

Encounters with Local Food: The Culinary Experiences of International Visitors in Indonesia

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Abstract

Visitors are increasingly travelling to destinations in search of culinary experiences. Food functions not merely as physiological sustenance but also as a destination experience enhancer, providing opportunities to learn about destination culture through direct encounters with local cuisines. Although a substantial amount of research has investigated food-related visitor experiences, such experiences have not yet been addressed from the theoretically comprehensive perspective of three stages of the visitor experience (pre-, during, and post-). Moreover, most research in this domain has been conducted in more developed tourist destinations, neglecting emerging destinations, including Indonesia. Considering these shortcomings, the overarching aim of this PhD project is to improve understanding of dining on local food that international visitors experience when travelling to a destination, using Indonesia as the research context.

To conceptualise such understanding, relevant literature was reviewed to develop the proposed framework. It views visitor experience as sequential and having an interactive relationship over three stages: pre-, during, and post-dining experiences. Given the complexity of the visitor experience, the framework recognises the influence of internal and external factors on visitors' local food consumption experiences at every dining stage. Empirical research was then conducted to assess the applicability of the proposed framework.

A mixed methods approach involving a sequential design comprised of a quantitative (phase 1) and a qualitative study (phase 2). Phase 1 involved a questionnaire-based survey of 349 international visitors who travelled to Indonesia, aimed to examine the relevant experiences at the pre-dining stage. To ensure an unbiased approach, the measurement of dining expectations was undertaken before the visitor's actual encounter with local food consumption at the current visit. Phase 2 included semi-structured interviews with 15 informants. These sought deeper insights into the visitor perceptions of the actual local food consumption and their post-dining experiences. To obtain thorough insights into experiences at three dining stages, participants were drawn

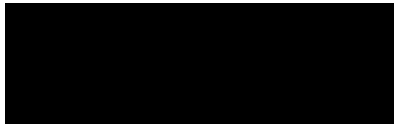
from the same sample group. Those who participated in the interview were asked to describe their actual dining experience and whether that experience was congruent with what they expected as expressed in the preceding survey. Such an approach allowed the dynamics surrounding the visitor encounter with local food to emerge and be projected more precisely while, at the same time, also improving the validity of the data collected through the conduct of both research methods.

This study found seven external factors that influenced visitor expectations of local food. These were: staff quality, sensory appeal, food uniqueness, local *servicescapes*, food authenticity, food familiarity, and food variety. The expectation level towards each factor varied significantly across visitor demographics (except gender), travel characteristics, preconceptions about local food, and previous dining experiences. In addition to these seven emerging factors, this research revealed prevalent issues highlighting the participants' perceptions of actual and overall post-dining experiences. First, local staff played a significant role in the dining experience. Second, concerns over food and dining establishment hygiene standards were paramount. Third, food culture-related issues encompassing food culture or *foodways* differences, visitors' food-related personality traits, and the authenticity associated with the food and the place of dining affected perceptions. Fourth, participants valued social interactions with the locals through involvement in local culinary events or activities and engagement with culinary experiences at street food hawker stalls.

The results of this study provide a preliminary step towards a more holistic and solidly-based understanding of how international visitors engage in dining experiences with local food. This study suggests that in order to provide international visitors with more meaningful and memorable culinary experiences, destination management should not focus exclusively on food and service quality aspects, but more importantly, to social and cultural differences between host destination and international visitors.

Student Declaration

I, Serli Wijaya, declare that the PhD thesis entitled *Encounters with Local Food: The Culinary Experiences of International Visitors in Indonesia* is no more than 100,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references, and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.



Serli Wijaya

Melbourne, 30th October 2014

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List of Publications and Awards

The research undertaken as part of this thesis has resulted in a number of publications including:

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* ***Received CAUTHE Best PhD Paper Award for the 23rd CAUTHE Conference 2013.***
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List of Abbreviations

| | |
|-------------|--|
| ABS | Australian Bureau of Statistics |
| ASEAN | Association of South East Asian Nations |
| BPS | Biro Pusat Statistik (Central Bureau of Statistics) |
| CNN | Cable News Network |
| DINESCAPE | Dining Scape |
| DINESERV | Dining Service |
| DMO | Destination Marketing Organisation |
| EFA | Exploratory Factor Analysis |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GPS | Global Positioning System |
| IDR | Indonesian Rupiah |
| KMO | Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin |
| MANOVA | Multivariate Analysis of Variance |
| MICE | Meetings, Incentives, Conventions, Exhibitions |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PATA | Pacific Asia Tourism Association |
| QDA | Qualitative Data Analysis |
| QSR | Quick Service Restaurant |
| SERVQUAL | Service Quality |
| SPSS | Statistical Program for Social Science |
| TANGSERV | Tangible Service |
| TRRA | Travel and Tourism Research Association |
| Tukey's HSD | Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference |
| UNWTO | United Nations World Tourism Organisation |
| VFR | Visiting Family and Relatives |
| VUHREC | Victoria University Human Resources Ethics Committee |
| WOM | Word of Mouth |

Chapter 1

Introduction

The rise of the experience economy has ushered in a growing role for food experiences in tourism. [However], research into the food experiences of tourists is still in its infancy. Although more information has emerged in recent years on the general motivations and profile of culinary tourists, we still have relatively little information on how tourists perceive and experience different foods... There is therefore much room for further research...(Richards, 2012, pp. 13, 41).

1.1 Background of Research

The early twenty-first century has been characterised by the emergence of the experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 2011). As part of this phenomenon and as described by Marson (2011), the tourism industry is undergoing a transformation in response to the evolving shape, scope, and nature of visitor activities. Richards (2012) asserts that the focus has shifted away from visiting typical “must-see” physical sights, to engaging in “must-experience” tourism activities, in which visitors can discover, participate, and learn about everyday life. Marson (2011) further implies that visitors are searching for and expecting new, unique, and more meaningful travel experiences. One means of offering these is through the prospect of experiencing the cuisine that is endemic to the destination being visited (Richards, 2012).

Culinary tourism has gained increasing attention over the past years. In general, it refers to all tourism activity undertaken by visitors relating to seeking experiences with the

food of a destination (Karim & Chi, 2010). Scarpato (2002) points out that as part of cultural tourism, culinary tourism is an essential resource for destinations looking to develop new quality tourism products and experiences. Culinary tourism is recognised as one of the most dynamic and creative tourism segments, in which over a third of visitor spending is devoted to food (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2012). For example, as shown in Australian Tourism National Accounts statistics in 2011-12, domestic and international visitors in Australia collectively spent about 26.4% of their total tourism consumption on food and beverage products including takeaway and restaurant meals (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013). Likewise, a study conducted by Visa and the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) in 2012, which involved 11,620 travellers from across 23 countries and territories, reported food and beverages as the highest expense items spent at the destination (Visa & PATA, 2012).

Food is an essential component of tourism along with transportation, accommodation, and attractions. When travelling, visitors engage in some form of dining (Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2011), ranging from eating food which is familiar from home to seeking novel and different local dishes (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Since eating is an integral part of travelling, it is commonplace for visitors to expect pleasurable culinary experiences regardless of whether these are or are not the primary purpose of travel (Kivela & Crofts, 2006). Long (2004) argues that experiencing local food can provide a gateway to new cultures. To illustrate, Hegarty and O'Mahony (2001) assert that food can lead visitors to learn about the culture of societies other than their own and to meet locals with whom they engage. International visitors can also build their knowledge of local cuisine by eating like the locals, and exploring novel cuisines and foods that they or their friends are unlikely to encounter at home (Fields, 2002). It is apparent that food functions not merely as a physiological sustenance for visitors, but also enhances their overall travel experience specifically through the encounter with local culinary culture (Fields, 2002; Wooside & King, 2001).

The appeal of local food for international visitors and associated dining opportunities has been widely acknowledged by destination marketing organisations (DMOs) at national, regional, and local levels (Okumus, Okumus, & McKercher, 2007). The most rigorous implementation has been undertaken by DMOs in Western countries such as

Spain (De Lera, 2012; López-Guzmán & Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012), Canada (Hashimoto & Telfer, 2006; Ignatov & Smith, 2006), and England (Everett & Aitchison, 2008). Recent attempts to utilise culinary tourism as a destination attraction have been evident amongst DMOs in Asia, particularly in leading tourism destinations such as Hong Kong (Kivela & Crotts, 2005; McKercher, Okumus, & Okumus, 2008; Okumus et al., 2007), Singapore (Chaney & Ryan, 2012; Henderson, Yun, Poon, & Biwei, 2012), and Taiwan (Chuang, 2009; Lin, Pearson, & Cai, 2011). Food is a marketing tool that should not be overlooked by destinations wishing to attract more visitors (Du Rand & Heath, 2006; Okumus et al., 2007). Long (2004) suggests that food should not be viewed as a single element of the tourism destination product but as an attraction in its own right.

Despite the significance of local food as an attraction, Cohen and Avieli (2004) characterise eating local food at a destination as an impediment, especially when the destination has an unfamiliar culinary culture. They further portray associated issues such as hygiene, strange food ingredients, and unfamiliar tastes that are sometimes unacceptable to visitors. From the visitor perspective, dealing with unfamiliar eating *foodways* is complex (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Fischler (1988) contends that visitors generally display two distinct eating tendencies when visiting a destination, namely *food neophobic* and *food neophilic*. Individuals may exhibit both tendencies in various degrees. The food neophobic group is more likely to suspect and even reject new or unfamiliar foodstuffs and dishes. Instead, visitors in this group prefer to consume familiar foods rather than trying the local food variety. Conversely, the food neophilic group is more open to searching for novel and even strange dishes. For this group, food is viewed as central to culture, which the visitors are willing to explore (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000). In such circumstances, the adventure of seeking local food is a significant motivator amongst the food neophilic group for visiting a particular destination (Tikkanen, 2007).

Considering those facts, an in-depth understanding of visitor food consumption and experiences becomes vital to ensure the provision of more memorable culinary experiences specifically for international visitors (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Mitchell & Hall, 2003). This requires a thorough consideration of various aspects influencing

visitor consumption from before to after experiencing the local food. It is the particular focus of this study to obtain such an understanding of international visitors' dining experiences with local food in a tourist destination.

1.2 Statement of the Problems

The preceding discussion has provided a valuable background to understanding the growing importance of offering memorable culinary experiences to international visitors. The literature shows that discussions about experiences in tourism began in the early 1960s in Clawson and Knetsch's (1963) study of outdoor recreation, which was followed by Cohen's (1979) initial reference to the term *tourist experience*. Experiences became even more of a focus of attention by the late 1990s with the emergence of the notion of the experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Since then, far-reaching theoretical and empirical research has been carried out to understand visitor experiences using various theories, research approaches and perspectives (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009).

Despite an extensive and growing body of literature discussing visitor experience, Jennings (2010a) and Jurowski (2009) assert that the essence of visitor experience and its conceptual structure remains elusive. Several researchers have attempted to conceptualise the temporal nature of visitor experience within an experiential phase framework (Ryan, 2003). However, to the author's knowledge, only a few have conducted a holistic analysis of visitor consumption experiences. Larsen (2007), for example, suggests that to understand visitor experience meticulously, the view should encompass the three key tourism experience stages of: before, during, and after the trip. Prior to the trip, visitors anticipate possible events through expectations whereas during the trip, they might have different perceptions of the actual undertaking of the events or experiences. Finally, after the trip, visitors will have memories of the experienced events.

The review of the literature also indicates that most research investigating the visitor experience concept has appeared in areas other than food tourism. Whilst extensive studies have been dedicated to studying the relations between tourism and different cultural aspects of the destination, such as heritage tourism experiences (Chen & Chen, 2010; De Rojas & Camamero, 2008), and museum experiences (Sheng & Chen, 2012,

2013), the interface between tourism and food has until recently been neglected by scholars of both tourism and food (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). In fact, empirical work pertaining to food consumption and tourism is mostly undertaken in the context of tourist eating experiences in restaurants (Nield, Kozak, & LeGrys, 2000; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003).

In addition, Kivela and Crotts (2006) and Richards (2012) argue that there appears to be relatively little empirical research which examines visitors' dining experience with local food in the destination. As more destinations utilise local food as part of their attractions, research on how visitors engage with dining on local food can provide a significant contribution to the improved understanding of international visitor behaviour.

Furthermore, the literature has shown that research examining culinary tourism has been conducted either from the perspectives of destination management or visitors. Research on the role of food as a destination marketing tool (Horng & Tsai, 2012; Karim & Chi, 2010; Lin et al., 2011; Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2013), and the links between food tourism and regional development (Amira, 2009; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Green & Dougherty, 2008) are examples of studies examined from the destination management perspective. Conversely, research on culinary tourist segmentation (MacLaurin, Blose, & Mack, 2007; Marzo-Navarro & Pedraja-Iglesias, 2010; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012), visitors and travel dining experiences (Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009, 2013; Kivela & Crotts, 2006, 2009), and tourist experiences on local food (Amuquandoh, 2011; Bull, 2012; Chao, 2010; Dutttagupta, 2013; Ryu & Han, 2010b; Ryu & Jang, 2006) are amongst the studies undertaken from the visitor viewpoint.

Although a substantial amount of research has been dedicated to investigating food-related visitor experiences (Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2010; Chang et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2009, 2013; Kivela & Crotts, 2006, 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2012, 2013; Ryu & Han, 2010b; Ryu & Jang, 2006), the research base for understanding such experiences has not yet been addressed comprehensively from the perspective of the three stages of visitor experience (pre-, during, and post-). The seminal work of Kim et al. (2009, 2013), for example, examined tourist motivations to consume local food in destination settings, focused exclusively on the pre-experience stage. Another study by

Ryu and Jang (2006) proposed a survey instrument to measure tourist perceptions of local cuisine experiences on trips and holidays, concerning a single food perception construct. Correia, Moital, da Costa, and Peres (2008), and Yüksel (2003) investigated the determinants of tourist dining satisfaction, while Namkung and Jang (2007) measured dining satisfaction and its effect on behavioural intentions. These studies however, have focused exclusively on the post-experience stage. This suggests that further systematic research is required to provide an improved understanding of the visitor experience concept when applied to dining with local food in a destination setting. This study therefore intends to fill this gap in the research.

With respect to the context of culinary tourism studies, Cohen and Avieli (2004) remark that the existing literature is concerned primarily with gastronomic offerings in the more touristically developed destinations of Western countries. Henderson (2009) contends that evolving principles and practices require revision in the light of findings from beyond the developed world. In an Asian context, to the author's knowledge, various studies exploring the relationship between visitor food perceptions and destination images have been undertaken only in more developed tourism destinations, such as Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, and Malaysia (Chao, 2010; Henderson et al., 2012; Karim, Chua, & Salleh, 2009; Kivela & Crofts, 2006, 2009; Ling, Karim, Othman, Adzahan, & Ramachandran, 2010; McKercher et al., 2008). As reported by the United World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), visitors are now increasingly moving beyond the long-established and once dominant destinations of Europe and North America. Accordingly, a number of emerging destinations such as South East Asia have been engaging in aggressive promotions to increase visitor arrivals and expenditures, and offering an alternative for international visitors (UNWTO, 2013). It is anticipated that investigating how visitors are experiencing local cuisine in these evolving destinations might reveal significant findings not merely related to aspects of food and service quality, but also to the social and cultural aspects of tourism food consumption.

In addition, a review of the literature shows that no empirical study has investigated the food experiences involving international visitors in regard to the consumption of local Indonesian food. As a country with rich natural and cultural resources, Indonesia can potentially benefit from a focus on culinary tourism to strengthen its international

visitor appeal (Wall & Nuryanti, 1997). There are more than 485 ethnic groups in Indonesia, each having its own local food characteristics. This has endowed the national cuisine with variety and taste (Yurnaldi, 2010). Indeed, it has led to uniqueness and a diversity of food-related activities that international visitors could experience when travelling there (Alamsyah, 2008). Conducting the empirical investigation in Indonesia is thus of particular interest, allowing for an examination of how food culture differences can shape and affect the overall dining experiences with local food encountered by international visitors in the country. In addition, Henderson (2009) asserts that food tourism can provide a competitive advantage that is central to both destination development and economic performance. Given this, a more comprehensive understanding of the value of food tourism as a destination development strategy will make a practical contribution to Indonesia's tourism industry.

1.3 Aim of the Study, Research Objectives and Research Questions

The gaps in the literature that were identified in Section 1.2 led to the central research question – how can dining experiences involving local food be understood comprehensively so that they can provide a more pleasurable and memorable experience for international visitors? On this basis, the overarching aim of this study is to shed light on dining with local food that international visitors experience when travelling to a destination. To achieve the study aim and to provide further guidance for analysis undertaken throughout this research, two objectives were formulated, followed by more specific research questions addressing each of these objectives. These are:

Research objective 1: to develop a conceptual framework of the international visitor dining experiences with local food.

Research questions:

- 1a. What dimensions constitute an applicable framework for examining international visitor dining experiences with local food?
- 1b. What factors influence international visitor dining experiences with local food?

Research objective 2: to assess the applicability of the proposed conceptual framework by conducting empirical research on dining experiences with local food undertaken by international visitors in the Indonesian context.

Research questions:

- 2a. What factors influence international visitor dining expectations prior to the actual encounter with local Indonesian food?
- 2b. How do international visitors perceive the quality of experiences during and after the actual dining with local Indonesian food?
- 2c. What are the relationships between the various experiences that international visitors encounter prior to, during, and after dining with local Indonesian food?

1.4 Research Framework

The construct of visitor experience relating to local food tourism dining is the main foundational concept for the research process supporting this thesis. The first objective of this research is achieved by developing a conceptual framework, functioning as a basis for improving the understanding of visitor dining experiences with local food in a destination. Relevant literature has been reviewed on the visitor experience in the more general tourism context, and in the culinary tourism context in particular. The review involved gathering and analysing secondary data from refereed journal articles, government and industry reports, and books to obtain solid background knowledge of the issue surrounding the international visitor dining experiences with local food in the destination settings. Furthermore, previous frameworks and models in the area have been critically analysed to identify conceptual and methodological gaps that, when addressed, could improve the development of the framework proposed in this study. Based on these reviews, the conceptual framework was developed by adopting three key stages of the tourism experience, recognising the importance of “events or feelings that occur prior, during, and after participation” (O'Sullivan & Spangler, 1998, p. 23). These stages are: the pre-dining stage (shortly after arrival and before any significant local food dining occurs); the during dining stage (while in the destination and experiencing some meals during travel); and the after dining stage.

Framed by the proposed conceptual framework, the second objective of this research is achieved by conducting empirical work in the context of a particular destination. Indonesia was deliberately chosen as the focus of the research, both because of its food culture diversity and the fact that the country's culinary tourism has been increasingly promoted to the international market as one of its key attractions (Osman, 2012). Also, the fact that the researcher holds Indonesian citizenship provides additional benefits in terms of her familiarity with the socio-cultural context being investigated, as well as the network connectivity with the local hospitality and tourism industry in the country.

To understand how international visitors engage with local culinary experience requires a comprehensive and systematic examination of the influential factors and possible behavioural outcomes of experiences prior to, during, and after the engagement with the food. The utilisation of a single research method either quantitative or qualitative was therefore considered inadequate in tackling this complexity. Acknowledging that all methods have limitations and biases, Greene and Caracelli (1997) suggest that using multiple methods can help to provide a more complete understanding of the important complexities of social phenomena. This study adopted a pragmatic paradigm since the research methodology was chosen based on the need to answer a research question rather than solely on philosophical alignment (Glogowska, 2011). A pragmatic paradigm enables the researcher to justify the use of a mixed methods approach for the research design process (Howe, 1988).

Considering the sequential nature of visitor experiences, this research adopted a mixed methods approach incorporating both quantitative and qualitative research to gather and analyse the data. This combination facilitates more in-depth research and allows for greater insights into the data. The empirical research process involved two phases of primary data collection: a questionnaire-based survey, and semi-structured interviews.

Phase 1 involved a questionnaire-based survey to examine the pre-consumption stage that the international visitor experiences with local Indonesian food. The survey is exploratory in nature and aimed to discover the visitor preconceptions of local Indonesian food, their intentions to eat local Indonesian food in the destination, and the factors influencing the international visitor expectations once they had expressed an interest in eating the local food. Surveying was chosen to provide an efficient method of

collecting responses from a potentially large sample of international visitors in Indonesia. It also served to improve researcher confidence since each respondent would be asked to respond to the same set of questions (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012).

Given the subjective nature of visitor experience, Phase 2 included semi-structured interviews designed to seek deeper insights into the perceptions of international visitors about their actual local food experiences and their future behavioural intentions. Interview participants were chosen from amongst the survey respondents who had expressed intentions to experience local food while they were in Indonesia, and who had agreed to participate in the interviews. Since the interviewees had participated in the first-phase survey, it was anticipated that the interview process would benefit from the good rapport that had developed between the researcher and the participants, thus creating a more conducive interview process.

A visual overview of how this research is framed is depicted in Figure 1.1. It illustrates the relationships between the aim of this study, the research objectives, and the research questions formulated to achieve the objectives.

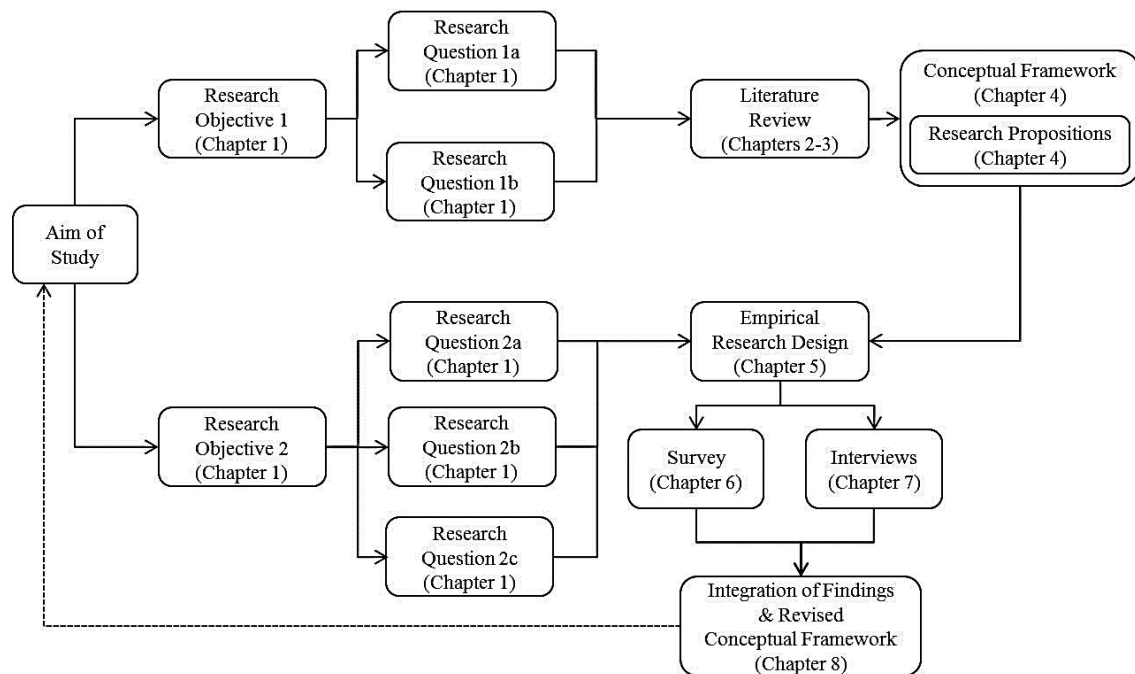


Figure 1.1 Flow of Research Framework

Table 1.1 summarises the research framework including: types of information needed in order to achieve the research objectives; how the information would be obtained; and the rationale for selecting the method of obtaining the information.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is paramount as it contributes insights into the body of knowledge relating to international visitor behaviour. This study makes significant contributions to this knowledge in four ways. Firstly, the conceptual framework developed will contribute to tourism marketing literature by providing a holistic investigation of the full spectrum of visitor experiences, particularly in relation to shortcomings within the culinary tourism context. Secondly, since experiences with local food can enhance the overall destination experience and help to engage visitors more actively with the destination, the conceptual framework proposed offers an improved understanding of food-oriented visitor behaviours. Further, the study expands the literature on culinary tourism by providing insights into the dynamics of the engagement with dining experiences that are specific to international visitors. Finally, much of the culinary tourism literature has adopted a Western-oriented perspective and correspondingly, much research has been undertaken in countries where tourism is highly developed. The results of this study therefore are expected to enrich the knowledge of culinary tourism experiences in the context of emerging destinations, such as Indonesia, where food socio-cultural context is distinct.

Given the fact that many destinations increasingly emphasise their marketing strategy towards culinary tourism, the results of this study are expected to provide valuable insights for government tourism institutions and DMOs. The research results will help them design their culinary tourism strategies on a market-driven basis. Accordingly, it could assist a country in more effectively competing with other culinary destinations by offering more memorable food experiences to capture international visitors.

Table 1.1 Summary of Research Framework

| Research Questions (RQ) | What information is needed? | How information would be gathered and analysed | Why is the method appropriate? |
|--|---|--|---|
| <i>Research Objective 1: to develop a conceptual framework of the international visitor dining experiences with local food in the destination.</i> | | | |
| RQ 1a | What dimensions constitute an applicable framework for examining international visitor dining experiences with local food? | Literature review and gap analysis | <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ It is essential to obtain an understanding of the underpinning dimensions, influential factors, and measurement components of the visitor experience, to understand the current status of the topic.▪ Understanding what has been discussed that is relevant to the previous frameworks or models would provide guidelines prior to developing the proposed framework about what has been and has not been done. |
| RQ 1b | What factors influence international visitor dining experiences with local food? | | |
| <i>Research Objective 2: to assess the applicability of the proposed conceptual framework by conducting empirical research on dining experiences with local food undertaken by international visitors in the Indonesia context.</i> | | | |
| RQ 2a | What factors influence international visitor dining expectations prior to the actual encounter with local Indonesian food? | Quantitative approach <i>Data collection method:</i> A questionnaire-based survey <i>Data analysis method:</i> EFA & MANOVA | <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Selecting more participants can increase the sample representativeness of survey responses.▪ The survey is exploratory in nature as it aims to reveal the information relating to all experiences prior to visitors’ actual engagement with local food. |
| RQ2b | How do international visitors perceive the quality of experiences during and after the actual dining with local Indonesian food? | Qualitative approach <i>Data collection method:</i> Semi-structured interviews <i>Data analysis method:</i> Content analysis | <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Given that visitor experiences occur in sequential stages, interviews are appropriate to avoid the use of lengthy questionnaires.▪ Considering the subjectivity of the visitor experience, the interview approach will encourage participants to describe their dining experiences with local food at the destination more freely and deeply. Besides, since the interviewees have been selected from amongst the survey participants, a rapport has already been established with the researcher. |
| RQ2c | What are the relationships between the various experiences that international visitors encounter prior to, during, and after dining with local Indonesian food? | Integration and discussion of quantitative and qualitative findings | <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Integration will help to achieving the study aims by obtaining comprehensive insights into the local dining experiences of international visitors. |

Source: adapted from Hancock and Algozzine (2006)

1.6 Thesis Structure

Figure 1.2 outlines the structure of the thesis and how each chapter is related.

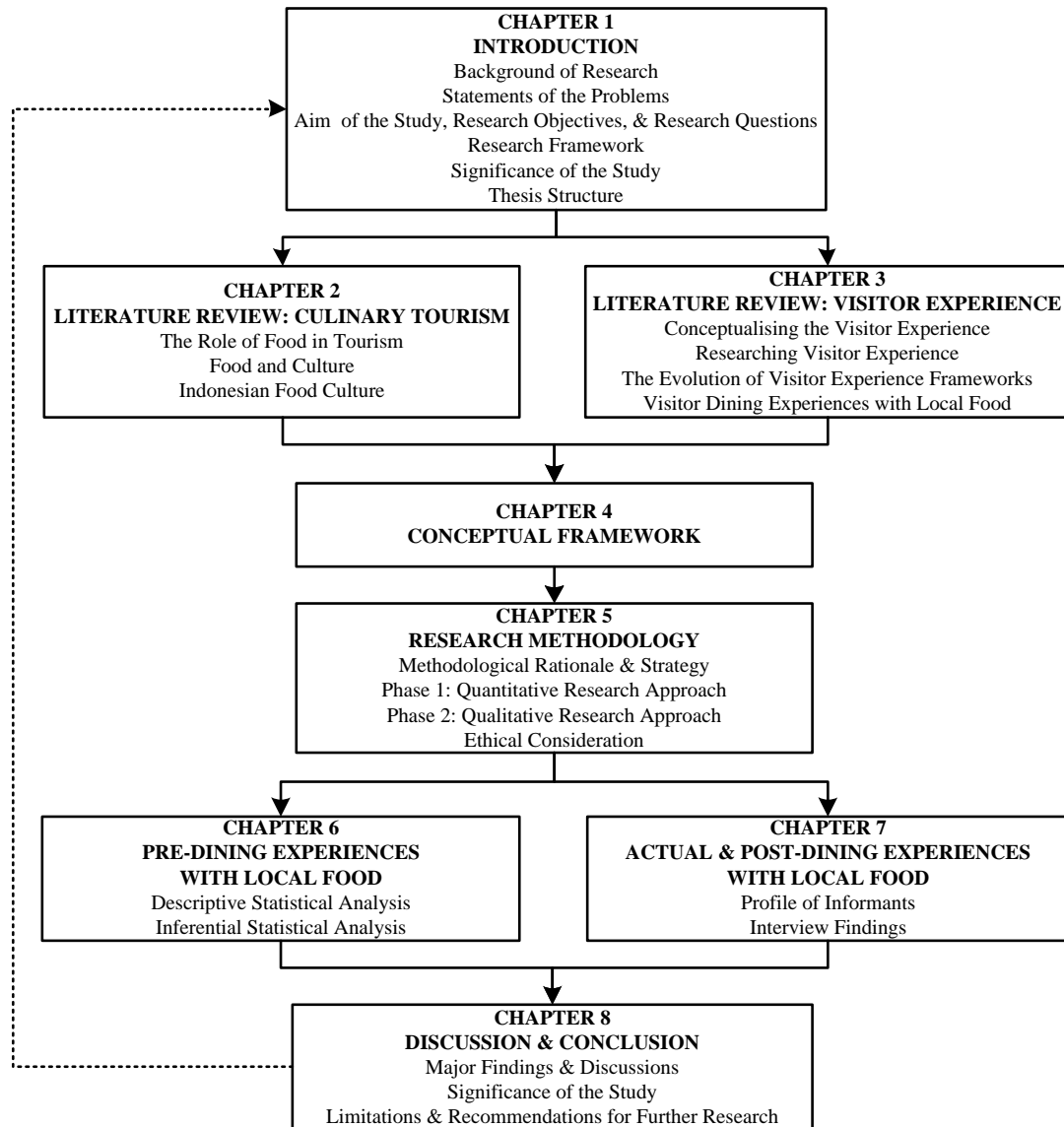


Figure 1.2 Structure of Thesis

Chapter 1 has introduced the background and problems of the study and provided the rationale for the research undertaken to investigate visitor food-related experiences in a destination. It has also tentatively offered the anticipated outcomes resulting from the study.

The review of the literature is presented in Chapters 2 and 3 and provides the analysis of the current literature relevant to the study. Both chapters comprehensively scrutinise the literature to reveal gaps in the scholarly discussions so as to provide solid and robust theoretical and conceptual perspectives for the study. More specifically, **Chapter 2** covers a review of the culinary tourism concepts ranging from the role of food in tourism, to relationships between food and culture. The chapter also provides an overview of Indonesian food culture and the country's tourism industry to contextualise the study. **Chapter 3** contains a review of the theoretical perspectives related to the visitor experience concept, evolving from both the general tourism context as well as from travel dining and culinary tourism.

Critical analysis in the literature review chapters forms a solid basis for the evolution of the proposed conceptual framework presented in **Chapter 4**, addressing the first research objective of this study. In addition, the presence of the framework provides guidance for the research methodology design and deployment of research instruments during the fieldwork component in order to achieve the second objective of the study.

Chapter 5 explains the choice of the mixed-method research approach as well as the rationale for the specific methodology used to address the research objectives and questions. It discusses in detail the research design utilised.

Chapters 6 and **7**, respectively, report the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire-based survey, as well as the qualitative data obtained from the semi-structured interviews. Both types of data are analysed in accordance with the second research objective of this thesis.

Finally, **Chapter 8** concludes the thesis by critically reviewing and discussing the major findings in relation to the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1. Following this discussion, the knowledge and practical contributions of the study are presented along with its limitations, and recommendations for further research.

Chapter 2

Culinary Tourism

2.0 Introduction

Chapter 1 provided background information and outlined some of the problems relating to the study of visitor local food experiences. It also presented the rationale for conducting this research. To obtain a comprehensive understanding of visitor local food experiences and to identify the knowledge gaps which this thesis seeks to address, Chapters 2 and 3 provide a detailed literature review focusing on the two major constructs scrutinised in this study. Chapter 2 is dedicated to providing a broad overview of culinary tourism and food culture, whilst Chapter 3 is devoted to critically reviewing the development of the visitor experience construct and its relationship to food travel experiences.

The review in Chapter 2 is organised into four sections. The opening section presents the definitions of the main concepts applied throughout this thesis prior to review of the further literature. The second section reviews the role of food from visitor perspectives as well as that of destination management. Section three discusses the link between food and culture to show how destination managers can boost culinary tourism by building it based on the concept of food culture. Since the study focuses on dining experiences that involve local Indonesian food, the fourth section of the chapter introduces readers to the contextualised literature relative to Indonesian food culture and its development, as well

as the growing attention to using culinary tourism to boost the tourism industry in Indonesia.

2.1 Definition of Terms

In most cases, definitions of concepts that are adopted by researchers are often not uniform because the key terms are defined in accordance with the perspectives of the researchers and the contextual settings in which the research is being conducted (Perry, 1998). To establish the positions taken in any PhD research, Perry suggests that key terms need to be defined based on the widely accepted definitions used by scholars in order that the results of the research can be fitted into the body of literature. However, minor changes to the definitions can be made with the justification that this matches the underlying assumptions of the research (Perry, 1998). On this basis, the following definitions are provided to ensure uniformity and understanding of these terms throughout the study, so as to reflect both the academic and practical rationale behind the definitions. These terms, respectively, are: visitor, culinary tourism, dining experience, and local food.

2.1.1 Visitor

The terms *tourist* and *visitor* have been used extensively in the various tourism publications by academic scholars and industry practitioners such as DMOs and representatives of tourism organisations (Masberg, 1998). Some have used the terms interchangeably, viewing them as identical (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchood, 2009), indicating a lack of consistency in individual definitions. In seeking statistical precision for the measurement of international and domestic visitor arrivals, the two terms have been revised on many occasions by the UNWTO, the international organisation largely responsible for updating figures relating to the contribution of tourism to the world's economy. The most contemporary definition is based on a consensus reached at the international conference on travel and tourism statistics which was held in Ottawa in 1991 (Middleton et al., 2009).

As shown in Figure 2.1, the expressions *tourists* and *staying visitors* are used to describe visitors who stay overnight at a destination. Meanwhile, the terms *same-day*

visitors or *excursionists* explain those who arrive and depart on the same day. Visitors who travel and stay in jurisdictions outside their normal country of residence for less than a year are defined as *international tourists*. On this basis, the term visitor describes all travellers who fall within agreed definitions of tourism. As such, it refers to those who are travelling for either one or a combination of the following purposes: leisure, recreation and holidays, visiting friends and relatives (VFR), business and professional travel, health treatments, religious and pilgrimage trips, and others.

