and traditional methods.

Screening Questions

- ❖ Have you had a **memorable local food tourism experience** during your travel to European (excluding the United Kingdom) countries **since 1st January 2017**?
 - No (You may discontinue the survey)
 - Yes (Please continue the survey)
- ❖ **IF YES**, please indicate the country and major travel city where you had your memorable local food experience.
 Country:..... Major travel city:.....
- ❖ When did you visit the country? (_____) Month, (_____) Year
- ❖ Was eating local food an **important part** during your stay **in the travelled country**? ① Not important ② Neutral ③ Important
- ❖ Please evaluate **your general memory** about the local food tourism experience **in the travelled country**.

Very negative	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Very positive
1	2	3	4	5

Part 1: Please recall your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**.

1. Was eating local food one of your major motivations during your stay in the travelled country?
 ① Strongly disagree ② Disagree ③ Neutral ④ Agree ⑤ Strongly agree
2. What was your general impression about the local food that you ate during your stay in the travelled country?
 ① Not impressed ② Neutral ③ Impressed
3. Was it your first time to eat the travelled country's local food? ① First time tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling ② Repeat tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling
4. How many times did you visit the travelled country? () number
5. Your ethnic background? ①Caucasian ②African-American ③Asian-American
 ④Hispanic ⑤ Other

Part 2. Please recall your memory to the statements below. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Novelty/curiosity	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was memorable to me because...							
1.	it was a once-in-a-lifetime event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	it was unique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	it was different from my previous dining experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	it was novel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	it stimulated my curiosity to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Hedonism	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was memorable to me because...							
6.	it was exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	it was pleasurable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	it was delightful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	it was entertaining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	it stimulated my senses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Refreshment	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was memorable to me because...							
11.	I became liberated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I became refreshed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I became revitalised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14.	I became relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I became comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I became cheerful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Meaning-making	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
17.	I ate local food with traditional tableware (e.g., traditional bowls and plates).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Knowledge/culture	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
21.	I gained new knowledge about the country's local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I learned about the history of the country's local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I closely experienced the local culture of the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I learned about traditional methods of food presentation and style of eating in the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Authenticity	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
26.	I ate authentic local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I ate genuine local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I ate special local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Local food attributes and taste	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
29.	I ate tasty local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I ate nice-smelling local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I ate high-quality local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I ate healthy local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I ate organic/natural food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I ate local food with fresh ingredients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	I ate local food that was well-presented and well-packaged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Social interaction	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was memorable to me because...							
36.	it helped me socialise with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	it helped me connect with restaurant staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	it helped me enjoy the dining company of other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	it helped me build friendships with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Hospitality	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was memorable to me because...							
40.	the local restaurant staff were caring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	the local restaurant staff were welcoming.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	the local restaurant staff were friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	the local restaurant staff were responsive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	the local restaurant was similar to a 'home away from home'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	the local restaurant provided quality and excellent service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Symbolism & nostalgia	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was memorable to me because...							
47.	the local food generated tangible memories.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	the local food gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Ambiences and Aesthetics	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was memorable to me because...							
50.	the local restaurant's ambience was exotic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	the local restaurant's surrounding was pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	the local restaurant's space was clean and hygienic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	the local restaurant's interior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	the local restaurant's exterior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	the local restaurant's atmosphere was appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	the local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3. Attitude toward local food in the travelled country

Please evaluate your **overall attitude** towards local food **in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA).

No	Attitude towards local food <u>in the travelled country</u>	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was enjoyable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was favourable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was positive to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was satisfying to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4. Subjective wellbeing after eating local food in the travelled country

Please evaluate your **subjective wellbeing** based on your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA).

No	Subjective wellbeing	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	After eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u>,...							
1.	I felt that my life was close to ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I felt that I was satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I felt that my life conditions were excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I felt that I was better physically and mentally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I felt that I was happy with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I felt that I was in charge of my own situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I felt that I had done something purposeful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 5. Future intention to visit the travelled country

Please evaluate your future intention based on your memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Behavioural intention	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I'd like to recommend <u>the travelled country's</u> local food to families and/or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I'd like to say positive things about <u>the travelled country's</u> local food to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of <u>the travelled country's</u> local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I'd like to revisit <u>the travelled country</u> to explore diverse local foods within the next FIVE years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 6. Destination loyalty to the travelled country

Please evaluate your loyalty based on your memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Destination loyalty	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I'd like to consider <u>the travelled country</u> as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I'd not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to <u>the travelled country</u> is feasible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I think I have a strong commitment towards <u>the travelled country</u> to eat its local food again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I think that eating <u>the travelled country's</u> local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 7. Food neophobia during your overseas travel

Please evaluate your inclination or reluctance for local food in your overseas travel. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Food neophobia	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I am inclined to eat new and different local foods during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I do not trust local food when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.	If I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I like local food from different cultures when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Local food seems unappealing to eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I am eager to try new local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I am particular about the local food that I eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I am inclined to eat nearly any local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I am inclined to try new local restaurants and eat local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 8. General information

1. Gender: ① Male ② Female ③ Other	2. Your marital status: ① Single ② Married ③ Other
3. Your age: ① 20s or below ② 30s ③ 40s ④ 50s or older	4. Your final education: ① High school or below ② College student ③ College graduate ④ Graduate school
5. Your travel mode in the travelled country? ① Package tour ② Independent traveller ③ Other	6. Your occupation: ① Company employee ② Self-owned business ③ Civil servant ④ Agricultural/fishery ⑤ Professional ⑥ Housewife ⑦ Technician ⑧ Student ⑨ Sales/service employee ⑩ Education ⑪ Retired ⑫ Other
7. Your main purpose of travel in the travelled country: ① Pleasure ② Business ③ Visit friends/relatives ④ Other	8. Your annual HOUSEHOLD income (Before tax. US\$): ① Less than US\$ 20,000 ② US\$ 20,000-39,999 ③ US\$ 40,000-59,999 ④ US\$ 60,000-79,999 ⑤ US\$ 80,000-99,999 ⑥ US\$ 100,000-119,999 ⑦ US\$ 120,000-139,999 ⑧ US\$ 140,000 or more
9. Your current resident city: ()	10. Your nationality: ()

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

Appendix 5. Asian version of the main survey

Dear Sir/Madam:

I would like to invite you to participate in this study concerning **memorable local food tourism experience**. Please complete the following sets of questions and be assured that all information will be kept confidential and be used for **RESEARCH PURPOSE ONLY**. I appreciate your time and willingness to participate.

Frank Badu-Baiden, PhD Student
 School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
 Email: frank.badubaiden@

Please note that in this study, local food refers to food that is produced or prepared within a locality or a destination with indigenous ingredients and traditional methods.

Screening Questions

- ❖ Have you had a **memorable local food tourism experience** during your travel to Asian countries **since 1st January 2017**?
 - No (You may discontinue the survey)
 - Yes (Please continue the survey)

- ❖ **IF YES**, please indicate the country and major travel city where you had your memorable local food experience.
 Country:..... Major travel city:.....

- ❖ When did you visit the country? (_____) Month, (_____) Year

- ❖ Was eating local food an **important part** during your stay **in the travelled country**? ① Not important ② Neutral ③ Important

- ❖ Please evaluate **your general memory** about the local food tourism experience **in the travelled country**.

Very negative	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Very positive
1	2	3	4	5

Part 1: Please recall your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**.

1. Was eating local food one of your major motivations during your stay **in the travelled country**?

① Strongly disagree ② Disagree ③ Neutral ④ Agree ⑤ Strongly agree

2. What was your **general impression** about the local food that you ate during your stay **in the travelled country**?

① Not impressed ② Neutral ③ Impressed

3. Was it your first time to eat **the travelled country's** local food? ① First time tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling ② Repeat tasting local food of the traveled country during traveling

4. How many times did you visit **the travelled country**? () number

5. Your ethnic background? ①Caucasian ②African-American ③Asian-American ④Hispanic ⑤ Other

Part 2. Please recall your memory to the statements below. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Novelty/curiosity	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
1.	it was a once-in-a-lifetime event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	it was unique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	it was different from my previous dining experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	it was novel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	it stimulated my curiosity to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Hedonism	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
6.	it was exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	it was pleasurable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	it was delightful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	it was entertaining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	it stimulated my senses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Refreshment	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...							
11.	I became liberated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I became refreshed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I became revitalised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I became relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I became comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I became cheerful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Meaning-making	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA

	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
17.	I ate local food with traditional tableware (e.g., traditional bowls and plates).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I ate local food on special occasions (e.g., festivals, rites of passage, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I ate traditional food with spiritual significance (e.g., food for fertility, food for intelligence, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I ate local food using traditional eating methods (e.g., using fingers, chopsticks etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Knowledge/culture	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
21.	I gained new knowledge about the country's local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I learned about the history of the country's local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I closely experienced the local culture of the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I learned about traditional methods of food presentation and style of eating in the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I learned about traditional ingredients and recipes of the country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Authenticity	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
26.	I ate authentic local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I ate genuine local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I ate special local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Local food attributes and taste	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
29.	I ate tasty local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I ate nice-smelling local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I ate high-quality local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I ate healthy local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I ate organic/natural food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I ate local food with fresh ingredients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	I ate local food that was well-presented and well-packaged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Social interaction	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
36.	it helped me socialise with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

37.	it helped me connect with restaurant staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	it helped me enjoy the dining company of other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	it helped me build friendships with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Hospitality	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
40.	the local restaurant staff were caring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	the local restaurant staff were welcoming.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	the local restaurant staff were knowledgeable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	the local restaurant staff were friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	the local restaurant staff were responsive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	the local restaurant was similar to a 'home away from home'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	the local restaurant provided quality and excellent service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Symbolism & nostalgia	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
47.	the local food generated tangible memories.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	the local food reminded me of my past food tasting experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	the local food gave me something symbolic to share with my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Ambiences and Aesthetics	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	<u>Eating local food in the travelled country was memorable to me because...</u>							
50.	the local restaurant's ambience was exotic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	the local restaurant's surrounding was pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	the local restaurant's space was clean and hygienic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	the local restaurant's interior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	the local restaurant's exterior design was attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	the local restaurant's atmosphere was appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	the local restaurant's surrounding was safe and convenient.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3. Attitude toward local food in the travelled country

Please evaluate your **overall attitude** towards local food **in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA).