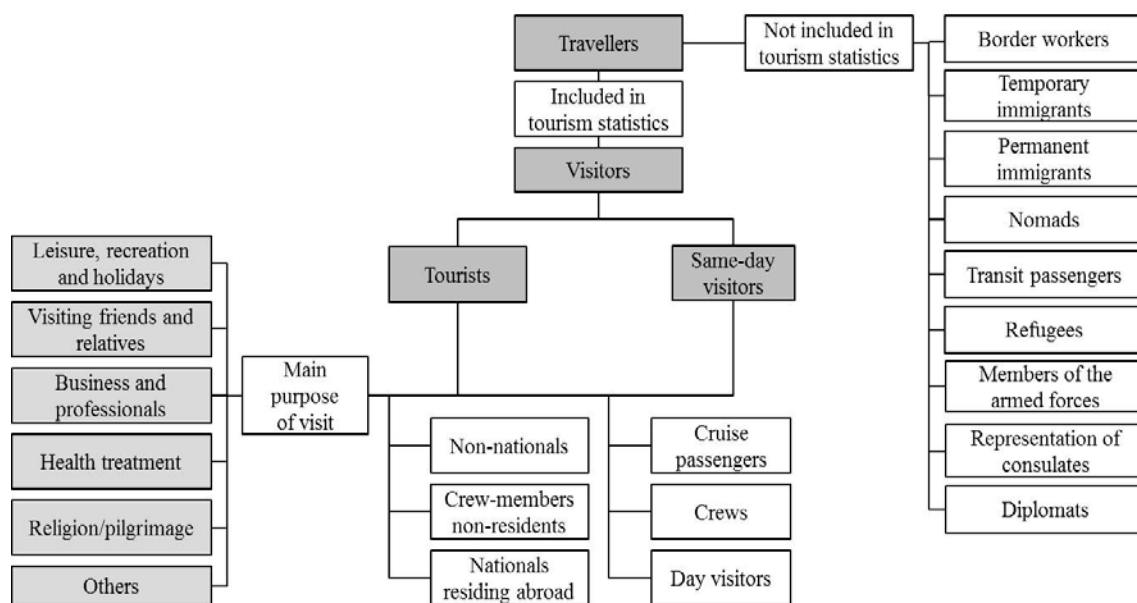


Figure 2.1 UNWTO Classification of International Travellers

Source: Middleton et al. (2009)

Masberg (1998) has noted that researchers have considerable discretion to delimit or operationally define a term using various criteria depending upon the research questions, the origin or nature of the research, or the destination being studied. On this basis, it is worth noting that the term visitor is used throughout this thesis in preference to tourist. For the purposes of the study, the targeted participants are international visitors travelling to Indonesia for any purpose. This inclusive approach offers the prospect of optimising the research participation rate by incorporating holiday makers, business travellers, and visitors travelling for other purposes. Although in a strict

technical sense the terms tourist and *tourism* do refer to those travelling for both leisure and business purposes, there will be many travellers who potentially fall outside the technical definition. For this reason, the term *visitor* is considered more inclusive, with fewer connotations of a purely leisure focus.

2.1.2 Culinary Tourism

This study connects international visitor experiences and culinary tourism at the destination. Despite the increased use of food as a destination marketing tool, the literature shows that, to date, there is no consensus to describe food-related tourism using a single definition. The terms *food tourism*, *food and wine tourism*, *gastronomy tourism*, and *culinary tourism* have been used interchangeably and different scholars have described the various terms inconsistently (Karim & Chi, 2010). Hall and Mitchell (2001) suggest that in defining food tourism, it is important to differentiate between visitors who consume food as a part of the travel experience, and those whose activities, behaviours and even destination selections, are influenced by an interest in food. They 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 motivating factors for travel” (Hall & Mitchell, 2001, p. 308). Such a definition implies that when travelling, not every trip to a restaurant relates to food tourism, especially if the food eaten in the visited restaurant is the same as, or similar to, the food consumed at home.

Meanwhile, Ignatov and Smith (2006) view the term *gastronomy* tourism as closely associated with the enjoyment of good food and beverages through the appreciation of pairing wine and food as a symbol of an aesthetic lifestyle. Included in this is wide-ranging activities created to enhance visitor experiences such as: factory visits; eating in restaurants; café bars and tea shops; farmers’ markets; taste workshops and lectures; wine and other drinking or tasting experiences; and vineyard and orchard tours (Povey, 2011). On the other hand, the word *culinary*, which is the adjectival form of cuisine and means kitchen in French, refers not only to styles of food preparation but also to styles of food preparation and consumption and more importantly, the social context in which food is acquired and prepared for sharing (Ignatov & Smith, 2006).

Consistent with this view, Long (2004) defines culinary tourism as “the intentional, exploratory participation in the foodways of another – participation including the consumption, preparation, and presentation of a food item, cuisine, meal system, or eating style considered to belong to a culinary system not one’s own” (pp. 21-22). This definition implies two meanings. First, it is about visitors who are eager to discover food that is novel to them as well as to explore the new culture linked to the food. This exploration is related to the knowledge or information transfer about the people, culture, traditions, and identity of the place visited. Second, culinary tourism is also about the host destinations that utilise food to showcase their cultures and histories, by making the food marketable and thus representing an attractive local identity for visitors (Long, 2004). Similarly, Green and Dougherty (2008) define culinary tourism as the pursuit of unique and memorable eating and drinking experiences, offering a way of connecting local food systems with the visitor experience.

In a more detailed interpretation, Ignatov and Smith (2006, p. 238) define culinary tourism as a “tourism trip during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity”. In this sense, culinary tourism is more than just the simple consumption of food and drink during travelling, but also involves a self-aware interest and conscious learning to experience a destination through its food. At this point, Ignatov and Smith (2006) claim that consumption of food is not necessarily the only or the primary activity on a trip characterised as culinary tourism. More importantly, the core of culinary tourism lies in the experience, in which regionally produced food and drink can be used to tell a story or to portray some aspects of the culture of the region or country being visited. Culinary tourism is seen as a form of special interest tourism offering “real” travel. Recognised as part of cultural tourism, it provides real learning opportunities by introducing the visitors to new and exciting smells, tastes and flavours of the local cultures (Ignatov & Smith, 2006).

Given that various perspectives exist to interpret the meaning of culinary tourism, Yun, Hennessey, and MacDonald (2011) note the importance of distinguishing between culinary tourists and the visitors who engage in culinary tourism activities. According to

them, a culinary tourist is someone whose travel motivation is specifically to engage in culinary tourism activities. Conversely, visitors are those who get involved with culinary tourism activities while travelling, without such activities necessarily being the main motivator for their trip.

For the purposes of this study, aligned with Ignatov and Smith's (2006) and Yun et al.'s (2011) interpretations, the term culinary tourism is selected and defined as a tourism trip, during which the consumption or experience of local food and beverages is expressed in various food-related activities, regardless of whether experiencing local food is or is not a primary purpose for travel. As mentioned in Section 2.1.1, the target research participants in this study were international visitors travelling to Indonesia for either business or non-business purposes. In these contexts, culinary tourism activity will not always play a major part in the travel experience.

2.1.3 Local Food

It appears in the literature that *local food* and *traditional food* are the most widely adopted phrases used by scholars when discussing the relationship between food and tourism. With reference to the term traditional food, the European Commission views it as the inclusion of:

foods that have been consumed locally or regionally for many generations. The methods for preparation of these local specialties have been passed down from generation to generation, and have become part of the fabric of life in many communities. In some cases, they are not formally documented recipes, but are often associated with positive health benefits and always with local history (European Commission, 2007, p. 4).

That statement suggests that traditional foods have specific features that clearly distinguish them from other similar foods in terms of the use of traditional ingredients, traditional composition, and traditional types of production and/or processing methods. Amuquandoh (2011) adds that the production and sale of traditional foods can constitute a major aspect of the country's culture, consequently, it can be offered for tourism purposes.

In terms of local food, Coit (2008) notes that until recently, there has been no precise definition for the term. Sims (2010) argues that assigning a single set definition of the term becomes more challenging since “local” is often equated with a host of values relating to social, environmental, and quality criteria. As evident in the research conducted by Entelaca Research and Consultancy, many visitors choose local foods because they associate them with certain values. For instance, local foods are perceived as better for the environment, healthier, and are seen as a means to support the local economy (Entelaca Research & Consultancy, 2000). The most common approach used to define local food is based on the physical proximity that food had to travel to get from where it is initially grown to the consumer, for instance, within a 30 mile radius of the market (Sims, 2010). Alternatively, as stated by Coit (2008), the term local can also refer to certain geographic places, such as food grown within a particular state or region. However, besides such distance parameters, other scholars emphasise the role of produce in enhancing the identity of the place or region within which such foods are produced. For example, Chang et al. (2010) and Nummedal and Hall (2006) view local food as the indigenous food and drink that is grown and produced locally and reflects local identity. Given the fact that the examination of visitor dining experiences is taken place while they travel to the visited destination, the term local food, in preference to traditional food, is considered more relevant to be adopted throughout this study. Local food refers to local *Indonesian* food only.

2.1.4 The Dining Experience

Previous research has shown that there are various terms used by academics and practitioners to describe visitor food-related experiences. Mak et al. (2012) and Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012) in their studies investigating travel eating behaviour, used the term *tourist food consumption*, interchangeably with the term *food consumption in tourism*. On the other hand, in their seminal work conducted in 2005-2009 examining travellers experience with food in Hong Kong and Macau, Kivela and Crotts (2005, 2006) applied two terms of: *food and culinary experience at destination*, and *travellers experiences of gastronomy* (Kivela & Crotts, 2009). More specifically, the term *local food experience at destination* has been utilised by Kim et al. (2009) to illustrate their focus on the eating experiences with local food encountered by holiday makers at the

visited destination. In a more general context, Chang et al. (2011) select the term *travel dining experience* in order to capture all forms of dining activities undertaken during travel, including food or meals consumed and dining places selected in the destination. Similarly, Henderson (2012) suggests that since eating is a necessary eat-away-from-home activity undertaken by all types of travellers, they may encounter a range of dining experience options, varying quality in terms of the ingredients and the taste of the dishes, as well as different types of dining places ranging from mid, upscale restaurants to hawker stalls.

Having reviewed the various terms that have been noted above, the terms *dining experience*, *culinary experience*, and *encounter with local food* are seen to be more relevant to the purposes of this study. Adopting Henderson's (2012) definition, the selected terms imply the more general coverage in portraying any experience with local food that is encountered by international visitors and undertaken in any form of dining while visiting Indonesia. These terms will be used interchangeably throughout this thesis.

2.2 The Role of Food in Tourism

The link between food and travel has been evident since prehistoric times (Boniface, 2003). Since food is a basic human need, all visitors must eat when they are travelling regardless of their purpose of travel. However, previously, many destinations overlooked the potential benefits of promoting food. Food is often marketed as a subsidiary service, or as a secondary component, of the destination experience. It is only in recent decades that food has become a subject of academic study in tourism as well as amongst industry practitioners (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Long, 2004).

Several reasons can be offered to support the growing attention to food as an area of interest in tourism. First, in a broader context, the economic restructuring and de-industrialisation that occurred in Western countries in the early 1970s impacted on rural regions and obliged governments to diversify their economic base. Two instruments underpinning local economic development were new agricultural products (i.e. food) and tourism (Hall & Sharples, 2003). As pointed out by Nield et al. (2000), the ability to cater to visitors' needs for food during travel has driven the interest of both government

and business in paying more attention to integrating food and tourism. Second, looking at the more micro level, lifestyle changes in modern society have led to certain products and services occupying the roles of status symbols and signifiers of identity. At this point, food is seen as a support for such lifestyles (Kittler & Sucher, 2004). Given this view, the role of food in tourism can therefore be discussed from the two distinct viewpoints: that of the visitor, and that of destination management. Whilst for the visitor, food plays a part as the destination enhancer; for destination management, it functions as an attraction to stimulate visitation, as well as a means to create tourism sustainability for the destination.

2.2.1 Food as Part of the Destination Experience

According to Murphy, Pritchard, and Smith (2000), a destination can be seen as an amalgam of individual tourism products that combine to form an integrated travel experience of the area visited. As depicted in Figure 2.2, the overall visitor evaluation of the destination experience quality is shaped by the two major destination components: service infrastructure and destination environments. The service infrastructure consists of a collection of tourism products and services with which the visitor engages directly after arriving at the destination. It includes the provision of travel services, food services, accommodation, and transportation services. The bundling of these services supports the provision of visitor experiences. In addition, the tourism destination experience is also formed by the destination environments – factors which facilitate, support and/or restrain the destination experience. These involve the natural environment, and political/legal, technological, economic, socio-cultural factors (Murphy et al., 2000). It is apparent that the visitor experience with food service is a major element contributing to the overall destination experience.

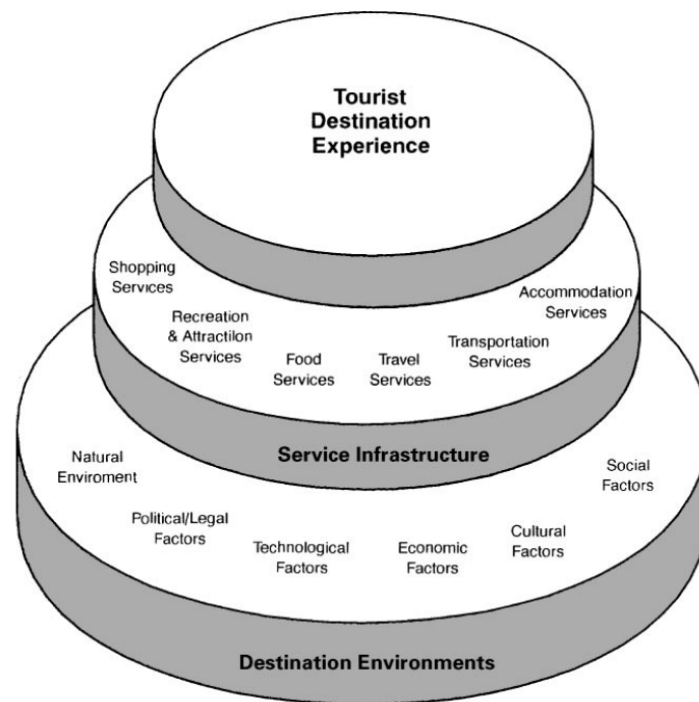


Figure 2.2 Destination Experience

Source: Murphy et al. (2000)

Similar to Murphy et al. (2000), Karim and Chi (2010) claim that the provision of food experiences is a central function of the tourism industry. Interestingly, most visitors experience the cuisine of the visited destination at some time, whether intentionally or not. Food consumption accounts for a substantial component of both domestic and international tourism expenditure (Du Rand, Heath, & Alberts, 2003; McKercher et al., 2008; Nield et al., 2000; Sparks, Bowen, & Klag, 2004). It is generally accepted that the typical visitor spends about a third of their travel expenses on food-related purchases (Chaney & Ryan, 2012). On this basis, culinary experience as investigated in this thesis is viewed from a broader perspective. That is, the research did not look exclusively at culinary tourists who considered food to be the top priority in their travels, it also considered those who travelled either for leisure, business, or other purposes, for whom food was either an incidental or only partial part of their destination experience.

Most visitors do not dine exclusively in hotels or restaurants when travelling, rather, they are eager to eat out at food precincts or hawker centres in the surrounding area. Acknowledging these facts, Pendergast (2006) emphasises the critical role of food

service establishments in stimulating visitor feelings of involvement and attachment with the destination, whether positive or negative. Food-related experiences can enhance the overall destination experience (Karim & Chi, 2010). Evidence from a number of studies suggests that visitor interests in and preferences for food in destination settings can have a significant influence on their destination choices (Bessiere, 1998; Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Hall & Mitchell, 2001; Hall & Sharples, 2003). As revealed by a Visa and PATA's survey in 2012, food was the third major reason for participants to visit Asia Pacific countries and it was the first reason for respondents to revisit a destination (Visa & PATA, 2012). Other studies have revealed the influence of food experiences on visitor perceptions, satisfaction and intentions to revisit (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000; Nield et al., 2000). For instance, in their Hong Kong study, Kivela and Crotts (2005) found that gastronomy plays a major role in the way tourists experience a destination, and that some travellers would return to the same destination to enjoy its unique gastronomy.

The foregoing discussion has confirmed that for visitors, engagement in the local food experience of a destination goes beyond a simple routine for fulfilling basic needs. Rather, the food which is encountered at various types of dining establishments contributes to the visitor experience by connecting them with the host culture, and consequently influencing their choice of destination (Sparks et al., 2004). Such an experience provides a potential gateway for learning about other cultures through the ingredients of the dishes used, as well as the way the food is cooked, presented and consumed (Long, 2004). In other words, showcasing local food offers memorable destination experiences for the visitor.

2.2.2 Food as a Destination Attraction

Despite its prospective growth, the tourism and travel industry faces a range of potential challenges in the future as competition between destinations intensifies. Destination marketing literature stresses the importance of differentiation by emphasising a destination's distinctive tangible and intangible products and services (Saraniemi, 2010). The point of differentiation should be real and substantial enough to induce visitation (Balakrishnan, 2009). It is suggested that destinations with undifferentiated primary resources can find a valuable resource in culinary experiences (Du Rand et al.,

2003). As an important tourist attraction, food can enhance the value and competitiveness of a destination. At a regional and a national level, destination cuisines can become unique elements of the brand image of a place and help to create distinctiveness (Du Rand & Heath, 2006; Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006; Henderson, 2009; Richards, 2012).

Many tourism destinations have developed unique food attractions to stimulate visitation (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). In addition, there have been extensive studies dedicated to depicting the effective use of food as a destination marketing tool, and the utilisation of local food as a destination attraction itself. Table 2.1 outlines the summary of these studies.

Researchers like Amira (2009), Fox (2007), Henderson et al. (2012), Lin et al. (2011), Okumus et al. (2007), and Zhang (2009) have examined the role of food as an attraction from the perspective of destination management. Zhang's study (2009), for instance, has shown that the hosting of culinary special events like food festivals or carnivals provides an important opportunity for tourism destinations to initiate culinary tourism. Such events can provide a strategic tool for improving the local food and beverage industry as a tourism attraction. For example, the Macau Food Festival includes not only Macanese cuisine, but also food from Italy, France, Spain, and Vietnam, and forms a harmonious co-existence of various food cultures. The event has resulted in improving the quality of life for local residents as well as providing a new attraction promoting Macau as a unique culinary destination (Zhang, 2009).

Table 2.1 Summary of Studies on the Role of Food as a Destination Attraction

| Authors | Year | Destination | Aims | Area of Focus |
|-------------------------|------------|--------------|---|---|
| Du Rand, Heath, Alberts | 2003; 2006 | South Africa | Examine the use of food as a key attraction. | Food tourism and destination branding |
| Hashimoto & Telfer | 2006 | Canada | Develop a national identity linked to food for destination branding strategy. | National identity linked to food and destination branding |
| Amira | 2009 | Maldives | Identify opportunities for creating linkages between local food and tourism through examining current Maldives tourism print and e-marketing materials. | Destination marketing and local food tourism |

(Table 2.1 continued)

Table 2.1 Summary of Studies on the Role of Food as a Destination Attraction (continued)

| | | | | |
|------------------|------|----------------------|---|--|
| Lin et al. | 2011 | Taiwan | Explore dimensions and components of food images exposed in destination promotion materials. | Food image and destination marketing |
| Okumus et al. | 2007 | Hong Kong and Turkey | Examine the use of food in destination promotion materials. | Food image and destination promotion strategy |
| Zhang | 2009 | Macau | Analyse the role of special events in improving local food as a tourism attraction. | Culinary events and destination marketing |
| Steinmetz | 2010 | New Zealand | Examine role of food in tourism destination differentiation and development. | Destination competitive advantage and local food tourism |
| Henderson et al. | 2012 | Singapore | Measure the reputation and contribution of the hawkers' food tourism in Singapore. | Destination attraction and hawkers' food tourism |
| De Lera | 2012 | Spain | Strengthen the image of gastronomy destination through enhancing the experience for international visitors. | Destination image and gastronomy tourism |
| Horng & Tsai | 2012 | Asia Pacific | Evaluate governmental policy and strategy for promoting culinary tourism. | Destination marketing and culinary tourism |
| Lee | 2012 | South Korea | Evaluate strategies of promoting Korean cuisine images to the international market. | Culinary tourism and destination branding |

Henderson et al. (2012) argue that destination image can be induced and exposed, not just by hosting significant culinary events, but also through the proliferation of diverse food service establishments that cater to tourists. Their study reveals that along with the upscale food establishments in Singapore, hawkers' food is the most popular type of cuisine sought by international travellers and can position that country as a central culinary destination in the South East Asia region.

Focusing more on the role of food identity in enhancing destination image, Lin et al. (2011) suggest seven food dimensions which should be taken into account when preparing promotional materials for international markets. These dimensions, representing the characteristics of a destination, were divided into: class of food; role of food; character of food; value of food; feature of food or food-related subjects; attribute of foodservice; and availability of food or food-related subjects. In their examination of how Hong Kong and Turkish cuisines have been utilised as a means to promote

destinations in print and e-marketing media, Okumus et al. (2007) suggested that aspects such as the image of the destination, market positioning and product diversity may also determine the success of utilising food as a destination attraction. As opposed to Lin et al. (2011), Fox (2007), in examining the food identity of Croatian gastronomy, argued that the transformation of food identity to appeal to the international market should be built on showcasing gastronomic heritage rather than merely offering international cuisine to foreign visitors. Moreover, Amira (2009) asserts that a wider use of local food in tourism exhibitions overseas is important to provide potential travellers with more information about the local food experience they may encounter in the destination. Since local food is an integral part of culture, she proposes that linking the food with tourism can more effectively sustain the culture and tradition.

It is apparent from the foregoing discussion that food has been widely used by DMOs as a means of stimulating visitation (Du Rand et al., 2003; Henderson, 2009). However, Okumus et al. (2007) draw attention to the fact that increasing the number of visitors travelling to a destination should not in itself be the ultimate goal of destination marketing activities. Food tourism must take into account the issue of sustainability.

2.2.3 Food as a Tool for Creating Tourism Destination Sustainability

According to Okumus et al. (2007), DMOs should facilitate sustainable tourism development and this can be achieved through culinary tourism. The discussion on the role of food in terms of sustainability has received substantial attention from researchers in the tourism area. As shown in Figure 2.3, there are at least six major direct and indirect contributions that local food can make to destination sustainability (Du Rand et al., 2003). These contributions include: stimulating and supporting agricultural activity and food production; preventing authentic exploitation of the local produce; enhancing destination attractiveness; empowering the community by offering job opportunity and encouraging entrepreneurship; reinforcing the brand identity of the destination with the focus on culinary tourism; and building community pride pertaining to the food and culture of the food (Du Rand et al., 2003).

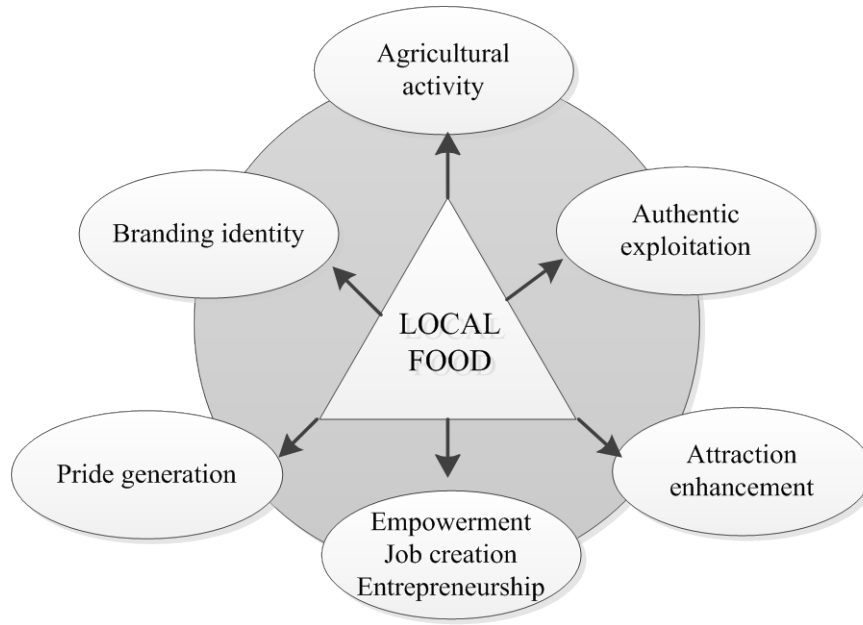


Figure 2.3 Contribution of Local Food to Sustainable Development within a Destination

Source: (Du Rand et al., 2003)

Of the six potential aforementioned areas of significance, it appears that research has been dominated by the contribution of local food to the development of the regional economy. Indeed, as noted earlier, food often comprises a high percentage of travel expenditure (Nield et al., 2000; Sparks, Bowen, & Klag, 2003). Thus, integrating food experiences into sustainable tourism development in rural or regional areas may help to strengthen local economies (Montanari & Staniscia, 2009; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2012). As proposed by Gao, Scott, and Ding (2012), the economic benefits of tourism range from: the generation of income through the multiplier effect as visitor expenditures are recycled through the local economy; the generation of employment; the encouragement of entrepreneurial activity; the stimulation of regional economies; and the mitigation of regional economic disparities. Richards (2012), like Green and Dougherty (2008), believes that, for the destination, utilising local food could help ease poverty since money is regularly spent directly with local business, that is, small and medium-sized farms, farmers, and traditional markets. Bessiere's (1998) study provides evidence which proves the important role of traditional food and gastronomy for tourism development at the local level, specifically in rural areas. As an identity marker of a region and/or as a means of promoting agricultural products, gastronomy can

accommodate the specific needs of consumers, local producers and other stakeholders in rural tourism (Bessiere, 1998). As a consequence, at a macro level, as the development occurs, a cycle of cumulative growth is set in motion providing opportunities for increased investment as well as a network of backward linkages to other sectors of the destination's economy (Telfer & Wall, 1996).

In addition to the economic contribution obtained by local producers, food and beverage retail businesses could also benefit from the growth of increased exposure to culinary tourism. As one of the backbones of the tourism industry, food and beverage industry provides fundamental services not only for local residents but also for the visitor. Several scholars have noted that this sector contributes significantly to the economy of tourism destinations (Elmont, 1995; Nield et al., 2000). For instance, the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) annual report has shown that food service businesses in Australia constitute a significant share of total economic activity within the tourism industry nationally. Collectively, the output of cafés, restaurants and take away food services contributed approximately 7.6% to tourism gross value added in the Australian economy in 2011-2012 (ABS, 2013).

Furthermore, visitors are increasingly seeking local authentic and novel experiences associated with the places or destinations they visit (Beer, 2008). The concept of authenticity evokes a range of meanings, which are original, genuine, real, true, true to itself (Pratt, 2007). With respect to food, Richards (2012) argues that authenticity is a quality attributed to a range of foods and cuisines that are specific to a particular location or place, and more importantly, such products are the results of a cultural process that belongs to the place. Likewise, Okumus et al. (2007) note that local cuisines represent a core manifestation of a destination's intangible heritage, and through its consumption, the visitor can gain a truly authentic cultural experience. This proposition is supported in a qualitative study by Sims (2009) who interviewed both visitors and food producers in two UK regions. The results revealed that local foods in both regions were conceptualised by her research participants as authentic products that symbolise the place and culture of the destination. Similar results were also found in an empirical study by Everett and Aitchison (2008), which showed a positive correlation between increased levels of food tourism interest in Cornwall, Southwest England, and

the retention and development of regional identity. There were also positive correlations between the enhancement of environmental awareness and sustainability and an increase in social and cultural benefits through the production of local food and the conservation of traditional heritage, skills, and way of life (Everett & Aitchison, 2008).

In accordance with Du Rand et al. (2003) in pointing out the contribution of local food to community pride, Hall (2006) declares that culinary tourism is a significant contributor to the processes of localisation, in response to the increased global competition. Having said this, the interest of visitors in local food and produce could serve to encourage community pride and reinforcement of local identity and culture.

Ignatov (2003) highlights the fact that recently, food has been seen not only as a source of nutrition, but also as a part of a slower-paced, quality lifestyle. An example is the Italian-based Slow Food Movement, a worldwide initiative which is concerned about the environmental and social consequences of a fast-paced, heavily industrialised food system (Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2012). Slow Food now has emerged as a global, public organisation with followers in 150 countries around the globe who would like to connect to the pleasure of good food without abandoning the community and the environment (SlowFood, n.d.). Its vision is a future food system that is based on the principles of high quality and taste, environmental sustainability, and social justice in essence; a food system that is good, clean and fair (Sims, 2009). The Slow Food movement has been formed as a resistance to the ever increasing pace of modern life. It is dedicated to slowing down different aspects of life and to promoting authentic, traditional local food, as well as to improving the overall quality of life (Ignatov, 2003). Supporting the Slow Food movement, an increase in global concerns about the environmental consequences of transporting food across the globe has led researchers to argue that buying or consuming locally is crucial if the tourism industry wishes to reduce its carbon “footprint” (Boniface, 2003; Mitchell & Hall, 2003).

The foregoing discussion has indicated how culinary tourism can play an important part in the development of sustainable tourism in a region. Food is vital to sustainable tourism in various ways, ranging from its role in: sustaining local or regional identity; strengthening local or regional economies; as well as in preserving the authenticity of

the local culture and the environment. Thus, how food relates to culture is reviewed in Section 2.3.

2.3 Food and Culture

Food plays a significant part in all aspects of human life, from fulfilling basic physiological needs to building social interactions and psychological expression (Conner & Armitage, 2002). It has become recognised as a manifestation of identity and culture, and has emerged as one of the popular aspects of cultural tourism (Bessiere, 1998). Richards (2012) claimed that besides its role as cultural identity, food is recognised as one of the elements of creativity in everyday life that can engage many visitors.

Discussions about food are inseparable from culture, because of the way in which each of the roles mentioned in Section 2.2 is shaped and manifested. As one of cultural tourism's products, the role of food tourism has become increasingly important. The following sections discuss the relationship between culture and food. It seeks to develop an understanding of how food as a component of culture can pose various values that require to be taken into account by destination management when attempting to utilise culinary tourism to attract visitation. It starts with the link between food and culture, followed by an exploration of how food holds different values in a cultural context.

2.3.1 Food as a Component of Culture

The term culture is used in a variety of ways under various perspectives. It is a key concept in our knowledge of societies both past and present, and its definitions are constantly being developed and refined (Giles & Middleton, 1999). From the perspectives of sociology and anthropology, culture can be defined as a set of characteristics, attitudes, behaviours, and values that are learned, shared, and transmitted among groups of human beings from generation to generation to help them decide what to do and how to go about it (Mennell, Murcott, & Van Otterloo, 1992; Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Correspondingly, Kittler and Sucher (2004) define culture as the values, beliefs, attitudes and practices accepted by members of a group or community.

The culture of a particular society is manifested in various ways, in its art, language and literature, music, and in all forms of religious and secular ritual (Hegarty & O'Mahony, 2001). According to Sussmann and Rashcovsky (1997), culture includes observable elements, such as the characteristics of behaviour, material arts, food, language, and social arrangements. Scarpato (2002) considers food to be a “cultural artefact”. Culture also contains non-observable elements, such as the beliefs, attitudes, and values held by most people in a society. Also included in the category of non-observable elements are role perceptions, stereotypes, categorisations, evaluations, expectations, memories, and opinions (Sussmann & Rashcovsky, 1997). Members of a similar culture have similar values; conform to similar rules and norms; develop similar perceptions, attitudes, and stereotypes; use common language; and participate in similar activities (Reisinger & Turner, 2002).

The process of how culture is learned and passed through different generations via language acquisition and socialisation is called enculturation (Kittler & Sucher, 2004). One of the most significant examples of this learning process in societies relates to food. Food habits are a culturally standardised set of food-related behaviours that are expressed by individuals who have grown up within a given cultural tradition (Counihan & Esterik, 2008). Kittler and Sucher (2004) define food habits as the ways and rules by which people use food, from how the food is selected, obtained, and distributed, to who prepares, serves, and eats it. These foodways and rules, as stated by Wahlqvist and Lee (2007), are shaped by multiple factors of, such as: natural resources (climate, land, and water); belief (religion and education); ethnicity (indigenous or immigrant); technological advances (hunting, agricultural, and fishing); and colonisation.

Food culture can be viewed as a product of codes of conduct towards acceptable or unacceptable foods, and good or bad within a particular social group (Atkins & Bowler, 2001). It also sets up the structure of social relationships between members of a society (Reynolds, 1993) and is a daily reaffirmation of cultural identity through the symbolic meanings of ritual, traditions, and special occasions within the social group (Kittler & Sucher, 2004).

Food is a cultural practice distinguishing one culture from another (Boniface, 2003). For instance, the way people eat in the West is very different from that in the East (Warde, 1997). According to Rozin and Rozin (1981), principally there are three major factors that distinguish one cuisine from another, namely: basic foods; cooking techniques; and flavour principles, that is, distinctive seasoning combinations which characterise a particular cuisine. When viewed in detail, it is clear that there are observable cultural differences in the basic ingredients from which food is prepared; the ways in which it is preserved, prepared and cooked; the amount and variety available at each meal; the tastes that are liked and disliked; the customs and traditions of serving food (for example, all the food is or is not served at the same time); the implements and utensils which are used; and certain beliefs about the properties of particular foods (Warde, 1997). Further, techniques used for the serving and consumption of food also vary cross-culturally (Hegarty & O'Mahony, 2001). For example, in some cultures it is proper to eat using one's fingers, whilst convention in others requires the use of implements like forks or chopsticks. Differences are also evident in eating patterns. Many people, for example, have only two meals a day, while others have one big meal, snacking at other times. Some like their food hot, others like it cold. Regardless of these distinctions, however, it is suggested that all such cross-cultural differences are learned (Warde & Martens, 2000).

Moreover, culture is a major determinant of what people eat. That is, how food is coded into acceptable or unacceptable, and good or bad within a particular social group depends upon the beliefs and values held in a particular cultural group (Atkins & Bowler, 2001). What is considered to be good food in one culture might be considered bad food in another. For instance, most Western Europeans are of the view that the internal organs of animals are bad food, whereas Oriental people regard them as good food and believe them to be very nutritious and healthy for human consumption (Chang et al., 2011).

As a component of culture, food has a significant role in shaping individual as well as a cultural group foodways. At the individual level, food can portray self-identity (Fischler, 1988) and self-expression (Kittler & Sucher, 2004), whereas in a broader context, food echoes the identity that distinguishes one culture from another (Edelstein,

2011). Even more, it is suggested that to understand a culture, an individual must experience its food (Boniface, 2003).

2.3.2 Values Associated with Food

As a manifestation of culture, food entails both technical and symbolic functions within a particular cultural group (Allen, Gupta, & Monnier, 2008). Technically, food functions as the fulfilment of basic human physiological needs (Mennell et al., 1992). From the consumer behaviour viewpoint relating to consumption values (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), this type of eating behaviour occurs for utilitarian or instrumental reasons, which are to satisfy hunger and, moreover, to meet the nutritional needs of the body.

Montanari (1994) argued that food discussions are not only about nutrition; consuming food is also associated with hedonistic reasons such as seeking fun, pleasure, and sensory stimulation (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Food can function as a symbol of social unity. For example, it can be used to strengthen family bonding, develop friendships and to provide hospitality when members and/or non-members of the group eat together (Tian, 2001). Furthermore, food represents ethnic, regional, and national identities. Bessiere (1998), for example, suggested that the culinary heritage of a destination embodies the character and mentality of a society in the types of food and the way they are eaten. Food, therefore, is seen as an integral part of identity formation. Food habits have been used as an important, or even determining, criterion for anthropologists studying cultures (Kittler & Sucher, 2004). Those from a common culture share the same assemblage of food variables and vice versa (Chang, 1977; Reynolds, 1993). In the context of eating out, food functions as a symbol of lifestyles and is a distinctive aesthetic feature of modern societies (Beardsworth & Keil, 1997). As stated by Finkelsten (1989), people often value the sociability function of food and meals more than the quality of the food (Chang, 2007).

Long (2004) indicates that opportunities to dine out together may increase during trips where dining plays a stronger social function amongst visitors, their family members and/or friends, and destination residents (for example, tourism service personnel and the local community). For some visitors, food offers an entertainment function where it is

often one of the most enjoyable activities undertaken during travel. This allows visitors to pursue their motivations of relaxation, excitement and escapism (Sparks et al., 2003). Hegarty and O'Mahony (2001) state that food is a gateway for visitors to learn about another culture by experiencing new food in a destination that differs from what they have at home in terms of ways of cooking, presenting and eating. Local cuisine serves as a major means for visitors to appreciate the culture of a destination (Kivela & Crofts, 2006). In this sense, food plays a role as a novel learning experience for visitors. Beyond this, Bell and Valentine (1997) claim that eating is a symbolic act, that is, consuming local food means consuming another culture or geographical location in order to incorporate it into one's own identity.

Ryan (2011) suggests that providing the geographical context within which one's research is undertaken is important since it determines the nature of the destination being examined and the cultural frameworks that dominate the location. As mentioned in Section 1.4, the scope of this study is to examine the dining experiences of international visitors during their travels in Indonesia. Consequently, food culture difference between the host destination and the research participants is expected to appear as one of the main issues that shapes their dining experiences with Indonesian local food. The next section therefore provides some background information on Indonesian food culture and is designed to create an understanding of the context of this study.

2.4 Indonesian Food Culture

The food culture of Indonesia is shaped by its nature, culture, and history. Geographically, Indonesia is the largest archipelago country in the world with an estimated 17,508 islands, as described in Figure 2.4. Its tropical climate and high humidity supports a rich and unique blend of diverse natural resources including beaches, volcanoes, tropical forests, and wildlife (Wall & Nuryanti, 1997). The country lies within the so-called Pacific "ring of fire", the meeting point of two of the earth's tectonic plates which gives rise to frequent seismic activity and produces fertile ash over the land.



Figure 2.4 Map of the Indonesian Archipelago

Source: retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/id.html>

For Indonesia, the seas and straits which surround the islands are at least as important as the country itself. This is reflected in the way Indonesians speak not only of “our land” but also “our land and water” (in Indonesian language: *tanah air kita*). As its endless coastlines are strategically located between two oceans, Indonesia enjoys an abundance of salt-water fish and seafood. Its many lakes and rivers provide fresh-water fish (Von Holzen, 1996).

To a large extent, the western islands of Indonesia are lush and green. Sumatra, Java, and Bali whose volcanos are many, abound with fertile gardens, coconut groves, paddy fields, fast-flowing rivers and beaches. Agriculture is the main livelihood for the majority of inhabitants on these islands. Borneo Island has rich rainforests and swampy coastlines, while Sulawesi (the Celebes) enjoys a variety of climates and different parts receive their monsoon rains at different times of the year. On the other hand, the eastern islands of the archipelago, such as West Timor, are rocky and semi-arid, characterised by dry seasons that are longer and harsher. Further east, the “Spice Islands of Maluku” (the Molucas) conform to the image of the lush tropics, while Papua (the western part) has everything from swamps to rainforests (Von Holzen, 1996).

With regard to the culture, there are approximately 300 ethnic groups inhabiting the country, most with their own languages and dialects, all evidence of cultural richness (Ardiwidjaja, 2004). Each ethnicity has its own local food leading to a diverse character and culinary uniqueness. Indonesia's food culture cannot be separated from the country's history. Alamsyah (2008) suggested that culinary development in Indonesia can be categorised into at least three phases: original, multi-cultural, and contemporary as portrayed in Figure 2.5. In each phase, the food culture is shaped in terms of food preparation, food presentation, and food consumption. This food culture is learned, shared, and passed from one generation to another and whilst some foodways have been refined and adapted, the majority are still applied today.

The first phase, called the original culinary phase, occurred during the periods of the great Indonesian kingdoms from the Hindu Kutai kingdom in Kalimantan (400 AC) to the Islamic Banten kingdom in West Java (1156-1580 AC). The word *original* indicates that the food culture in this phase is a reflection of how indigenous people undertook food-related activities ranging from food acquisition, preparation, to food consumption, without the influence of other nations. The ingredients used to prepare the dishes were taken from the surrounding natural resources whilst the cooking techniques employed were relatively simple and the majority used hand-made wooden or stone cooking utensils. During this period, the most popular dishes were steamed, wrapped in banana leaves, with rice and cassava as the main ingredients (Alamsyah, 2008).

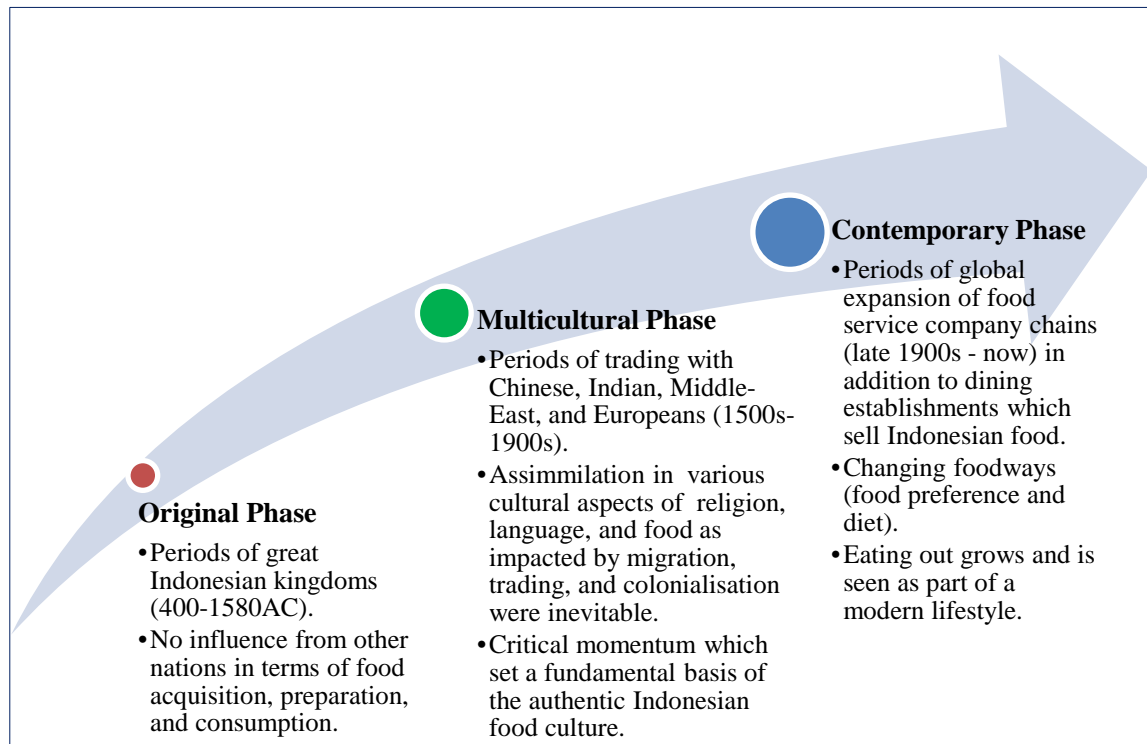


Figure 2.5 Summary of the Indonesian Culinary Development

Source: Adapted from Alamsyah (2008)

The second phase is the multi-cultural culinary phase which was characterised by the influence of cooking art brought by successive waves of traders from India, China, the Middle East, and Europe (Alamsyah, 2008). Due to the archipelago's strategic location, trade with other nations was established and eventually became one of the most important contributors in shaping the country's history. The arrival of these traders had a significant influence on Indonesian food culture. Acculturation between local people and immigrants was inevitable. According to Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits (1936), acculturation "comprehends those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original cultural patterns of either or both groups" (p. 149). With respect to food, Mennell et al. (1992) indicated that acculturation is reflected in changes in how the food is being prepared, cooked, served, presented, and consumed as a result of the influence of other cultures. For example, Indian influences can be seen mostly in Sumatran cuisine featuring curried meat and vegetables with herbs such as cloves and

nutmeg used in the Indian traditions. In addition, the satay (the method of preparing pieces of meat (lamb or goat) on skewers is considered to be the most noticeable example of the Arabic influence on Indonesian food culture. However, the marinades and peanut sauce with which satay is often served originate from Java (Prince, 2009). The influence of Chinese cuisine is evident in a significant number of Indonesian noodle dishes, which have been adapted to local tastes, customs, and available ingredients. European traders came to Indonesia in the sixteenth century seeking to control the area's precious spices, including nutmeg, cloves, pepper, and others (Prince, 2009).

The Portuguese traders arrived first in 1512, but were soon followed by the Spanish, the British and finally the Dutch who became the dominant players (Von Holzen, 1996). The European colonists introduced chillies to Indonesia, which became one of the key signature components of Indonesian food. They had, in turn, originally been brought by the Spanish and Portuguese from other colonies in South America (Prince, 2009). Other vegetables such as potatoes, tomatoes, pumpkins, cabbages, cauliflowers and carrots came from Europe too (Koene, 1996). Given the fact that the Dutch colonised the archipelago for more than three hundred years, Dutch culture certainly influenced Indonesian life in many ways. This included the way the local food was prepared and named. For instance, the Dutch word *rijsttafel*, meaning “rice table”, has long been popular as a prominent symbol of colonial eating in Indonesia with many dishes served on the table surrounding a rice centrepiece (Prince, 2009).

Moreover, during trading periods, Hinduism, Buddhism, Christianity, and eventually Islam were brought to Indonesia. Each of these religions had its own influence on the development of food culture. For example, *nasi tumpeng kuning*, a large cone-shape of steamed rice coloured yellow with turmeric and a rich garnish, can be traced back to ancient Hindu beliefs. The shape symbolises that of the mythical Hindu mountain, *Meru*, whilst yellow, one of the four sacred colours for Hindus, is the colour of royalty as well as of worship (Von Holzen, 1996). Therefore, for most Indonesian people, rice is not only the most important basic food but it is also regarded as sacred and central to various symbolic rituals. It is the manifestation symbol of *Dewi Sri*, the Hindu goddess of prosperity and fertility (Ho, 1995). Rice growing also often determines the rhythm of

daily life, for example, weddings are frequently held after the harvest period. Even today, *nasi tumpeng kuning* is often served at special occasions and at opening ceremonies as a symbol of good fortune, wealth and dignity. The most important person cuts the tip of the cone and serves it to an older person who is held in high regard (Prince, 2009).

Further evidence of religious influence on Indonesian food culture can be seen from different meats used across the country. The majority of the Indonesian population is Muslim and as part of their religious beliefs, the food that they eat must be *halal*. The term, which is originally an Arabic word linked to the Islamic faith, in its general sense can be translated as meaning allowed or permissible. A basic acceptance and understanding of halal is central to every Muslim's belief and acts as a moral code of conduct that is integral to daily living (Wilson & Liu, 2010). Food consumed cannot contain or use prohibited food ingredients for example, pork. As a result, chicken and beef are amongst the most common meats cooked in Indonesian cuisine. By contrast, on the island of Bali where 90% of the population are Hindu, people do not eat beef. Instead, pork is often found in many Balinese traditional dishes (Von Holzen, 1996).

The final phase of culinary development is the contemporary phase, which is regarded by Alamsyah (2008) as the changing stage of Indonesian people's food habits. These habits have adapted with the growth of the modern food service industry worldwide, ranging from fine dining to quick service restaurants. This was evident in the expansion of global food service chains, starting from Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC), which opened its first outlet in Indonesia in the mid-1980s, to the subsequent presence of McDonald's restaurants in 1991. Since then, hundreds of global food service brands have proliferated and in many ways have shaped new eating-out lifestyles for the locals, specifically the middle and upper socio-economy classes who live in big cities. Whilst these modern food service establishments provide alternatives for dining out for Indonesians, *warung makan* represents the traditional Indonesian dining-out establishment (Von Holzen, 1996). This refers to small open-fronted eateries on the streets that are usually made of either plaited bamboo or wood, which sell simple local Indonesian food and snacks at very reasonable prices. *Warung makan* is also considered to be the social centre of most villages and small towns where while the food is

prepared, social interaction is taking place between sellers and consumers, and amongst consumers themselves.

The preceding analysis has shown that Indonesia boasts a long history with diverse influences from different cultures. This diversity has brought significant influences that have supported the establishment of various unique exotic cuisines in the country (Ministry of Culture & Tourism, 2010).

2.4.1 The Characteristics of Indonesian Cuisine

2.4.1.1 Pre-Food Consumption: Ingredients, Cooking Methods and Utensils

As stated in Section 2.4, Indonesian cuisine characteristics are heavily influenced by natural and cultural conditions. Basic ingredients of Indonesian cuisine include a variety of herbs, seasoning, and spices. Most Indonesian dishes use fresh herbs such as garlic, spring onion, ginger roots, turmeric, galangal, candlenuts, lemon basil, lemon grass, not to mention chilli (Von Holzen, 1996). In addition to these fresh herbs, the inclusion of spices is at the heart of almost every Indonesian dish. Known as the “Islands of spices”, the spices available in Indonesia range from seed, fruit, root, bark or vegetative substances, and the most common include coriander seeds, pepper, nutmeg, cumin and cloves. Either grated, chopped, or dried, these spices, together with other fresh ingredients, act as a seasoning for the purpose of flavouring the food (called *bumbu* in Indonesian) (Prince, 2009). Other than for cooking, the spices are extensively used for other purposes such as preserving food, as medicine, as part of rituals, and as ingredients in cosmetics and perfumery (Ministry of Culture & Tourism, 2010).

With regard to cooking methods, Indonesian food is prepared according to a variety of ways, being shallow or deep fried, grilled over hot coals, simmered, steamed and baked, and generally does not require complex kitchen utensils (Prince, 2009). Its basic cooking utensils include mortar and pestle, chopping board, cleaver, wok (*wajan*), spatula, ladle, and steamers, with the wok and mortar and pestle considered to be the most characteristic. While the wok is used to fry the food, a flat saucer-shaped granite grinding stone together with a granite pestle is frequently used to grind or crush the fresh herbs and spices and make them into spice paste. Unlike neighbouring Malaysia

and Thailand, where the ingredients are pounded with a pestle inside a deep mortar, the Indonesian people rub or grind ingredients with backwards and forwards motions across the granite. Also widely used in Indonesian cooking is the banana leaf, either for wrapping food for grilling or steaming, or placing directly onto hot coals. Banana leaves can be found abundantly in Indonesia's tropical islands and the use of the leaf as a wrapper contributes authentic flavour and aroma to the food. There are different ways of wrapping the food in banana leaves, depending on the contents and particular style of preparation (Von Holzen, 1996).

2.4.1.2 During Food Consumption: Meal Composition and the Manner of Eating

As described by Sovyanhadi (2011), the traditional Indonesian meal does not involve courses that are served individually such as entrée, main, and dessert. Instead, all food is served on the table and each dish is handed out collectively. Rice (*nasi*) is central to the lives of Indonesians (Von Holzen, 1996). It is considered to be the most popular staple food for the majority of the population although in some regions there are variations. These variations include the sago palm in the Maluku islands and corn in Madura island and some eastern islands (Ministry of Culture & Tourism, 2010). Rice is eaten accompanied by one or two main savoury dishes consisting of meat such as chicken or beef, fish, and vegetables (Prince, 2009). Besides the rice and side dishes, it is common to have condiments including chilli-hot *sambal*, deep-fried tiny anchovies (*ikan teri*), crackers (*krupuk*), and deep-fried *tempe* (Von Holzen, 1996). Tempe was originally developed in Java in the 1700s as an adaptation of tofu for the tropical climate of Indonesia. It is made through a controlled fermentation process that binds soybean into a cake form. The fermented soybean holds more protein, dietary fibre, and vitamins than regular tofu, and it is widely consumed either as snack or as part of a meal across the country (Astuti, Meliala, Dalais, & Wahlqvist, 2000).

Having rice as the base of most Indonesian meals, the typical Indonesian menu is high in fibre, complex carbohydrates, and monounsaturated fatty acids. Breakfasts consist of rice, noodles, or meat and vegetable soup, accompanied by Java coffee or tea to start the day. Lunch is the main meal of the day. The meal is all prepared in the morning and is served all at once. Dinner is often eaten after the workday has ended. Lunch and dinner normally contain staples, meat or fish, vegetables, and condiments (Sovyanhadi, 2011).

Indonesian meals are commonly eaten with the combination of a spoon in the right hand and fork in the left hand, although in many parts of the country, such as in Java, it is common to eat with one's hands. The use of the right hand is an acceptable custom since the left hand is considered unclean in the Muslim religion. Eating with chopsticks is generally only found at food stalls or in restaurants serving Indonesian adaptations of Chinese cuisine. As part of the food culture and hospitality, the Indonesian phrase *selamat makan* is said to invite other people at the dining table to enjoy their meals (Von Holzen, 1996).

2.4.2 Classifications of Indonesian Cuisine

With its extensive geographic and cultural diversity, it is evident that Indonesian cuisine is rich in variety and taste. For example, in using fresh herbs and spices, each part of Indonesia develops its own combinations and intensities to produce a food taste that is either spicy, hot, strong, sweet, sour or a mixture of these flavours (Koene, 1996). In general, Indonesian cuisine can be classified based on the major islands of the country. Each has different food culture characteristics which are shaped by the natural conditions, history, and culture of the region. Table 2.2 summarises the characteristics and the classifications of Indonesian cuisine mapping which vary across three regions in the country, namely: western, central, and eastern part of Indonesia.

2.4.2.1 Western Indonesian Cuisine

Food in Sumatra Island is greatly influenced by Indian and Chinese culture since the island became the major trading routes for these two countries. Most Northern Sumatra cities exhibit the influence of Chinese and Indian immigrants' ways of life (Tourism, 2010). As the western anchor of the archipelago, Sumatra was the first port of call for Indian and Arab traders, and the coastal Sumatrans heavily adopted their spices as well as stews, curries and kebabs from these merchants (Koene, 1996). The most popular cuisine from the island is Padang (West Sumatra) food whose signature dish is *rendang* – a spicy stewed beef in coconut milk. In 2011, online polling undertaken by CNN-Go to 35,000 “love-food” readers across the globe voted *rendang* as one of the top 50 world's most delicious foods (Cheung, 2011). Moreover, the Padang food restaurant chains can be found throughout Indonesia and neighbouring countries such as Malaysia

Table 2.2 Indonesian Food Culture Mapping

| Region | Major Island | Natural (environment: geographical position, temperature, landscapes) | Socio-cultural (major ethnic groups, religion) | Local food or cuisines (staple food, spices/herbs, main ingredients, flavours) |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|---|---|
| Western part of Indonesia | Sumatra | Tropical, hot, humid, many volcanoes, fertile, lots of forests, green. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Acehnese, Batak, Minangkabau, more Chinese groups in North Sumatra. ▪ The majority are Muslims, except Batak are mainly Christian. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The influence of Middle Eastern and Indian culture is strong in the regions. ▪ The cuisines have very strong flavours (spicy, sour, thick that comes from heavy usage of coconut milk in cooking the dishes). ▪ Rice is the staple food. ▪ Beef, chicken as meats used in the dishes, along with vegetables. ▪ For Chinese and some Christian Batak, pork is eaten. |
| | Java | Tropical, hot, humid, many volcanoes, fertile, green, many paddy fields. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Javanese, Sundanese, Madurese ▪ The majority are Muslims | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rice is the staple food. Madurese eat corn as their main food. ▪ Beef, chicken as meats used in the dishes along with vegetables. ▪ Foods are sweeter in Central Java and the opposite in East Java. |
| | Bali | Tropical, hot, humid, many volcanoes, fertile, green, many paddy fields. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Balinese ▪ The majority are Hindus | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rice is the staple food. ▪ Pork is common in Balinese cuisine. ▪ Many Balinese dishes are spicy. |
| | West Nusa Tenggara (Lombok) | Tropical, hot, humid, fertile and green although in some parts are drier. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sasak ethnic group. ▪ Half are Hindus and the rest are Muslims. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rice is the staple food. ▪ The signature flavour of Lombok cuisine is spicy. |
| Central of Indonesia | Kalimantan | Tropical, hot, humid, a lot of rainforests, swampy coast lines, many big and long rivers. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Dayak, Banjar, and Chinese ▪ The majority are Muslims | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rice is the staple food. ▪ Freshwater fish is abundant. |
| | Sulawesi | Tropical, hot, humid, a lot of rainforests. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Minahasan, Makassarese, Bugis, Toraja ▪ The majority are Muslims except for Minahasan and Toraja majority are Christian | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rice is the staple food. ▪ North Sulawesi cuisine has a very strong and spicy flavour; also some dishes contain extremely unfamiliar food ingredients. ▪ Freshwater fish and seafood is abundant. ▪ Known as the best seafood produce in Indonesia. ▪ Corn and cassava is the staple food |
| Eastern of Indonesia | East Nusa Tenggara (Timor) | Hot and dry, contains many small islands. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Timorese ▪ The majority are Christian and Catholic | |
| | Maluku | Contains of hundreds of small islands, hot and humid but fertile for spices to grow (known as Spices Islands). | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ambonese ▪ The majority are Christian and Catholic | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Corn and cassava is the staple food, some eat <i>papeda</i> as the main food. ▪ Seafood is the main ingredients. ▪ Land of spices and fresh herbs |
| | West Papua | Hot and dry, but some parts of the regions have snowy mountains, lots of rainforests and swampy coast line, many rivers and lakes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Some indigenous ethnic groups are still practicing a very traditional way of live ▪ The majority are Christian and Catholic | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Corn and cassava is the staple food, some eat <i>papeda</i> as the main food. ▪ Seafood is the main ingredients. |

and Singapore, thus making Padang one of the most favourite Indonesian regional cuisines amongst international travellers (Klopfer, 1993).

Javanese cuisine is considered relatively mild compared to other regions of Indonesia. Being the most populous island in the country, the major ethnic groups in Java are: Javanese (70%) who live in Central Java and East Java provinces; Sundanese in the western part of the island (20%); and Madurese (10%), who inhabit the island of Madura in the eastern part of Java. There are diverse patterns of cuisine across the regions in the island. Sundanese cuisine uses a lot of fresh vegetables in its dishes (Koene, 1996). Food in Central Java is distinguished for its sweetness whereas East Javanese cuisine tends to be less sweet and spicier. In addition, seafood products are widely used in this region to make the shrimp paste condiment, an ingredient found in many East Javanese dishes (Ministry of Culture & Tourism, 2010).

The geographical landscape and nature of Bali and the island of West Nusa Tenggara (Lombok) is similar to Sumatra and Java, hence, they produce similar agricultural products. The characteristics of Balinese and Lombok cuisines however, are greatly influenced by the religious of the inhabitants of these islands. In Bali, the island's inhabitants are predominantly Hindu, therefore, according to Hinduism, beef is very rarely cooked and consumed whereas pork is more common in a lot of Balinese cuisine. On the other hand, although West Nusa Tenggara is in close proximity to Bali and the island was ruled by a Hindu Dynasty from Bali, a revolt in 1891-1894 left the entire island to the control of the Netherlands East Indies colony. As a result, there is a mixture of cuisines, with some close to those in Bali (Hindu influences) and the others with a touch of Dutch influence. In addition, for those who are Muslim do not have pork in their local dishes (Ministry of Culture & Tourism, 2010).

2.4.2.2 Central Indonesian Cuisine

Cuisine from Kalimantan, the Indonesian region of Borneo Island that is located at the centre of maritime South East Asia, is also unique. Its sweeping coastlines and many large rivers provide an abundance of seafood and freshwater fish used in the local dishes (Asia Web Direct, 2012). There are three major ethnic groups: the Dayak (indigenous inhabitants of Borneo); Malay; and Chinese who make up about 90% of the total

population (Ministry of Culture & Tourism, 2010). These distinct groups support the diversity of cuisines across the island. A large percentage of the Chinese community live in the western part of Kalimantan and it is unsurprising that cuisine there is dominated by Chinese-related ingredients such as noodles, soy sauce, and pork. On the rest of the island, the cuisine has been strongly influenced by indigenous Dayak food that uses more indigenous spices and fresh herbs (TravelSmart, 2012).

Sulawesi Island is known for the best quality sea produce in Indonesia, hence its culinary taste has revolved around seafood cuisines. Fish roasted over charcoal (*ikan bakar*) served with a variety of dipping sauces or condiments is a firm regional favourite. Like West Sumatra, most of the dishes in North Sulawesi have a very strong flavour that is generated from chilli. In addition, some dishes in this region serve animals, such as dogs, bat, and forest rats as the main food ingredients (Wikipedia, 2010). Gyimóthy and Mykletun (2009) contend that the phenomenon of offering what is referred to as “scary foods” as part of adventure tourism for international visitors not only elicits emotional reactions like fear or disgust but also thrill and enjoyment, depending upon the visitor’s personality and motivation for travel.

2.4.2.3 Eastern Indonesian Cuisine

The climate of East Nusa Tenggara (Timor) is dry and it is more common to have sago, corn, cassava, and taro rather than rice, as staple foods (Wikipedia, 2010). Meanwhile, the cuisine from Maluku Islands and Papua is largely defined by seafood. Instead of having rice like any other regions in Indonesia, the native people in Maluku and Papua have sago congee (*papeda*) as their staple food. This is usually consumed with yellow soup made from fish such as tuna and *mubara* fish spiced with turmeric and lime (Wikipedia, 2010).

2.4.3 Indonesian Tourism and the Growing Interest in Culinary Tourism

The preceding discussion has demonstrated that Indonesia has a rich and varied resource base for tourism consisting of cultural, historical, and natural attractions. In recent years, tourism has emerged as one of the backbones of the Indonesian economy. According to the Accountability Report of the Performance of the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy, the annual growth of the tourism sector’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

reached 8.3% from 2011 to 2012. Tourism as a proportion of GDP amounted to IDR 321.57 trillion contributing 3.9% to the national GDP (IDR 8,254.48 trillion). Tourism is the fourth ranked commodity after oil and gas mining, crude oil, and rubber products, contributing USD 9.12 billion of the country's foreign exchange earnings. In terms of employment creation, 9.77 million out of 110.89 million job opportunities have been offered from this sector, contributing 8.81% to the national employment (Kementerian Pariwisata dan Ekonomi Kreatif, 2013). Since 2007, the number of international visitor arrivals has increased significantly as illustrated in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Progress of International Visitor Arrivals, 2007-2012

| Year | Visitor Arrivals | Growth (%) | Average Expenditure Per Person (USD) | | Average Length of Stay | Tourism Receipts (Million USD) | Growth (%) |
|------|------------------|------------|--------------------------------------|---------|------------------------|--------------------------------|------------|
| | | | Per Visit | Per Day | | | |
| 2007 | 5,505,759 | 13.02 | 970.98 | 107.70 | 9.02 | 5,345.98 | 20.19 |
| 2008 | 6,234,497 | 13.24 | 1,178.54 | 137.38 | 8.58 | 7,377.39 | 37.44 |
| 2009 | 6,323,730 | 1.43 | 995.93 | 129.57 | 7.69 | 6,302.50 | -14.29 |
| 2010 | 7,002,944 | 10.74 | 1,085.75 | 135.01 | 8.04 | 7,603.45 | 20.73 |
| 2011 | 7,649,731 | 9.24 | 1,118.26 | 142.69 | 7.84 | 8,554.39 | 12.51 |
| 2012 | 8,044,462 | 5.16 | 1,133.81 | 147.22 | 7.70 | 9,120.85 | 6.62 |

Source: Statistics Indonesia (2013), retrieved from Centre of Data and Information, Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy

Additionally, national tourism statistics also record that more than 65% of the total international arrivals to Indonesia were from Asia, with Singapore, Malaysia, China, Japan, and South Korea consistently noted as the top five markets. Further, accounting for approximately 15% of the total arrivals, visitors from Europe are the second top international market for Indonesian tourism. This group of arrivals has been dominated by those from the UK, France, the Netherlands, and Germany. In third place, were visitors from the Oceania region, with the majority represented by those who travelled from Australia and New Zealand. Surprisingly, in terms of the average annual growth, the highest arrival growth came from the Middle East and the Oceania regions, at 35.8% and 29.7% growth rate respectively (Statistics Indonesia, 2013). This information suggests an opportunity to target these potential markets through more intensive marketing campaigns. More importantly, the fact that Indonesian culinary includes halal

foods and drinks would be an added attraction for Muslim visitors from the Middle East.

Despite that promising growth in attracting international visitors to Indonesia, in a broader context, as stated in the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report 2011 by the World Economic Forum, Indonesia's destination competitiveness index is still far below that of Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand (Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy, 2012). In 2012, a total of 74.8 million tourists travelled to the ASEAN region. Out of this figure, 22.3 million visitors travelled to Thailand (Smith, 2013), 14.4 million tourists visited Singapore (Singapore Tourism Board, 2013), whilst Malaysia successfully attracted 25.03 million tourists (Tourism Malaysia, 2013). However, only 8.04 million international visitors travelled to Indonesia (Statistics Indonesia, 2013). Further, as revealed in the Visa and PATA survey, respondents neither recognised Indonesia as in the top ten most favourite destinations ever visited nor considered it as the most likely destination in the Asia Pacific region for them to visit in the next two years (Visa & PATA, 2012).

Considering the size and diversity of the country, Nuryanti (2010) cited in Yurnaldi (2010) has argued that Indonesia should be able to attract more international visitors. In fact, Indonesia could benefit from culinary tourism. As suggested by Henderson (2009), food tourism is a possible competitive advantage which could be central to destination development, which in turn, could contribute to overall economic performance. Local food can be utilised as a tool for differentiating one destination from others in the global marketplace since a country's cuisine exhibits elements of national culture and identity (Du Rand et al., 2003).

Horng and Tsai (2012) note that in recent decades, the East Asia region has moved towards the tendency of expanding its culinary tourism to stimulate international visitation. For instance, Hong Kong has become well-known as a sophisticated and cosmopolitan city with an appropriate dining scene (Okumus et al., 2007). In South East Asia particularly, significant attempts have also been put forward to promote food-related travellers' pursuits, led by Thailand (Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Brown, 2001), Malaysia (Jalis, Zahari, Izzat, & Othman, 2009; Karim et al., 2009), and Singapore

(Henderson et al., 2012). This has apparently positioned Singapore as the food paradise in the South East Asia region (Au & Law, 2002; Chaney & Ryan, 2012).

In Indonesia, the domestic market has already been exposed to culinary tourism. Setyanti (2011) noted that there are growing numbers of medium-large scale restaurants that specialise in traditional Indonesian food. Both local and national television channels broadcast culinary programs which portray the diversity and uniqueness of traditional cuisine across the country. Culinary pursuits have become a major part of the destination experience when people from one city or part of Indonesia travel to other cities or parts of the country. As reported by the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy of the Republic of Indonesia, in 2010, both domestic and international visitors spent about 18-20% of their total tourism consumption on food and beverages, recorded as the second highest expense. This is a positive indicator of the growth of this special kind of tourism in the country (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2012). From the destination management side, local government at some cities such as Denpasar, Surakarta (Central Java), Surabaya (East Java), and Makassar (South Sulawesi) have also intensively promoted their places as culinary destinations. Jogjakarta has been long recognised as one of the best culinary destinations in the country (Sulistyowati, 2010). Further, since 2010, the Government Office of Culture and Tourism of West Java has promoted the province as a culinary destination with the tag line, “West Java FFUN is Truly FUN” (FFUN stands for Food, Fashion and Unique Nature) (Disparbud, 2010). However, these attempts focus exclusively on the domestic travellers and not on the international target market.

In November 2011, due to a cabinet reshuffle in Indonesia, the government body which is responsible for the tourism industry at the national level was changed from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism to the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy (Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy, 2012). As a result of this structural change, there has been growing government attention to incorporating culinary diversity and richness into the national tourism strategic plan. This would strengthen Indonesia’s destination competitiveness in the tourism global marketplace. As a consequence, the 2012-2014 Strategic Plan of the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy of the Republic of Indonesia states that culinary tourism is considered to be one of the seven

types of special interest tourism prioritised for development by the government. The other areas are: cultural and heritage tourism; eco-tourism; sport tourism; cruise tourism; meetings, incentives, conventions, exhibitions (MICE) tourism; and health tourism (Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy, 2012).

There are thousands of local foods which potentially offer a strong focal point for portraying Indonesia as a tourism destination. However, as stated by the Minister of Tourism and Creative Economy of Indonesia, having very diverse traditional dishes may also pose a challenge to select which particular food to promote to the international market (Pertiwi, 2011). Addressing such a challenge, intensive discussions involving representatives from the official government agencies, culinary experts and practitioners, and academics have been conducted to develop branding strategies for Indonesian culinary tourism (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012). As a result, in December 2012, the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy officially launched 30 signature traditional dishes of Indonesia aiming to improve the awareness level of the Indonesian culinary diversity amongst the international market (Prawitasari, 2012). Support for promoting Indonesian cuisine is given by the national carrier, Garuda Indonesia, through the launch of the *Garuda Indonesia Experience* concept which is designed to provide pre-, on, and, after flight services characterised by Indonesian hospitality. This includes the provision of signature traditional dishes for on-board meals (Garuda Indonesia, 2012).

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a scholarly review of the literature relating to culinary tourism that is framed as one of the major constructs examined in this thesis. The review has shed light on the various roles of food in tourism. Food does not merely function as the destination experience enhancer, but it also serves as a destination attraction. More importantly, culinary tourism acts as a significant contributor to strengthen tourism destination sustainability, particularly in terms of reinforcing local economy through the utilisation of food and preserving the authenticity of local food culture.

The chapter also reviewed a strong link between food and culture, highlighting how culture has a substantial influence on individual and group foodways or food habits. Food culture is embedded in social identity.

The review revealed that differences in terms of food cultures, have been packaged in the form of culinary tourism and increasingly used by many destinations to stimulate international visitation. However, the challenge remains in determining how international visitors, specifically those who have distinct food cultures, would deal with these differences when dining on local food in the visited destination.

This thesis aims to address this challenge through the examination of the provision of memorable culinary tourism from the visitor's perspective. As such, the following chapter is devoted to critically reviewing the theoretical linkages between visitor experience concepts and tourism dining. In particular, the review of these concepts will be conducted to provide a basis for developing the conceptual framework of this study.

Chapter 3

The Visitor Experience

3.0 Introduction

As the second literature review chapter of the thesis, this chapter focuses on scrutinising the visitor experience construct. The review aims to provide a foundation for achieving the first research objective, which is to develop a comprehensive conceptual model examining the international visitor dining experiences with local food in the destination settings. The first section of this chapter begins with a review of various perspectives that conceptualise the visitor experience construct. The second section discusses a wide range of the experience-related research in tourism literature, indicating the importance of this construct in the area. Following this, the chapter reviews previous conceptual models of visitor experience that exist in the literature. The final section of the chapter analyses relevant studies examining the underlying factors affecting visitor dining experiences. This is viewed specifically in relation to the experiences of local dining. A gap analysis of both previous conceptual models and existing visitor food experience studies is provided to assist the development of the conceptual framework proposed in this research.