No	Attitude towards local food <u>in the travelled country</u>	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was enjoyable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was favourable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was positive to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u> was satisfying to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4. Subjective wellbeing after eating local food in the travelled country

Please evaluate your **subjective wellbeing** based on your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA).

No	Subjective wellbeing	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
	After eating local food <u>in the travelled country</u>,...							
1.	I felt that my life was close to ideal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I felt that I was satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I felt that I had achieved an important thing in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I felt that my life conditions were excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I felt that I was better physically and mentally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I felt that I was happy with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I felt that I was confident about my own opinions and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I felt that I was in charge of my own situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I felt that I had a different worldview/perspective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I felt that I had done something purposeful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 5. Future intention to visit the travelled country

Please evaluate **your future intention** based on your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Behavioural intention	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I'd like to recommend <u>the travelled country's</u> local food to families and/or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I'd like to say positive things about <u>the travelled country's</u> local food to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I'd like to leave positive reviews and share photos of <u>the travelled country's</u> local food on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I'd like to revisit <u>the travelled country</u> to explore diverse local foods within the next FIVE years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 6. Destination loyalty to **the travelled country**

Please evaluate **your loyalty** based on your **memorable local food tourism experience in the travelled country**. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Destination loyalty	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I'd like to consider <u>the travelled country</u> as my first choice of future holiday destination to eat local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I'd not visit other countries to eat local food if a visit to <u>the travelled country</u> is feasible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I think I have a strong commitment towards <u>the travelled country</u> to eat its local food again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I think that eating <u>the travelled country's</u> local food will encourage me to try its different types of local food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 7. Food neophobia during your overseas travel

Please evaluate your inclination or reluctance for local food in your overseas travel. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Somewhat Disagree (SWD); 4 = Neutral (N); 5 = Somewhat Agree (SWA); 6 = Agree (A); 7 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No	Food neophobia	SD	D	SWD	N	SWA	A	SA
1.	I am inclined to eat new and different local foods during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I do not trust local food when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	If I do not know what the local food is, I will not try it during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I like local food from different cultures when I travel overseas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5.	Local food seems unappealing to eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I am eager to try new local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I am afraid to eat local food that I have never had before during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I am particular about the local food that I eat during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I am inclined to eat nearly any local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I am inclined to try new local restaurants and eat local food during overseas travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 8. General information

1. Gender: ① Male ② Female ③ Other	2. Your marital status: ① Single ② Married ③ Other
3. Your age: ①20s or below ②30s ③40s ④50s or older	4. Your final education: ①High school or below ②College student ③College graduate ④Graduate school
5. Your travel mode in the travelled country? ①Package tour ②Independent traveller ③ Other	6. Your occupation: ①Company employee ②Self-owned business ③Civil servant ④Agricultural/fishery ⑤Professional ⑥Housewife ⑦Technician ⑧Student ⑨Sales/service employee ⑩ Education ⑪ Retired ⑫Other
7. Your main purpose of travel in the travelled country: ① Pleasure ②Business ③Visit friends/relatives ④Other	8. Your annual HOUSEHOLD income (Before tax. US\$): ① Less than US\$ 20,000 ② US\$ 20,000-39,999 ③ US\$ 40,000-59,999 ④ US\$ 60,000-79,999 ⑤ US\$ 80,000-99,999 ⑥ US\$ 100,000-119,999 ⑦ US\$ 120,000-139,999 ⑧ US\$ 140,000 or more
9. Your current resident city: ()	10. Your nationality: ()

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

REFERENCES

- Ab Karim, S., & Chi, C. G. Q. (2010). Culinary tourism as a destination attraction: An empirical examination of destinations' food image. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 19*(6), 531-555.
- Adongo, C. A., Anuga, S. W., & Dayour, F. (2015). Will they tell others to taste? International tourists' experience of Ghanaian cuisines. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 15*, 57-64.
- Agapito, D., Pinto, P., & Mendes, J. (2017). Tourists' memories, sensory impressions and loyalty: In loco and post-visit study in Southwest Portugal. *Tourism Management, 58*, 108-118.
- Agyeiwaah, E., Otoo, F. E., Suntikul, W., & Huang, W. J. (2019). Understanding culinary tourist motivation, experience, satisfaction, and loyalty using a structural approach. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 36*(3), 295-313.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behaviour. In J. Kuhl and J. Beckman (Eds), *Action Control: From cognition to behaviour* (pp. 11-39). Berlin: Springer-Verlag
- Ajzen, I. (1988). *Attitudes, Personality and Behaviour*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 50*(2), 179-211.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1975). A Bayesian analysis of attribution processes. *Psychological Bulletin, 82*(2), 261.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

- Alhelalat, J. A., Ma'moun, A. H., & Twaissi, N. M. (2017). The impact of personal and functional aspects of restaurant employee service behaviour on customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 66, 46-53.
- Altintzoglou, T., Heide, M., & Borch, T. (2016). Food souvenirs: buying behaviour of tourists in Norway. *British Food Journal*, 118(1), 119-131.
- Amin, Z., & Akbar, K. P. (2013). Analysis of psychological well-being and turnover intentions of hotel employees: An empirical study. *International Journal of Innovation and Applied Studies*, 3(3), 662–671.
- Anderson, D., & Shimizu, H. (2007). Factors shaping vividness of memory episodes: Visitors' long-term memories of the 1970 Japan World Exposition. *Memory*, 15(2), 177-191.
- Andersson, T. D., & Mossberg, L. (2004). The dining experience: do restaurants satisfy customer needs?. *Food Service Technology*, 4(4), 171-177.
- Andrews, F. M., & Withey, S. B. (1976). *Social indicators of well-being: America's perception of life quality*. New York: Plenum.
- Apaolaza, V., Hartmann, P., D'Souza, C., & López, C. M. (2018). Eat organic–Feel good? The relationship between organic food consumption, health concern and subjective wellbeing. *Food Quality and Preference*, 63, 51-62.
- Ares, G., De Saldamando, L., Giménez, A., & Deliza, R. (2014). Food and wellbeing. Towards a consumer-based approach. *Appetite*, 74, 61-69.
- Ares, G., de Saldamando, L., Giménez, A., Claret, A., Cunha, L. M., Guerrero, L., ... & Deliza, R. (2015). Consumers' associations with wellbeing in a food-related context: A cross-cultural study. *Food Quality and Preference*, 40, 304-315.

- Arnold, M. (2011). The importance of untangling subjective experience and objective measures for understanding memory performance. In P. A. Higman, & J. Leboe (Eds.), *Constructions of remembering and metacognition: Essays in honour of Bruce Whittlesea* (pp. 3-14). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Arnould, E. J., & Price, L. L. (1993). River magic: Extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20(1), 24-45.
- Au, N., & Law, R. (2002). Categorical classification of tourism dining. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 819-833.
- Baah, N. G., Bondzi-Simpson, A., & Ayeh, J. K. (2020). How neophilia drives international tourists' acceptance of local cuisine. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 23(18), 2302-2318.
- Baddeley, A. D. (1999). *Essentials of human memory*. Psychology Press.
- Bagdare, S., & Jain, R. (2013). Measuring retail customer experience. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 41(10), 790-804.
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1992). The self-regulation of attitudes, intentions, and behavior. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 178-204.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Dholakia, U. M., & Basuroy, S. (2003). How effortful decisions get enacted: The motivating role of decision processes, desires, and anticipated emotions. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 16(4), 273-295.
- Bardhi, F., Ostberg, J., & Bengtsson, A. (2010). Negotiating cultural boundaries: Food, travel and consumer identities. *Consumption, Markets and Culture*, 13(2), 133-157.
- Bartholomew, D. (1980). Factor analysis for categorical data. *Journal of Royal Statistical Society*, 42(3), 293-321.

- Bauer, H. H., Heinrich, D., & Schäfer, D. B. (2013). The effects of organic labels on global, local, and private brands: More hype than substance?. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(8), 1035-1043.
- Baumgartner, H., & Homburg, C. (1996). Applications of structural equation modeling in marketing and consumer research: A review. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 13(2), 139-161.
- Berg, P. O., & Sevón, G. (2014). Food-branding places—A sensory perspective. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 10(4), 289-304.
- Bessière, J. (1998). Local development and heritage: traditional food and cuisine as tourist attractions in rural areas. *Sociologia ruralis*, 38(1), 21-34.
- Bharwani, S., & Jauhari, V. (2013). An exploratory study of competencies required to co-create memorable customer experiences in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(6), 823-843.
- Bimonte, S., & Faralla, V. (2015). Happiness and outdoor vacations appreciative versus consumptive tourists. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54(2), 179-192.
- Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: The impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *Journal of Marketing*, 56(2), 57-71.
- Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räsänen, H. (2014). Culinary-gastronomic tourism—a search for local food experiences. *Nutrition & Food Science*, 44(4), 294-309
- Björk, P., & Kauppinen-Räsänen, H. (2016). Exploring the multi-dimensionality of travellers' culinary-gastronomic experiences. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(12), 1260-1280.
- Bless, H., Strack, F., & Walther, E. (2001). Memory as a target of social influence? Memory distortions as a function of social influence and metacognitive knowledge. In J.P. Forgas

- & K.D. Williams (Eds.), *Social influence: Direct and indirect processes* (pp. 167–183). Philadelphia: Psychology Press.
- Block, L. G., Grier, S. A., Childers, T. L., Davis, B., Ebert, J. E., Kumanyika, S., ... & Bieshaar, M. N. G. (2011). From nutrients to nurturance: A conceptual introduction to food well-being. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 30(1), 5-13.
- Blunch, N. J. (2008). *Introduction to structural equation modelling using SPSS and AMOS*. Thousand Oaks.
- Bohner, G., & Wänke, M. (2002). *Attitudes and Attitude Change*. UK: Psychology Press.
- Boniface, P. (2001). *Dynamic tourism: journeying with change*. Channel View
- Boniface, P. (2003). *Tasting tourism: Traveling for food and drink*. Burlington, VT: Ashgate Publishing.
- Boyne, S., & Hall, D. (2003). Managing food and tourism development: issues for planning and opportunities to add value. In C.M. Hall., L. Sharples., R. Mitchell., N. Macionis., & B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets* (pp. 285-295). Butterworth Heinemann: Oxford.
- Boyne, S., Hall, D., & Williams, F. (2003). Policy, support and promotion for food-related tourism initiatives: A marketing approach to regional development. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(3-4), 131-154.
- Bradley, K. (2018). Bike Kitchens—Spaces for convivial tools. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 197, 1676-1683.
- Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand experience: what is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty?. *Journal of Marketing*, 73(3), 52-68.

- Braun-LaTour, K. A., Grinley, M. J., & Loftus, E. F. (2006). Tourist memory distortion. *Journal of Travel Research, 44*(4), 360-367
- Bredahl, L. (2001). Determinants of consumer attitudes and purchase intentions with regard to genetically modified food—results of a cross-national survey. *Journal of Consumer Policy, 24*(1), 23-61.
- Brown, T. A. (2006). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bublitz, M. G., Peracchio, L. A., Andreasen, A. R., Kees, J., Kidwell, B., Miller, E. G., ... & Vallen, B. (2013). Promoting positive change: Advancing the food well-being paradigm. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(8), 1211-1218.
- Burch, W. R. (1969). The social circles of leisure: Competing explanations. *Journal of Leisure Research, 1*, 125–147
- Byrne, B. M., Lam, W. W., & Fielding, R. (2008). Measuring patterns of change in personality assessments: An annotated application of latent growth curve modeling. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 90*(6), 536-546.
- Byrne, B. M., Shavelson, R. J., & Muthén, B. (1989). Testing for the equivalence of factor covariance and mean structures: the issue of partial measurement invariance. *Psychological Bulletin, 105*(3), 456.
- Byrne, B.M. (2010). *Structural equation modelling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications and programming* (2nd ed). New York: Routledge.
- Caber, M., Yilmaz, G., Kiliçarslan, D., & Öztürk, A. (2018). The effects of tour guide performance and food involvement on food neophobia and local food consumption

- intention. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 1472-1491.
- Cambourne, B., & Macionis, N. (2003). Linking food, wine and tourism: The case of the Australian capital region. *Food Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets*. Boston, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann, 268-284.
- Campos, A. C., Mendes, J., do Valle, P. O., & Scott, N. (2017). Co-creating animal-based tourist experiences: Attention, involvement and memorability. *Tourism Management*, 63, 100-114.
- Campos, A. C., Mendes, J., Valle, P. O. D., & Scott, N. (2018). Co-creation of tourist experiences: A literature review. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 21(4), 369-400.
- Canny, I. U. (2014). Measuring the mediating role of dining experience attributes on customer satisfaction and its impact on behavioral intentions of casual dining restaurant in Jakarta. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 5(1), 25-29.
- Cao, Y., Li, X. R., DiPietro, R., & So, K. K. F. (2019). The creation of memorable dining experiences: formative index construction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 82, 308-317.
- Carbone, L. P., & Haeckel, S. H. (1994). Engineering customer experiences. *Marketing Management*, 3(3), 8-19
- Carmichael, B. (2005). Understanding the wine tourism experience for winery visitors in the Niagara region, Ontario, Canada. *Tourism Geographies*, 7(2), 185-204.
- Cartwright, R., & Baird, C. (1999). *The development and growth of the cruise industry*. Elsevier.
- Carù, A., & Cova, B. (2003). Revisiting consumption experience: A more humble but complete view of the concept. *Marketing Theory*, 3(2), 267-286.

- Caru, A., & Cova, B. (2007). *Consuming experience*. Routledge.
- Cary, S. H. (2004). The tourist moment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(1), 61-77.
- Chadee, D. D., & Cutler, J. (1996). Insights into international travel by students. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(2), 75-80.
- Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F. R. (2013). Exploring memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and behavioural outcomes. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, 1(2), 177-181.
- Chandralal, L., & Valenzuela, F. R. (2015). Memorable Tourism Experiences; Scale Development. *Contemporary Management Research* 11(3), 291.
- Chandralal, L., Rindfleisch, J., & Valenzuela, F. (2015). An application of travel blog narratives to explore memorable tourism experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(6), 680-693.
- Chang, R. C., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. H. (2010). Food preferences of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(4), 989-1011.
- Chang, R. C., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. H. (2011). Attributes that influence the evaluation of travel dining experience: When East meets West. *Tourism Management*, 32(2), 307-316.
- Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions?. *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1115-1122.
- Chen, H., & Rahman, I. (2018). Cultural tourism: An analysis of engagement, cultural contact, memorable tourism experience and destination loyalty. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 26, 153-163.

- Chen, J. S., & Gursoy, D. (2001). An investigation of tourists' destination loyalty and preferences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(2), 79-85.
- Chen, M. F. (2007). Consumer attitudes and purchase intentions in relation to organic foods in Taiwan: Moderating effects of food-related personality traits. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18(7), 1008-1021.
- Chi, C. G. Q. (2012). An examination of destination loyalty: Differences between first-time and repeat visitors. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 36(1), 3-24.
- Chi, C. G. Q., & Qu, H. (2008). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 624-636.
- Cho, H. (2020). Importance of leisure nostalgia on life satisfaction and leisure participation. *The Service Industries Journal*, 40(1-2), 90-109.
- Cho, H., Chiu, W., & Tan, X. D. (2020). Travel overseas for a game: the effect of nostalgia on satellite fans' psychological commitment, subjective well-being, and travel intention. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-17.
- Choe, J. Y. J., & Kim, S. S. (2018). Effects of tourists' local food consumption value on attitude, food destination image, and behavioral intention. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 71, 1-10.
- Choe, J. Y. J., & Kim, S. S. (2019). Development and validation of a multidimensional tourist's local food consumption value (TLFCV) scale. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 245-259.

- Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, 64-73.
- Clawson, M., & Knetsch, J. L. (1963). Outdoor recreation research: Some concepts and suggested areas of study. *Natural Resources Journal*, 3, 250.
- Coghlan, A., & Pearce, P. (2010). Tracking affective components of satisfaction. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(1), 42-58.
- Cohen, E. (1972). Toward a sociology of international tourism. *Social Research*, 164-182.
- Cohen, E. (1979). Rethinking the sociology of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(1), 18-35.
- Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 755-778.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd Ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates
- Cole, S. T., & Scott, D. (2004). Examining the mediating role of experience quality in a model of tourist experiences. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 16(1), 79-90.
- Colman, A. M., Norris, C. E., & Preston, C. C. (1997). Comparing rating scales of different lengths: Equivalence of scores from 5-point and 7-point scales. *Psychological Reports*, 80(2), 355-362.
- Conway, M. A., & Pleydell-Pearce, C. W. (2000). The construction of autobiographical memories in the self-memory system. *Psychological review*, 107(2), 261.
- Corigliano, M. A. (2002). 10 The route to quality: Italian gastronomy networks in operation. *Tourism and Gastronomy*, 166.

- Correia, A., Moital, M., Da Costa, C. F., & Peres, R. (2008). The determinants of gastronomic tourists' satisfaction: a second-order factor analysis. *Journal of Foodservice, 19*(3), 164-176.
- Coudounaris, D. N., & Sthapit, E. (2017). Antecedents of memorable tourism experience related to behavioral intentions. *Psychology & Marketing, 34*(12), 1084-1093.
- Cresswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design*.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed). Bosten, USA. Pearson Education Inc.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6*(4), 408-424.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1988). The flow experience and its significance for human psychology. In M. Csikszentmihalyi & I. S. Csikszentmihalyi (Eds.), *Optimal experience: Psychological studies of flow in consciousness* (pp. 15–35). New York: Cambridge University Press
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience-steps toward enhancing the quality of life*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.
- Cutler, S. Q., & Carmichael, B. A. (2010). The dimensions of the tourist experience. *The tourism and leisure experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives, 44*, 3-26.
- Dann, G.M., Jacobsen, J.K. (2002). Leading the tourist by the nose. In: Dann, G.M.(Ed.), *The Tourist as a Metaphor of the Social World*. CABI Publishing, NewYork, pp. 209–236
- Dattalo, P. (2013). *Analysis of multiple dependent variables* (Annotated ed., Pocket Guides to Social Work Research Methods). Oxford University Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Hedonia, eudaimonia, and well-being: An introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 9*(1), 1-11.

- Dedeoglu, B. B., Bilgihan, A., Ye, B. H., Buonincontri, P., & Okumus, F. (2018). The impact of servicescape on hedonic value and behavioral intentions: The importance of previous experience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 72, 10-20.
- Desmet, P. M., & Schifferstein, H. N. (2008). Sources of positive and negative emotions in food experience. *Appetite*, 50(2-3), 290-301.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale development: Theory and Applications* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications
- DeVellis, R. F. (2017). *Scale Development: Theory and Applications* (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Di-Clemente, E., Hernández-Mogollón, J. M., & Campón-Cerro, A. M. (2019). Food-based experiences as antecedents of destination loyalty. *British Food Journal*, 121(7), 1495-1507.
- Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 95, 542–575.
- Diener, E. D., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1), 71-75.
- Diener, E., & Emmons, R. A. (1984). The independence of positive and negative affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47(5), 1105.
- Diener, E., Sandvik, E., Pavot, W., & Gallagher, D. (1991). Response artifacts in the measurement of subjective well-being. *Social Indicators Research*, 24(1), 35-56.
- Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(2), 276.