3.1 Conceptualising the Visitor Experience

Experience is a broad concept that reflects aspects of daily life and therefore may be interpreted from various perspectives. Different arguments about how to define this term persist amongst academics, practitioners, and enterprises (Volo, 2009). With

reference to the *Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus* (online version), experience is defined as “the totality of a person’s perceptions, feelings, and memories” (Collins English dictionaries and thesauruses, 2013). In 1997, Carlson, cited in Moosberg (2007), stated that an experience is a constant flow of thoughts and feelings during moments of consciousness. These two definitions indicate that experience is an outcome of cognitive and affective evaluation processes following one’s involvement in certain events or activities. However, Larsen (2007) argues that experience should not merely be seen as an individual’s reaction to what happen here and now in a specific situation, but as an accumulation of reactions over a period of time. In other words, Larsen’s (2007) viewpoint implies that an individual’s experience is dynamic as well as sequential in nature.

The experience concept entered the field of marketing in the 1980s with Holbrook and Hirschman’s pioneering article that recognised the importance of experiential aspects in product consumption (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). For researchers of consumer behaviour, an experience is above all a personal occurrence, often with important emotional significance, built upon the interaction between consumer and the stimuli received from the products or services being consumed (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Consequently, Mittal, Kumar, and Tsiros (1999) conceptualised consumption experience by proposing the “Consumption System Theory” (CST). In their study, they characterise a consumption system as involving three dimensions: a product/service’s attribute-level evaluation, satisfaction, and behavioural intention. As a system, consumption occurs when a number of products and services are consumed over time in multiple episodes. It encompasses a series of activities within the wider process of consumer decision-making, ranging from pre-purchase activities such as need recognition and information search, to post-purchase activities such as satisfaction and future behaviour (Mittal et al., 1999). Caru and Cova (2003) argued that experience has been accepted as a key element in understanding consumer behaviour, and has provided a foundation for the economy and marketing of the future. That is, consumption experience is no longer limited to some pre-purchase or post-purchase activities, but involves additional activities influencing consumer decisions and future actions (Caru & Cova, 2003). In other words, consumption experience is spread over and can be divided into several stages of experience.

Pine and Gilmore (2011), the originators of the term *experience economy*, affirm that today, consumers seek more memorable experiences when purchasing or consuming products. Consumers are not only buying products, but also their meanings, stories, and the experiences associated with them, which in turn, make the purchases different and unique. As experience becomes the crucial offering in the marketplace, companies should personally engage consumers through staged events, and capture their hearts by the memorability of the experience (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). The adoption of Pine and Gilmore's perspective in various business contexts is evidence of the central role of consumer experiences (Oh et al., 2007; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2012; Volo, 2009). Nevertheless, Larsen (2007) reminds us that the quality of outcomes at each stage of experience depends on how an individual, in their specific mood and state of mind, responds to interactions with products or services. As a consequence, experience should not solely be viewed from the perspective of the business, but also from the individual vantage point.

In the development of conceptualising the experience, Knutson and Beck (2003) noted the subjective nature of experience by describing two major elements underpinning its consumption. First, it requires direct involvement or participation when consuming the quality of products and services, and second, the consumption of experience is internal and individualised. That is, no two persons will have an identical consumption experience since, during the experience process, each person is engaged with unique interactions with the environment and the product or service provider (Moosberg, 2007).

Discussions about experience in tourism emerged in the early 1960s in a study by Clawson and Knetsch (1963) on experience in the context of outdoor recreation. They argued that the whole recreation experience comprises five linear phases: beginning with planning or anticipation; travel to site; on-site activity; return travel; and ending with recollection. At planning or anticipation stage, the visitors decide when they would go, where and how long they would stay, and what activities they would do at the visited place. The second phase, travel to the site, refers to the actual experience of travelling from home to the destination. The on-site experiences phase occurs when the actual recreation activities are undertaken at the visited place. Travel back relates to the

post-recreation experience where visitors return to their homes. The last phase is recollection where total satisfaction toward the whole recreation experience is evaluated by visitors. This final phase is important in forming the basis for decisions in the planning phase for the next experience. As Jennings (2006) states, Clawson and Knetsch's (1963) study has set an initial basis for the conceptualisation of the visitor experience construct in the tourism literature. It is viewed not only as sequential since it consists of five phases, but also interactive in its nature given that the decision made in each phase has an influence on any decisions in the subsequent phase(s).

Following Clawson and Knetsch (1963), Cohen (1979) introduced the original reference to the term *tourist experience* regarded as distinct from the routine of everyday life. Supporting Cohen, Quan and Wang (2004) explained that the tourist experience is a multi-dimensional concept consisting of the *peak experience* and the *supporting or secondary experience*. The peak experience contrasts with, or sharply opposes, daily experiences whilst the supporting experience is regarded as an extension of daily experiences. The measurement of tourist experiences is based on various dimensions, such as: satisfaction; human interactions; level of familiarity; prior conceptions; past experience; and the role of external stimuli before, during and after the journey, irrespective of whether tourist is consuming the peak experience or only the supporting experience (Quan & Wang, 2004).

For some researcher, the *quality tourism experience* term is used in preference to the term *tourist experience* (Jennings, 2006; Jennings et al., 2009; Nickerson, 2006). According to this scholar group, the key element of the quality tourism experience term lies in the word *quality*, which is derived from the *perceived quality* concept (Jennings et al., 2009). Jennings (2006) argues that the term quality tourism experience refers to the overall quality that visitors would get when experiencing tourism-related products and/or services, which does not merely depend on one single party. Rather, the quality of tourism experience is determined, first, by tourism providers, second, by the visitor, and third, by other tourism stakeholders such as the host society in which the tourism products and/or services are being experienced (Nickerson, 2006).

Yuan (2009) defined the hospitality and tourism experience as “the total outcome involving a combination of customer's cognitive, affective, emotional, social, and

physical responses gained from participating in activities and interacting with both tangible and intangible components in the consumption process, which in turn influences how consumers interpret the world” (p. 33). Yuan’s (2009) definition is considered to be comprehensive by acknowledging various dimensions of the experience, encompassing: level of experience which includes participation and interactions; means of experience which relates to tangible and intangible components in the consumption process; and possible experiential outcomes or responses, that is, cognitive, affective, social, and physical responses.

The foregoing discussion indicates that with respect to its nature, visitor experience is a complex concept. This is illustrated in Figure 3.1 as follows.

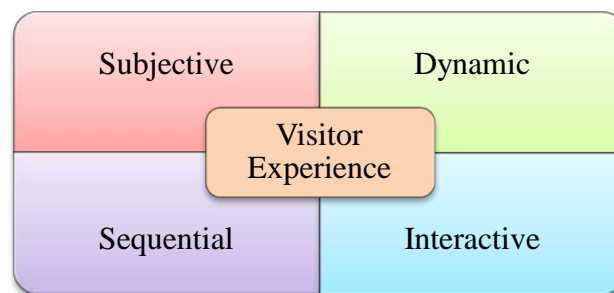


Figure 3.1 The Nature of Visitor Experience (developed by the author)

The dynamic nature of visitor experience is reflected in the tourism activities experienced when visiting a destination. For instance, culinary experience is not fixed; it is dynamic, representing ongoing sequential experiences. Visitors set their expectations prior to the actual engagement with food and while consuming the food, they project their perception of the quality of these experiences. After the experience, visitors evaluate whether they are satisfied or not with the overall experience.

The interactive nature of visitor experience is echoed when the expectations are built prior to the actual experience. The level of visitor expectation will be influenced by various factors, both internal and external to the visitor. Likewise, when perceiving the quality of the actual performance, the expectations will be used as a barometer in projecting their perceptions as well as satisfactions. Subsequently, the level of satisfaction and behavioural intentions will assist in developing the expectations when a visitor experiences the same activity in the future. Although the stimuli received and/or

types of tourism activity undertaken are the same, the responses given by visitors could vary, mainly due to different visitor characteristics. Accordingly, the level of perceptions and post-experience behaviours would be subjective and could not be generalised as representing all.

3.2 Researching the Visitor Experience

Since the late 1990s, the quality tourism experience has become a defined area of inquiry, where various research agendas have been advanced, ranging from consideration of theoretical construction to methodological implication and including combinations of both. Internationally, academic conferences with a key theme of visitor experience have been held, including: “Measuring Experiences” in the 35th Annual Travel and Tourism Research Association (TRRA) Conference, Canada in 2004; the “Extraordinary Experiences Conference” at Bournemouth University, UK in 2007; and the “Innovation and Value Creation in Experience-based Tourism”, 22nd Nordic Symposium in Tourism and Hospitality Research, 2013 in Norway. In addition, academic journals with special issues relating to the visitor experience have been published, such as: the “Tourist Experiences” by the *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* (vol. 7, issue 1, 2007), and the “Complete Holiday Experience – Perspectives from Asia” by the *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, in August 2013.

According to Ritchie and Hudson (2009) and Ritchie, Tung, and Ritchie (2011), there are at least five categories of research related to experience in the tourism context. These are: conceptualisation; experience behaviour and decision making; methodologies; types of experiences; and managerial concerns. Table 3.1 summarises these five categories, presented along with examples of previous studies and the context in which the studies were undertaken.

The first research category relates to the conceptualisation of the essence of tourism experiences through the development of the concept of experience as well as the introduction of various theoretical frameworks and models to measure the structural relationships amongst the experience-related constructs. Although a number of scholars have made attempts to formulate a definition and to describe the nature of tourist

experience by generalising and aggregating information (Aho, 2001; Clawson & Knetsch, 1963, 1966; Cohen, 1979; Knutson & Beck, 2003), due to its complexity, to date, no single theory has effectively defined the meaning and extent of visitor experiences (Chhetri, Arrowsmith, & Jackson, 2004). Section 3.1 was devoted to discussing this category.

Table 3.1 Categories of Experience-related Research in Tourism

| Stream/category | Aim/focus | Examples of Contributions to the Literature |
|--|---|--|
| Conceptualisation | Studies that define, conceptualise, and explore the essence of experience by developing theoretical frameworks to describe this understanding | The development of concept of experience (e.g. Clawson and Knetsch (1963) and Cohen (1979) in the leisure & recreation context); the development of a general theory of tourism experience (e.g. Aho (2001), Ryan (2000); (2011, 2002); Woodside and Dubelaar (2002)). |
| Experience behaviour, decision-making models | Studies that improve the understanding of visitors and their experience, decision-making and behaviour, within the framework of a particular conceptual model | Past experience, satisfaction and behavioural intention are frequently used as outcome measures and mediating variables in conceptual models and are related to destination image, loyalty and visitor evaluations of tourism experiences (e.g. Bigne, Mattila, and Andreu (2008); Jackson, White, and Schmieder (1996); Yuan & Wu, (2008)). |
| Methodologies | Studies that primarily review or apply specific methodologies, applications and procedures in tourism experience research | Previously dominated by the application of a quantitative method approach followed by the increased use of qualitative research method. Recently, the mixed methods approach has emerged and is viewed as a better way for studying tourist experiences (e.g. Borrie and Birzell (2001); Jennings (2010a); (2010b)). |
| Types of experiences | Studies that aim to explore the nature of specific types of tourism experiences and distinguish them from others | Each study focuses on a particular type of tourist experience in a specific setting (e.g. Arnould and Price (1993) in natural tourism; Sheng and Chen (2012) in heritage tourism; and Pikkemaat, Peters, Boksberger, and Secco (2009) in the wine tourism context). |
| Managerial concerns | Studies that focus on the managerial aspects of designing and delivering tourism experiences | The importance of cohesion in terms of branding, marketing, and managing the delivery of experiences (e.g. Pine and Gilmore (2011); Zouni and Kouremenos (2008)). |

Source: Adapted from Ritchie and Hudson (2009); Ritchie et al. (2011)

The second tourism experience research category refers to all studies that focus on scrutinising the visitor's experience behaviour and their decision-making. They emphasise improving the understanding of visitors and their experience, decision-making and behaviour, within a particular conceptual framework or model. Research in

this category is conducted with a view that due to the subjective nature of the visitor experience, it could only be interpreted by reflecting on the specific individuals involved and the specific settings where the experience occurs (Ritchie et al., 2011). According to Borrie and Birzell (2001), there are four most common approaches to studying visitor experiences: satisfaction; benefit-based; experience-based; and meanings-based. The satisfaction and the benefit-based approaches examine the degree of visitor satisfaction toward a particular tourism product or service, such as a destination or a hotel service. High satisfaction indicates visitors have had a good or positive experience and *vice versa*. Visitors indicate their level of agreement on various sought benefits associated with their experience, such as escaping and reducing stress (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). Alternatively, the experience-based and meanings-based approaches seek to understand visitor experience by requiring them to report their thoughts and feelings in a diary or record answers to specific questions about their feelings at certain times on-site or during the trip. The strength of this approach is that the findings highlight the fact that experiences are dynamic rather than static in nature. The meaning-based approach attempts to explain what the actual experience means to each individual. Experiences are treated as windows into participants' ongoing constructions of the world and their place in it, rather than as discrete, on-site engagement.

The third research stream, the methodology category, includes studies that primarily review or apply specific methodological applications and procedures in tourism experience research. As noted by Jennings (2010b), the majority of studies on visitor experiences have been undertaken based on quantitative perspectives. This approach has raised criticism from some tourism scholars, particularly with regard to the research instrument development. When measuring the visitor experience, Palmer (2010) notes the limitation of depending on the use of solely quantitative research. Practical obstacles to develop and implement a robust measurement scale have to be taken into account when designing the research, since the measurement instrument requires incorporating not only the contextual parameters, but also the sequencing of events encountered by visitors. That said, to cover the multitude of experiential dimensions across the three tourism phases will result in an extremely lengthy questionnaire leading to the likelihood of survey fatigue and unreliable results (Palmer, 2010). Given those facts,

Jennings (2010a) contends that there is a need to go beyond the quantitative approach in order to access visitor emotions and cognitions at deeper levels. Accordingly, in the past few decades, there has been considerable growth in the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches in tourism research (Jennings, 2010b; Ritchie et al., 2011). Supporting this view, Borrie and Birzell (2001) suggest that visitor experience can be investigated at a multitude of levels and through different research approaches. Recently, alternative methods have been introduced ranging from diaries to videos, sensory devices and the use of the portable Global Positioning System (GPS) devices. It has been asserted that a qualitative approach will enable researchers to access tourist understandings, emotions and cognition at a deeper level (Jennings, 2010a). It is believed that these methods can be used to explore the emotions, moods and feelings of visitors (Laing & Crouch, 2009; Volo, 2009).

The research stream in the fourth category focuses on the nature of specific types of tourism experiences and distinguishes them from others. An extensive number of studies have been dedicated to analysing visitor experience, varying from examining common holiday traveller groups to special interest visitors, and both groups engaging in various types of tourism. This includes nature-based tourism (Arnould & Price, 1993; Chhetri et al., 2004; Laing & Crouch, 2009), theme-parks (Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Bouchier-Barthel, 2001), cultural and heritage tourism (Chen & Chen, 2010; De Rojas & Camamero, 2008; Sheng & Chen, 2012), and food and wine tourism (Axelsen & Swan, 2010; Pikkemaat et al., 2009). Topics of discussion range from visitor experience in relation to authenticity, host-guest interactions, tourist experience and gender, to tourism experience pertaining to cultural differences (Jennings et al., 2009). While each of these studies focus on a particular type of tourist experience, together they offer theoretical and empirical analyses of the issue and provide insights into integrative approaches to the concept of tourist experience (Volo, 2009).

The fifth tourism experience research is the managerial concern category, which involves studies that concentrate on the managerial aspects of designing and delivering tourism experiences. Most of them are undertaken from the practitioner's perspective. To be able to offer more meaningful destination experience to visitors, tourism destination management stakeholders should have a cohesive and integrated strategy.

Acknowledging this fact, the conduct of studies in the area has gained increased popularity.

The discussion on various research streams concerning experiences in the tourism area has confirmed that visitor experience is a complex concept. Despite an extensive and growing body of literature discussing it, Jennings (2010a) and Jurowski (2009) point out that the essence of visitor experience and its conceptual structure remains elusive. Several researchers have attempted to conceptualise the temporal nature of visitor experience and illustrate it in an experiential phase framework (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Knutson, Beck, Kim, & Cha, 2010; Woodside & Dubelaar, 2002; Yuan, 2009). These frameworks are respectively analysed in the following section.

3.3 The Evolution of Visitor Experience Frameworks

Adapting Mittal et al.'s (1999) CST, Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) introduced their theory of the "Tourism Consumption System" (TCS) which is clearly relevant to the tourism context. It attempts to achieve a deep understanding of the multiple immediate and downstream relationships amongst events that are experienced by a visitor prior to, during, and following a tourism trip. A set of related travel thoughts, decisions, and behaviours evolve along these stages when consuming tourism-related products. The central proposition of TCS theory is that the thoughts, decisions, and behaviours regarding one activity at one stage of the tourism consumption experience, will influence the thoughts, decisions, and behaviours for activities occurring at other stages. In addition, Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) also acknowledge the contribution of visitor demographics as well as destination marketing and related services to influencing the visitor decisions and behaviours in the consumption experience process. Although in their model Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) recognise the presence of external and internal factors in shaping the overall tourism experience, the model is deficient in providing detailed information about visitors' attitudinal and behavioural dimensions. This includes what and how the visitor thinks, feels, and perceives at each stage of the experience.

The merit of including attitudinal and behavioural dimensions is addressed by Yuan (2009) within the context of hospitality. The structural relationships among the major

components of hospitality experience, service, and customer satisfaction are developed to propose a different way to understand the experience. This is depicted in Figure 3.2.

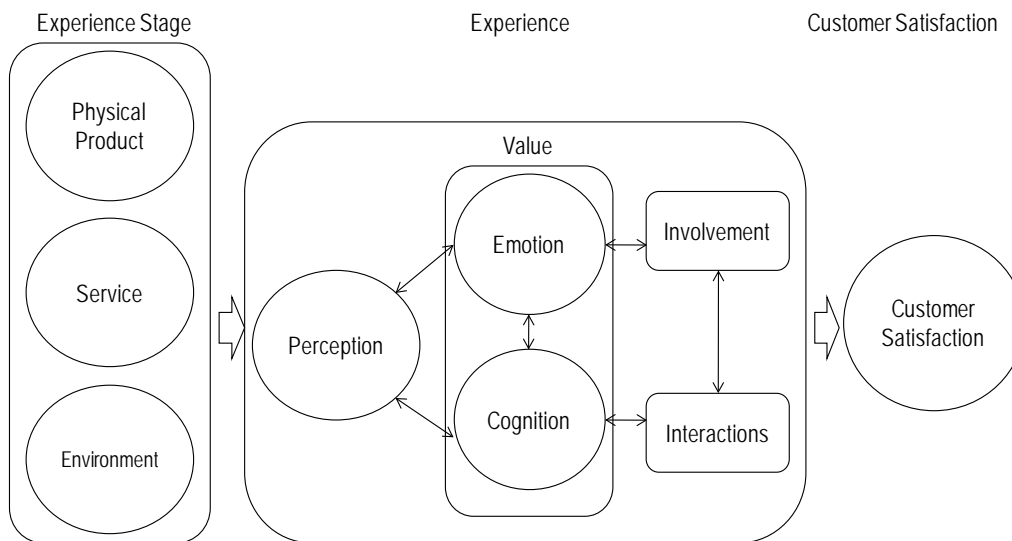


Figure 3.2 Relationships among Components of Hospitality Experience, Service, and Customer Satisfaction

Source: Yuan (2009, p. 86)

Yuan's (2009) framework incorporates three important stimuli for consideration by service providers when creating or staging products/services for the customers to experience. These include the physical product, the service, and the environment. The level of how the customer perceives, involves, and interacts with these three stimuli leads to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the overall experience. Yuan's (2009) study, however, focuses more on the measurement of perceived quality and satisfaction as the final outcome of the experience. Consequently, it lacks any consideration of pre-experience or expectations and of the future behavioural intentions phase.

Knutson et al.'s (2010) experience construct model is more detailed than both Woodside and Dubelaar's (2002) model, and Yuan's (2009) framework. It offers a useful indication of the structural relationships between stages of experience. Adopting O'Sullivan and Spangler's pre-, participation, and post- phases of experience (1998), Knutson et al.'s (2010) model incorporates four major constructs of experience, namely: service quality; value; satisfaction; and consumer experiences (see Figure 3.3).

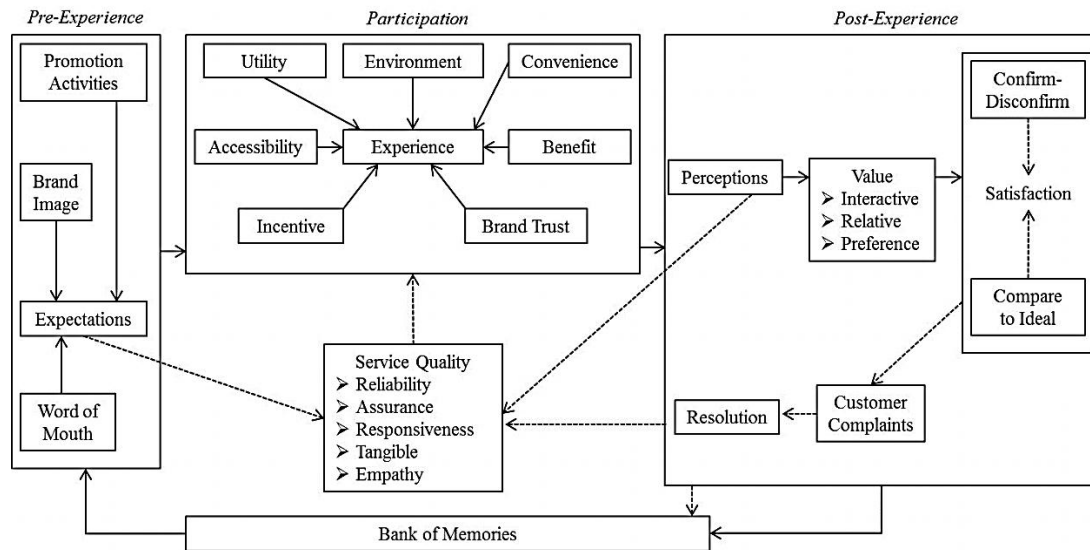


Figure 3.3 Model of the Experience Construct

Source: Knutson et al. (2010)

The pre-experience stage includes concepts of expectations, promotional activities, word of mouth (WOM), and personal memories from previous experiences. Expectations function as the foundation for the pre-experience stage and for underpinning perceived quality in the participation (during experience) stage. At the post-experience stage, the key outcomes examined by Knutson et al. (2010) involve personal perceptions of the experience, the value that they attach to the experience, and satisfaction with the experience. However, the linear relationship structures amongst the concepts examined in Knutson et al.'s (2010) framework have indicated the need to adopt a quantitative research approach to measure each construct. Yet such an approach, as argued by Jennings (2010a), could be limited in uncovering the actual experiences and how each individual thinks or feels.

Ryan (2003) notes that few researchers have attempted to analyse the experience as a whole. Cutler and Carmichael's (2010) framework of visitor experience differs from that proposed by Knutson et al. (2010), Woodside and Dubelaar (2002); or Yuan (2009). A key strength of Cutler and Carmichael's (2010) model is that it acknowledges the complexity of visitor experience as multi-phased, multi-influential, and multi-outcome, and thus, formulates them into a single conceptual model. As can be seen in

Figure 3.4, their model provides an organised overview of the various dimensions of the tourist experience which has been discussed in the literature.

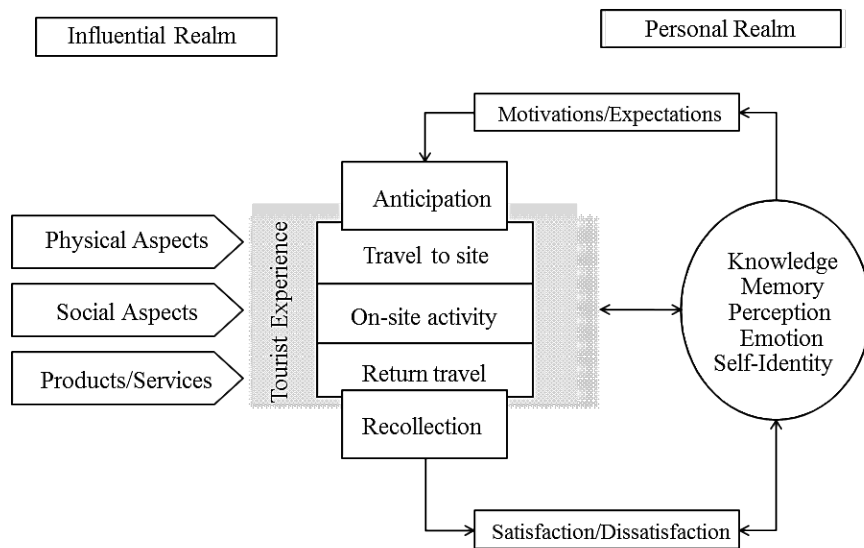


Figure 3.4 The Tourist Experience Conceptual Model of Influences and Outcomes

Source: Cutler and Carmichael (2010, p. 8)

The phasing nature of visitor experience in Cutler and Carmichael's model is adopted from Clawson and Knetsch's (1963) five-experience phases concept. In addition, Cutler and Carmichael (2010) consider two realms shaping the visitor experience: the influential and the personal. The influential realm includes factors outside the individual and consists of physical aspects, and product/service aspects. The personal realm involves mental constructs that are embedded within each individual visitor, such as knowledge, memories, perceptions, emotions, and self-identity (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). The outcomes of experience relate to overall evaluations of a trip which is indicated by visitor satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The overall evaluation can influence and be influenced by individual elements and by the experience itself (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

Several common characteristics are evident from the frameworks that have been reviewed above. First, Yuan's (2009) framework is similar to Cutler and Carmichael's (2010) model in acknowledging the presence of external factors that shape the experience. Both studies incorporate aspects associated with product/service and

physical/environment factors as determinants of the quality of experience outcomes. In the context of the travel dining experience, including these factors is essential since dining involves visitors in a tangible realm that includes food, the service aspect concerning how the food is served, and the physical surroundings. Consequently, such factors will affect visitor evaluations of the quality of their dining experiences. Moreover, of the four frameworks and models, Cutler and Carmichael's (2010) model is analysed as the most systematic and rational approach for examining visitor experiences. Also, it offers a degree of flexibility, employing a mixed-method research approach that is highly relevant to the study of visitor experiences (Jennings, 2010a).

However, of these models and framework, only Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) recognise the role of internal factors as a contributor to the visitor experience. The internal factors include various aspects relating to the individual visitor, such as visitor demographics, travel purpose, length of visit, and type of travel party (e.g. a lone traveller or part of a group). As has been noted earlier by Ryan (2002), such aspects can affect travel-related decisions made by the visitors at each stage of the experience, which in turn, influence the quality of the overall experience.

Furthermore, although most of the existing models and framework view and examine experiences as sequential phases, none has been developed with a specific focus on international visitor dining experiences with local food in destination settings. This gap is important, given the increasing tendency of international visitors to travel to destinations for local culinary experiences to enhance the overall destination experience (Henderson et al., 2012). There is a need to develop a comprehensive conceptual framework that acknowledges the complexity of the visitor experience as multi-phased, multi-influential, and multi-outcomes. The framework must also incorporate appropriate elements from existing studies in order to understand more comprehensively how international visitors experience local food in destination settings. It is therefore the first objective of this study to address this gap in the research.

Table 3.2 summarises the key propositions, major contributions and limitations of each reviewed model and framework.

Table 3.2 Summary of the Gap Analysis of the Previous Frameworks and Models of Visitor Experience

| Author(s) | Key Concepts Examined | Key Propositions | Major Contributions | Limitations |
|----------------------------|--|--|---|---|
| Woodside & Dubelaar (2002) | Tourism consumption system | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The thoughts, decisions, and behaviours regarding one activity at one stage of the tourism consumption experience, will influence the thoughts, decisions, and behaviours for activities occurring at other stages. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acknowledge that tourism experience is influenced not only by external factors, such as destination and marketing activities, but also by internal factors such as visitor demographic backgrounds. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> View visitor experience as interactive and sequential phases. Lack of examination on visitors' attitudinal and behavioural dimensions which might influence the experience. Applies to the tourism context in general. |
| Yuan (2009) | Hospitality experiences, service, customer satisfaction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Physical products, services, and environments are important influences on experience in tourism and hospitality settings. Psychological components such as perception, involvement, and interactions will lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the experience. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The inclusion of psychological dimensions when measuring tourist experience. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus more on the perceived quality and satisfaction. Neglect the existence of either pre-experience or post-experience stages. Model was developed to be applied to more general tourism settings. To the researcher's knowledge, no empirical work exists to test the model. |
| Knutson et al. (2010) | Service quality, value, satisfaction, and consumer experiences | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The "pre-experience" stage encompasses the expectations, promotional activities, word of mouth, and personal memories from previous hospitality experiences. Expectations set the foundation for the pre-experience stage and underpin the perceived quality in the participation (during experience) stage. There are directional relationships between the various sets of experience characteristics such as environment, convenience, accessibility, incentive, and brand trust. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Divide experience into three clear phases (pre, during, and after). Provide better indication of occurrences during each stage of the experience as well as the relationships between the stages. The model integrates service quality, value, and satisfaction into the realm of guest experience. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emphasises the dimensions that are internal to the consumer. Lack of attention to the external factors which apparently shape visitor experience. Model was developed to be applied to more general tourism settings. The empirical testing on the models, to date, is limited to the hospitality sector, such as in hotels. |

(Table 3.2 continued)

Table 3.2 Summary of the Gap Analysis of the Previous Frameworks and Models of Visitor Experience (continued)

| Author(s) | Key Concepts Examined | Key Propositions | Major Contributions | Limitations |
|------------------------------|---|--|---|---|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> At post-experience stage, the key outcomes include consumers' personal perceptions of the experience, the value they place on the experience, and satisfaction with the experience. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> |
| Cutler and Carmichael (2010) | Tourist experience, motivations, expectations, perceptions, and satisfactions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tourist experience is multi-phased, multi-influential, and has multi-outcomes. Three influential realms that influence the tourist experience are physical, social, and product services. The personal realm consists of knowledge, memories, perceptions, emotions, and self-identity. The outcomes of experience relate to overall evaluations of a trip, determined by satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The overall evaluation can influence and is influenced by individual elements and by the experience itself. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Divide experience into five distinct stages in which the experience is shaped by the influential factors. Separates the influential factors into two: internal realm and external realm. Each psychological outcome as a result of experience in each stage is clearly depicted. Provides the most systematic, comprehensive, and rational approach to examine visitor experiences amongst the discussed models. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Model was developed to be applied to more general tourism settings. To the researcher's knowledge, no empirical work exists to test the model. |

The preceding discussions have shown the complexity of the visitor experience. It involves extensive efforts to define the concept, identify factors and components that influence and shape the visitor experience, and to explore the outcomes of that experience. Over the past few decades, more academics have paid increasing attention to the visitor experience in different tourism, leisure and hospitality settings, including in the area of food tourism.

Despite this, research into the food experiences of visitors to date is still in its infancy (Hall & Sharples, 2003; Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Richards, 2012). Most of the work in this area has examined general motivations, profiles of culinary tourists, and visitors' satisfaction relating to food experiences (Correia et al., 2008; Ignatov & Smith, 2006; Kim, Goh, & Yuan, 2010). There appears to be relatively little research either on how visitors perceive and experience different foods, or on the issue of how perceived authenticity and food culture differences have been dealt with by visitors when they are experiencing food in visiting destinations. Section 3.4 therefore reviews scholarly work that has been undertaken in the particular area of visitor experiences related to travel dining involving local food.

3.4 Visitor Dining Experiences with Local Food

Finkelstein (1989), as cited in Au and Law (2002), categorised the consumer-related dining experience at commercial food service establishments into three types: experiential, experimental, and existential. Experiential dining experience is considered as the least active mode where the diners challenge themselves to try unknown foods yet then decide to not eat them again. In the experimental dining experience, their willingness to try unfamiliar or unknown foods is undertaken on a trial-and-error basis to determine any foods that complement their tastes. The most active dining experience mode, the existential, describes a diner as a person who is committed to seeking a novel food experience and enjoying eating different types of foods at different types of restaurants.

Long (2004) noted that consumers are becoming increasingly interested in engaging with culinary experiences of the visited destination. Various studies have been conducted to investigate travel dining behaviours, including the examination of culinary

motivations (Batra, 2008; Kim & Eves, 2012; Kim, Goh, et al., 2010), visitor dining expectations on local food during trips or holidays (Kim et al., 2009; Kivela & Crotts, 2009), and travel dining satisfaction (Correia et al., 2008; Kim, Kim, & Goh, 2010; Nam & Lee, 2011; Namkung & Jang, 2007; Yüksel, 2003).

The subsequent sections contain discussions and reviews on dining experiences with local food in the destination settings. Section 3.4.1 is dedicated to the three stages of tourism experiences: pre-, during, and post-dining. Following this, section 3.4.2 provides a review of relevant literature relating to the various factors influencing visitor dining experiences, specifically when consuming local food.

3.4.1 Stages of Visitor Dining Experience

The overall quality of travel dining depends on the quality of experiences which occur or are encountered by visitors at each dining stage (the pre-, during, and the post-dining stages). Therefore, having a thorough understanding of the dining experience at each stage is crucial. Gnoth (1997) argues that managing visitor expectations is critical since expectations can significantly influence visitor's decision making and perceptions of experiences, which in turn, affect their satisfaction. According to Zeithaml and Bitner (2002), expectation is described as the desire of customers to experience a product or service in a way they believe it should be experienced. An expectation is the perceived likelihood that a particular action will be followed by a particular outcome (Fluker & Turner, 2000). People make decisions based on certain expected outcomes and their reactions to outcomes are in part influenced by what they initially expected (Dickson & Hall, 2006).

In terms of expectations of products and services, Oliver (1977) states that customer expectations are formed by four factors, namely: general knowledge or preconceptions about products or services; past experiences; the experiences of others; and the firm's marketing initiatives. Similar to Oliver's (1977) proposition, Del Bosque, San Martin, Collado, and De los Salmones (2009), who examine the role of expectations in relation to destination marketing, reveal four factors influencing visitor expectations, namely: past experience; WOM; external communication by DMOs; and destination image.

Considering the intangible nature of the tourism experience, these four factors are evident in significantly assisting visitors to shape their expectations.

Hanefors and Mossberg (2003) describe five types of expectations relating to service experiences at commercial food service establishments (restaurants) ranging from high to low. At the highest level, the customer holds “ideal expectations”, which may attract them to a restaurant that they expect to have excellent service. The next level is the normative or “should expectations”, which means the price charged at a restaurant ought to reflect in the quality of service being delivered. Another type of expectation is “experience-based norm” where based on their previous visits, the customer can compare, know, then set the expectation in regard to the level of quality experience they want to get. The next type is “acceptable expectation”, which refers to the expectation of being served in an appropriate manner. The lowest level of expectation is called “tolerable expectation”. With this type of expectation, although the customer expectation is low, they still revisit because of the value they get, such as dining out at fast-food restaurants (Hanefors & Mossberg, 2003).