- Diener, M. L., & Lucas, R. E. (2004). Adults desires for childrens emotions across 48 countries: Associations with individual and national characteristics. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 35*(5), 525-547.
- Dolnicar, S., Yanamandram, V., & Cliff, K. (2012). The contribution of vacations to quality of life. *Annals of Tourism Research, 39*(1), 59-83.
- Dong, P., & Siu, N. Y. M. (2013). Servicescape elements, customer predispositions and service experience: The case of theme park visitors. *Tourism Management, 36*, 541-551.
- Du Rand, G. E., & Heath, E. (2006). Towards a framework for food tourism as an element of destination marketing. *Current Issues in Tourism, 9*(3), 206-234.
- Dube, L., & LeBel, J. (2003). The content and structure of laypeople's concept of pleasure. *Cognition & Emotion, 17*, 263-295.
- Dunman, T., & Mattila, A. S. (2005). The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management, 26*(3), 311-323.
- Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt
- Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (2007). The advantages of an inclusive definition of attitude. *Social Cognition, 25*(5), 582-602.
- Ellis, A., Park, E., Kim, S., & Yeoman, I. (2018). What is food tourism?. *Tourism Management, 68*, 250-263.
- Enteleca Research and Consultancy. (2000). Tourist's attitudes toward regional and local foods [Prepared for the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Countryside Agency]. London: MAFF. Retrieved <http://www.tourisminsights.info/ONLINEPUB/FARMING%20AND%20FOOD/FOOD%20PDFS/tourist%20attitutes%20to%20local%20foods.pdf>.

- Everett, S. (2008). Beyond the visual gaze? The pursuit of an embodied experience through food tourism. *Tourist Studies*, 8(3), 337-358.
- Everett, S., & Aitchison, C. (2008). The role of food tourism in sustaining regional identity: A case study of Cornwall, South West England. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(2), 150-167.
- Everett, S., & Slocum, S. L. (2013). Food and tourism: An effective partnership? A UK-based review. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(6), 789-809.
- Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluating the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4(3), 272-299.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. London: Sage.
- Field, A. (2018). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics* (5th Ed.). CA: SAGE Publications
- Fields, K. (2002). Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: Motivational factors. In A. M. Hjalager & G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and Gastronomy* (pp. 36 –50). Oxon: Routledge.
- Filep, S. (2014). Moving beyond subjective well-being: A tourism critique. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 38(2), 266-274.
- Finstad, K. (2010). Response interpolation and scale sensitivity: Evidence against 5-point scales. *Journal of Usability Studies*, 5(3), 104-110.
- Fluker, M. R., & Turner, L. W. (2000). Needs, motivations, and expectations of a commercial whitewater rafting experience. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 380-389.

- Folgado-Fernández, J. A., Hernández-Mogollón, J. M., & Duarte, P. (2017). Destination image and loyalty development: the impact of tourists' food experiences at gastronomic events. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 17*(1), 92-110.
- Fornell, C. & Larcker, D. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39-50.
- Fox, R. (2007). Reinventing the gastronomic identity of Croatian tourist destinations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 26*(3), 546-559.
- Frochot, I. (2003). An analysis of regional positioning and its associated food images in French tourism regional brochures. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 14*(3-4), 77-96.
- Fuchs, G., & Reichel, A. (2011). An exploratory inquiry into destination risk perceptions and risk reduction strategies of first time vs. repeat visitors to a highly volatile destination. *Tourism Management, 32*(2), 266-276.
- Furst, T., Connors, M., Bisogni, C. A., Sobal, J., & Falk, L. W. (1996). Food choice: a conceptual model of the process. *Appetite, 26*(3), 247-266.
- Gao, J., Kerstetter, D. L., Mowen, A. J., & Hickerson, B. (2018). Changes in tourists' perception of well-being based on their use of emotion regulation strategies during vacation. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 35*(5), 567-582.
- Gentile, C., Spiller, N., & Noci, G. (2007). How to sustain the customer experience:: An overview of experience components that co-create value with the customer. *European Management Journal, 25*(5), 395-410.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2016). *IBM SPSS statistics 23 step by by step: A simple guide and reference* (14th ed.). New York: Routledge.

- Germov, J., Williams, L., & Freij, M. (2011). Portrayal of the slow food movement in the Australian print media: Conviviality, localism and romanticism. *Journal of Sociology, 47*(1), 89-106.
- Getz, D. (2000). *Explore wine tourism: management, development & destinations*. New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.
- Getz, D., & Robinson, R. N. (2014). “Foodies” and their travel preferences. *Tourism Analysis, 19*(6), 659-672.
- Getz, D., Robinson, R., Andersson, T. D., & Vujicic, S. (2014). *Foodies and food tourism*. Oxford: Goodfellow.
- Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holidaytaking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(1), 103-121.
- Gilmore, J. H., & Pine, B. J. (2002). Differentiating hospitality operations via experiences: Why selling services is not enough. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 43*(3), 87-96.
- Godovykh, M., & Tasci, A. D. (2020). Customer experience in tourism: A review of definitions, components, and measurements. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 35*, 100694.
- Goolaup, S., & Mossberg, L. (2017). Exploring the concept of extraordinary related to food tourists’ nature-based experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 17*(1), 27-43.
- Gounaris, S., & Stathakopoulos, V. (2004). Antecedents and consequences of brand loyalty: An empirical study. *Journal of Brand Management, 11*(4), 283-306.
- Graham, C., & Markowitz, J. (2011). Aspirations and happiness of potential Latin American immigrants. *Journal of Social Research & Policy, 2*(2), 1-17.

- Green, G. P., & Dougherty, M. L. (2008). Localizing linkages for food and tourism: Culinary tourism as a community development strategy. *Community Development*, 39(3), 148-158.
- Greenwald, A. G., & Banaji, M. R. (1995). Implicit social cognition: attitudes, self-esteem, and stereotypes. *Psychological Review*, 102(1), 4-27.
- Grisaffe, D. (2001). Loyalty-attitude, behavior, and good science: A third take on the NealBrandt debate. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 14, 55.
- Grönlund, K. & Strandberg, K. (2014). Online panels and validity: Representativeness and attrition in the Finnish eOpinion panel. In Callegaro, M., Baker, R. P., Bethlehem, J., Göritz, A. S., Krosnick, J. A., & Lavrakas, P. J. (Eds.) (pp. 86-103). *Online panel research: A data quality perspective*. UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Guan, J., & Jones, D. L. (2015). The contribution of local cuisine to destination attractiveness: An analysis involving Chinese tourists' heterogeneous preferences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(4), 416-434.
- Guillemin, I., Marrel, A., Arnould, B., Capuron, L., Dupuy, A., Ginon, E., ... & Allaert, F. A. (2016). How French subjects describe well-being from food and eating habits? Development, item reduction and scoring definition of the Well-Being related to Food Questionnaire (Well-BFQ©). *Appetite*, 96, 333-346.
- Gupta, S. V., & Vajic, M. (1999). The Contextual and Dialectical Nature of Experiences. *New Service Development: Creating Memorable Experiences*, ed. J. Fitzimmons, M. Fitzimmons, 33-35.
- Gyimóthy, S., & Mykletun, R. J. (2009). Scary food: Commodifying culinary heritage as meal adventures in tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 15(3), 259-273.

- Ha, J., & Jang, S. S. (2010). Effects of service quality and food quality: The moderating role of atmospherics in an ethnic restaurant segment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(3), 520-529.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hall, C. M., & Mitchell, R. (2001). *Wine and food tourism*. In N. Douglas, N. Douglas, & R. Derrett (Eds.), *Special interest tourism: Context and cases* (pp. 307-329). New York: John Wiley
- Hall, C. M., & Mitchell, R. (2006). Gastronomy, food and wine tourism. *Tourism Business Frontiers: Consumers, Products and Industry*, 137-148.
- Hall, C. M., & Sharples, L. (2003). The consumption of experiences or the experience of consumption? An introduction to the tourism of taste. In C. M. Hall, E. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis, & B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food and culinary tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 1-24). Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann
- Hall, C. M., & Sharples, L. (2008). Food events, festivals and farmers' markets: An introduction. *Food and wine festivals and events around the world: Development, management and markets*, 3-22.
- Hall, C. M., Sharples, L., & Smith, A. (2003). The experience of consumption or the consumption of experiences? Challenges and issues in food tourism. In C.M. Hall., L. Sharples., R. Mitchell., N. Macionis., B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food tourism around the world* (pp. 314-335). Butterworth-Heinemann.

- Han, H., & Kim, W. (2009). Outcomes of relational benefits: restaurant customers' perspective. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(8), 820-835.
- Han, H., & Ryu, K. (2009). The roles of the physical environment, price perception, and customer satisfaction in determining customer loyalty in the restaurant industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(4), 487-510.
- Han, H., Back, K. J., & Barrett, B. (2009). Influencing factors on restaurant customers' revisit intention: The roles of emotions and switching barriers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 563-572.
- Han, H., Kiatkawsin, K., Jung, H., & Kim, W. (2018). The role of wellness spa tourism performance in building destination loyalty: The case of Thailand. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(5), 595-610.
- Hansen, K. V., Jensen, Ø., & Gustafsson, I. B. (2005). The meal experiences of á la carte restaurant customers. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 5(2), 135-151.
- Harrington, R. J. (2005). Defining gastronomic identity: The impact of environment and culture on prevailing components, texture and flavors in wine and food. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 4(2-3), 129-152.
- Henderson, J. C. (2009). Food tourism reviewed. *British Food Journal*, 111(4), 317-326.
- Hepburn, R. (1966). *Contemporary aesthetics and the neglect of natural beauty*. In *British analytical philosophy* (pp. 285-310). London, UK: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Hernández-Mogollón, J. M., Di-Clemente, E., & Campón-Cerro, A. M. (2020). Culinary travel experiences, quality of life and loyalty. *Spanish Journal of Marketing-ESIC*, 24(3), 425-446.

- Herrera, C. F. (2012). Gastronomy's importance in the development of tourism destinations in the world. *Global report on food tourism. UNWTO*, Madrid, 6–9.
- Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(1), 104-121.
- Hjalager, A. M., & Corigliano, M. A. (2000). Food for tourists-determinants of an image. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(4), 281-293.
- Hjalager, A. M., & Richards, G. (2002). 13 Still undigested: research issues in tourism and gastronomy. *Tourism and Gastronomy*, (224–234).
- Hjalager, A.-M. (2003). What do tourists eat and why? Towards a sociology of gastronomy and tourism. In J. Collen & G. Richards (Eds.), *Gastronomy and Tourism* (pp. 54-74). Gravenwezel/Schilde, Belgium: Academie Voor de Streekgebonden Gastronomie.
- Hoch, S. J., & Deighton, J. (1989). Managing what consumers learn from experience. *Journal of Marketing*, 53(2), 1-20.
- Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(2), 132-140.
- Holtzman, J. D. (2006). Food and Memory. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 35, 361–78.
- Hornig, J. S., & Tsai, C. T. (2012). Culinary tourism strategic development: an Asia-Pacific perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(1), 40-55.
- Hosany, S., & Prayag, G. (2013). Patterns of tourists' emotional responses, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(6), 730-737.
- Hosany, S., & Witham, M. (2010). Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(3), 351-364.

- Hsu, C. L., & Chen, M. C. (2014). Explaining consumer attitudes and purchase intentions toward organic food: Contributions from regulatory fit and consumer characteristics. *Food Quality and Preference, 35*, 6-13.
- Hsu, F. C., & Scott, N. (2020). Food experience, place attachment, destination image and the role of food-related personality traits. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 44*, 79-87.
- Hsu, F. C., Agyeiwaah, E., Lynn, I., & Chen, L. (2021). Examining food festival attendees' existential authenticity and experiential value on affective factors and loyalty: An application of stimulus-organism-response paradigm. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 48*, 264-274.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 6*(1), 1-55
- Huang, T. C., Beaman, J., Chang, L. H., & Hsu, S. Y. (2008). Robust and alternative estimators for “better” estimates for expenditures and other “long tail” distributions. *Tourism Management, 29*(4), 795-806
- Huang, Y. C., Cheng, J. S., & Chang, L. L. (2019). Understanding leisure trip experience and subjective well-being: An illustration of creative travel experience. *Applied Research in Quality of Life, 1-22*.
- Hughes, H. L., & Benn, D. (1995). *Entertainment: its role in the tourist experience* (pp. 11-21). Leisure Studies Association.

- Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2011). Why do you cruise? Exploring the motivations for taking cruise holidays, and the construction of a cruising motivation scale. *Tourism Management, 32*(2), 386-393.
- Hwang, J., Kim, S. S., Choe, J. Y. J., & Chung, C. H. (2018). Exploration of the successful glocalization of ethnic food: A case of Korean food. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 30*(12), 3656-3676.
- Ignatov, E., & Smith, S. (2006). Segmenting Canadian culinary tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism, 9*(3), 235.
- Ihamäki, P. (2012). Geocachers: The creative tourism experience. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology, 3*(3), 152-175.
- Jamaludin, N. L., Sam, D. L., Sandal, G. M., & Adam, A. A. (2016). Personal values, subjective well-being and destination-loyalty intention of international students. *Springerplus, 5*(1), 1-11.
- Jang, S. S., & Namkung, Y. (2009). Perceived quality, emotions, and behavioral intentions: Application of an extended Mehrabian–Russell model to restaurants. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(4), 451-460.
- Jeong, E., & Jang, S. S. (2011). Restaurant experiences triggering positive electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) motivations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30*(2), 356-366.
- Ji, M., Wong, I. A., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2016). Food-related personality traits and the moderating role of novelty-seeking in food satisfaction and travel outcomes. *Tourism Management, 57*, 387-396.

- Jones, A., & Jenkins, I. (2002). A Taste of Wales—Blas Ar Gymru: institutional malaise in promoting Welsh food tourism products. *Tourism and Gastronomy*, 115-131.
- Kauppinen-Räsänen, H., Gummerus, J., & Lehtola, K. (2013). Remembered eating experiences described by the self, place, food, context and time. *British Food Journal*, 115(5), 666-685.
- Khosla, A., Bainbridge, W. A., Torralba, A., & Oliva, A. (2013). Modifying the memorability of face photographs. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision* (pp. 3200-3207).
- Kim, H. J. (2011). Service orientation, service quality, customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty: Testing a structural model. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 20(6), 619-637.
- Kim, H., Lee, S., Uysal, M., Kim, J., & Ahn, K. (2015). Nature-based tourism: Motivation and subjective well-being. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 32(1), 76-96.
- Kim, J. H. (2009). *Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences* (Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University). Indiana University Theses and Dissertation Archive. https://scholarworks.iu.edu/dspace/bitstream/handle/2022/8786/Kim_indiana_0093A_10479.pdf;jsessionid=8C454A125BBB22B4AD257F694EE912A2?sequence=1
- Kim, J. H. (2014). The antecedents of memorable tourism experiences: The development of a scale to measure the destination attributes associated with memorable experiences. *Tourism Management*, 44, 34-45.
- Kim, J. H. (2018). The impact of memorable tourism experiences on loyalty behaviors: The mediating effects of destination image and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 57(7), 856-870.

- Kim, J. H., & Ritchie, J. B. (2014). Cross-cultural validation of a memorable tourism experience scale (MTES). *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(3), 323-335.
- Kim, J. H., Ritchie, J. B., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(1), 12-25.
- Kim, J. H., Ritchie, J. R., & Tung, V. W. S. (2010). The effect of memorable experience on behavioral intentions in tourism: A structural equation modeling approach. *Tourism Analysis*, 15(6), 637-648.
- Kim, S. (2010). Extraordinary experience: Re-enacting and photographing at screen tourism locations. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, 7(1), 59-75.
- Kim, S. S., & Choe, J. Y. J. (2019). Testing an attribute-benefit-value-intention (ABVI) model of local food consumption as perceived by foreign tourists. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(1), 123-140.
- Kim, S. S., Badu-Baiden, F., Oh, M. M., & Kim, J. (2020). Effects of African local food consumption experiences on post-tasting behavior. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(2), 625-643.
- Kim, S., Choe, J. Y., & Lee, S. (2018). How are food value video clips effective in promoting food tourism? Generation Y versus non-Generation Y. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(3), 377-393.
- Kim, S., Park, E., & Xu, M. (2020). Beyond the authentic taste: The tourist experience at a food museum restaurant. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 36, 100749.
- Kim, W., Kim, H., & Hwang, J. (2020). Sustainable growth for the self-employed in the retail industry based on customer equity, customer satisfaction, and loyalty. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 53, 101963.

- Kim, Y. G., & Eves, A. (2012). Construction and validation of a scale to measure tourist motivation to consume local food. *Tourism Management*, 33(6), 1458-1467.
- Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), 423-431.
- Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2013). Empirical verification of a conceptual model of local food consumption at a tourist destination. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33, 484-489.
- Kim, Y. G., Suh, B. W., & Eves, A. (2010). The relationships between food-related personality traits, satisfaction, and loyalty among visitors attending food events and festivals. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(2), 216-226.
- Kim, Y. H., Goh, B. K., & Yuan, J. (2010). Development of a multi-dimensional scale for measuring food tourist motivations. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 11(1), 56-71.
- Kim, Y. H., Kim, M., & Goh, B. K. (2011). An examination of food tourist's behavior: Using the modified theory of reasoned action. *Tourism Management*, 32(5), 1159-1165.
- Kirillova, K., & Lehto, X. (2015). Destination aesthetics and aesthetic distance in tourism experience. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 32(8), 1051-1068.
- Kirillova, K., Fu, X., Lehto, X., & Cai, L. (2014). What makes a destination beautiful? Dimensions of tourist aesthetic judgment. *Tourism Management*, 42, 282-293.
- Kivela, J. J., & Crotts, J. C. (2009). Understanding travelers' experiences of gastronomy through etymology and narration. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(2), 161-192.

- Kivela, J., & Crofts, J. C. (2005). Gastronomy tourism: A meaningful travel market segment. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 4(2-3), 39-55.
- Kivela, J., & Crofts, J. C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(3), 354-377.
- Klaus, P., & Maklan, S. (2012). EXQ: a multiple-item scale for assessing service experience. *Journal of Service Management*, 23(1), 5-33.
- Kleinbaum, D., Kupper, L., Muller, K., Nizam, A., & Nizati, A. (1998). *Applied Regression Analysis and Other Multivariable Methods*. Pacific Grove, CA: Duxberry.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practices of structural equation modeling*. Guilford: Guildford Press.
- Kline, R. B. (2016). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (4th ed.). New York, NY, US: Guilford Press.
- Kollmuss, A., & Agyeman, J. (2002). Mind the gap: why do people act environmentally and what are the barriers to pro-environmental behavior?. *Environmental Education Research*, 8(3), 239-260.
- Kowalski, R.M. & Westen, D. (2009). *Psychology*, 5th ed., Wiley, Hoboken, NJ.
- Krech, D., & Crutchfield, R.S. (1948). *Theory and problems of social psychology*. New York: MacGraw-Hill.
- Krippendorf, J. (1987). Ecological approach to tourism marketing. *Tourism Management*, 8(2), 174-176.

- Kumar, V., & Kaushik, A. K. (2018). Destination brand experience and visitor behavior: The mediating role of destination brand identification. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 35*(5), 649-663.
- Kuo, C. M. (2007). The importance of hotel employee service attitude and the satisfaction of international tourists. *The Service Industries Journal, 27*(8), 1073-1085.
- Lai, M. Y., Wang, Y., & Khoo-Lattimore, C. (2020). Do food image and food neophobia affect tourist intention to visit a destination? The case of Australia. *Journal of Travel Research, 59*(5), 928-949.
- Larsen, S. (2007). Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1), 7–18.
- Lau, A. L., & McKercher, B. (2004). Exploration versus acquisition: A comparison of first-time and repeat visitors. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(3), 279-285.
- Lau, G., & McKercher, B. (2006). Understanding tourist movement patterns in a destination: A GIS approach. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 7*(1), 39-49.
- Law, R., To, T., & Goh, C. (2008). How do Mainland Chinese travelers choose restaurants in Hong Kong?: An exploratory study of individual visit scheme travelers and packaged travelers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*(3), 346-354.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Progress on a cognitive-motivational relational theory of emotion. *American Psychologist, 46*(8), 819–834.
- Lee, D. J., Kruger, S., Whang, M. J., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2014). Validating a customer well-being index related to natural wildlife tourism. *Tourism Management, 45*, 171-180.
- Lee, I., & Arcodia, C. (2011). The role of regional food festivals for destination branding. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 13*(4), 355-367.