Visitors start assessing the quality of dining when they actually engage with the food. Such assessment is called perceived quality. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988) explain perceived quality as the consumer’s overall evaluation, a global judgment, or attitude toward purchasing certain products. It occurs when expectations are compared with the actual perceptions of performance. Yuan and Wu (2008) assert that there is a close relationship between expectations and perceptions concerning the quality of tourism products and services. That is, assessing customers’ perceived quality cannot be undertaken without measuring the expectations towards the quality of experiences. Taking a stand point from the customer’s perspective, Yuan and Wu (2008), similar to Parasuraman et al. (1988), further claim that perceived quality is considered to be a highly subjective and relativistic phenomenon, thus, perceptions could vary depending on who is assessing the product or service.

With respect to the post-dining stage, it appears in many studies that there are two major outcome variables that are commonly measured, namely: satisfaction and behavioural intention. According to Oliver and Burke (1999), there are two different perspectives amongst researchers in defining satisfaction, namely transaction-specific and

cumulative aspects. On one hand, the transaction-specific perspective points out that satisfaction refers to consumers' assessment of the value they gain after they complete one specific transaction (Oliver, 1977). Conversely, the cumulative perspective views satisfaction as the overall measurement of all consumers' purchasing and consuming experiences related to an organisation's past, present, and future performance (Berry, Carbone, & Haeckel, 2002). In other words, the cumulative perspective acknowledges consumers' expectations and/or past experiences prior to consumption as part of the whole experience. This also affects the level of satisfaction during and after the process of experience (Berry et al., 2002). With respect to the sequential nature of visitor experience, the cumulative aspect perspective is considered to have more relevance to exploring the visitor's satisfaction with experiences of dining on local food.

Oliver (1996, p. 13), cited in Hanefors and Mossberg (2003), defined satisfaction as "the consumer's fulfilment response. It is a judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfilment". Further, Zeithaml and Bitner (2002) assert that satisfaction occurs when actual performance is greater than or equal to expected performance. In the tourism context, satisfaction is commonly examined as the outcome of tourism experiences. Ryan (2003) affirms that expectation and perception towards experience can be powerful determinants of visitor satisfaction. In this case, a satisfactory experience is defined as the similarity of expectation and the performance of the actual experience as perceived by the visitor, whereas dissatisfaction may be referred as the gap between expectation and the perceived actual experience performance. The literature indicates that besides cognitive perceived quality, emotional (affective) response, or how a visitor assesses their satisfaction of the experience consumption, is also important. In the destination context, Correia et al. (2008) discussed visitor satisfaction as the extent to which the destination, including tourism products and services offered, meet visitor performance criteria. In the particular setting of the visitor dining experience with local food at the destination, attempts have been made in this regard to assess the association between visitor expectations and satisfaction (Kivela & Crotts, 2005; Nam & Lee, 2011), or to examine the relationships between local food image and satisfaction (Chang et al., 2011; Chi, Chua, Othman, & Karim, 2013; Karim & Chi, 2010; Nam & Lee, 2011).

Significant research has been conducted to investigate the patronage satisfaction in the context of commercial food service establishments, ranging from fine dining restaurants, casual dining outlets, and coffee houses (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; Gupta, McLaughlin, & Gomez, 2007; Namkung & Jang, 2008; Yuan & Wu, 2008); to non-commercial food service establishments, such as cafeterias at hospitals or at schools/universities (Ko, 2009). Similarly, a considerable number of studies, such as those of Chi et al. (2013), Ling et al. (2010), Nam and Lee (2011), and Ryu and Jang (2006), have been specifically dedicated to examining visitor satisfaction in relation to experiences with the local food.

In addition, extensive studies have also linked satisfaction with post-purchase behaviours, such as behavioural intentions and customer loyalty. According to Woodside and MacDonald (1993), intention is a special form of belief held by the visitor relating to the likelihood of his/her returning to one destination within a specific time period. In the specific context of culinary experience, visitor favourable intentions are often reflected in these following behaviours: revisiting the place in the future; and giving referrals to others about the destination and the food of the destination (Chi et al., 2013; Karim et al., 2009; Ling et al., 2010; Nam & Lee, 2011).

3.4.2 Factors Influencing Visitor Dining Experience

Ryan (2011) noted that the delivery of quality visitor experiences is complex given that experiences are multi-influential and involve mobilising a variety of tourism stakeholders. According to Nickerson (2006), there are three factors influencing the quality of the tourism experience: the traveller, the product or destination, and the local population. First, the traveller visits a destination with ideas or expectations about prospective experiences. These ideas or expectations are formed by individual social constructions, perceptions derived from media, product images, preconception knowledge, and visitor past experiences. The second influential factor, described by Nickerson (2006) as the tourism product, refers to all experiences with products or services offered by tourism and hospitality business operators (such as tour operators, accommodation and food services, transportation, and attractions), as well as experiences with public sector or government services, such as information about public services. The final factor affecting the quality of the tourism experience is the local

population. This pertains to their quality of life, residents' attitudes towards tourism, and the sense of place fostered by the local population, such as host-guest social interactions (Nickerson, 2006). However, Ryan (2002) states that basically the influential factors of quality tourism experience can be grouped into two: internal and external. The internal factors are embedded inside the visitor, such as: motives, past experience, knowledge of the destination, and individual personalities; while external factors come from outside the visitor, including: the induced marketing images relating to the destination, travel activities, patterns of change at the place, and people with whom the destination is shared.

Whilst those aforementioned factors contribute to the provision of visitor experience quality in the more general tourism context, the elements within each factor might vary depending upon the context and the type of tourism experience that visitors engage with. For instance, given the fact that culinary experiences in tourist destinations can be considered to be novel, the underlying factors affecting such experiences might be unique and worthy of exploration.

3.4.2.1 Internal Factors Influencing Visitor Dining Experience

The role of internal factors in influencing visitor dining experience has been acknowledged by many scholars, ranging from the inclusion of the visitor's demographic profiles, travel characteristics and the visitor's knowledge, to the visitor's past experiences. In their seminal studies, Kim et al. (2009; 2013) conceptually and empirically investigate the underlying factors affecting visitors' local food consumption on holiday. Focusing more on holiday travellers, their study's results reveal that amongst three major influential factors, demographic variables – gender, age, education, and annual income – have consistently showed a significant effect on the holiday travellers' intention to consume local food during a holiday trip.

More specifically, the association between age and food consumption behaviours relating to dining either at the restaurant or at the particular destination setting has been the subject of discussion in plenty of academic research (Amuquandoh, 2011; Hu, Leong, Kim, Ryan, & Warde, 2008; Kim, Raab, & Bergman, 2010; Kim et al., 2009, 2013; Knutson, Beck, & Elsworth, 2006; Moschis, 2003; Moschis & Ünal, 2008; Sun &

Morrison, 2007; Warde & Martens, 2000; Westenhoefer, 2005). For instance, the study undertaken by Amuquandoh (2011) indicates that compared to older visitors, younger groups are more eager to try new eating experiences with the food in the country. To some degree, the differences are partly due to the physiological changes in bodily systems that are experienced by senior consumers. For example, older people experience a decline in the ability to taste and smell food and to distinguish stimuli presented in certain physical environments (Khan & Hackler, 1981; Moschis & Ünal, 2008; Sun & Morrison, 2007). Moschis and Ünal (2008) claim that such changes affect their responses towards various products and services including those that are travel and tourism-related.

The issue of gender has been addressed extensively in the literature, specifically in the social psychology field from the perspective of the “social role theory”, which accounts for gender differences in social behaviour (Saad & Gill, 2000). According to this theory, women and men are considered to play different roles and exhibit distinct behaviours in society based on the historical division of labour initially assigned to women as homemakers and men as full-time paid employees. Consequently, males tend to be more proactive and willing to take a risk than females (Archer, 1996). This gender socialisation has had an impact on many aspects of human life, including in consumption-related behaviour. For example, in the specific context of the tourism dining experience, Ryu and Han (2010b) propose that exploring new flavours or authentic ingredients in a local cuisine could form the perceived risk of unexpected outcomes. While male travellers are more likely to take risks in food consumption, female travellers are more likely to avoid the perceived risk of eating unfamiliar food. Ryu and Han’s study, focussed on cuisine in New Orleans in the US, confirms that gender has a significant moderating role in the relationships between visitor’s past behaviour and their behavioural intentions to experience local cuisine (Ryu & Han, 2010b). Some studies in the wine tourism area have shown similar results in regard to the significant role of gender, where males tend to be more willing to engage with wine-related experiences than females (Barber, 2009; Lee, Zhao, & Ko, 2005). However, Poria (2008) responds that despite the common use of gender in the empirical research as part of the examination of respondent demographic characteristics, the role of this variable in explaining different visitor behaviours remains inconsistent and debatable.

Respective studies conducted by Mattila (2000) and Shenoy (2005), for instance, have shown that gender differences have no effect on visitor behaviour.

The literature has also recognised the association between visitor past experience and the intention to consume local food in the destination (Kwun & Oh, 2006; Ryu & Han, 2010b; Ryu & Jang, 2006). Kwun and Oh (2006) assert that past experience strongly affects future consumption-related expectations for the same experience. Moreover, they note that experienced consumers form their expectations differently compared with first time consumers, even for the same products. This is due to their high level of familiarity with and knowledge about the local product. Similarly, Seo, Kim, Oh, and Yun (2013) affirm that having more experiences with local food can increase visitor's familiarity with the food. With reference to the concept of destination familiarity, Baloglu (2001) defined it as an integrated concept encompassing two distinct aspects: first, the amount of information used, referred to as informational familiarity; and second, previous destination experience, which is called experiential familiarity. Adopting this view, Seo et al.'s (2013) research, which focuses on the visitor's familiarity with local food at the destination, has revealed that the level of food familiarity would improve not only due to past experiences, but also dependent on the amount of available information about the local food. Visitors can search for information about local food from various sources, such as travel guidebooks and social media (Seo et al., 2013). Due to the growing influence of globalisation and the information era, today's visitors are exposed to an increasing amount of tourism related imagery in brochures, newspaper, magazines, books, film and television, as well as online (Trauer, 2006). Information media plays a role in enhancing place images and providing visitors with an opportunity to familiarise themselves with the destination before they travel. This includes information about local food in the destination (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). In their study, Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012) propose that the increased exposure to and familiarity with foreign cuisines could affect the consumption behaviours exhibited by visitors when travelling to the destination.

In addition to the preceding discussions about the role of visitor demographics, knowledge, and past experience in contributing to the overall dining experiences with local food, literature has shown that a visitor's origin, either in terms of national culture

or country of residence, also plays a significant role in the travel dining behaviour. For instance, Nield et al. (2000) argued that there are differences between international visitors from various national groups regarding the level of gastronomic experience when travelling to Australia. The investigation of the relationships between culture and tourism dining concepts has been dominated by the adoption of Hofstede's (1980) and Hofstede & Hofstede's (2005) widely known typology of culture. Viewing culture as a multi-dimensional construct, there are five universal dimensions of culture, reflected in each national culture: power distance; uncertainty avoidance; individualism-collectivism; masculinity-femininity; and short-term versus long-term orientations. In the context of culinary tourism, Kivela and Crotts (2005) focus their examination on cultural aspects of power distance and masculinity values. Their study shows that visitors of different nationalities evaluate identical services in different ways. That is, visitors from large power-distance and high-masculinity societies like Japan and Taiwan, report more satisfaction measures than those who are from small power-distance and low-masculinity societies, such as Australia, Canada, the US, and Europe. Meanwhile, Tse and Crotts (2005), in their research on the uncertainty avoidance dimension, argue that this relates to the number and range of culinary explorations while visiting a destination. Their results demonstrate that respondents from low uncertainty avoidance index countries, that is, people who are less risk-averse, such as those from North American countries, are eager to sample a greater number and diversity of culinary offerings compared with those from high uncertainty avoidance countries, such as those in Asia (Tse & Crotts, 2005). Although measuring distinct cultural dimensions, both studies confirm the importance of national culture as influential factors on how the visitor makes the decision to engage with local culinary experiences at the visited destination. That is, national culture is a construct for anticipating not only the visitors' motives, needs and expectations, but also for predicting how visitors interact with the destination they visit. Unlike previous studies, McKercher and So-Ming (2001) argue that the degree of involvement and visitors' interest in participating in cultural tourism activities, including culinary-related activities, is determined by the cultural distance. Cultural distance refers to "the extent to which the culture of the area from which the tourist originates differs from the culture of the host region" (McIntosh and Goeldner (1990) cited in McKercher & So-Ming,

2001, p. 23). The proposition behind this definition is that the greater the cultural distance between a particular origin and a visited destination, the more a visitor may wish to travel to that destination to experience extreme differences. Thus, experiencing strangeness or otherness, and the desire to learn about the other's culture is the compelling reason to visit a destination (McKercher & So-Ming, 2001).

3.4.2.2 External Factors Influencing Visitor Dining Experience

With reference to the contribution of external factors in influencing dining experiences, reviews of the relevant studies have indicated that most researchers investigating visitor dining experiences in the commercial food service establishment settings have primarily focused on three aspects, namely: food quality, service quality, and dining atmosphere. (Antun, Frash, Costen, & Runyan, 2010; Chang et al., 2011; Chao, 2010; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003).

Food quality has been widely recognised as a basic element of the overall dining experience (Raajpoot, 2002; Sulek & Hensley, 2004), regardless of which context the dining took place, either in the commercial food service or in the destination settings. For instance, Nield et al. (2000) conducted a study which examined the travel dining activities of East and West European visitors when travelling to Romania. The results revealed that variety of local dishes, attractiveness of surroundings and presentation of local food were part of the food quality factors that had the most significant influence on the overall food service experience. Extensive research has been devoted to investigating the association between food quality and consumer behaviour constructs such as satisfaction, behavioural intention, and loyalty. For example, Sulek and Hensley (2004) discovered that compared to physical environment and service quality aspects within the restaurant, food quality is the most important element in determining customer satisfaction. A study by Correia et al. (2008) identified the determinants of international visitor satisfaction with Portugal's gastronomy tourism. It revealed three significant factors: local gastronomy; atmosphere; and food quality and price as the most important determinants of visitors' satisfaction. In the context of travel dining, Chao (2010) and Yüksel & Yüksel (2003) are amongst few researchers who incorporated food hygiene attribute into food quality aspect that affects the overall quality of tourism dining experiences. Further, the significant influence of food quality

in determining future behaviours has been identified in a number of studies (Ha & Jang, 2010; Haghighi, Dorosti, Rahn timer, & Hoseinpour, 2012; Karim & Chi, 2010; Ling et al., 2010; Namkung & Jang, 2007; Ryu & Han, 2010a; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003).

Despite being broadly accepted as a significant factor that affects the overall visitor dining experiences, to date, there is no consensus as to the individual attributes that constitute the food quality aspect. This is partly due to the different contexts in which the studies have been conducted either in the commercial food service establishments such as restaurants, or in the destination settings where the visitors encounter the local food of the destination. Table 3.3 summarises the wide range of attributes used by different scholars in various study contexts and settings examining food quality.

Table 3.3 Summary of Studies Measuring Food Quality

| Researcher(s) | Attributes | Geographical setting |
|---|--|---|
| <i>Commercial Food Service Establishment Context</i> | | |
| Haghighi et al. (2012) | Tastiness, healthiness, presentation, freshness, temperature | Restaurants in Iran |
| Ha and Jang (2010) | Taste, healthy food portion, menu variety, food options | Korean ethnic restaurants in the US |
| Ryu and Han (2010a) | Taste, nutrition, food presentation | Western food (QSR) |
| Namkung and Jang (2007) | Taste, healthy food options, food presentation, freshness, menu variety, food temperature | Mid-upper scale restaurants in the US |
| Verbeke and Lopez (2005) | Taste, healthiness, safety, spiciness, convenience, food colour, food appeal, price | Ethnic foods in Belgium |
| Raajpoot (2002) | Food presentation, food serving size, food variety, menu design | Restaurants |
| <i>Tourism Dining in the Destination Context</i> | | |
| Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012) | Sensory attributes (taste, freshness), food content, methods of preparation and cooking, food/cuisine type, food availability, and price, value, and quality | Tourism dining in the destination |
| Chao (2010) | Taste, healthy food, hygiene, authenticity, freshness, variety | Local food selection in Lukang, Taiwan |
| Karim and Chi (2010) | Taste, quality of food, food originality, food presentation, cooking methods, food variety | 3 different cuisines (Thai, French & Italian) |
| Correia et al. (2008) | Food originality and exoticness, food presentation, and local courses | Gastronomy experience in Lisbon, Portugal |
| Yüksel and Yüksel (2003) | Food quality (portions, taste, temperature, presentation, ingredients), hygiene, adventurous menu, and healthy food | International visitors in Turkey |
| Nield et al. (2000) | Food quality, food presentation, variety of dishes | Food & beverage in restaurants in Romania |

Given that the core of the tourism industry lies in service, in addition to food quality, service quality appears to be the major element in influencing the overall dining experiences. The concept of service quality is defined as the ability of products or services to perform tasks. Quality is assessed by how well the products or services satisfy customers' needs (Gronroos, 1984). Service quality is the measurement of quality applied to service products. It has been one of the most prominent topics within the services marketing field. It is argued that measuring the quality of a service differs from measuring the quality of a product, due to the characteristics of service which are intangible, inseparable, variable and perishable (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 2010). In regards to these characteristics, service quality is more about measuring the subjective perceptions of customers. Researchers have suggested that actual quality is calculated from the expectation of customers and their experience with the service (Gronroos, 1984; Lockyer, 2005).

Zeithaml and Bitner (2002) defined service quality as "the customer's judgment of the overall excellence or superiority of the service". It is the customer's subjective evaluation formed by comparing expectations and perceived performance. Based on this gap, Parasuraman et al. (1988) developed a "Service Quality" (SERVQUAL) instrument to measure service quality. It comprises five dimensions, namely: reliability; responsiveness; empathy; assurance; and tangibles. Since it was developed, numerous studies have applied SERVQUAL to the assessment of service quality in various settings, including in the hospitality and tourism area.

Various researchers have measured service quality in the context of food service. It was Stevens, Knutson, and Patton (1995) who first adopted Parasuraman et al.'s (1988) five SERVQUAL dimensions and develop "Dining Service" (DINESERV) instrument. The first element of DINESERV is tangibles, which relates to a restaurant's physical design, the appearance and the cleanliness of staff. Second, reliability involves the freshness and temperature of the food, accurate billing and receiving the food that has been ordered. Next is responsiveness, which refers to staff assistance with the menu or wine list or appropriate and prompt responses to customer needs and requests. Assurance is the fourth element of DINESERV, which is described as the ability of restaurant staff to build customer trust, ensuring them that the food is safe and that good service will be

provided. Finally, empathy refers to an ability to provide personalised attention to customers by anticipating special requirements or by being sympathetic towards customer problems (Markovic, Raspor, & Segaric, 2010). DINESERV has been widely used to examine customer perceptions of restaurant service quality. However, it is argued that its use only focuses exclusively on the restaurant service performance, without any assessment of expectations (Antun et al., 2010).

Following the discussions of food quality and service quality factors, the contribution of physical environment or dining atmosphere to dining expectation formation has been recognised by several researchers (Lockyer, 2005; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Wall & Berry, 2007). Ha and Jang (2010), for instance, assert that physical environments have the ability to affect customer expectations just before they experience the performance of service personnel and the food. Bitner (1992), who prefers to use the term *servicescapes* than physical environment, describes three dimensions which represent servicescapes: ambient conditions; spatial layout and functionality; and signs, symbols, and artefacts. Whereas the ambient conditions relate to intangible backgrounds, such as music and lighting; spatial layout and functionality refers to the arrangement of machinery, equipment and furniture in the service place. Meanwhile, signs, symbols, and artefacts are linked with the explicit or implicit communication materials. Ryu and Jang (2008) adopted Bitner's (1992) SERVICESCAPES model to develop their own DINESCAPE model. This incorporates six dimensions of the physical dining environment: aesthetics; lighting; ambience; layout; dining equipment; and service employees.

Raajpoot (2002) is one of a number of scholars who debate the reliability of the SERVQUAL and DINESERV instruments for their ignorance of the tangible quality aspects. Addressing such limitations, Raajpoot (2002) introduced "Tangible Service" (TANGSERV) which is seen as an expansion of SERVQUAL and DINESERV. It incorporates tangible quality clues consisting of three major dimensions. First, food product, which constitutes food presentation, food serving size, menu design, and food variety; second, ambience, which comprises light, crowding, music, and dining room temperature; and last, restaurant layout/design, which includes decorations, building design, dining room size, seating arrangements, and restaurant location. In addition, the

TANGSERV instrument also focuses on the important role of tangible quality on overall perceptions of restaurant quality and behavioural intentions (Raajpoot, 2002).

Table 3.4 provides a summary of previous studies that have been dedicated to examining the role of physical environment on dining experience quality.

Table 3.4 Summary of Studies Measuring Dimensions Related to Physical Dining Environment

| Authors | Terminology used | Dimension |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2013) | SERVESCAPES | Equipment Design Space Ambience Hygiene |
| Ha and Jang (2012) | Dining atmospherics | Interior design Music Layout |
| Correia et al. (2008) | Atmosphere | Ethnic decoration Decoration Modern music Lighting Entertainment |
| Ryu and Jang (2008) | DINESCAPE | Facility aesthetics Ambience Lighting Table settings Layout Service staff |
| Raajpoot (2002) | TANGSERV | Ambient factors Design factors Product/service factors |
| Wakefield and Blodgett (1996) | Tangible service factors | Building design and décor Equipment Ambience |
| Stevens, Knutson, and Patton (1995) | DINESERV | Reliability Responsiveness Empathy Assurance Tangibility |
| Bitner (1992) | SERVESCAPES | Ambient conditions Spatial layout and functionality Sign, symbol, and artefacts |

The foregoing discussion supports the important role of physical environment and atmosphere in providing comfort and satisfaction to diners, and the consequent effect on behavioural intentions. In the context of travel dining, the role of food is fundamental for providing physical sustenance and eating is a compulsory activity undertaken by all travellers regardless of their purpose of visiting (Sparks et al., 2004). Henderson (2009)

argued that visitors will engage in some forms of dining experience during their travel. Not all visitors dine exclusively in hotels or restaurants. In fact, some might consume cooked and/or uncooked foods that are purchased from regular convenience stores, and some like eating out at street food stalls. Since eating facilities are recognised as a core tourism product, food and beverage establishments in many tourism destinations are designed specifically to cater to visitor needs and preferences (Henderson, 2009). Accordingly, the provision of memorable food experiences during travels cannot be separated from the quality of the food service establishments. The role of food quality has been increasingly recognised as a primary resource, attracting visitation to destinations in search of unique food experiences (Smith, Costello, & Muenchen, 2010). Kivela and Crotts (2005) asserted that one of the key functions of the destination's foodservice industries is the provision of dining experiences and feelings that each visitor believe they should be having while on holiday or while travelling. Pendergast (2006) pointed out that dining experiences which occur either at restaurants or at hawker food stalls can be highly influential in stimulating feelings of involvement and place attachment. This may be a positive or a negative experience depending upon the quality of food and service that is received.

Remarkably, the demand for street or hawker food is growing and is seen by visitors as an alternative way for them to engage with culinary experiences (Henderson et al., 2012). As noted by Choi, Lee, and Ok (2013), food hawker stalls, which are more prominent in some countries, are an interesting component of tourism and hospitality industries and are developed and promoted as tourism attractions. These include hawker centres in Singapore, night markets in Taiwan, street stalls in Korea, and *yatai*, which means mobile food stalls in Japan (Choi et al., 2013). Choi et al.'s study shows that hawker food and the overall hawker centre dining experience are of appeal to both domestic and international visitors. Tinker (1997) claimed that street foods represent traditional local cultures with various types of authentic cuisines being offered to visitors. Street food vendors and the diverse foods they offer have become cultural icons and tourist attractions. A few of the well-established street food trades represent different cultural food traditions. Consequently, encountering local food experiences in hawker stalls can be considered a unique physical dining environment, influencing the overall dining experience when travelling in one destination.

Antun et al. (2010) argued that the three major aspects that have been previously discussed (food quality, service quality, and physical dining environment) may not fully capture all the issues which are important to diners. Other factors that contribute to the customer dining experience have also been explored. Literature has shown that eating out is not just to fulfil physiological needs, but also to satisfy social needs (Boniface, 2003). Evidence suggests an association of social aspects with dining experiences. Rosenbaum (2006) discovered that diners' companionship and social connectedness are positively related to re-visitation intentions and loyalty in particular types of restaurants. People will visit one restaurant over another to find a sense of social connectedness. Instead of focusing on the role of other diners, Wall and Berry (2007) highlighted the significant impact of employees on the expectations generated towards dining experiences. However, Antun et al. (2010) argue that social aspects of the dining experience, including service personnel and other customers in food service establishments, have been largely ignored in most research. Previous studies on the role of social aspects are mostly associated with customer perceptions, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions (Raajpoot, 2002; Rosenbaum, 2006; Ryu & Jang, 2007).

Along with the emergence of culinary tourism, visitor expectations on travel dining could be influenced by food cultural values, previous dining experiences in other destinations, the dining experiences of others and/or recommendations, as well as restaurant/destination marketing activities (Chang et al., 2011). Studies on travel dining experience have extended beyond the three quality constructs. In the context of the dining experience with ethnic foods, either in their home country or while overseas, customer or tourist expectations about the physical dining environment are mostly associated with cultural aspects (Chang et al., 2011). These may include authenticity such as authentic taste, presentation, way of cooking and/or eating, hygiene and freshness of ingredients used, as well as the décor (Batra, 2008; Jinkyung Choi & Zhao, 2010; George, 2000; Ha & Jang, 2010; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). For instance, Ha and Jang's (2010) findings indicate that atmospherics play a significant moderating role which can change the degree of impact of perceived quality on consumption behaviours before a customer experiences the service and food in ethnic restaurants.

There has been significant discussion within the literature about the need for authenticity and the nature of the local food products that is being offered to visitors. However, previous research has indicated that issues concerning the authenticity of food, service, and/or dining environment appear to be more significant when customers engage in dining experiences at ethnic restaurants (Camarena, Sanjuán, & Philippidis, 2011; 2010; Jang, Liu, & Namkung, 2011; Verbeke & Lopez, 2005). Ebster and Guist (2004), cited in Su (2011), described ethnic restaurants as offering dishes that are unfamiliar in a particular locality, namely a foreign food. The ethnic restaurant is considered to be the most common form of themed restaurant. Many are owned by individuals who have their roots in a culture that is different from what is prevalent in the restaurant's geographic location. Jang et al. (2011) examined customer perceptions of authentic atmospherics in Chinese restaurants in the US. The attributes they presented to measure atmosphere authenticity included: menu presentation; table settings; furnishings; paintings; and music. Their results indicate that three attributes - menu presentation, furnishings, and music - significantly influenced customer emotions during the dining experience (Jang et al., 2011).

In contrast, for visitors who are on trips to a particular destination, aspects related to food culture and authenticity mostly appear when they encounter local or traditional food dining experiences (Chang et al., 2011; Jalis et al., 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010; Karim et al., 2009). Karim et al.'s (2009) research conducted on Western traveller perceptions of Malaysian gastronomy, illustrates that traveller perceptions of dining experiences and satisfaction are not merely determined by dining atmosphere but also by the authenticity and uniqueness of the food, such as taste, cooking methods, and appearance. Chang et al. (2011) argue that empirical studies about tourist travel dining behaviours have been very limited. Further, there is a notable knowledge gap about attributes affecting how tourists evaluate their travel dining experiences, particularly when the service provider and the tourist do not share a common culture. Acknowledging this gap, they applied a narrative approach to investigate the experience of Asian tourists while holidaying in Australia, revealing six attributes influencing the evaluation of travel dining experience. These are: the tourist's own food culture or food habits; the contextual factor of the dining experience, such as the authenticity of the local food consumed; the variety and diversity of food available; perceptions of the

visiting destination; service encounters; and the tour guide's performance, such as providing information about local food (Chang et al., 2011).

Meanwhile, Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012), in their conceptual study, proposed three factors affecting the consumption of food-related travel: the tourist; the food in the destination; and the destination environment. Components of the destination food factor include food sensory attributes, food content, methods of preparation and cooking, food or cuisine type, food availability, and food price/value. The destination environment factor involves gastronomic image, marketing communications, contextual influences, service encounters, servicescapes, and seasonality. Whilst the food in the destination and the destination environment represent external factors, the tourist-related factors are internal. Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012) regarded tourist-related factors as not only socio-demographic, but also cultural or religious, as well as food-related personality traits, exposure or past experience, and the visitor's motivation. The incorporation of three elements in Mak et al.'s (2012) model offers a clear guideline for investigating the underlying factors pertaining to visitor's local food experiences at a destination.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a critical review of the literature with reference to visitor experience and tourism dining, particularly with local food in the destination. Three gaps have been identified throughout this review. First, it appears that only a few studies in the area of tourism experience that have a specific focus on investigating the visitor encounter with dining on local food of the visited destination. Second, there has been no systematic research that adopts the conceptual approach of the three stages of tourism experience (pre-, during and after). This provides the rationale for this study to develop an improved understanding of visitor dining behaviour in a more comprehensive way. Third, the gap analysis that was conducted on the previous visitor experience models and frameworks exposed shortcomings. To date, no conceptual framework has incorporated the multi-stages, multi-influences, and multi-outcomes of the visitor experience in the culinary tourism context.

This chapter also provided a review of the major constructs that are relevant to assisting the development of the proposed conceptual framework. These are: the dimension of visitor experience (the experience stages) and the influential factors of dining experience; and dining-related experiential outcomes (expectations, perceptions, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions). Along with the literature review provided in Chapter 2, the discussion in this chapter formed the basis for achieving the first objective of this research – to develop a conceptual framework. These relationships are shown in Figure 3.5. The conceptual framework is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

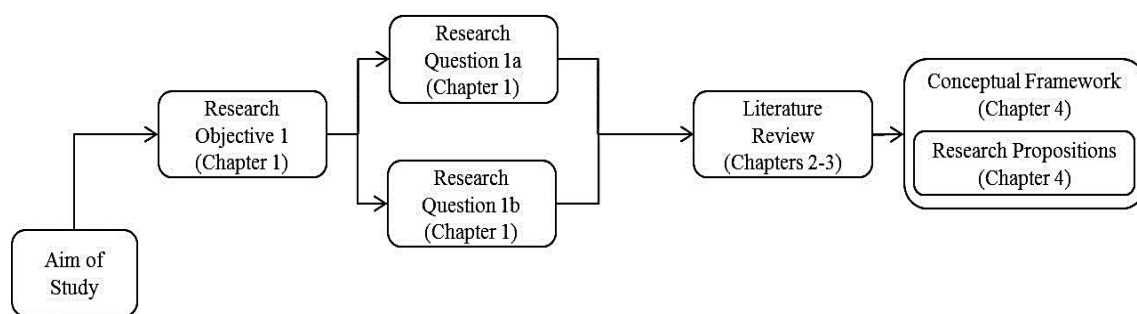


Figure 3.5 Linkages Between Conceptual Framework Development and Other Components of Research Framework (Extract of Figure 1.1)

Chapter 4

Conceptual Framework

4.0 Introduction

A review of the literature, as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, has noted the relative paucity in academic research relating the multi-stages, multi-influential, and multi-outcomes of the local dining experience. The first objective of this research was to develop a comprehensive conceptual framework for examining international visitor dining experience with local food in the context of visited destination. Meeting this objective and addressing the research gaps is the focus of discussion in this chapter.

4.1 Rationale

According to Veal (2011), the development of a conceptual framework is the most important part of any research project and also the most difficult. Although conceptual frameworks are widely used in tourism research, there is no common and consistently used definition for this term (Pearce, 2012). Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 18) described it as follows:

A conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things being studied – the key factors, constructs or variables – and the presumed relationship among them. Frameworks can be rudimentary or elaborate, theory-driven or commonsensical, descriptive or causal.

Shields and Tajalli (2006) highlighted the connective function of a conceptual framework between the research problems and the observed data. They explained that once the problems are identified at the beginning of the research, the students then have to review the literature to find the relevant theory set as a basis for addressing the problems appropriately. The conceptual framework is built upon the premise and practice of a careful, thoughtful, and reflective review of the literature.

Basically, a conceptual framework is composed of concepts and the relationships between these concepts. These relationships may be expressed as hypotheses or propositions (Pearce, 2012). Zikmund, Carr, Griffin, Babin, and Carr (2010), distinguished between propositions and hypotheses. The former are the statements that provide the logical linkages between concepts whilst the latter are the empirical counterparts of propositions and are testable using variables. It is therefore suggested by Jabareen (2009) to use the term *framework* instead of *model* since the latter usually describes relationships amongst variables as a reflection of the quantitative analysis that requires hypotheses testing. Rather than offering a theoretical explanation like those in quantitative models, a conceptual framework provides an understanding and interpretative approach to social reality (Jabareen, 2009).

The utilisation of a conceptual framework depends upon the type of research being undertaken. For example, when used in descriptive or exploratory research, conceptual frameworks are usually less elaborate or well developed than those employed in explanatory, confirmatory, and evaluative research (Veal, 2011). For research which applies to particular forms of tourism such as ecotourism or food tourism, the development of a conceptual framework will help the researcher in various ways: to conceptualise a particular phenomenon; to situate the research being undertaken; and to communicate how the researcher conceives that particular form of tourism. This, in turn, will determine the data to be collected and shape the way in which the analysis will be conducted (Pearce, 2012).

Having discussed the rationale for developing a conceptual framework, a proposed conceptual framework for this particular study is depicted in Figure 4.1 below. It is based on the foregoing review of previous visitor experience models and frameworks

within the tourism literature and those which specifically pertain to visitor travel dining contexts.

4.2 Visitor Dining Experience Framework Development

The proposed framework characterises the complex nature of visitor experience, as described by Ryan (2011) as multi-phases, multi-influential, and multi-outcomes. In accordance with Larsen's (2007) view, the visitor dining experiences is assessed as an accumulated and circulating process of: expectations before the actual dining; perceptions during the dining course; and satisfaction after the actual dining. These three aspects would accumulate and create visitors' overall assessment and feelings toward the local dining experiences, which in turn, would influence visitors' expectations for the next dining experience.

The framework is an adaptation of components of Knutson, Beck, Kim, and Cha's (2010) three stages of experience, of Woodside and Dubelaar's (2002) internal factor of visitor experience, of Cutler and Carmichael's (2010), and Yuan's (2009) influential external factors of visitor experience, and of Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al.'s (2012) influential factors of visitor food consumption. Thus, as illustrated in Figure 4.1, the conceptual framework consists of three major components of the visitor dining experience as follows:

- Stages of the visitor dining experience
- Influential factors of dining experiences with local food
- The outcomes of experience at each stage of dining

The review in Chapter 3 has indicated that in the culinary tourism context to date, there is no conceptual framework developed that has incorporated the multi-stages, multi-influences, and multi-outcomes of the visitor experience when encountering local food of the visited destination. Whilst developing such a framework is the objective of this study, however, it is important to note that the proposed conceptual framework should be viewed as explorative and descriptive in nature rather than explanative.

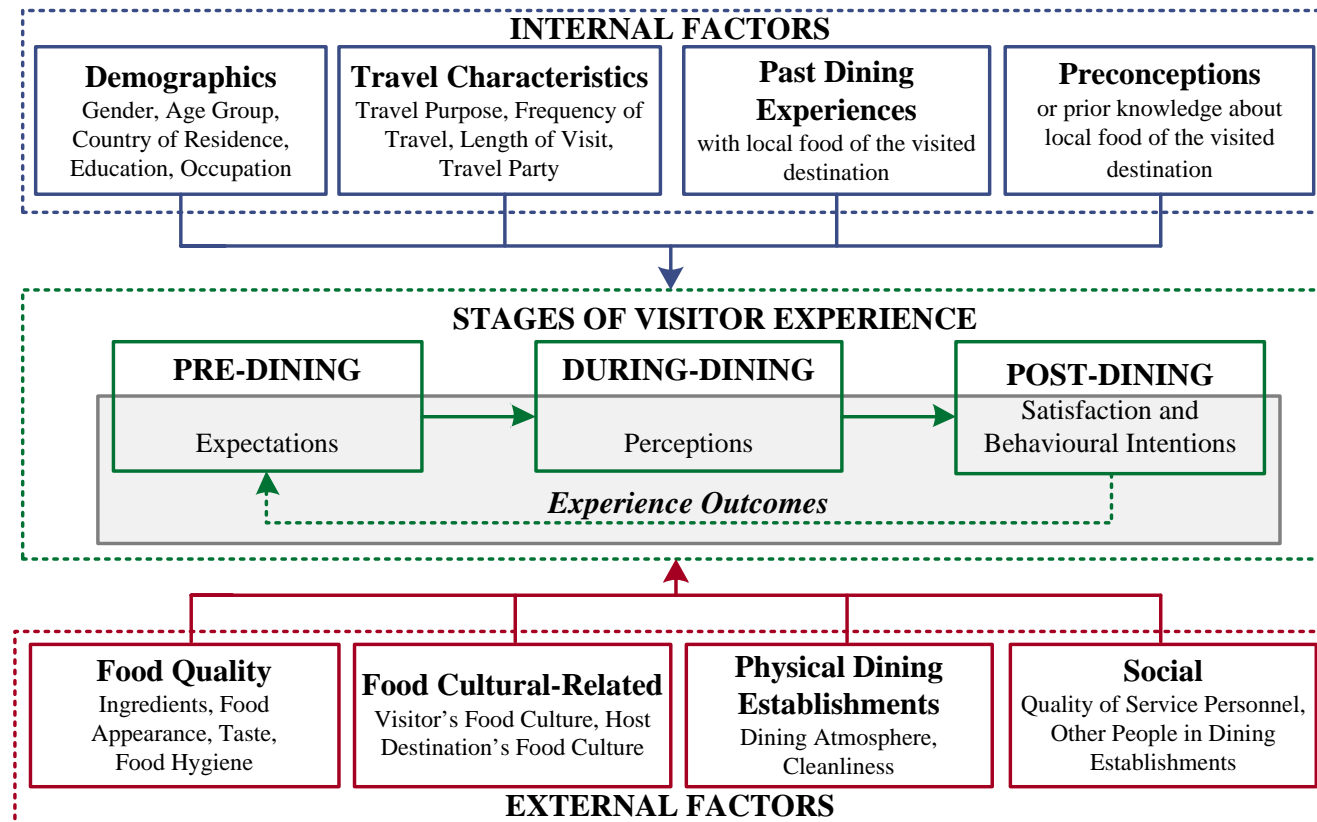


Figure 4.1 International Visitor Dining Experiences with Local Food: Proposed Conceptual Framework

Adapted from Cutler and Carmichael (2010); Knutson et al. (2010); Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012); Woodside and Dubelaar (2002); and Yuan (2009)

Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 provide further explanation about each component of the proposed conceptual framework, including the propositions developed to demonstrate the significance of the study and the framework in particular.

4.2.1 Stages and Outcomes of the Visitor Dining Experience

Within the proposed framework above, the multi-phase experiences are represented in three sequential related dining stages experienced by international visitors. Adapting Woodside and Dubelaar's (2002) TCS theory, the framework acknowledges that the thoughts, emotions, and behaviour that evolve from one stage of the dining experience would affect the thoughts, emotions, and behaviour that emerge at subsequent dining stages. Each stage of dining along with its anticipated experience outcomes is now discussed.

4.2.1.1 Pre-dining Experience Stage

This stage refers to how international visitors might foresee their engagement with local food prior to the actual dining experiences in the destination. Pre-dining encompasses expectations that the visitors have about various aspects pertaining to dining with local food, as well as the likelihood of experiential outcomes pertaining to it. According to Zeithaml and Bitner (2002), expectations are defined as desires or wants of customers, in particular, what they believe a service provider should offer. In the tourism context, Fluker and Turner (2000) delineate expectations as the perceived likelihood that a particular act would be followed by a particular outcome. Visitors make decisions based on certain expected outcomes and their reactions to outcomes are in part influenced by what they initially expected (Dickson & Hall, 2006).

A considerable number of studies have explored the relationship between expectations and visitor behaviour and experiences (Del Bosque et al., 2009; Fluker & Turner, 2000; Gnoth, 1997; Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2009; Sheng & Chen, 2012; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). Gnoth (1997) claims managing visitors' expectations is extremely important since expectations can significantly influence the visitors' choice process and perceptions of destination experience, which in turn, affect the visitors' overall satisfaction.

Given that eating plays an integral role in travel, visitors expect that their food-related experiences within the destination will be enjoyable and memorable (Kivela & Crotts, 2009), regardless of the primacy of culinary experiences as travel motivator. This therefore indicates the critical role of selecting an effective measurement to allow the researcher to make an accurate identification of visitor dining expectations.

In their evaluation of the measurement of expectations, Dickson and Hall (2006) propose two alternative approaches: first, conducted before the experience and second, after/post the experience or the retrospective recall. In aggregate, more studies have relied on retrospective recall than have measured expectations at the time of their formulation. Under the retrospective recall approach, the timing for assessing the expectations is undertaken after the experience is over, assuming that participants are still capable of recalling accurately and reporting their expectations, even after a considerable time has passed (Dickson & Hall, 2006). However, such an approach is subject to critique on the basis of validity since people's ability to recall events, feelings, time periods, expectations, or preferences, is sometimes deficient or perhaps prone to exaggeration (Noe & Uysal, 1997).

Considering the limitations of the retrospectivity approach, the framework in this thesis proposes that the measurement of visitor dining expectations is conducted prior to actual visitor encounters with local food consumption in the destination. On this basis, visitors should be questioned shortly after their arrival at the destination, though prior to dining with local food. This process is crucial for ensuring that visitor responses about their dining expectations with local food are free of bias from their perceptions of the actual dining activity during their current visit.

A number of researchers have attempted to develop assessment instruments to identify the most important expectations of restaurant patrons. The literature review in Chapter 3 has shown that previous studies have pointed to aspects related to food quality as the major contributor to the consumers' dining expectation (Sulek & Hensley, 2004). However, during the last decades, research on dining expectation has expanded beyond food quality and service quality. The contribution of physical environment or dining atmosphere to dining expectation has been acknowledged by several researchers, such as Lockyer (2005), Sulek and Hensley (2004), and Wall and Berry (2007).

As discussed in Section 3.4.2.2, in the context of the dining experience with ethnic foods, either in their home country or in an overseas destination, visitor expectations about the physical dining environment are mostly associated with cultural aspects (Chang et al., 2011; Batra, 2008; Jinkyung Choi & Zhao, 2010; George, 2000; Ha & Jang, 2010; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). Chapter 3 also discussed the association of eating with social aspects (Gibbs & Ritchie, 2010; Morgan, Watson, & Hemmington, 2008; Rosenbaum, 2006). Wall and Berry (2007) have highlighted the significant impact of employees on the expectations generated towards dining experiences.

4.2.1.2 During-dining Experience Stage

This stage relates to the actual encounters with the local food that occur at the destination. It focuses on the perceived quality of the visitor's dining experience. According to Parasuraman et al. (1988), perceived quality is defined as a form of overall evaluation, a global judgment, or an attitude toward purchasing products. It occurs after a comparison between expectations and actual perceptions of performance. Parasuraman et al. (1988) indicate that perceived quality is a highly subjective and relativistic phenomenon that varies depending on who is assessing the product or service. Despite its subjectivity, Yuan and Wu (2008) argue that there is a close relationship between expectations and perceptions concerning the quality of products and services, hence, assessing customers' perceived understanding of quality cannot be undertaken without measuring expectations of quality. On this basis, ***Proposition 1*** is stated as follow:

Visitor expectations of dining experiences with local food influence visitor perceived quality of dining experiences with local food.

In addition, the perceived quality of the dining experience with local food in the proposed framework is viewed on the basis of two dimensions: visitor cognition (thoughts) and emotions (feelings), as adapted from Yuan (2009). Cognition arises as a result of all of the relevant dining-related information that is transmitted to the conscious mind through the senses, for instance, what visitors think about the local food that they see, smell, taste, and touch. By contrast, emotion involves visitor affective responses, such as excitement, joy, surprise, disappointment that are evoked during the course of dining experiences.

4.2.1.3 Post-dining Experience Stage

This stage refers to all of the experiences after dining, which is reflected in visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The literature shows that there are two ways to measure satisfaction, namely transaction-specific and cumulative aspects (Yuan & Wu, 2008). The transaction-specific perspective sees satisfaction as how consumers assess the value that they gain after completing a transaction (Oliver, 1977). The cumulative perspective aligns with the essence of the experience concept and acknowledges consumer expectations and/or experiences that have occurred prior to consumption as part of the whole experience. This ultimately affects the level of satisfaction at, during and after the process of experiencing consumption (Berry et al., 2002). Satisfaction is commonly viewed as an indicator of the quality of an experience (Ryan, 2002). Ryan further affirms that a satisfactory experience involves congruence between expectations and performance, whereas dissatisfaction is reflective of a gap between expectations and the perceived quality of the tourism consumption experience. At the post-dining stage, the proposed framework also examines future behavioural intentions as another outcome of dining experiences. They include the intention to consume local food during future visits to the destination, as well as the willingness to recommend dining experiences involving the local food to others. In light of this view, **Proposition 2** is stated as follow:

Visitor perceptions of dining experiences with local food influence the overall dining satisfaction and visitor future behavioural intentions.

Additionally, adopting Larsen's (2007) argument that visitor experience is a circulating process of expectations, perceptions, and memories, the proposed framework in this study also views local dining as a circular process of various experience outcomes that occur at each stage of dining. Therefore, **Proposition 3** is formulated as below:

Visitor experiences at the post-dining stage will influence visitor expectations toward dining on local food activities in the future.

Furthermore, the sequential nature of dining experience stages proposed in Figure 4.1 above provides a methodological implication in terms of the operationalisation of the framework. As described in Section 4.2.1.1, the examination of visitor expectations is

taken prior to the engagement in the actual dining experience during current visitation at the destination to ensure freedom from bias. Also, to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the various experiences at all dining stages, the research participants involved in three dining stages should be the same. That is, those who are questioned about their perceptions of the actual dining and their level of satisfaction after dining, should be those who had been approached to discuss their expectations prior to dining on local food. Such an approach creates not only a holistic understanding of the local dining experiences, but also allows the complexities surrounding the experiences to emerge and be explored more precisely. Methodologically speaking, this would improve the accuracy of the data collected.

4.2.2 Influential Factors of the Visitor Dining Experience

As apparent in Figure 4.1, the proposed framework encompasses both internal and external factors in influencing international visitor dining experiences involving local food. The review of the literature in Section 3.4.2.1 has highlighted the role of individual internal characteristics in shaping tourism dining experiences (Hong, Morrison, & Cai, 1996; Kim et al., 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al., 2012; Mattila, 2000; Shenoy, 2005; Tse & Crotts, 2005). For instance, Kim et al. (2009) reveal that visitor's demographic factors, such as gender, age, and education, significantly influence the visitors' consumption of local food. On the other hand, groups of scholars like Kwun and Oh (2006), Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012), and Ryu and Jang (2006) argue that in addition to demographic characteristics, visitor past experiences and gastronomic images held in the visitor's mind should also be considered as essential elements affecting visitor dining experiences with local food.

To identify visitor demographic profiles, the attributes, such as gender, age, and country of residence or nationality are proposed. Meanwhile, travel characteristics could be measured based on prevalent attributes like purpose of travel, frequency of visits, length of visit, and composition of the travel party. Further, visitor preconceptions about local food refers to the level of knowledge about local food that has been sourced by the visitor through various means. Given this view, **Proposition 4** is formulated as follows:

Visitor dining experiences with local food in the destination are influenced by internal factors involving socio-demographics, travel characteristics, past experiences, and visitor preconceptions or prior knowledge about local food of the visited destination.

As mentioned previously by Ryan (2011), the quality of experience is affected by factors that are external to the visitors as well as by the internal characteristics of the visitors. The proposed framework groups the external factors influencing dining experiences with local food into four, namely: food quality; food cultural-related; physical dining; and social aspects.

First, with respect to the food quality aspect, the literature has shown a wide range of attributes measuring food quality. These vary from food presentation or appearance, taste, food health-related characteristics, food quantity and variety (Chao, 2010; Ha & Jang, 2010; Jang, Ha, & Silkes, 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010; Namkung & Jang, 2007, 2008; Raajpoot, 2002; Ryu & Han, 2010b). Sulek and Hensley (2004) argued that food quality is one of the most important elements of the dining experience. Correia et al. (2008) and Namkung and Jang (2007), also investigated the associations between food quality and consumer behaviour concepts like satisfaction, behavioural intention, and loyalty. Besides the aforementioned studies, the attributes for measuring the food quality aspects in this study were partially adopted from Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al. (2012), including food ingredients, food appearance, and the taste of the food.

Cohen and Avieli (2004) advocated that for some international visitors, eating local food can be an impediment when travelling, especially when the destination has a culinary culture that is quite distinct from that in their home environment. For this group, named by Fischler (1988) as the food neophobic group, issues, such as food hygiene, “strange” food ingredients and unfamiliar tastes, can constrain them from trying the local food (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). In contrast to this group, other visitors, called food neophilics, are more open to searching for novel and even strange dishes (Fischler, 1988). Amongst this group, seeking local food becomes a push motivator for visiting a particular destination (Tikkanen, 2007). Experiences of eating the local food allow them to learn a new culture through coming into contact with local residents, eating like the locals, and exploring new cuisines that they are unlikely to encounter at

home (Fields, 2002; Hegarty & O'Mahony, 2001). In addition, Beer (2008) highlighted the role of authenticity in influencing the visitor dining experience with local food. As Pratt (2007) stated, the concept of authenticity evokes a range of meanings such as original, genuine, real, true, true to itself. When applied to food, it refers to a quality attributed to a range of cuisines that are specific to a particular location. Beyond this, authenticity refers to the story and meaning pertaining to the place and culture of the food that is embedded as a representation of the culture. Indeed, in many cases, for the food neophilic group, it is the stories behind the food, such as the origins of a particular ethnic food, which could have greater appeal than the food itself (Morgan et al., 2008). Accordingly, the visitors can gain a truly authentic cultural experience (Okumus et al., 2007), as well as a more satisfying form of engagement with the local people and places (Pratt, 2007). Given the intensity of cultural interactions that the international visitors would experience when dining with local food, it is imperative to incorporate the food cultural-related aspects, such as methods of cooking and ways of eating, food authenticity, and food familiarity in the proposed framework.

Pendergast (2006) highlighted that dining activities undertaken by international visitors at various dining establishments can stimulate various feelings of involvement and place attachment, depending upon the quality of food and service provision. Similarly, Sparks et al. (2003) argued that both food and the physical environment are showcases for culture and can influence the overall destination experience by forming connections with the host culture. Cutler and Carmichael (2010) also suggested that the physical aspects of visitor experience should include spatial and place-based elements. In the service context, this often refers to the concept of servicescapes, which means the physical environment that influences perceptions of service (Bitner, 1992). Meanwhile, the atmosphere of the foodservice is defined as the “individual emotional total experience throughout the entire meal including social experience, comfort, and intimacy” (Hansen, Jensen, & Gustafsson, 2005, p. 145). As shown in Figure 4.1, the physical dining aspect refers to: the dining atmosphere; and the cleanliness of the physical dining environment.

The aforementioned discussion has indicated the salient role of food quality, food culture-related, and physical dining aspects. Thus, they are incorporated as external

factors affecting the dining experience on local food at each stage. In addition to these aspects, the literature has noted that the provision of memorable dining experiences is also determined by the capacity of the staff providing the service and delivering the food. For instance, Gibbs and Ritchie (2010) revealed that the capacity of the staff providing the service and delivering the food is considered as one key determinant of the provision of memorable dining experiences. Likewise, Wall and Berry (2007) highlighted the significant impact of employee quality on customer expectations towards dining experiences. There has been growing attention in the literature as to the importance of dining experience as a means of fulfilling visitor social needs when they travel to a destination (Antun et al., 2010; Batra, 2008; Ignatov & Smith, 2006; Kim & Lee, 2012). Ignatov and Smith (2006), for example, revealed that spending time with family and friends is a significant reason for choosing to eat local food in a destination setting. Similarly, Kim and Lee (2012) also highlighted the significant role of other customers as a part of the social aspect in shaping visitor dining expectations. Given this view, both the interactions with service personnel and with other people, such as friends, family, and local people in the dining establishment, are considered to be key social aspects and are incorporated within the framework as external influential factors of the visitor dining experiences. Based on the foregoing discussion, **Proposition 5** is formulated as below:

Visitor dining experiences with local food in the destination are influenced by external factors including food quality, food cultural-related, physical dining establishment, and social aspects.

4.3 Chapter Summary

Built upon the comprehensive review of the literature presented in Chapters 2 and 3, the conceptual framework proposed in this chapter represents the achievement of the first objective of this research. The proposed framework has offered a comprehensive approach to the established literature on the visitor dining experiences. It has acknowledged the complex nature of dining experiences and the different general experiential outcomes of visitor encounters with local food ranging from expectation, perception, to satisfaction. Nevertheless, the conceptual framework does not examine

internal psychological processes in much detail. Rather, it has depicted the relationships between major concepts of culinary tourism, food culture, and visitor dining behaviour. These concepts are interrelated and such relationships are expressed in the forms of five propositions formulated in this chapter.

The proposed conceptual framework however, is not all-encompassing. Further empirical investigation, which is established as the second objective of this research, is needed to assess the applicability of the framework in explaining the complexities and relationships of the various elements involved with visitor dining experiences on local food. To achieve this, the research propositions are used as a basis for shaping the methodological design of the empirical investigation. This is discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Research Methodology

5.0 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to discussing the methodological approach and the design of the empirical research undertaken in this study. It is focussed on the second objective of the research, which is to assess the applicability of the proposed conceptual framework as and the five propositions that emanate from it. The empirical research aims to address three research questions (2a, 2b, and 2c) associated with that research objective, as depicted in Figure 5.1.

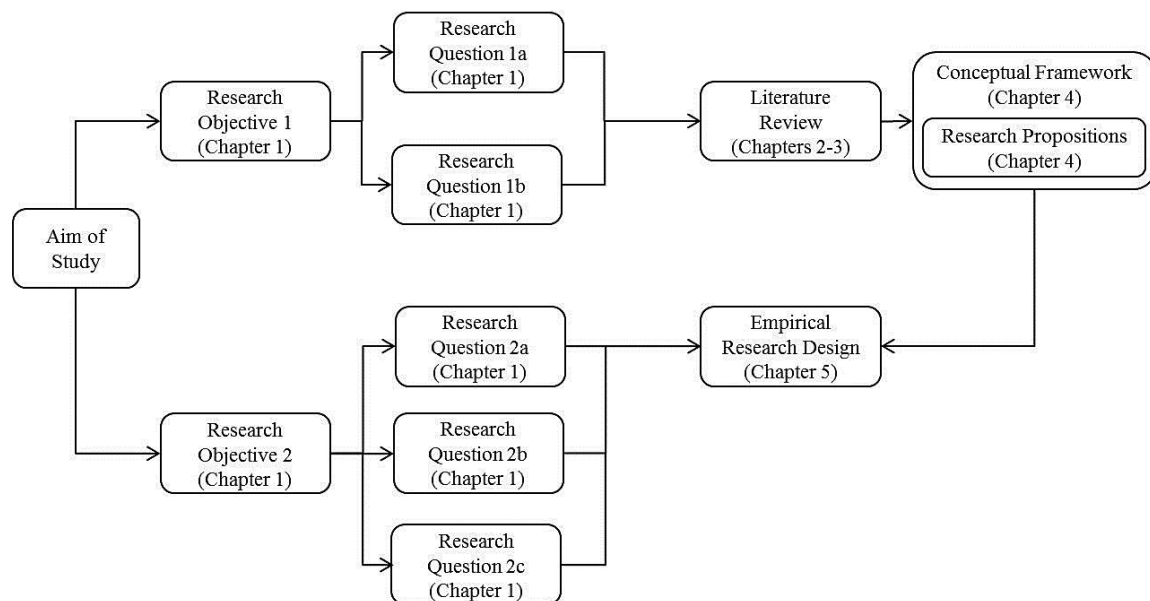


Figure 5.1 Linkages Between Research Methodology Design and Other Components of Research Framework (Extract of Figure 1.1)

The discussion in this chapter is divided into four sections. The first section provides a description of the research paradigm that underpins the research process, including the rationale behind the selection of the paradigm. The second and the third sections respectively illustrate in more detail the planning and the implementation of the quantitative and the qualitative studies. The last section presents the ethical considerations taken into account as part of the accountability of the research.

5.1 Methodological Rationale and Strategy

5.1.1 Research Paradigm

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), a paradigm is a set of fundamental beliefs and principles that influence how researchers view their world and construct their behaviours. Having an understanding of the research paradigm is important as it helps the researcher to be consistent during the entire research process. The research paradigm should be reflected in the structure, implementation, and the reporting process of the research (Veal, 2011).

In the social behavioural sciences, there are two major paradigms known as positivism/post-positivism and constructive/interpretative paradigms (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The positivism/post-positivism paradigm underpins quantitative methods, which attempt to generate results utilising mathematical calculations that can apply to a wider population than the sample used (Creswell, 2009). The constructive/interpretive paradigm on the other hand, underpins qualitative methods which rely on people providing their own explanations of different situations or behaviours (Veal, 2011). Unlike the scholars of the positivism/post-positivism group, within this paradigm, researchers seek an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under examination using relatively few samples or cases (Neuman, 2006).

There has been a long debate amongst two groups of scholars about the tenets of each research paradigm (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). For quantitative researchers, qualitative study is viewed as too context specific, the samples selected as unrepresentative, and the claims about the work as unwarranted. By contrast, qualitative researchers consider quantitative study as reductionist in terms of the sampling and

result generalisations and, more importantly, failing to capture the meanings that subjects of research attach to the actual lives and circumstances (Brannen, 2005). In fact, each paradigm has distinct strengths and weaknesses. As such, Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) argued that rather than focus on differences between the two and criticise them, researchers could utilise the strengths of both paradigms in their research to gain a better understanding of the social phenomena.

Attempts have been made to bridge the positivism/post-positivism and constructive/interpretive scholar groups. The pragmatism paradigm was introduced by Howe (1988) to counter the paradigmatic debate. In this paradigm, the quantitative and qualitative approaches are seen as compatible and are combined into a single study. The pragmatism paradigm ascribes to the philosophy that research questions, which are set forth at the early stage of the research, should become the fundamental element and drive the choice of research method(s) used to understand the problem (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As such, addressing research problems and answering research questions should be the ultimate goal of any research. In other words, the research question is more important than either the method or the paradigm that underpins the method (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003).

Many scholars have recognised that social phenomena and research problems addressed in social and behavioural science are increasingly complex and linked to multiple bodies of knowledge that belong to different disciplines (Greene & Caracelli, 1997; Jabareen, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). This complexity is also reflected in the tourism field as described by Jennings (2010b, p. 58) that “there are extensive inquiries to access the deeper meanings and understanding that people attribute to tourism and tourism experiences, events, and phenomena”. Acknowledging this fact, Jennings (2010b) suggested that besides research questions, the paradigm adopted should also consider the nature of the tourism system that is being examined.

Given the complex nature of visitor experience that is central to this study, to understand how international visitors engage with local culinary experience requires a comprehensive examination of the influential factors and possible experiential responses before, during, and after encountering the food. For this reason, selecting either the positivism/post-positivism or the constructive/interpretive paradigm may not

be sufficient for this thesis to address the examined problems. This study therefore, adopts a pragmatism paradigm using a mixed methods approach for the entire research design process.

5.1.2 Justification of Selecting Mixed Methods Research Design

Mixed methods research simply means adopting a research strategy employing more than one type of research method (Brannen, 2005). Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007, p. 123) describe mixed methods research as “the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration”.

Acknowledging the fact that all methods have limitations and biases, Greene and Caracelli (1997) contend that using multiple methods can help to understand more completely the important complexities of the social phenomena. It is argued that better inferences are accomplished when the complementary strengths of the quantitative and qualitative approaches balance the weaknesses of each (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). The major strength of the quantitative approach lies in its reliability and validity for generalisation, yet, it is not able to gain an in-depth understanding of the studied phenomenon. However, the use of a qualitative approach which is based on personal interpretation can help to reduce such limitation (Creswell, 2009). This argument confirms that using multiple approaches will provide complementary benefit, thus strengthening the significance of a study (Greene & Caracelli, 1997).

Literature has shown the potential advantages of utilising mixed methods research design. First, mixed methods is superior for conducting academic studies since various research questions in one study can be addressed more effectively using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Second, mixed methods research often helps researchers to generate and refine the research inquiry. Further, it increases the opportunity for the researchers to interpret and explain the findings from different perspectives (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Similar to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), Denzin and Lincoln (2011) stated that having both quantitative and qualitative data can offer a good opportunity for the researchers to enhance the credibility of their findings

by confirming the meaning of the findings and providing a general picture of trends or relationships. Meanwhile, with respect to the response rate, Collins, Onwuegbuzie, and Sutton (2006) argued that the benefit of conducting mixed methods research is the opportunity to increase the number of participants. That is, a chance to optimise the use of sampling techniques and to ensure that the participants selected are appropriate for inclusion.

Based on the above discussions, this thesis selected a mixed methods approach design to gain richer meaningful data yielding more comprehensive results to understand international visitors' dining experiences with local food. Additionally, it is anticipated that selecting such research design could offer a methodological contribution to the study of visitor experience. The quantitative approach was conducted through a questionnaire-based survey in conjunction with a qualitative approach via in-depth interviews designed to fully investigate the phenomenon of visitor experiences in the context of dining on local food in Indonesia.

5.1.3 The Process of Mixed Methods Research

When it comes to executing mixed methods, Morse (2003) suggested that the researcher select either simultaneous or sequential research design. The simultaneous mixed methods research design means quantitative and qualitative approaches are conducted at the same time, whereas the sequential research design refers to utilising either the quantitative approach first followed by the qualitative approach, or vice versa. Considering the sequential nature of visitor dining experience, this study applies sequential mixed methods research design, conducted within two separate data collection phases, with the quantitative study undertaken first followed by qualitative study.

The following Figure 5.2 illustrates the process of implementing a mixed methods research design in this study.

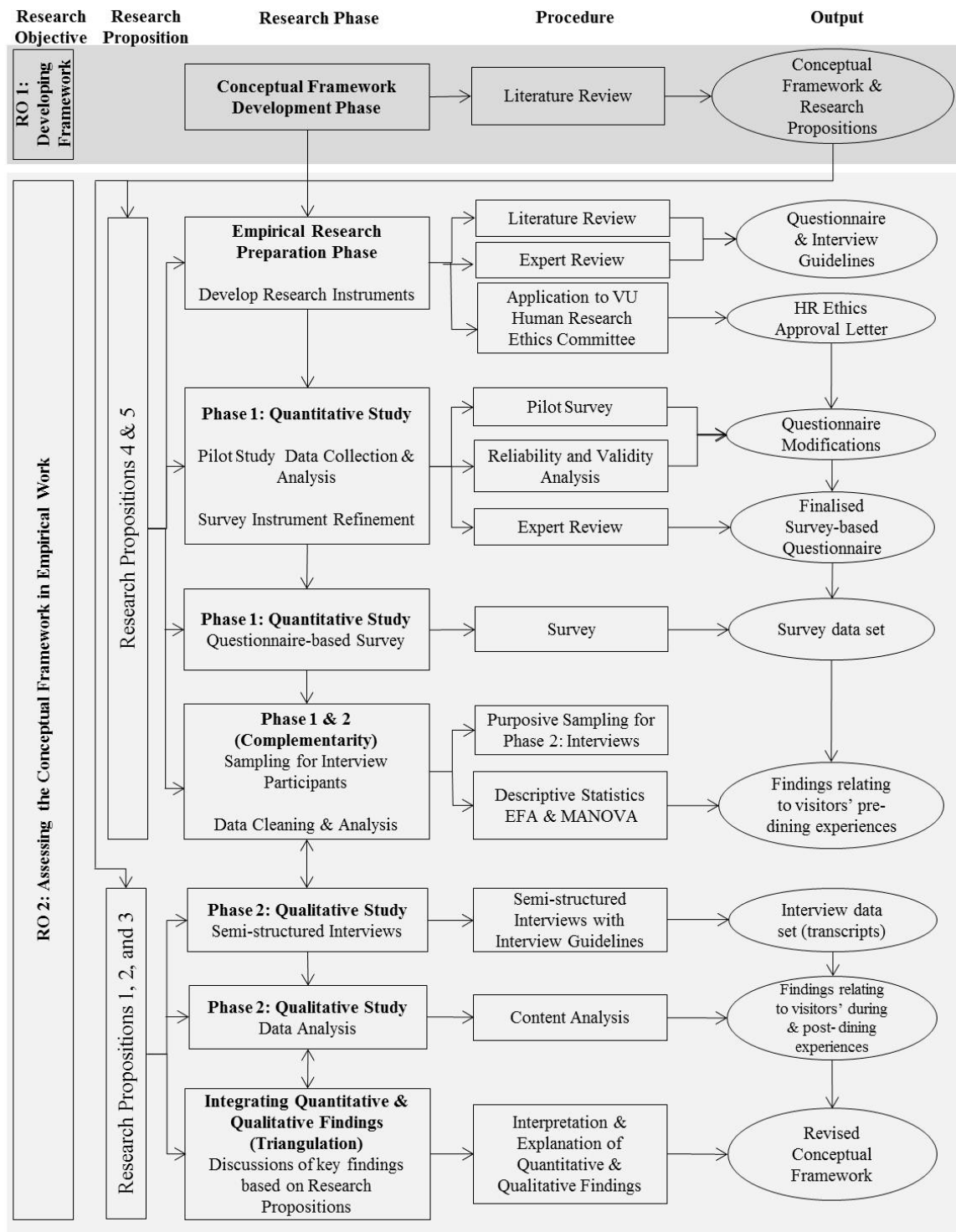


Figure 5.2 Mixed Methods Research Design Process

Adapted from Collins et al. (2006)

As seen in Figure 5.2, the first objective of this research was to develop a conceptual framework of the visitor dining experience with local food. This framework was built based on a critical review of the literature relevant to culinary tourism and visitor experience constructs, as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. The gap analysis on the previous visitor experience models and frameworks, particularly those designed for culinary tourism, indicated shortcomings. These shortcomings related specifically to the availability of comprehensive frameworks to examine visitor experiences relating to local dining in the visited destination. Following the development of the conceptual framework discussed in Chapter 4, the second objective of this study was to assess the applicability of the proposed framework by undertaking empirical research adopting a mixed methods research design. Figure 5.2 clearly shows that the proposed framework along with the five research propositions formulated in Section 4.2, were used as a basis for the conduct of each approach in the whole research process.

The empirical research was completed in the geographical context of Indonesia. This decision was made for practical and methodological reasons. In terms of practicality, Indonesia was chosen as it has such rich and diverse local foods with the potential to attract culinary tourism. Engaging with local dining in the visited destination would uncover complicated experiences relating to different foodways or food cultures. Such complexities were anticipated and would lead to richer data. Visitor dining experience could also be seen as having multi-phases, multi-dimensions, and multi-influences, consistent with the conceptual framework.

With regard to the methodological consideration, Pearce (2005) argues that an increased understanding about the research object is crucial and such an understanding can be enhanced by having an insider or *emic* perspective when collecting the primary data. According to Headland, Pike, and Harris (1990), an emic perspective is concerned with studying certain phenomenon or behaviour from inside a system. In the case of this study, the researcher holds Indonesian citizenship, hence, carrying out the empirical work in Indonesia provided additional benefits in terms of her familiarity with the geographical settings. For instance, existing networks within the tourism industry created smoother processes when seeking access to the target samples. The researcher was also obviously familiar with the food cultures being investigated. Such facts, as

pointed by Headland et al. (1990), would allow the adoption of the subject's viewpoint by the researcher.

However, Morris, Leung, Ames, & Lickel (1999) noted that it is also imperative to know empathically how visitors view the world from their perspectives. Considering this view, to avoid subjectivity and biases, the examination of visitor dining experience with local Indonesian food in this study was derived from the participant viewpoints. This approach, as stated by Pearce (2005), allows research participants to describe their experiences in their own words, not according to pre-judged categories that are defined by the researcher's subjective conception.

The proposed framework was empirically assessed by investigating international visitor experiences related to dining on local food in the spectrum of three stages: pre-dining, during dining, and post-dining. The pre-dining stage mainly investigated visitor preconceptions and expectations, whilst during and post-dining stages examined visitor perceptions, level of satisfaction, and future behavioural intentions. These three stages of dining experiences were scrutinised in two phases of data collection. Phase 1 involved a quantitative study using a questionnaire to collect the data. It aimed to assess the applicability of the framework, reflected in **Propositions 4** and **5**. Following this, Phase 2 involved a qualitative study with semi-structured interviews as a data collection method aimed at assessing **Propositions 1, 2, and 3** of the framework.

As illustrated in Figure 5.2, Phases 1 and 2 were connected with respect to the selection of the informants for the interviews. This study sought to explore more deeply international visitor perceptions, satisfaction, and future behavioural intentions after they experienced dining on local Indonesian food. These data could only be discovered if the participants expressed interest in trying the local food during their travel to Indonesia. In other words, the participants at the two data collection phases should be the same group. As such, sampling decision regarding which informants should be selected for the interview would be influenced by the participation of the survey respondents.

Furthermore, it was expected that semi-structured interviews, conducted in Phase 2, could reveal how international visitors perceived their real encounter during the dining

stage and the post-dining stage. As pointed out by Moosberg (2007), conducting interviews in a more personal way is important since each individual will see their experiences about something differently. For this study, the data obtained from the interviews were expected to complement the data collected through the survey. This would result in a more comprehensive understanding of the entire experiences of dining on local Indonesian food encountered by international visitors.

In the final process of inference, the researcher integrated the findings from the quantitative and qualitative phases during the interpretation of the overall outcomes of the study. Integration refers to the stages in the research process where mixing of quantitative and qualitative occurs (Creswell, 2009; Jennings, 2010b). Creswell and Clark (2007) explained that the integration is part of the triangulation which generally involves the concurrent, but separate, collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. Triangulation assists the researcher in understanding the research problem by merging the two data sets, usually by bringing the separate results together in the interpretation or by transforming data to facilitate integrating the two data types during the analysis. Triangulation is an essential validity procedure, allowing the researcher to search for convergence and corroboration among multiple and different sources of information in order to form themes or categories within their study (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

5.2 Phase 1: Quantitative Research Approach

According to Neuman (2006), the quantitative approach is the most suitable approach for observing the big picture of a specific social theme. Veal (2011) noted that survey is a dominant data collection method in the academic discipline of marketing. The use of a questionnaire as the major instrument of data collection in the survey is generally accepted. Survey is a functional way to gain an overall explanation of a specific issue within a group (Fowler, 1995). Therefore, the development of each question in the survey questionnaire plays an important part in the quantitative study. Cooksey (2007) contended that researchers who utilise a quantitative study must extensively review the relevant literature for guiding the research instrument design and development. In addition, as asserted by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), the questions set at the

beginning of the research act as an important guide for developing the questionnaire. According to Saunders et al. (2012), survey provides the most efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample especially when each respondent is asked to respond to the same set of questions. Further, conducting a questionnaire-based survey can enhance the researcher's confidence as the standardised questions will be interpreted the same way by all participated respondents. The quantitative research approach in this study was therefore conducted utilising the questionnaire-based survey.