- Lee, J. S., Lee, C. K., & Park, C. K. (2014). Developing and validating a multidimensional quality scale for mega-events. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *43*, 121-131.
- Lee, K. H., & Scott, N. (2015). Food tourism reviewed using the paradigm funnel approach. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, *13*(2), 95-115.
- Lee, K. H., Scott, N., & Packer, J. (2014). Habitus and food lifestyle: In-destination activity participation of Slow Food members. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *48*, 207-220.
- Lee, T. H. (2009). A structural model to examine how destination image, attitude, and motivation affect the future behavior of tourists. *Leisure Sciences*, *31*(3), 215-236.
- Lee, T., & Crompton, J. (1992). Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*, 732-751.
- Leong, Q. L., Ab Karim, S., Awang, K. W., & Bakar, A. Z. A. (2017). An integrated structural model of gastronomy tourists' behaviour. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *11*(4), 573-592.
- Letarte, A., Dube, L., & Troche, V. (1997). Similarities and differences in affective and cognitive origins of food likings and dislikes. *Appetite*, *28*(2), 115-129.
- Li, H., Daugherty, T., & Biocca, F. (2001). Characteristics of virtual experience in electronic commerce: A protocol analysis. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *15*(3), 13-30.
- Li, X. R., Cheng, C. K., Kim, H., & Petrick, J. F. (2008). A systematic comparison of first-time and repeat visitors via a two-phase online survey. *Tourism Management*, *29*(2), 278-293.
- Li, Z., Hua, C., Fu, X., & Liu, X. (2021). Beyond complainers: reclassifying customers of travel agency regarding post-failure behavior and loyalty performance. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *26*(3), 329-346.

- Lin, C. H. (2014). Effects of cuisine experience, psychological well-being, and self-health perception on the revisit intention of hot springs tourists. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 38(2), 243-265
- Lin, L., & Mao, P. C. (2015). Food for memories and culture—A content analysis study of food specialties and souvenirs. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 22, 19-29.
- Lin, Y. C., Pearson, T. E., & Cai, L. A. (2011). Food as a form of destination identity: A tourism destination brand perspective. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 11(1), 30-48.
- Liu, Y., & Jang, S. S. (2009). The effects of dining atmospherics: An extended Mehrabian–Russell model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 494-503.
- Long, L. M. (2004). *Culinary tourism*. Lexington: University Press of Kentucky.
- Lyubomirsky, S., & Lepper, H. S. (1999). A measure of subjective happiness: Preliminary reliability and construct validation. *Social Indicators Research*, 46(2), 137-155.
- Ma, J., Gao, J., Scott, N., & Ding, P. (2013). Customer delight from theme park experiences: The antecedents of delight based on cognitive appraisal theory. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 42, 359-381.
- Magnini, V. P., & Thelen, S. T. (2008). The influence of music on perceptions of brand personality, décor, and service quality: The case of classical music in a fine-dining restaurant. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 16(3), 286-300.
- Maio, G., & Haddock, G. G. (2009). *Psychology of attitudes and attitude change*. London, England: Sage.
- Mak, A. H., Lumbers, M., & Eves, A. (2012). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1), 171-196.

- Mak, A. H., Lumbers, M., Eves, A., & Chang, R. C. (2012). Factors influencing tourist food consumption. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 928-936.
- Mak, A. H., Lumbers, M., Eves, A., & Chang, R. C. (2017). The effects of food-related personality traits on tourist food consumption motivations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 1-20.
- Malim, T., & Birch, A. (1989). *Social psychology*. Basingstoke: TheMacmillan Press Ltd.
- Mancas, M., & Le Meur, O. (2013, September). Memorability of natural scenes: The role of attention. In *2013 IEEE International Conference on Image Processing* (pp. 196-200). IEEE.
- Mannell, R. C., & Kleiber, D. A. (1997). *A social psychology of leisure*. Venture Publishing Inc.
- Marsh, H. W., Hau, K. T., & Wen, Z. (2004). In search of golden rules: Comment on hypothesis-testing approaches to setting cutoff values for fit indexes and dangers in overgeneralizing Hu and Bentler's (1999) findings. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 11(3), 320-341.
- Mascarenhas, O. A., Kesavan, R., & Bernacchi, M. (2006). Lasting customer loyalty: a total customer experience approach. *Journal of consumer marketing*, 23(7), 397-405
- Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism, economic, physical and social impacts*. Longman.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mayer, V. F., Machado, J. D. S., Marques, O., & Nunes, J. M. G. (2020). Mixed feelings?: fluctuations in well-being during tourist travels. *The Service Industries Journal*, 40(1-2), 158-180.
- McCabe, S., & Johnson, S. (2013). The happiness factor in tourism: Subjective well-being and social tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 41, 42-65.

- McKercher, B., & Wong, D. Y. (2004). Understanding tourism behavior: Examining the combined effects of prior visitation history and destination status. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(2), 171-179.
- McKercher, B., Okumus, F., & Okumus, B. (2008). Food tourism as a viable market segment: It's all how you cook the numbers!. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 25*(2), 137-148.
- Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). The basic emotional impact of environments. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 38*(1), 283-301.
- Meler, M., & Cerovic, Z. (2003). Food marketing in the function of tourist product development. *British Food Journal, 105*(3), 175-192.
- Meng, B., & Cui, M. (2020). The role of co-creation experience in forming tourists' revisit intention to home-based accommodation: Extending the theory of planned behavior. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 33*, 100581.
- Miao, L., Lehto, X., & Wei, W. (2014). The hedonic value of hospitality consumption: Evidence from spring break experiences. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 23*(2), 99-121.
- Milfont, T. L., & Fischer, R. (2010). Testing measurement invariance across groups: Applications in cross-cultural research. *International Journal of Psychological Research, 3*(1), 111-130.
- Mitchell, R., & Hall, C. M. (2003). Consuming tourists: Food and culinary tourism consumer behaviour. In C. M. Hall, E. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis, & B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food and culinary tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 72–92). Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann

- Mkono, M., Markwell, K., & Wilson, E. (2013). Applying Quan and Wang's structural model of the tourist experience: A Zimbabwean netnography of food tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 5, 68-74.
- Mohamed, M. E., Hewedi, M. M., Lehto, X., & Maayouf, M. (2020). Egyptian food experience of international visitors: a multidimensional approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(8), 2593-2611.
- Molz, J. G. (2007). Eating difference: The cosmopolitan mobilities of culinary tourism. *Space and Culture*, 10(1), 77-93.
- Morgan, M., & Xu, F. (2009). Student travel experiences: Memories and dreams. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18(2-3), 216-236.
- Morgan, M., Lugosi, P., & Ritchie, J. B. (Eds.). (2010). *The tourism and leisure experience: Consumer and managerial perspectives* (Vol. 44). Channel View Publications.
- Moscardo, G. (2010). The shaping of tourist experience. The importance of stories and themes. *The tourism and leisure experience: Consumer and managerial perspectives*, 44, 43-58.
- Mossberg, L. (2007). A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7 (1), 59–74.
- National Travel and Tourism Office [NTTO] (2019). *2019 U.S. Travel and Tourism Statistics (U.S. Resident Outbound)*. Retrieved https://travel.trade.gov/outreachpages/outbound.general_information.outbound_overview.asp
- Nawijn, J. (2011). Happiness through vacationing: Just a temporary boost or long-term benefits? *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 12(4), 651–665.

- Nawijn, J., & Mitas, O. (2012). Resident attitudes to tourism and their effect on subjective well-being: The case of Palma de Mallorca. *Journal of Travel Research, 51*(5), 531-541.
- Nummedal, M., & Hall, C. M. (2006). Local food in tourism: An investigation of the New Zealand south island's bed and breakfast sector's use and perception of local food. *Tourism Review International, 9*(4), 365-378.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oh, H., Fiore, A. M., & Jeoung, M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(2), 119-132.
- Okumus, B., Dedeoğlu, B. B., & Shi, F. (2021). Gender and generation as antecedents of food neophobia and food neophilia. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 37*, 100773.
- Okumus, B., Okumus, F., & McKercher, B. (2007). Incorporating local and international cuisines in the marketing of tourism destinations: The cases of Hong Kong and Turkey. *Tourism Management, 28*(1), 253-261.
- Okumus, F., Kock, G., Scantlebury, M. M., & Okumus, B. (2013). Using local cuisines when promoting small Caribbean island destinations. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 30*(4), 410-429.
- Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty?. *Journal of Marketing, 63*(4), 33-44.
- Ooi, C. (2005). A theory of tourism experiences: The management of attention. In T. O' Dell, & P. Billing (Eds.), *Experiencescapes - Tourism, culture, and economy* (pp. 51-68). Denmark: Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Ooi, C. S. (2002). *Cultural tourism and tourism cultures: The business of mediating experiences in Copenhagen and Singapore*. Copenhagen Business School Press DK.