The survey was chosen as the most appropriate approach to assess **Propositions 4** and **5** that were formulated in Section 4.2.2. In general, the survey aimed to provide contextual information for the study and sample, that is, the international visitors who travelled to Indonesia and engaged with local dining experiences. In particular, the survey sought to discover: visitor preconceptions which indicate a level of knowledge about Indonesian local food; visitors' interest in dining with local food; and the influential factors which shaped visitor expectations once they expressed their interest in experiencing local food dining.

5.2.1 Survey Instrument Development

The effective construction of a questionnaire as an instrument of survey is paramount to the success of data collection and the data analysis process (Jennings, 2010b). This influences the response rates, reliability, and validity (Saunders et al., 2012). According to Kviz (1977), response rates reflect how well the researcher is able to achieve responses from all potential participants in a sample (cited in Jennings, 2010b). Reliability deals with the consistency and stability of the research instrument (Saunders et al., 2012), whilst validity illustrates how well an empirical indicator fits together with the conceptual definition of the construct that the indicator is supposed to measure (Neuman, 2006). Sekaran (2003) explained that the questionnaire quality is affected by many factors, namely: the wording of the questions, categorisations, scaling and coding the questions, and finally, the appearance or layout of the questionnaire. Veal (2011) argued that the decision to design a questionnaire should itself be the culmination of a careful process of thought and discussion, considering important aspects, such as the concepts and variables involved, as well as the relationships to be investigated in the form of hypothesis, theories, or frameworks. Supporting this argument, Cooksey (2007)

claimed that the development of each question in the questionnaire should be based on the relevant literature.

The first draft of the survey questionnaire was constructed on the basis of the comprehensive literature review discussed in Chapter 2 pertaining to culinary tourism and food culture, and in Chapter 3, relating to visitor experience. Relevant items and scales of past studies were also adapted in this process. As advised by Veal (2011), before designing the questionnaire, the researcher should have sought as much input as possible from previous research on the related topic. A critical review of the concepts relevant to the component measured in the framework has been discussed in Chapters 2, 3, and 4. Based on this, twenty-three items in total were used to measure dining expectations with local food.

Table 5.1 summarises the items to measure the international visitors' expectations when engaging with local food dining. These items were developed based on the relevant literature as discussed thoroughly in Section 3.4.2. According to Breffle, Morey, and Thacher (2011), individuals have different preferences when responding to each question delivered in the survey. A good research instrument should be able to explore such differences, and one means to address this is by assigning certain scales like *Likert* scales so that respondents can choose a response category that suits their preferences. On this basis, responses to questions relating to visitor expectations of local dining experience in this research were measured using a five-point *Likert* scale, ranging from 1 (*not important at all*) to 5 (*very important*).

Table 5.1 Items for Measuring International Visitors Dining Expectations

| Item number | Item Description | Supporting literature for each item |
|---|---|--|
| <i>Food Quality Aspects</i> | | |
| 1. | Good taste of food | Antun et al. (2010); Batra (2008); Chao (2010); Jalis et al. (2009); Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007); Yüksel and Yüksel (2003) |
| 2. | The food to be presented attractively | Jalis et al. (2009); Karim et al. (2009); Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) |
| 3. | The food to smell appealing | Jang et al. (2009) |
| 4. | Use fresh ingredients | Chao (2010); Jalis et al. (2009); Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007); Yüksel and Yüksel (2003) |
| 5. | Wide range of food available on the menu | Batra (2008); Chao (2010); Jalis et al. (2009); Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) |
| 6. | Good description of food on the menu book | Batra (2008); Karim et al. (2009) |
| <i>Food Cultural-related Aspects</i> | | |
| 7. | Original taste of food | Batra, 2008; Chao, 2010; George, 2000; Jalis et al., 2009; Sukalakamala, & Boyce, 2007 |
| 8. | Authentically spicy food | Batra, 2008; Chao, 2010; George, 2000; Jalis et al., 2009; Sukalakamala, & Boyce, 2007 |
| 9. | Spiciness modified from usual taste | Hwang & Lin, 2010; Jalis et al., 2009; Zakaria, Zahari, Othman, Noor, & Kutut, 2010 |
| 10. | The food appeared exotic (unique and different) | Batra, 2008; Jalis, et al., 2009; Karim, et al., 2009; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007 |
| 11. | Use familiar ingredients | Batra, 2008; Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2010; Chao, 2010; Hwang & Lin, 2010 |
| 12. | Culturally unique way of cooking the food | Jalis, et al., 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010 |
| 13. | Culturally unique way of presenting the food | Jalis, et al., 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010 |
| 14. | Culturally unique way of eating the food | Jalis, et al., 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010 |
| <i>Physical Dining Establishment Aspects</i> | | |
| 15. | Ambience of the dining place | Antun, et al., 2010; George, 2000; Jalis, et al., 2009; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007 |
| 16. | Cleanliness | Choi & Zhao, 2010 |
| 17. | Culturally unique design/décor and layout | George, 2000; Jalis, et al., 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010 |
| 18. | Ambience/atmosphere represents local culture (e.g. traditional music) | Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007 |
| <i>Social Aspects</i> | | |
| 19. | Communication skills | Antun, et al., 2010; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003 |
| 20. | Staff friendliness | Antun, et al., 2010; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003 |
| 21. | Staff responsiveness to specific needs | Antun, et al., 2010; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003 |
| 22. | Other customers in the dining room help to enjoy local food and local culture | Antun, et al., 2010 |
| 23. | Sense of belonging with local culture as a result of food encounter | Jalis, et al., 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007 |

5.2.1.1 Pilot Study

According to Neuman (2006), pre-testing the survey instrument is an important element in producing a good research design. The major advantage of conducting a pilot study is

that it provides information from the perspective of participants as to the applicability of the questionnaire before it is used in the survey (Sekaran, 2003). A pilot study will inform the researcher whether the questionnaire is well developed to measure the key constructs of the study and, in turn, address the research questions (Neuman, 2006).

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), to establish an effective pilot study, a sample size of between 20-50 participants is adequate to provide feedback and identify the potential weaknesses associated with a questionnaire. Hence, the pre-test in this thesis was carried out by inviting 80 people to participate, anticipating the probability of non-responses. For practical reasons, to increase participation, the pre-test was executed in two ways: face-to-face and online. For the face-to-face survey, the questionnaires were distributed to 40 local and international students of Victoria University, Melbourne, whilst invitations via e-mail were sent to 40 non-student participants to complete the online pre-test. The inclusion of non-student participants was done to enhance the variability of responses from another group apart from the student group. Considering that the questionnaire assessed expectations related to local food dining in a destination, the selected participants were considered able to provide the required information. That is, they have had travelled to other destinations outside their home countries and experienced dining with local food at the visited destination.

The online pre-test was conducted by utilising a free online survey design facilitated by Google Docs. The participants were asked to provide constructive feedback regarding the quality of the questionnaire in terms of clarity of the content and the wording used in each question. The pilot study was performed in May 2011. Ultimately, 35 respondents participated in the pilot study; 15 respondents in the face-to-face survey and the remaining 20 respondents via online survey, giving a response rate of 43.75% (35 out of 80). These 35 completed pilot study questionnaires were analysed in terms of reliability and validity.

5.2.1.2 Reliability and Validity Analysis

Reliability symbolises the consistency or stability of a measurement (Saunders et al., 2012). Having a reliable measurement is important to ensure that the instrument works well at different times under different conditions (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient has been widely used to measure for multi-item scales (Pallant, 2011). General agreement upon cut-off value for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70 (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2006; Nunnally, 1978; Saunders et al., 2012). However, Pallant (2011) emphasises that Cronbach's alpha values are quite sensitive to the number of items in the scale. Thus, it is predicted that the alpha coefficient tends to be low for the scales with fewer than ten items. In addition, Hair et al. (2006) note that in exploratory research, the possibility of having a lower alpha coefficient exists. However, Guilford (1965) develops a range as follows:

Table 5.2 Ranges of Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient

| Cronbach's alpha coefficient | Remark |
|------------------------------|-----------|
| $0.80 < r_{xy} \leq 1.00$ | very good |
| $0.6 < r_{xy} \leq 0.80$ | good |
| $0.40 < r_{xy} \leq 0.60$ | moderate |
| $0.20 < r_{xy} \leq 0.40$ | poor |
| $0.00 < r_{xy} \leq 0.20$ | very poor |

Source: Guilford (1965, p. 142)

Amongst these various perspectives, this thesis adopted Guilford's (1965) approach as a basis for determining the reliability of the examined scales. As can be found in Appendix 9a, findings of reliability analysis revealed that items or empirical indicators and scales developed to measure four key constructs - food quality, physical dining, food cultural-related, and social aspects - were all deemed moderately reliable as demonstrated by alpha scores of greater than 0.50 (0.732; 0.704; 0.587; and 0.553, respectively).

Performing validity analysis is also essential. As stated by Neuman (2006), this analysis aims to ensure that all items or empirical indicators measure the same concepts that are intended to be measured in the instrument. In this study, two types of validity analysis were undertaken, namely: content validity and construct validity. Content validity refers to how well a measurement assesses the subject matter, and this type of validity can be obtained by searching the suitability between the designed items with the literature and by seeking advice from the expert scholars to gain feedback when developing and refining the instrument scale (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

As mentioned above, the content validity of the instrument of this thesis was obtained, first, by undertaking a review of the relevant literature as thoroughly discussed in Chapters 2 to 4, and second, by seeking advice from two experts who have reputable experience in conducting hospitality and tourism market research, one of whom has a research specialisation in the hospitality and gastronomy area. Neuman (2006) suggested that pursuing expert opinion is important since it helps to confirm the suitability of the research instrument development. In this study, issues for discussion with the experts were not solely linked to technical aspects such as wording, but also encompassed the development of each question to improve content validity. Methods of data collection in the fieldwork and data analysis were also discussed. After obtaining advice in designing the questions from the experts, a pilot study or pre-test was employed to test the reliability of the research instrument.

In addition to seeking content validity, Cooper and Schindler (2008) highlight the importance of construct validity in indicating the ability of a measurement to verify the concepts based on careful review of relevant theoretical foundations prior to the selection of items or empirical indicators. In a quantitative study, one of the suggested techniques to undertake construct validity analysis is by calculating the correlation between individual items of the examined construct and the total score of each examined construct within the instrument (Zikmund et al., 2010). Attaining significant correlation is crucial as it provides a signal that the empirical indicator is a valid criterion to measure the construct. The significance of each question can be seen from the *p* value (*sig.* value) that has to be smaller than the *alpha* value. The *value* indicates the chance of an acceptable error occurring during data processing. The most common *alpha* value for social research is .05 (Zikmund et al., 2010). Based on this, the analysis of construct validity in this thesis was performed by employing Pearson's bivariate correlation (see Appendix 9b).

The results of employing Pearson's bivariate correlation technique show that most of the correlation coefficients between indicators of each item and the relevant construct were statistically significant (*p* value $\leq .05$), except for the one item of food cultural-related construct, that is, "spiciness modified from usual taste". With regard to this item, similar feedback was gained from several pre-test participants, that is, Questions 3

(*authentically spicy*) and Question 4 (*spiciness modified*) were found to be confusing due to their similarities in both asking about the spiciness of the food. This might explain the insignificant correlation of the item, as the participants were not sure when answering these questions. The suggestion was to consolidate these two items into a single question. Later on in the final questionnaire, this item was reworded into *flavour modified* instead of *spiciness modified* to acknowledge that the modification of food flavour can encompass not only the spiciness of the food, but also other dimensions such as sweetness or sourness. Other feedback was obtained about the possibility of incorporating *local drinks* due to the fact that, in many cases, international visitors sought not just local food when exploring the cuisine of the visited destination, but also local beverages. This could contribute to the creation of a memorable travel dining experience (Shenoy, 2005). This feedback was accommodated by adding a new question to the final questionnaire (see Table 5.3).

5.2.1.3 Survey Instrument Refinement

The reliability and validity findings presented above were deemed appropriate. Along with relevant feedback received from the pilot study participants and experts, the questionnaire was refined. It contained 4 main parts as outlined below (see Appendix 3 for more detail).

Part A consisted of 9 closed-ended category questions pertaining to visitor demographic profiles (gender, age group, country of residence, highest education attained, and occupation), and travel pattern profiles (purpose of visit, frequency of visit, length of visit and type of travel party). Category questions are designed to help the researcher to identify and classify the respondents, as each respondent's answer can fit only one category (Saunders et al., 2012). Nominal dichotomous scales (two values), for instance to measure gender (male versus female), and nominal non-dichotomous scales (multiple values) were both used in the survey. This was designed simply to place data into categories without any order or rank (Malhotra, 2010). Considering the nature of the nominal scale, Cooper and Schindler (2008) stated that the descriptive analysis pertaining to respondents' demographic data was undertaken by calculating the frequency distributions.

Part B contained ten questions aimed at discovering the visitors' preconceptions of local Indonesian food. It included an exploration of the efforts that visitors went to to learn about a destination and its local food prior to travel. These questions were measured using a five-point *Likert* scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Next, open-ended questions relating to the visitors' knowledge of Indonesian cuisine were broken down into respondents' ability to recall the names of Indonesian food, and their ability to recognise characteristics of that food. This included awareness about levels of spiciness, and any knowledge of the regions food, including history, stories or advice received from others prior to departure for Indonesia. The last questions in Part B identified respondents' interest in eating local Indonesian food during their visit and, if not, their reasons for not eating the food. These questions were measured in nominal scales.

Part C, broken down into 24 questions, was the main part of the questionnaire. It investigated visitors' expectations of the local Indonesian dining experience. All questions were closed-ended and measured in a five-point *Likert* scale of importance, ranging from 1 (*not important at all*) to 5 (*very important*). These scales indicated the level of expectations that the visitors projected prior to the actual dining activities.

Part D asked respondents about their willingness to participate further in the research through an interview. This would allow them to express their thoughts, opinions, and feelings in relation to their perceived, actual and post-dining experiences with local Indonesian food.

Table 5.3 presents a summary comparing the measurement items used in the pilot study and the final questionnaire after the refinement.

Table 5.3 Measurement Items for Visitor Dining Expectations – Pilot Test and Main Survey

| Construct | Measurement in the pilot test | Measurement in the main survey |
|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Food Quality | 1. Good taste of food 2. The food to be presented attractively ^c 3. The food to smell appealing 4. Use fresh ingredients 5. Wide range of food available on the menu 6. Good description of food on the menu book | 1. Good taste of food 2. The food to smell appealing 3. Use fresh ingredients 4. Wide range of food available on the menu 5. Good description of food on the menu book 6. Local Indonesian beverage available ^b |
| Food Cultural-related | 7. Original taste of food ^a 8. Authentically spicy food 9. Spiciness modified from usual taste ^a 10. The food appeared exotic (unique and different) 11. Use familiar ingredients 12. Culturally unique way of cooking the food 13. Culturally unique way of presenting the food ^c 14. Culturally unique way of eating the food | 7. Authentic taste 8. Authentically spicy food 9. Flavour modified to the visitor's taste 10. The food appeared exotic (unique and different) 11. Use familiar ingredients 12. Culturally unique way of cooking the food 13. Culturally unique way of presenting the food 14. Culturally unique way of eating the food |
| Physical Dining Environment | 15. Ambience of the dining place 16. Cleanliness 17. Culturally unique design/décor and layout 18. Ambience/atmosphere represents local culture (e.g. traditional music) | 15. Ambience of the dining place 16. Cleanliness 17. Culturally unique design/décor and layout 18. Ambience/atmosphere represent local culture (e.g. traditional music) 19. Dining place providing sense of belonging with local culture ^a |
| Social | 19. Communication skills 20. Staff friendliness 21. Staff responsiveness to specific needs 22. Other customers in dining room help to enjoy local food & local culture 23. Sense of belonging with local culture as a result of food encounter ^a | 20. Staff are communicative 21. Staff are friendly 22. Staff are responsiveness to the visitor's specific needs 23. Staff are knowledgeable 24. Other customers in dining room help to enjoy local food & local culture |

Note: ^a rewording; ^b new items added based on the feedback from the pilot test; ^c merged with another item in the main survey

5.2.2 Sampling and Justification

Considering the size of the country and the resource constraints, the fieldwork was carried out in East Java province. East Java is located on the eastern part of the highly developed island of Java and next to Bali, Indonesia's most popular international tourism destination (see Figure 5.3). Surabaya, the provincial capital, is the second largest city in the country (after Jakarta) and the major industrial centre and port. East Java has a high level of infrastructure development. It demonstrates a high economic growth, contributing significantly to the national gross domestic product (GDP) (Santosa & McMichael, 2004). The provision of good transportation access and a high standard of accommodation facilities enable East Java to serve as a gateway for international visitors who are travelling from western to eastern parts of Indonesia's tourist destination regions.



Figure 5.3 Map of Indonesia and East Java Province

The target population of the survey was all international visitors travelling to East Java for either business or non-business purposes. This inclusive approach offered the chance of optimising the survey participation rate by including holiday makers, business travellers, and visitors travelling for other purposes. This was also aligned with the term visitor as used in this thesis as defined in Section 2.1.1.

Although the information about total number of international visitors who travelled to East Java could be attained from the local tourism bodies, the sampling frame containing the list of elements from which the sample of the survey would be actually

drawn was unavailable; making a probability sampling is not possible to execute (Cooper and Schindler, 2008). For this reason, non-probability sampling method, in particular, a purposive sampling technique was selected to sample the target population. Although purposive sampling may affect the researcher's ability to control the sample precision, the advantage of using this sampling technique lies in its cost and time efficiency when collecting data from a larger survey population (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Besides the survey, the primary data in this research was also collected via the interview; hence, the quality of data did not depend solely on the participants who were conveniently sampled. Therefore, the limitation of purposive sampling technique mentioned above could be minimised. Additionally, Neuman (2006) asserts that the precision of interpretation of the survey findings is not just affected by the selection of the sampling technique, but is also determined by the number of samples selected or the sample size.

However, Saunders et al. (2012) noted that for most of non-probability sampling techniques, there are no rules for determining the sample size. The choice of sample size is usually governed by several aspects, namely: level of confidence on the data collected; tolerable margin of error; types of analyses; and the size of total population (Saunders et al., 2012). In line with this view, Bui (2011) added that there is no consensus amongst scholars about the size of the sample that would make the findings statistically valid and allow for population generalisability. Zikmund et al. (2010), for instance, stated that the sample size is determined based on the minimum ratio of response to items, for example, 10:1. Thus, if there are 20 items asked in the questionnaire, the sample obtained should be a minimum of 200 (20 items times 10). Meanwhile, Hair et al. (2006) suggested that when research deals with multivariate statistical analysis, a sample size minimum of 100 or more should be attained. More specifically, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) advised that for applying factor analysis, a general rule of thumb is to require a minimum of 300 samples in total. Responding different views above, Saunders et al. (2012) pointed that most of the time, the decision relating to sample size is made based on the judgment as well as the calculation undertaken by the researcher. Additionally, resources constraints such as limited time-frames and budgets to complete the study are also important to be taken into account before making the decision.

Given that this study employed multivariate statistical analysis, the sample size was therefore determined based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) advise above. That is, a minimum of 300 samples was planned to gather in the survey.

5.2.2.1 Survey Data Collection Procedure

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) asserted that the timing of distributing a research instrument is as important as the measurement scales. As discussed in Section 4.2.1.1, the examination of visitor dining expectations was conducted prior to the visitors' real encounter with such dining experience.

To access international visitors in the conduct of the survey, co-operation was required from four and five star hotels. Four and five star hotels were chosen as the sampling site because data from Statistics Indonesia indicates that 75% of international visitors to East Java stay at three to five star hotels (Biro Pusat Statistik [BPS], 2010) due to better facilities and service quality compared to the other lower star rated hotels. Most business events in East Java, such as conventions or conferences and exhibitions, are also held in four and five star hotels. Conducting a survey at these star hotels therefore allowed the researcher to capture not just holiday travellers as prospective research participants, but also those who travelled for business. This enhanced the likelihood of participation from international visitors.

According to Statistics Indonesia, there are 14 four and five star hotels in Surabaya (BPS, 2012). For the purpose of this study, the researcher contacted four hotels seeking permission to conduct data collection activities on-site (see Appendix 6). The four hotels were: Surabaya Plaza Hotel (national chain of Prime Resort & Plaza) and Novotel Surabaya Hotel & Suites, representing four star hotels; and Bumi Surabaya Hotel (formerly Hyatt Regency Surabaya) and J.W. Marriot Hotels Surabaya, representing five star hotels. This was considered a sufficient number of hotels to enable the researcher to gather the minimum sample as indicated in Section 5.2.2. A formal letter was sent to these four hotels to secure their permission to undertake surveys on the hotel premises.

With management consent granted by the hotels, each guest was approached to participate in the survey shortly after they had finished with the check-in process at the

front desk of the hotel. Guests were informed by front office staff that a study was being conducted at the hotel. They were given the information sheet (see Appendix 1) by front office staff and asked to read it. If the guests were interested in participating, they were directed to the researcher who was waiting in the lobby. The guests were given further time to read the consent form (see Appendix 2). Only guests who gave their consent by signing the consent form were asked to continue with the survey. Instead of handing out the questionnaire to the respondents for completion, the researcher read each question to them.

This scenario was chosen with an assumption that the guest had just arrived after their flight from their home country, and that they had not engaged with local food dining in Surabaya. This was crucial to ensure that each respondent, when expressing their dining preconceptions about local Indonesian food as well as their expectations of the dining experience with local food, was not biased by their actual dining experience during their current visit.

5.2.2.2 Response Rate

The questionnaire-based survey was conducted over a three-month period from mid-July to October 2011. At each sampling site, the researcher did the survey at different times, either in the mornings, afternoons, or the evenings. This is important to ensure that the bias in who was approached to respond to the survey could be minimised, which in turn, improve the random selection of the sample.

Despite the permission for conducting the survey with overseas guests given by the hotels, the non-response rate was very high. This was the result of three reasons: exhaustion due to long travels from the guests' home country; the language barrier that constrained their understanding of the survey since they only spoke their mother tongue and the questionnaire was in English; and guests preferred to complete the questionnaire in their own time. In this case, the guests were politely urged to return the completed questionnaire to the front-office desk. However, few potential respondents did so. In total, 800 international guests approached to participate, 592 refused to respond, and 208 questionnaires were disseminated to willing participants.

To improve the chance of attaining a better representative sample of the target population, a contingency plan was prepared in the eventuality of a low rate of responses from the hotel guests. The airport was chosen as the alternative sampling site. Weber (2001) suggested that one way of examining visitor expectations before any experience occurs is by conducting the survey at the airport just as the visitor arrives. However, the implementation of this approach could be very challenging since upon arrival at the airport, international visitors usually have to deal with a series of important post-flight services, such as baggage handling and immigration. As a consequence, the likelihood of getting refusals from the participants might be high. To minimise this, it is essential to seek support and permission from relevant authorities, in this case, from the airline companies and management of the international airport. This decision was made considering that Garuda Indonesia is the national carrier operating over thirty-five international routes across the world (Garuda Indonesia, 2013). This implies that bias in sampling representativeness could be avoided since participants would potentially be drawn from a variety of nationalities. Permission was granted by Garuda Indonesia to survey international passengers arriving in Juanda International Airport in Surabaya prior to customs clearance.

The survey was conducted when the passengers were waiting for their baggage. After being given the explanation that the survey completion would take between 5-10 minutes only, surprisingly, a considerable number of the passengers agreed to be involved. Of around 500 international passengers who were approached, 202 questionnaires were distributed to those who agreed to take part.

Overall, a total of 1,300 people of the eligible sample group were approached and asked to participate in the survey. From this amount, 410 respondents agreed to participate (208 in hotels and 202 in the airport). A total of 358 questionnaires were returned and filled out. Nine sets of questionnaires (6 from the hotels and 3 from the airport) were excluded directly in the field due to incomplete forms or due to response errors. This resulted in a total of 349 questionnaires that were retained and used for further analysis, representing an overall response rate of 26.8% (21.5% for the survey in hotels and 35.4% for the survey at the airport, respectively). Table 5.4 summarises the response rates of the survey.

Table 5.4 Summary of Response Rates of the Survey

| | Sampling Sites | | Total |
|---|----------------|---------|-------|
| | Hotels | Airport | |
| Eligible sample approached or asked to participate ^a | 800 | 500 | 1,300 |
| Refusal to respond | 592 | 298 | 890 |
| Respondents accepted to participate | 208 | 202 | 410 |
| Returned questionnaires | 178 | 180 | 358 |
| Questionnaires dropped in-field due to response error | 6 | 3 | 9 |
| Questionnaires retained for further analysis ^b | 172 | 177 | 349 |
| Response rate (in percentage)^c | 21.5 | 35.4 | 26.8 |

^c response rate = returned questionnaires suitable for analysis (b) divided by total eligible sample approached or asked to participate (a)

5.2.3 Quantitative Data Analysis Procedure

5.2.3.1 Preliminary Data Analysis: Data Cleaning

Following the completion of a questionnaire-based survey, the researcher needs to ensure that the collected data is ready before running the analysis. Neuman (2006) suggested that three steps are required to deal with the data: coding data, entering data, and cleaning data. Data coding means “systematically reorgani[z]ing raw data into a format that is easy to analy[z]e using statistic software on the computer” (Neuman, 2006, p. 383), by assigning certain numbers to variable attributes either before the survey (pre-coding), or after the survey (post-coding). Saunders et al. (2012) pointed out that each variable for each case in a data set should have a code that is recorded. In this thesis, the coding procedure was performed by pre-coding all question items with numerical values prior to fieldwork (see Appendix 3), followed by entering all responses to establish a data file in the Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS) software version 20.0.

According to Neuman (2006), accuracy in both coding and entering data is crucial as it can affect the validity of the measures and cause misleading results. Saunders et al. (2012) described three main ways to check data for errors by looking for: illegitimate codes, that is, any numbers than are not correctly allocated ; illogical relationships, which refer to the consistency of a respondent’s answers between related questions; and the consistency between the rules in filter questions and the subsequent questions.

For the purpose of cleaning the data, there were three types of analyses undertaken: screening for missing values; assessing the normality of data; and checking the outliers. Considering that multivariate analysis was applied to only 24 questions relating to dining expectations (see Appendix 3), responses which indicated 'no' intention to dine on local food were excluded from the examination ($n=10$ cases, refer to Table 6.8). In other words, a total data set of 339 was used for this data cleaning purpose.

First, to detect any missing value from the data set, screening data was conducted utilising missing value analysis in SPSS. The result of the analysis of missing values is presented in a table in Appendix 10a. It shows that cases number 196, 198, and 337 had values missing. According to Malhotra (2010), there are various reasons for missing data. This includes the fact that the data were not required from the respondent due to a skip generated by a filter question in a survey; or the respondent did not know how to answer the question; or perhaps the respondent just refused to answer the question. As suggested by Churchill and Iacobucci (2004), if the sample size is large enough and the number of cases with missing values does not exceed 5% of the total data set, these cases can be dropped with no requirement to assess the pattern of the missing data. On this basis, the data set of 336 cases was retained for further analyses.

Hair et al. (2006) contend that the most fundamental assumption in multivariate analysis is normality of the data, referring to the shape of the data distribution for an individual metric variable and its correspondence to the normal distribution. To check the normality of the data set, both univariate and multivariate normality analyses were undertaken by the researcher. Hair et al. (2006) suggest that one way to check any actual deviation from univariate normality is by employing descriptive statistics analyses through the calculation of skewness and kurtosis values. The normality test was only applied to the continuous data of the questionnaire. In other words, the categorical data, such as demographic profiles and travel characteristics of the respondents, were excluded in the analysis. According to Zikmund et al. (2010), skewness and kurtosis values of 0.0 means that the data is being perfectly normally distributed. Moreover, for the data to be distributed normally, the acceptable level is between -2.0 and +2.0. As shown in Appendix 10b, the result of the normality data analysis indicated that 21 of 24 variables had exhibited normality since the skewness

and kurtosis values were within the recommended levels. In contrast, the skewness and kurtosis values of three variables, namely: *fresh ingredients* (QC_7), *clean dining place* (QC_18), and *friendly staff* (QC_20), were beyond the recommended levels, suggesting abnormality of the data set, leading to the presence of outliers.

Hair et al. (2006) describe outliers as the observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations. It is necessary that the data set is free from the multivariate normality so that it is robust (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Pallant (2011) suggested the use of Mahalanobis distances for testing the multivariate normality. This analysis picks up on any cases in the data set that have a strange pattern of scores across the dependent variables, suggesting the presence of multivariate outliers. To decide whether a case is an outlier, the Mahalanobis distance value is compared against a critical value (i.e. chi-square critical value). It should not be higher than the critical value, otherwise it suggests the presence of multivariate outliers. As illustrated in Appendix 10c, both in the form of a table and scatter plot chart, the result of the Mahalanobis distances test shows four cases which had values higher than their normal distribution values. These four cases were numbers 192, 213, 214, and 348. These cases were, therefore, excluded from further analysis. In total, the number of cases to be used for Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), was 332 (336 minus 4). This amount is considered sufficient, as discussed in Section 5.2.2, a minimum of 300 samples is required for applying EFA (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

5.2.3.2 Descriptive Statistic Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to explain samples of subjects in terms of variables or a combination of variables being examined (Zikmund et al., 2010). In this study, a frequency distribution was calculated to describe respondents' demographic profiles, travel pattern characteristics, and the pre-travel information sought related to the destination and the local food. These findings offered a general understanding as to the profiles of the international visitors who engaged in local dining experiences in Indonesia and how they developed their expectations.

Descriptive analysis was also conducted in regard to respondents' preconceptions about local Indonesian food. This was measured based on their ability to recall the names of Indonesian local dishes and the preconceptions they had about the defining characteristics of Indonesian cuisine. Examined in two separate open-ended questions (see Appendix 3, Part B, Questions 6 and 7), each respondent was given the opportunity to provide a maximum of three answers to each question. Besides frequency tables, the illustration of the descriptive findings of these 2 questions were also provided using the aid of tag clouds, an increasingly recognised means to visualise a data set. Hearst and Rosner (2008) describe tag clouds as a "visual representation of social tags, displayed in paragraph-style layout, usually in alphabetically order, where the relative size and weight of the font for each tag corresponds to the relative frequency of its use" (2008, p. 1). Tag clouds are becoming more popular due to their visual representation of presumably the most important items in a data set. Despite the benefits offered by tag clouds, however, caution must be taken to prevent false assumptions and misinterpretation of the data (Hearst & Rosner, 2008). In anticipating this drawback, the accuracy of the tag clouds presented in this thesis was checked against the frequency tables performed through SPSS.

5.2.3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA was applied to address **Proposition 5** (Section 4.2.2), seeking to identify the underlying external factors which influenced visitor dining experiences, specifically relating to the expectations prior to the actual encounter with the local food. It is an interdependent technique in which all variables are interrelated to each other to some degree. The general objective of EFA is data reduction, as described by Peterson (2000):

....it is expressing a large number of (observed) variables or indicators by means of a smaller set of linear composites known variously as components, variates, underlying or latent dimensions, or most commonly, factors. This objective is said to be accomplished when a set of factors, smaller in number than the number of variables or indicators, has been extracted that conveys all, or at least what is deemed to be an acceptable amount of, the information (variance) contained in the variables or indicators (p. 262).

This analysis has widely been suggested as the appropriate tool when a theory is absent or when new scales are being developed (Hair et al., 2006). However, Henson and Roberts (2006) note that although the researcher may have some conceptualisation of what factors may be present in the data, such as when items are developed to measure expected constructs, EFA does not generally result in a strong *a priori* theory. In light of this view, the new factors that emerged from the utilisation of EFA in this study were then compared with the initially proposed factors as has been depicted in the proposed conceptual framework in Figure 4.1. There are three procedures in applying EFA. These are discussed below.

The first procedure was related to the purpose of EFA, that is, the observed variables should be extracted using certain extraction and rotation methods. In this study, common factor analysis was selected as a method of extraction of the variables and the chosen rotation strategy was the Varimax factor rotation. According to Hair et al. (2006), these methods are more theoretically based and more appropriate for research aimed at reducing data to either a smaller number of variables or a set of uncorrelated measures for subsequent use in a multivariate technique. In this research, EFA was to classify each measurement attribute of dining experience into a smaller set of factors so that the importance of each factor in predicting dining expectation could be best identified.

The second procedure aimed to assess the factorability of variables and to determine whether factor analysis is sufficient as a basis for further analysis. As suggested by Pallant (2011), two tests - the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity - were performed. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy compared the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients with the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients. The cut-off value for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy should be a minimum of .60 for the factorability to exist (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Meanwhile, Bartlett's test of sphericity measured the presence of correlations amongst the variables. It assessed whether the correlation matrix of the data was an identity matrix or not. Factorability is assumed when the correlation matrix of the data is not an identity matrix. In other words, there exist

significant correlations amongst the variables for EFA. The cut-off value should be a minimum of .05 (p value $\leq .05$).

The third procedure of EFA was completed after new factors emerged from the analysis. That is, the communality was viewed to indicate how well a factor analysis is performing. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), communality is the proportion of the variance of an item that is accounted for by the common factors in the factor analysis. Ideally, factor analysis should explain at least 60% of the cumulative variance. The higher the percentage, the more the variance of the structure can be explained by the extracted components or factors generated from the factor analysis, rather than due to unreliability and random errors (Merenda, 1997). In addition, the reliability of each newly created factor was tested to see if the items were closely related to the same construct. One of the most widely used indicators of internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Pallant, 2011). From the various scholarly opinions about the acceptable point of reliability coefficient, as discussed in Section 5.2.1, this thesis has adopted Guilford's (1965) range of reliability scales. That is, a reliability coefficient between .80- 1.0 is considered very good; .60-.80 is good; .40-.60 is moderate; .20-.40 is poor; and .00-.20 is very poor.

Moreover, in regards to the cut-off value of factor loadings, Peterson (2000) notes that there is no consensus as to what constitutes a high or low factor loading. According to Merenda (1997, p. 160), the social and behavioural sciences generally accept, "a threshold factor loading of .30 as the minimum when deciding to accept an item or variable as belonging to a factor or component". Meanwhile, Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998, p. 111) explain that, "factor loadings greater than $\pm .30$ are considered to meet the minimal level; loadings of $\pm .40$ are considered more important; and if the loadings are $\pm .50$ or greater, they are considered practically significant". However, many researchers commonly set a cut-off point of .40 for factor loading (Brown, 2009; Hair et al., 2006). Taking into account their perspectives, the items in this study whose loading score was lower than .40, would be excluded from the analysis.

5.2.3.4 MANOVA Analysis

The statistical analyses applied following EFA involved MANOVA that also aimed to address **Proposition 5**. MANOVA technique was designed to examine whether there were any differences in dining expectations amongst the international visitors based on different internal factors (demographics, travel characteristics, preconceptions, and past dining experiences). The application of this analysis would confirm the existence of internal factors in shaping visitor expectations relating to local dining, as discussed in the literature.