- Opperman, M. (2000). Where psychology and geography interface in tourism research and theory, in Woodside, A. G., Crouch, G. I., Mazanec, J. A., Opperman, M. and Sakai, M. Y. (eds) *Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure*, Cabi Publishing, New York, pp. 19–37.
- Oppermann, M., & Cooper, M. (1999). Outbound travel and quality of life: The effect of airline price wars. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 179-188.
- O’Sullivan, E. L., & Spangler, K. J. (1998). *Experience marketing: Strategies for the new millennium*. State College, PA: Venture Publishing Inc.
- Otoo, F. E., & Amuquandoh, F. E. (2014). An investigation into the experiences of international volunteer tourists in Ghana. *Anatolia*, 25(3), 431-443.
- Ottbacher, M. C., & Harrington, R. J. (2013). A case study of a culinary tourism campaign in Germany: Implications for strategy making and successful implementation. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 37(1), 3-28.
- Otto, J. E., & Ritchie, J. B. (1996). The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 17(3), 165-174.
- Palmer, A. (2010). Customer experience management: A critical review of an emerging idea. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 24(3), 196–208.
- Pérez, A., & Del Bosque, I. R. (2015). Corporate social responsibility and customer loyalty: exploring the role of identification, satisfaction and type of company. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 29(1), 15-25.
- Phillips, W. J., Asperin, A., & Wolfe, K. (2013). Investigating the effect of country image and subjective knowledge on attitudes and behaviors: US Upper Midwesterners’ intentions to

- consume Korean Food and visit Korea. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32, 49-58.
- Piha, S., Pohjanheimo, T., Lähteenmäki-Uutela, A., Křečková, Z., & Otterbring, T. (2018). The effects of consumer knowledge on the willingness to buy insect food: An exploratory cross-regional study in Northern and Central Europe. *Food Quality and Preference*, 70, 1-10.
- Pikkemaat, B., & Schuckert, M. (2007). Success factors of theme parks—An exploratory study. *Tourism*, 55(2), 197–208.
- Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(4), 97-106.
- Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy: work is theatre & every business a stage*. Harvard Business Press.
- Piolino, P., Desgranges, B., Benali, K., & Eustache, F. (2002). Episodic and semantic remote autobiographical memory in ageing. *Memory*, 10(4), 239-257.
- Piramanayagam, S., Sud, S., & Seal, P. P. (2020). Relationship between tourists' local food experiencescape, satisfaction and behavioural intention. *Anatolia*, 31(2), 316-330.
- Pizam, A., & Sussmann, S. (1995). Does nationality affect tourist behavior?. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(4), 901-917.
- Pleyers, G., & Poncin, I. (2020). Non-immersive virtual reality technologies in real estate: How customer experience drives attitudes toward properties and the service provider. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 57, 102175.
- Pliner, P., & Hobden, K. (1992). Development of a scale to measure the trait of food neophobia in humans. *Appetite*, 19(2), 105-120.
- Pliner, P., & Salvy, S. (2006). Food neophobia in humans. *Frontiers in Nutritional Science*, 3, 75.

- Poulsson, S. H., & Kale, S. H. (2004). The experience economy and commercial experiences. *The Marketing Review*, 4(3), 267-277.
- Pourfakhimi, S., Nadim, Z., Prayag, G., & Mulcahy, R. (2020). The influence of neophobia and enduring food involvement on travelers' perceptions of wellbeing—Evidence from international visitors to Iran. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 23, 178-191.
- Povey, G. (2011). 17 Gastronomy and Tourism. In P. Robinson, S. Heitmann, & P. Dieke (Eds.), *Research Themes for Tourism* (pp. 233-248). Cabi
- Prentice, R. C., Witt, S. F., & Hamer, C. (1998). Tourism as experience: The case of heritage parks. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 1-24.
- Preston, C. C., & Colman, A. M. (2000). Optimal number of response categories in rating scales: reliability, validity, discriminating power, and respondent preferences. *Acta Psychologica*, 104(1), 1-15.
- Pritchard, M. P., & Howard, D. R. (1997). The loyal traveler: Examining a typology of service patronage. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(4), 2-10.
- Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 25(3), 297-305.
- Rand, G. E. D., Heath, E., & Alberts, N. (2003). The role of local and regional food in destination marketing: A South African situation analysis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(3-4), 97-112.
- Randall, E., & Sanjur, D. (1981). Food preferences—their conceptualization and relationship to consumption. *Ecology of Food and Nutrition*, 11(3), 151-161.

- Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Seyfi, S., Hall, C. M., & Hatamifar, P. (2021). Understanding memorable tourism experiences and behavioural intentions of heritage tourists. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 21, 100621.
- Reimer, A., & Kuehn, R. (2005). The impact of servicescape on quality perception. *European Journal of Marketing* 39(7/8), 785-808
- Renko, S., Renko, N., & Polonijo, T. (2010). Understanding the role of food in rural tourism development in a recovering economy. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, 16(3), 309-324.
- Richards, G. (2002). Gastronomy: An essential ingredient in tourism production and consumption. *Tourism and Gastronomy*, 11, 2-20.
- Richardson, S., Lefrid, M., Jahani, S., Munyon, M. D., & Rasoolimanesh, S. M. (2019). Effect of dining experience on future intention in quick service restaurants. *British Food Journal*, 121(11), 2620-2636.
- Rimmele, U., Davachi, L., Petrov, R., Dougal, S., & Phelps, E. A. (2011). Emotion enhances the subjective feeling of remembering, despite lower accuracy for contextual details. *Emotion*, 11(3), 553.
- Ritchie, J. B., Tung, V. W. S., & Ritchie, R. J. (2011). Tourism experience management research: Emergence, evolution and future directions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(4), 419-438.
- Rode, E., Rozin, P., & Durlach, P. (2007). Experienced and remembered pleasure for meals: Duration neglect but minimal peak, end (recency) or primacy effects. *Appetite*, 49(1), 18-29.

- Rousta, A., & Jamshidi, D. (2020). Food tourism value: Investigating the factors that influence tourists to revisit. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 26(1), 73-95.
- Rozin, P., Bauer, R., & Catanese, D. (2003). Food and life, pleasure and worry, among American college students: Gender differences and regional similarities. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(1), 132.
- Ryan, C. (2010). Ways of conceptualizing the tourist experience a review of literature. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 35(1), 37-46.
- Ryan, C. (Ed.). (2002). *The tourist experience*. London: Continuum
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 141-166.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069.
- Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(4), 719.
- Ryu, K., & Han, H. (2010). Influence of the quality of food, service, and physical environment on customer satisfaction and behavioral intention in quick-casual restaurants: Moderating role of perceived price. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 34(3), 310-329.
- Ryu, K., & Han, H. (2011). New or repeat customers: How does physical environment influence their restaurant experience?. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 599-611.
- Ryu, K., & Han, H. (2011). New or repeat customers: How does physical environment influence their restaurant experience?. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 599-611.

- Ryu, K., & Jang, S. (2006). Intention to experience local cuisine in a travel destination: The modified theory of reasoned action. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(4), 507-516.
- Ryu, K., Han, H., & Jang, S. S. (2010). Relationships among hedonic and utilitarian values, satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the fast-casual restaurant industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(3), 416-432.
- Ryu, K., Lee, H. R., & Kim, W. G. (2012). The influence of the quality of the physical environment, food, and service on restaurant image, customer perceived value, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 24(2), 200-223.
- Saayman, M., Li, G., Uysal, M., & Song, H. (2018). Tourist satisfaction and subjective well-being: An index approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(3), 388-399.
- Sahin, A., Zehir, C., & Kitapçı, H. (2011). The effects of brand experiences, trust and satisfaction on building brand loyalty; an empirical research on global brands. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 24, 1288-1301.
- Sajadmanesh, S., Jafarzadeh, S., Ossia, S. A., Rabiee, H. R., Haddadi, H., Mejova, Y., ... & Stringhini, G. (2017, April). Kissing cuisines: Exploring worldwide culinary habits on the web. In *Proceedings of the 26th international conference on world wide web companion* (pp. 1013-1021).
- Saket, B., Endert, A., & Stasko, J. (2016). Beyond usability and performance: A review of user experience-focused evaluations in visualization. In *Proceedings of the Sixth Workshop on Beyond Time and Errors on Novel Evaluation Methods for Visualization* (pp. 133-142).

- Scarpato, R. (2002). Gastronomy as a tourist product: The perspective of gastronomy studies. *Tourism and Gastronomy*, 11(2), 51-70.
- Scarpato, R., & Daniele, R. (2003). New global cuisine. *Food Tourism around the World*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Schacter, D. L. (1996). *Searching for memory: The brain, the mind, and the past*. New York: Basic Books
- Schifferstein, H. N. (2010). From salad to bowl: The role of sensory analysis in product experience research. *Food Quality and Preference*, 21(8), 1059-1067.
- Schmitt, B. (1999). Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(1-3), 53-67.
- Schraagen, J. M., & Van Dongen, K. (2005). Designing a licence plate for memorability. *Ergonomics*, 48(7), 796-806
- Seo, S., Yun, N., & Kim, O. Y. (2017). Destination food image and intention to eat destination foods: a view from Korea. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(2), 135-156.
- Servidio, R., & Ruffolo, I. (2016). Exploring the relationship between emotions and memorable tourism experiences through narratives. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 20, 151-160.
- Sharples, L. (2003). The world of cookery-school holidays. In C.M. Hall., L. Sharples., R. Mitchell., N. Macionis., B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets* (pp.102-120). Butterworth Heinemann: Oxford.
- Shaw, C., & Ivens, J. (2002). *Building great customer experiences*. London, GB: Palgrave.
- Sijtsema, S., Linnemann, A., Gaasbeek, T. V., Dagevos, H., & Jongen, W. (2002). Variables influencing food perception reviewed for consumer-oriented product development. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 42(6), 565-581.

- Silkes, C. A., Cai, L. A., & Lehto, X. Y. (2013). Marketing to the culinary tourist. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(4), 335-349.
- Sims, R. (2009). Food, place and authenticity: local food and the sustainable tourism experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 321-336.
- Sirgy, M. J. (2019). Promoting quality-of-life and well-being research in hospitality and tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 36(1), 1-13.
- Sirgy, M. J., & Lee, D. J. (2006). Macro measures of consumer well-being (CWB): a critical analysis and a research agenda. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 26(1), 27-44.
- Sirgy, M. J., Kruger, P. S., Lee, D. J., & Yu, G. B. (2011). How does a travel trip affect tourists' life satisfaction?. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(3), 261-275.
- Smith, S. L., & Xiao, H. (2008). Culinary tourism supply chains: A preliminary examination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(3), 289-299.
- Smith, S., & Costello, C. (2009). Segmenting visitors to a culinary event: Motivations, travel behavior, and expenditures. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18(1), 44-67.
- Snepenger, D. J. (1987). Segmenting the vacation market by novelty-seeking role. *Journal of Travel Research*, 26(2), 8-14.
- Soltani, M., Nejad, N. S., Azad, F. T., Taheri, B., & Gannon, M. J. (2020). Food consumption experiences: a framework for understanding food tourists' behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(1), 75-100.
- Song, Z. (2017). The debate between empirical and broader phenomenological approaches to research. *Tourism Management*, 58, 307-311.

- Sparks, B., Bowen, J., & Klag, S. (2003). Restaurants and the tourist market. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(1), 6-13.
- Steenkamp, J. B. E., & Baumgartner, H. (1998). Assessing measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25(1), 78-90.
- Stevens, J. P. (2002). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sthapit, E. (2017). Exploring tourists' memorable food experiences: A study of visitors to Santa's official hometown. *Anatolia*, 28(3), 404-421.
- Sthapit, E., & Coudounaris, D. N. (2018). Memorable tourism experiences: Antecedents and outcomes. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 18(1), 72-94.
- Sthapit, E., Björk, P., & Coudounaris, D. N. (2017). Emotions elicited by local food consumption, memories, place attachment and behavioural intentions. *Anatolia*, 28(3), 363-380.
- Sthapit, E., Coudounaris, D. N., & Björk, P. (2019). Extending the memorable tourism experience construct: an investigation of memories of local food experiences. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 19(4-5), 333-353.
- Stone, M. J., Migacz, S., & Sthapit, E. (2021). Connections Between Culinary Tourism Experiences and Memory. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 1-11.
- Stone, M. J., Migacz, S., & Wolf, E. (2019). Beyond the journey: The lasting impact of culinary tourism activities. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(2), 147-152.
- Stone, M. J., Soulard, J., Migacz, S., & Wolf, E. (2018). Elements of memorable food, drink, and culinary tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 57(8), 1121-1132.

- Stylos, N., & Bellou, V. (2019). Investigating tourists' revisit proxies: The key role of destination loyalty and its dimensions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 58(7), 1123-1145.
- Sun, X., Chi, C. G. Q., & Xu, H. (2013). Developing destination loyalty: The case of Hainan Island. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 43, 547-577.
- Sutton, D. (2010). Food and the Senses. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 39, 209–23.
- Sutton, D. (2011). Memory as a sense: A gustemological approach. *Food, Culture & Society*, 14(4), 462-475.
- Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (1999). *Consumer behaviour in tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Telfer, D. J., & Hashimoto, A. (2003). Food tourism in the Niagara region: The development of a nouvelle cuisine. *Food Tourism Around the World: Development, management and Markets*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann, 158-177.
- Telfer, D. J., & Wall, G. (1996). Linkages between tourism and food production. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(3), 635-653.
- Tian-Cole, S., Crompton, J. L., & Willson, V. L. (2002). An empirical investigation of the relationships between service quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions among visitors to a wildlife refuge. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 34(1), 1-24.
- Tikkanen, I. (2007). Maslow's hierarchy and food tourism in Finland: five cases. *British food Journal*, 109(9), 721-734.
- Torres, R. (2002). Toward a better understanding of tourism and agriculture linkages in the Yucatan: Tourist food consumption and preferences. *Tourism Geographies*, 4(3), 282-306.

- Tsai, C. T. (2016). Memorable tourist experiences and place attachment when consuming local food. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(6), 536-548.
- Tsai, S. P. (2010). Shopping mall management and entertainment experience: a cross-regional investigation. *The Service Industries Journal*, 30(3), 321-337.
- Tse, P., & Crotts, J. C. (2005). Antecedents of novelty seeking: international visitors' propensity to experiment across Hong Kong's culinary traditions. *Tourism Management*, 26(6), 965-968.
- Tung, V. W. S., & Ritchie, J. B. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(4), 1367-1386.
- Tussyadiah, I. P., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2007). *Interpreting tourist experiences from first-person stories: A foundation for mobile guides*. St. Gallen, Switzerland: European Conference on Information Systems
- Tussyadiah, I. P., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2009). Mediating tourist experiences: Access to places via shared videos. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(1), 24-40.
- Tussyadiah, I. P., Wang, D., Jung, T. H., & tom Dieck, M. C. (2018). Virtual reality, presence, and attitude change: Empirical evidence from tourism. *Tourism Management*, 66, 140-154.
- UNWTO (2019). *International tourism highlights 2019 edition*. Retrieved <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421152>
- Uriely, N. (2005). The tourist experience: Conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(1), 199-216.

- Uysal, M., Perdue, R., & Sirgy, M. J. (Eds.). (2012). *Handbook of tourism and quality-of-life research: Enhancing the lives of tourists and residents of host communities*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., & Kruger, S. (Eds.). (2018). *Managing quality of life in tourism and hospitality*. CABI.
- Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. L. (2016). Quality of life (QOL) and well-being research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *53*, 244-261.
- Vada, S., Prentice, C., & Hsiao, A. (2019). The influence of tourism experience and well-being on place attachment. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *47*, 322-330.
- Van Selm, M., & Jankowski, N. W. (2006). Conducting online surveys. *Quality & Quantity*, *40*(3), 435-456.
- Vandenberg, R. J., & Lance, C. E. (2000). A review and synthesis of the measurement invariance literature: Suggestions, practices, and recommendations for organizational research. *Organizational Research Methods*, *3*(1), 4-70.
- Veenhoven, R. (1984). *Conditions of happiness*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: D. Reidel.
- Vega-Zamora, M., Torres-Ruiz, F. J., Murgado-Armenteros, E. M., & Parras-Rosa, M. (2014). Organic as a heuristic cue: What Spanish consumers mean by organic foods. *Psychology & Marketing*, *31*(5), 349-359.
- Vignolles, A., & Paul-Emmanuel, P. (2014). A taste of nostalgia: Links between nostalgia and food consumption. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, *17*, 225-238
- Walls, A. R., Okumus, F., Wang, Y. R., & Kwun, D. J. W. (2011). An epistemological view of consumer experiences. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *30*(1), 10-21.

- Wang, D., Park, S., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2012). The role of smartphones in mediating the touristic experience. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(4), 371-387.
- Wang, Y. C., Liu, C. R., Huang, W. S., & Chen, S. P. (2020). Destination fascination and destination loyalty: Subjective well-being and destination attachment as mediators. *Journal of Travel Research*, 59(3), 496-511.
- Warde, A. (2009). Imagining British cuisine: Representations of culinary identity in the Good Food Guide, 1951–2007. *Food, Culture & Society*, 12(2), 151-171.
- Warde, A., & Martens, L. (2000). *Eating out: Social differentiation, consumption and pleasure*. Cambridge University Press.
- Waterman, A. S. (1993). Two conceptions of happiness: Contrasts of personal expressiveness (eudaimonia) and hedonic enjoyment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64(4), 678.
- Wheaton, B., Muthen, B., Alwin, D. F., & Summers, G. F. (1977). Assessing reliability and stability in panel models. *Sociological Methodology*, 8, 84-136.
- Widjaja, D. C., Jokom, R., Kristanti, M., & Wijaya, S. (2020). Tourist behavioural intentions towards gastronomy destination: evidence from international tourists in Indonesia. *Anatolia*, 31(3), 376-392.
- Wijaya, S., King, B., Morrison, A., & Nguyen, T. H. (2017). Destination encounters with local food: The experience of international visitors in Indonesia. *Tourism Culture & Communication*, 17(2), 79-91.
- Wijaya, S., King, B., Nguyen, T. H., & Morrison, A. (2013). International visitor dining experiences: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 20, 34-42.

- Wikström, S. R. (2008). A consumer perspective on experience creation. *Journal of Customer Behaviour*, 7(1), 31-50.
- Wilensky, H. L. (1960). Work career and social integration. *International Journal of Social Science*, 12, 543–560
- Wirtz, D., Kruger, J., Scollon, C. N., & Diener, E. (2003). What to do on spring break? The role of predicted, on-line, and remembered experience in future choice. *Psychological Science*, 14(5), 520-524.
- Wolf, E. (2014). *Have fork will travel: A practical handbook for food & drink tourism professionals*. Portland, OR: World Food Travel Association.
- Woodside, A. G. (2008). *Advances in culture, tourism and hospitality research*. London: JAI Press.
- Woodside, A. G., & King, R. I. (2001). An updated model of travel and tourism purchase-consumption systems. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 10(1), 3-27.
- Yamamoto, M., & Lambert, D. R. (1994). The impact of product aesthetics on the evaluation of industrial products. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 11(4), 309-324.
- Yoo, B. (2002). Cross-group comparisons: A cautionary note. *Psychology & Marketing*, 19(4), 357-368.
- Yoo, B., Donthu, N., & Lee, S. (2000). An examination of selected marketing mix elements and brand equity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28(2), 195-211.
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 45-56.
- Yüksel, A., & Yüksel, F. (2007). Shopping risk perceptions: Effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 703-713.

- Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L. A., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management, 40*, 213-223.
- Zhang, H., Wu, Y., & Buhalis, D. (2018). A model of perceived image, memorable tourism experiences and revisit intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 8*, 326-336.
- Zhang, J. (2008). *Brand experiential value scales for limited-service hotels*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, IN.
- Zhang, T., Chen, J., & Hu, B. (2019). Authenticity, quality, and loyalty: Local food and sustainable tourism experience. *Sustainability, 11*(12), 3437.
- Zhong, Y. Y. S., Busser, J., & Baloglu, S. (2017). A model of memorable tourism experience: The effects on satisfaction, affective commitment, and storytelling. *Tourism Analysis, 22*(2), 201-217.
- Zimmerman, C. A., & Kelley, C. M. (2010). "I'll remember this!" Effects of emotionality on memory predictions versus memory performance. *Journal of Memory and Language, 62*(3), 240-253.