In the MANOVA procedure, seven factors emerging from the factor analysis, which referred to the external factors of dining, served as the dependent variables; whilst the internal factor (consisting of thirteen variables as explained above) was the independent variable.

First, before utilising MANOVA, one essential assumption that must be taken into account is the equivalence of variance-covariance matrices of the dependent variables across the groups (Hair et al., 2006). This relates to the substantial differences in the amount of variance-covariance of one group versus another for the dependent variables. The variance-covariance homogeneity or homoscedasticity is examined at the multivariate level first then at the univariate level for each dependent variable separately. The most widely used test to assess homoscedasticity at multivariate levels is Box's M Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) indicate p value $\geq .001$ as the acceptable cut-off point for this test. Meanwhile, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances is the most commonly applied one to assess the homogeneity at the univariate level. For homogeneity to be present, the commonly accepted p value is $> .05$, however, a more conservative alpha level of .025 or .01 can also be chosen for determining significance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Insignificant values of Levene's test show equal variance between groups. However, Hair et al. (2006) suggested that if homogeneity of variance is not present, corrective remedies are not needed unless the size of samples in each group is relatively small and the presence of homoscedasticity appears in only a few of the investigated dependent variables. Considering Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) view, the cut-off value for the Levene's test for this research was set at alpha level (sig value) of .01.

Second, to determine the overall effect of an independent variable on the dependent variables, the significance of the multivariate F was examined by Wilk's Lambda test, a likelihood ratio statistic that is the most widely accepted criterion for significance inference (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The value of this test is shown by its associated significance level, where *sig* value less than .05 can infer that there is a difference amongst the observed groups, and *vice versa*.

Once a significant result on the multivariate test of significance is obtained, the subsequent analysis to look at is the effect of the independent variable on each dependent variable. Similar to the value of Wilk's Lambda, the cut-off point of .05 was chosen to indicate the significant influence of the independent variable on each dependent variable as provided in the Test of Between-Subjects Effect output box (Hair et al., 2006). Following this, a post-hoc test was then conducted to identify which group(s) were showing significant differences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In this thesis, a post-hoc test aimed to examine what external factors of dining expectation are being influenced by what category of a particular internal factor.

5.3 Phase 2: Qualitative Research Approach

The data obtained from the survey phase was limited to the visitor preconceptions and dining expectations. However, visitor perceptions concerning their actual and post-dining encounters were also sought. For this reason, a qualitative research approach was selected to follow the survey. As suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990), employing qualitative research is beneficial as it enables researchers to explain the attitudes, beliefs, and experiences of the research subjects in a more thorough manner.

An in-depth semi-structured interview approach was chosen as a means of obtaining the qualitative data from the participants. This was decided for a number of reasons. First, from the interviewee side, this method encourages more free expression relating to thoughts and feelings than is possible in a structured questionnaire (Kim et al., 2009). From the researcher's viewpoint, in-depth semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to probe deeper into the way the respondents interpret their experiences, particularly pertaining to the social and cultural elements that are important for creating unique and memorable experiences (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009). Correspondingly,

interviews offer a certain degree of flexibility that may be needed to understand the complex behaviour of participants. For instance, the researcher will be able to change the wording or the order of the interview questions, and to revisit a topic a number of times, depending on the flow of the conversation with the interviewees (Bryman, 2006).

5.3.1 Interview Guidelines Development

An interview guideline was developed for the semi-structured interview (see Appendix 7). In this study, the use of this guideline enabled the researcher to focus on each interview while still ensuring the flexibility to explore additional, relevant topics that might appear during the interview (Jennings, 2010b). It became a supplementary point of reference besides the field notes during the transcription and the data analysis stage.

Based on the relevant concepts examined in the proposed conceptual framework, there were 13 questions being asked of each interviewee. Each question was designed to reveal how the international visitors engaged in the during-dining and post-dining stages with local Indonesian food. The semi-structured interviews were organised into 4 parts as follows.

Part 1 contained four questions aimed at exploring the cognitive and affective perceptions of the interviewees with regard to food quality aspects that they discovered during dining on Indonesian local food. The first question required interviewees to recall the name of the local Indonesian food that they had eaten. Subsequent questions explored reasons for deciding to eat the mentioned food and how the interviewee described the taste, appearance, ingredients and spices used in the dish. Interviewees were also asked to compare their initial expectations with their actual experience of local dining.

Part 2 comprised three questions to uncover thoughts and feelings of the interviewees towards the physical aspects of dining. This involved discovering where the dining experience with the local food had taken place, followed by the reason for choosing this particular location. Other physical-related aspects the interviewees were asked to describe related to the atmosphere and the cleanliness of the dining establishment.

Part 3 consisted of two questions, seeking understanding of the interviewees' thoughts and feelings towards the social and cultural aspects of the dining and how these aspects influenced their perceptions. It also addressed the role of service personnel who served during the dining as well as the presence of other customers at the dining establishment.

Part 4 aimed to explore the interviewees' satisfaction and future behavioural intentions as part of their post-dining experience stage. In this part, the interviewees were again required to compare their culinary experiences, after encountering local food, with the initial expectation prior to dining. The future behavioural intentions referred to whether the interviewees would like to engage with dining on local Indonesian food again in the future or on their next visit to Indonesia. Finally, the interview concluded with a question about their willingness to recommend the dining experience with local Indonesian food to others.

5.3.2 Sampling and Justification

In qualitative studies, a non-probability or non-random sampling method is often chosen when selecting the sample (Jennings, 2010b). In this thesis, the approach adopted for sampling the informants was a purposive sampling technique. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008, p. 397), "a purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where a researcher selects sample members to conform to some criteria". In a more specific way, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, p. 76) defined purposive sampling as the "selection of individuals/groups based on specific questions/purposes of the research in lieu of random sampling and on the basis of information available about these individuals/groups". In accordance with this, Maykut and Morehouse (1994) emphasised that qualitative sampling includes people (or settings) selected for the goal of gaining a deep understanding of some phenomenon experienced by a selected group of people. Thus, a purposive sampling technique was applied for choosing interview participants.

For the purpose of this study, three criteria were used to recruit the participants. First, they were a respondent in the survey. Second, they had expressed an interest in dining on local Indonesian food or a deliberate intention to do so, (as opposed to other foreign foods like Japanese, Thai, or Italian food), at least once during their time in Indonesia.

Lastly, the participant had to show a willingness to participate in the interview and thus, to be further contacted by the researcher. In compliance with human research ethics regulations, respondent participation in the semi-structured interview was voluntary. Only those who were willing to participate were asked to provide their contact details. The researcher was then able to contact them for the purpose of scheduling a subsequent interview before they checked-out of the hotel and departed East Java.

Whilst quantitative studies have more strict criteria for obtaining statistically valid samples of the population, the sample size for a qualitative study is not so exact (Ruhanen-Hunter, 2006). Most often, the size of sample is determined by the research objectives and research questions sought (Patton, 2001). Further, Patton (2001) asserted that there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry as there is no attempt to make generalisations for the population as is the case with quantitative study. The generalisations are made about a theory rather than about a population of the study. In other words, if the generalisations are required, they are made in relation to what the researcher needs to find out, what will be useful, what will have credibility and what can be done within the available resources or data. As suggested by Creswell (2009), a sample size of a minimum 10 to 15 interviews is appropriate. Considering this and upon reviewing the two criteria of purposive sampling, this study planned to conduct at least 15 interviews with international visitors who had participated in the survey at Phase 1 of the data collection.

5.3.3 Data Collection Procedures

Considering that the target sample groups were international visitors from various countries, the interviews were conducted in English as the most widely international language used. As in Phase 1, interview participants were given an information sheet about the study as part of the research protocols (see Appendix 4). If they agreed to participate, the interviewees were required to read and sign a consent form (see Appendix 5). The interview guidelines were used to ensure the consistency of the questions delivered to all participants (see Appendix 7), each interview was completed within 20 and 45 minutes and was digitally recorded. It was planned to conduct the interviews in the lobby of the hotels where the participants stayed. However, as already

discussed, not all interviews could be undertaken in the hotels. Two interviews were conducted through Skype.

The semi-structured interviews were completed over a three-month period from mid-July to October 2011. As indicated in Section 5.3.2, it was intended that a minimum of 15 interviews would be completed and this was achieved. Over the fifteen interviews, the time lag between the food experience and the applicable interview varied, depending on when the participants were approached and able to participate in the survey and interviews. To ensure that participants were able to recall their food experiences, it is noted that no interviews were conducted outside the period of the field-work time frame.

The 15 interviews involved 7 females and 8 males; 10 were non-Asian travellers whilst 5 were Asian travellers. The challenge encountered at Phase 2 appeared to be dealt with finding the interview participants. That is, although the survey respondents showed their intention to dine locally during their visit, most of them refused to be involved further in the research due to the following reasons. First, a short visiting period meant that some respondents wanted to be free from any distractions and enjoy their time instead. Second, the fact that many respondents visited not only East Java but also other places in Indonesia created the difficulty of chasing up respondents for another interview. Despite these challenges, the data collected from the interviews was sufficient in providing in-depth insights to address the research question.

5.3.4 Qualitative Data Analysis Procedure

There are numerous methods for analysing qualitative data, ranging from ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, historical research, not to mention, content analysis. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005, p. 1278), content analysis is “a method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns”. The main goal in employing content analysis is to gain knowledge, new insights, and understanding of the phenomenon under study through valid inferences from text data to the context of the study (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The textual data can include verbal, print, or electronic forms generated from narrative responses (travel diaries, open-ended survey questions,

interviews, focus groups, and observations), or print media (articles, books, or manuals) (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Stepchenkova, Kirilenko, & Morrison, 2009). Krippendorff (1980) pointed out that one key strength of utilising content analysis is that it allows the researcher to make replicable and valid inferences from data to their context, with the aim of providing knowledge, new insights, a representation of facts and a practical guide to action.

Stepchenkova et al. (2009) explained that there are two general classes of epistemologies of content analysis in social science: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative content analysis refers to methods that are capable of providing statistical inferences from text populations. This involves deductive reasoning. It is used when the structure of analysis is operationalised on the basis of previous knowledge with the aim of testing a theory (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The main idea of this type of content analysis is that “many words of text can be classified into much fewer categories” (Weber, 1990, p. 7). On the other hand, qualitative content analysis relates to non-statistical and exploratory methods which encompass inductive reasoning, where there is not enough knowledge gained about the phenomenon being studied (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Qualitative content analysis, in contrast to quantitative, goes beyond merely counting words to examining language intensely. Large amounts of text can be classified into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meaning. The categories emerging can indicate either explicit communication or inferred communication of the problems being studied (Weber, 1990).

Many researchers consider content analysis as a flexible method for analysing text data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). However, Weber (2001) drew attention to the fact that the specific type of content analysis approach selected by a researcher depends upon the problems being investigated, the purpose of the research, and the theoretical foundation used. This poses a challenge since there is no simple right way of doing the analysis. Instead, researchers have to judge what variations are most appropriate for their particular problems (Weber, 1990).

In this thesis, content analysis was undertaken based on the textual data derived from the transcripts of semi-structured interviews with 15 informants. As described in Section 5.3.1, the interview questions were developed based on the concepts examined

in the proposed framework. Thus, the interview aimed to assess the application of the visitor dining experience framework, particularly at the during and post-dining stages. However, the interpretation of what the participants expressed in the interviews went beyond the examined concepts. Since the interviewees were free to share what they thought and felt about their dining experiences, it was anticipated that new themes would appear during the interpretation of the meaning of the interview data.

In terms of data analysis methods, there has been a growing interest amongst researchers to utilise computer programs such as NVivo, ATLAS.ti, and NUD*IST for analysing the qualitative data. John and Johnson (2000) and Lu and Shulman (2008) contend that using Qualitative Data Analysis Software (QDAS) will assist researchers in various ways. This includes: improving the ability to deal with large amounts of data; reducing the amount of time needed for handling tasks manually; increasing the flexibility in handling data; offering a more rigorous analysis of data; and providing a more visible audit trail in data analysis. However, despite the various QDAS available and the arguments presented for its use, the researcher decided to examine the qualitative data manually. This decision was taken with reference to the studies of Bong (2002) and Davis and Meyer (2009) which questioned whether the use of computer aided analysis necessarily assists in-depth understanding of the open-ended responses of the participants. In fact, although the whole qualitative data analysis was found to be an arduous and time-consuming process, doing manual analysis allowed a closer examination of the data and a more rigorous identification of patterns and emerging themes. Note cards and pencil and paper outlines were used intensively by the researcher to assist the manual analysis of the data. Accordingly, richer interpretation of the data was produced.

This thesis adopts Glaser and Strauss' (1967) constant comparison analysis method to analyse the interview data. To perform this analysis, the systematic procedures as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007) were applied. Figure 5.4 outlines the steps accomplished in analysing the qualitative data.

First, the data was collected through the semi-structured interviews as an attempt to address the research questions. Second, the data reduction phase began by converting interview results from audiotapes to verbatim transcripts. The less relevant responses

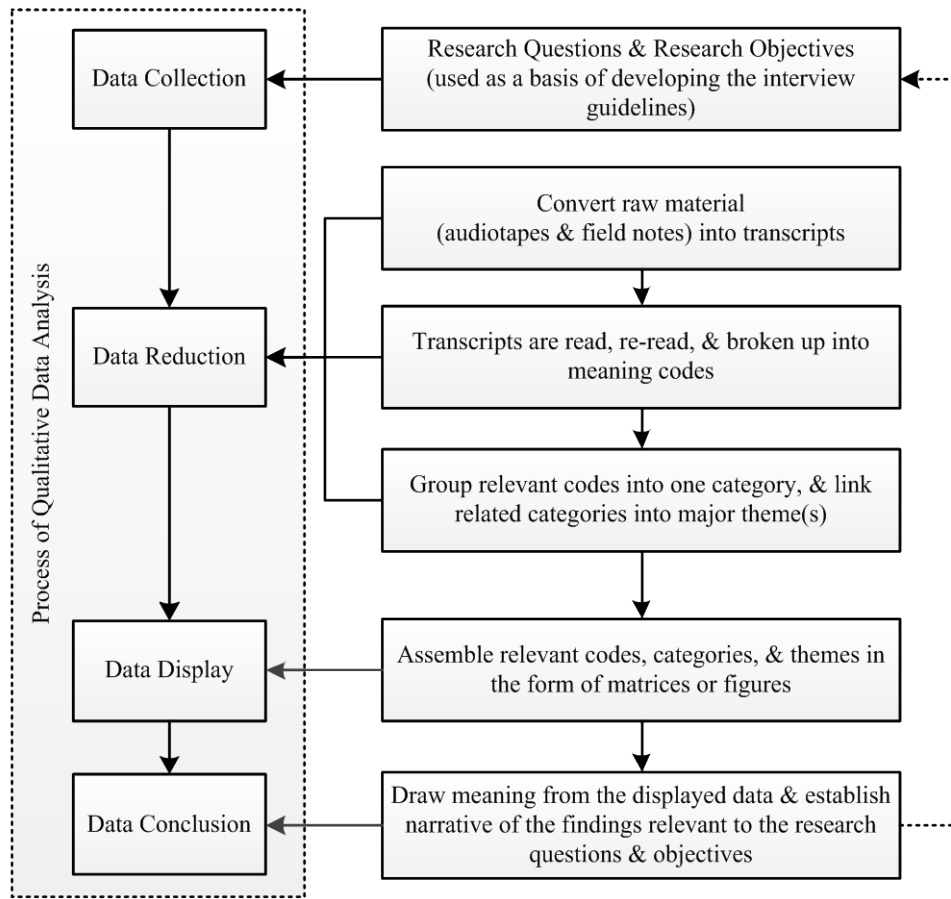


Figure 5.4 Qualitative Data Analysis Process

Adapted from Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007); Miles and Huberman (1994)

were then excluded from further analyses. According to DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall, and McCulloch (2011), qualitative data need to be reduced and transformed to make them more readily accessible, understandable, and to draw out various themes and patterns. As part of the data reduction process, the interview transcripts were read, re-read, and broken down into distinct meaning units on a sentence-by-sentence basis through simple coding. Each relevant transcript was read meticulously to identify smaller meaningful words or phrases that are relevant to the research questions and to label each chunk with a descriptive title or a code (see Appendix 12a). Each new chunk of data was then compared with previous codes, so similar chunks were labelled with the same code (see Appendix 12b). Applying Glaser and Strauss' (1967) inductive coding approach, the emergent codes were assigned based on what appeared on the data and were treated as raw data that captured the ideas conveyed by the informants.

Following this, similar codes were collated and organised into larger and more encompassing categories (see Appendix 12c). According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), category names can come from the pool of concepts that researchers already have from their disciplinary and professional reading, or borrowed from the technical literature, or are the words and phrases used by informants themselves. The categorisation process continued as the size of the higher-order data categories are increased by grouping the lower-order themes that were emerging. This process of grouping ensured that the themes in each category were distinct from one another (see Appendix 12d). Data were continually refined until saturation was reached or no more new categories or concepts could be extracted from the data.

The third step was displaying the data, seen as the process in which relevant data were presented to provide an organised assembly of information that allows a conclusion to be made. Berg (2007) explains that the qualitative data can be displayed in the form of tables; tally sheets of themes or summaries. In this thesis, the identified themes were drawn into a form of a figure (Figures 7.1 to 7.10) while the participant responses to the interviews were displayed in a form of a summary table (see Appendix 13).

The final step of the qualitative data analysis process was drawing conclusions. It began with deciding what things mean, noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, causal flows and propositions. This step involved the activity of “drawing meaning from displayed data” and establishing the narrative of the findings relevant to addressing the problems or questions being investigated. In this thesis, the analysis of the interview findings was undertaken in a narrative way in Chapter 7 whilst the discussion as to how the findings have accorded with the research objectives, research questions, and propositions were presented in Chapter 8.

5.4 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues must be considered whenever a research project is associated with the collection of data involved human participants (Veal, 2011). Such considerations aim to ensure that the research caused no harm to the participants. An ethics application to conduct this research was submitted to the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee (VUHREC), gaining an ethics application number of HRETH 11/110.

Ethical approval for this research was granted by the VUHREC on the 19th July 2011 prior to commencement of data collection (see Appendix 8).

As already indicated, at the beginning of data collection each participant was provided with an information sheet about the research, including a clear outline of the research process, and the names of parties responsible for the research project. In addition, participants were offered the opportunity to withdraw from the research at any time without any penalty. This provision was stated in the participant information sheet (see Appendix 1 for the survey and Appendix 4 for the interview). Each participant was asked to sign the appropriate consent form which stated that they had been given full information about the research and had agreed voluntarily to participate in the study. The consent form served as a guarantee of their privacy and safety (see Appendix 2 for the survey and Appendix 5 for the interview).

Given the purpose of the research was primarily to examine all international visitor experiences relevant to local Indonesian dining, the possibility of causing discomfort to participants was not considered significant. Thus, the risk of harm to participants was considered to be minimal.

Permission was sought from participants to record the interviews. The recordings were transcribed by the researcher without using administrative support, thus reducing the chance of personal information being supplied to a third party. The researcher ensured all participants that the information they provided was confidential and that their names would not be used. Only the researcher and supervisors would have access to real names. In the case of any quotations from interviews used in the research report and any related academic publications produced, participants as the source of information will be anonymous.

In regard to data storage, once all data analyses was completed, the consent forms, original completed questionnaires, recording and the interview transcripts were stored in a lockable metal filing cabinet for safety purposes with access given only to the researcher and two supervisors. Moreover, for backing-up purpose, these data were scanned and saved on a USB disk. Data will be held for five years after the date of publication of this thesis.

5.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a discussion and justification for the methods and empirical research process undertaken during this study. The application of mixed methods research design involved the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. The choice of this method built upon the objectives of the study to examine the applicability of the proposed conceptual framework through the assessment of five research propositions. This study applied mixed methods with two separate data collection phases to discover the underlying factors that influence the experiences of international visitors relating to dining with local Indonesian food. It also aimed to explore the depth of such experiences, looking at with a range of factors such as demographics, travel characteristics, past experiences, and external factors such as food quality, food culture differences, physical environment, and social considerations.

In the first phase of the empirical research, the survey was conducted to elicit data relating to visitor preconceptions and expectations prior to their actual local food dining engagement. Following this, the second phase involved semi-structured interviews designed to capture data regarding the perceptions of actual engagement with local food and their post-dining responses concerning satisfaction and behavioural intention. It also examined how these stages of experience were interrelated. The results and analysis from the data obtained through questionnaires and interviews are provided in the following two chapters (Chapters 6 and 7).

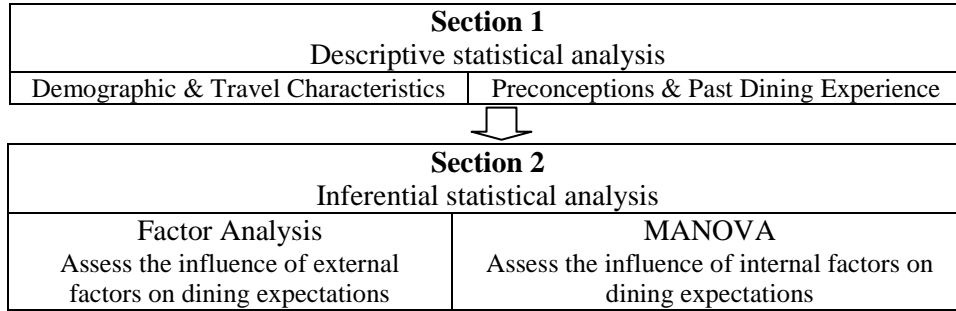
Chapter 6

Pre-Dining Experiences with Local Food

6.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 presented a systematic depiction of, and justification for, the mixed methods research approach to assess the applicability of the proposed conceptual framework. This chapter presents and discusses the quantitative findings that were generated from the questionnaire-based survey which formed the first phase of the research. The survey itself aimed to address the influential factors of international visitor expectations prior to their actual engagement with local Indonesian food dining experiences.

This chapter comprises two major sections as outlined in Figure 6.1. The first section describes the respondent profiles relating to demographics, travel characteristics, and their preconceptions of, and past dining experience with, local Indonesian food. The second section discusses the underlying internal and external factors affecting the expectations prior to actual dining experiences with local Indonesian food.

**Figure 6.1 Data Analysis Procedure for Quantitative Study Results**

6.1 Descriptive Statistical Analysis

This section provides an overview of the demographic profiles as well as travel characteristics of 349 respondents. This is an initial step prior to utilising further and more in-depth forms of statistical analyses.

6.1.1 Demographic Profiles

Table 6.1 illustrates the respondent's demographic diversity with regard to gender, age group, country of residence, education attainment, and occupation profiles.

Table 6.1 Demographic Profiles

| Profile | Categories | Frequency | % |
|---|-----------------------------------|-----------|------|
| Gender | Female | 153 | 43.8 |
| | Male | 196 | 56.2 |
| Age group | 18-30 years old | 170 | 48.7 |
| | 31-40 years old | 49 | 14.0 |
| | 41-50 years old | 57 | 16.3 |
| | 51-60 years old | 47 | 13.5 |
| | Above 60 years old | 26 | 7.4 |
| Country of residence (after regrouped) | America | 22 | 6.3 |
| | Asia | 101 | 28.9 |
| | Oceania (Australia & Pacific) | 18 | 5.2 |
| | Europe | 198 | 56.7 |
| | Others (e.g. Middle East, Africa) | 6 | 1.7 |
| Highest education attained | Secondary school | 78 | 22.3 |
| | Diploma or bachelor degree | 147 | 42.1 |
| | Postgraduate degree | 124 | 35.5 |
| Occupation | Student | 117 | 33.5 |
| | Business manager | 41 | 11.7 |
| | Professional | 110 | 31.5 |
| | Employee | 51 | 14.6 |
| | Retiree | 9 | 2.6 |
| | Others | 21 | 6.0 |

Note: n= 349. Totals of percentages might not be equal to 100 for each profile due to rounding and general missing data

As seen in Table 6.1, there was more participation from *male* respondents (56.2%) compared to *females* (43.8%). On the basis of age, the respondents were classified into five different groups as shown on the table. Compared to the other age groups, the *18-30 years old* group represented the largest proportion (48.7%) of the total respondents. Nevertheless, when the other four age groups of *31-40 years old*, *41-50 years old*, *51-60 years old*, and *above 60 years old* were combined into one group of *above 30 years old*, this combined group characterised the majority of total respondents (51.3%). This finding therefore suggests that in relation to the age groups, there was a fairly equal composition between the younger and the older groups.

In terms of country of residence, since the question was open-ended, the respondents were able to clearly state their country of residence. To provide an easier way to analyse a very broad range of respondent answers on this question, the responses were regrouped based on five major regions, namely *America*, *Asia*, *Oceania* (Australia and Pacific), *Europe*, and *Others* (representing those who resided outside the aforementioned regions, such as the Middle East and Africa). The data reveals that the majority (56.7%) of the respondents were from *Europe*, with those from *Asian* countries (28.9%) in second place. It should be noted that with reference to Indonesia's tourism statistics, participant representation in this study was inconsistent with the composition of major inbound markets, as described in Section 2.4.3 which was dominated by Asian visitors (\pm above 65%), followed by approximately 15% from Europe (Statistics Indonesia, 2013). In addition, as also discussed in Section 5.2.2.2, low participation by prospective Asian respondents may have been attributable to the language barrier pertaining to administration of the questionnaire to the group. In contrast, since the questionnaire was designed in English, there was a greater willingness to participate by visitors from English-language background countries.

Further, demographic distribution by highest education attained shows that the majority of respondents (42.1%) graduated at *diploma or bachelor degree level*, followed by *postgraduate degree* (35.5%), and *secondary school* (22.3%), indicating a high proportion of university graduates. With respect to asking about respondent occupation, the term 'occupation' used in this research referred not just to a specific job or work position, but also to the day-to-day activities that the respondents carried out in their

respective country of residence. Dividing the respondents into six groups, the *student* group was included to anticipate younger travellers still pursuing their education. By contrast, the *retiree* group was specified as a distinct group to accommodate the significant number of older people who had left the workplace yet could still afford to travel. As indicated in Table 6.1, the *professional* and *student* groups shared almost the same proportion of the total respondents (31.5% and 33.5, respectively). The working group, represented by the *employee* and *business manager* groups comprised 26.3% of the total respondents.

In aggregate, it is noted that a disproportionate share of the respondents were *males*, aged between *18-30 years old*, from *European* countries, who were working as *professionals*, and had attained their highest education level at *diploma or bachelor degree level*.

6.1.2 Travel Characteristics

The respondent travel characteristics relating to their travel purpose, frequency of visit, length of visit, and type of travel party are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Travel Characteristics

| Characteristic | Categories | Frequency | % |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------|------|
| Main purpose | Holiday | 143 | 41.0 |
| | Business (MICE) | 85 | 24.4 |
| | VFR | 10 | 2.9 |
| | Educational/cultural exchange | 99 | 28.4 |
| | Others | 12 | 3.4 |
| Frequency of visit to Indonesia | First time visiting Indonesia | 221 | 63.3 |
| | 2-3 previous visits | 63 | 18.1 |
| | More than 3 previous visit | 65 | 18.6 |
| Length of current visit | Less than 3 days | 26 | 7.4 |
| | 4-7 days | 47 | 13.5 |
| | 1-2 weeks | 53 | 15.2 |
| | More than 2 weeks | 223 | 63.9 |
| Travel party | Alone | 92 | 26.4 |
| | Couple | 71 | 20.3 |
| | Family | 49 | 14.0 |
| | Group of people/tourists | 137 | 39.3 |

Note: n= 349.

With regard to purpose of travel to Indonesia, visitors were categorised into five groups of: *holiday, business or MICE, VFR, education/cultural exchange, and others*. The results revealed that the majority of respondents (41%) visited Indonesia for *holidays*, and there was a fairly equal composition of those who travelled for *education/cultural exchange* (28.4%) and for *business/MICE* (24.4%). Participation by *business/MICE* group respondents included individual business travellers who were attending to business-related matters in East Java and international delegates at academic or industry conferences that were held in the sampling site hotels. As for the *education/cultural exchange* group, participation was dominated by those travelling to East Java to learn about Indonesian culture through their involvement in community development programs. Such programs, either offered by an Indonesian university or by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Indonesia as government scholarships which target foreign students, are part of the efforts to promote Indonesian culture to the international market through education programs (Nurfuadah, 2011). This may explain the results reported in Table 6.2 which exhibits a substantial proportion of respondents (28.4%) who were visiting Indonesia on *education/cultural exchange*, in accordance with the significant percentage of the *student* group (33.5%), as displayed in Table 6.1.

Relating to the frequency of visits to Indonesia, over half (63.3%) of the respondents identified as *first time visiting Indonesia*. Those who had visited Indonesia *more than three previous visits* represented 18.6% of respondents, almost equal to those who had experienced *2-3 previous visits* (at 18.1%). In relation to the length of current visit, most respondents stated that they would spend *more than one week* of travel – 63.9% for *more than two weeks* and 15.2% for *1-2 weeks*. These findings were consistent with the statistics of the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy which recorded the average length of stay for international visitors between 2007 and 2012 as about 7.70-9.02 days (Statistics Indonesia, 2013). When this is connected with the frequency of visit findings, it is most likely that those who were *first time* travellers to Indonesia would spend longer exploring different types of tourism activities in the country, due to the geography of Indonesia as an archipelago. The highest percentage of the *more than two weeks* group might be associated with the *students* group who undertook cultural/educational exchange (see Table 6.2). By contrast, only 7.4% of total respondents stated that they had *less than 3 days* to travel in the country. This might

represent those who travelled for business purposes and needed to depart after undertaking their meeting or business activities.

Another important aspect of travel characteristics is the composition of the *travel party*. Almost half of the total respondents (39.3%) stated that they travelled with a *group of people or tourists*. While fewer percentage of those who travelled with *family* (14%), a similar proportion appeared between groups of respondents who travelled *alone* and as part of a *couple* (26.4% and 20.3%, respectively).

Overall, it can be concluded that a majority of respondents indicated that their trip to Indonesia was for the *first time*, was for *holiday* purposes, for a duration of *more than two weeks*, and involved travelling with a *group of people or tourists*.

6.1.3 Pre-Travel Information Search

Table 6.3 presents the results of the two questions aimed to identify whether the respondents had searched for information relating to their destination prior to their trip. As described in Section 5.2.1.3, two questions were measured using a five-point *Likert* agreement scale, as follows: 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*neutral*); 4 (*agree*), to 5 (*strongly agree*). For data interpretation purposes, however, the responses of strongly disagree and disagree were clustered as *disagreed*, whilst responses of strongly agree and agree were pooled as *agreed*, with the *neutral* response remaining the same. This recoding however, does not affect or change the responses provided by the respondents to the questions.

Table 6.3 Pre-travel Information Search

| Statement | Category of response | Frequency | % |
|---|----------------------|-----------|------|
| Gathering information relating to destination | Disagreed | 29 | 8.3 |
| | Neutral | 85 | 24.4 |
| | Agreed | 234 | 67.0 |
| Gathering information relating to local food in destination | Disagreed | 106 | 30.4 |
| | Neutral | 122 | 35.0 |
| | Agreed | 120 | 34.4 |

Note: n= 349. Totals of percentages might not be equals to 100 for each profile due to rounding and general missing data

As illustrated in Table 6.3, more than half of the total respondents (67%) *agreed* that before they travel to a destination, they usually gathered information relating to the destination they would visit. Nevertheless, when it came to the question of whether the respondents undertook pre-travel information searches relating to local food in the visited destination, the responses were substantially different. A total of 30.4% of respondents *disagreed* with the statement that they sought information relating to the local food of the visited destination prior to the travel. Nevertheless, about 34.4% of the total respondents *agreed* that such information had been sought. This suggests a potential segment of the visitor population that might be targeted in marketing campaigns relating to culinary tourism.

6.1.4 Preconceptions of Local Indonesian Food

Five questions were delivered in the survey to identify respondent levels of knowledge relating to Indonesian local food (see Appendix 3, Part B, Questions 3-7). Of these five, the responses to three questions are outlined in Table 6.4 showing frequency related to: past experiences of eating local Indonesian food; level of knowledge about Indonesian cuisine; and expressions of interest in engaging with local dining while visiting Indonesia. Meanwhile, the remaining two questions were open-ended and responses are discussed subsequently.

Table 6.4 Knowledge on Local Indonesian Food

| Statement | Category | Frequency | % |
|--|-----------|-----------|------|
| Previous information obtained by hearing from others about local Indonesian food | Yes | 275 | 78.8 |
| | No | 73 | 20.9 |
| Previous information obtained by reading the information about local Indonesian food | Yes | 175 | 50.1 |
| | No | 173 | 49.6 |
| Have a good knowledge about Indonesian cuisine | Disagreed | 113 | 34.1 |
| | Neutral | 139 | 39.8 |
| | Agreed | 90 | 25.8 |

Note: n= 349. Totals of percentages might not be equal to 100 for each profile due to rounding and general missing data

As displayed in Table 6.4, the vast majority of respondents (78.8%) had heard about local Indonesian food before their visit to the country. However, when the respondents

were questioned whether they had read any information about local Indonesian food prior to their visit, the result revealed a fairly uniform response between those who expressed *yes* and *no*, with a slightly higher frequency in the *yes* group (50.1% and 49.6%). This result indicates that it is more likely that respondents received information pertaining to local Indonesian food verbally by WOM from their friends, family or relatives, rather than from written sources like magazines or newspaper articles about Indonesian cuisines.

Moreover, when questioned as to how well the respondents knew local Indonesian cuisine, only 25.8% of the total respondents *agreed* that they considered themselves as having good knowledge, while (39.8%) expressed a *neutral* response and 34.1% of them *disagreed* that they knew a lot about the food of the country.

In addition to the preceding results, respondent preconceptions were also examined based on their ability to recall the names of local Indonesian dishes and the preconceptions they had about the defining characteristics of Indonesian cuisine. As has been discussed in Section 5.2.3.2, findings are illustrated in the form of tag clouds to provide a preliminary insight into preconceptions about local Indonesian food.



Figure 6.2 The most frequently occurring words that appear in the combined responses relating to the names of local Indonesian food

As seen in Figure 6.2, respondents recalled a variety of names for local Indonesian dishes. The larger font size of particular dishes, such as *nasi goreng*, *gado-gado*, *sate ayam*, *soto ayam*, and *rendang* provide an indication that these dishes were ‘top-of-mind’ for respondents. To improve the accuracy of the above tag cloud figure, Table 6.5 presents information about eight local Indonesian dishes and the frequency of recall for each dish.

Of all the dishes, *nasi goreng* appeared to be the food that was most easily recalled by respondents, receiving the highest frequency (recalled 171 times). This indicates its popularity as a well-known Indonesian signature dish. It was followed by *sate ayam*, *soto ayam*, and *gado-gado*. This result is in accordance with the recent CNNGo’s online survey in July 2011 involving more than 35,000 international participants to vote for the world’s most delicious food (Cheung, 2011; Harmandini, 2011). The survey resulted in

Table 6.5 Recall on Any Names of Local Indonesian Food

| Name of local Indonesian dish recalled | First Recall | Second Recall | Third Recall | Total Recall | % |
|--|-------------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|------|
| | (number of times) | | | | |
| <i>Nasi goreng</i> (fried rice) | 119 | 36 | 16 | 171 | 34.4 |
| <i>Sate ayam</i> (chicken satay) | 26 | 36 | 21 | 83 | 16.7 |
| <i>Soto ayam</i> (yellow chicken soup with vermicelli) | 18 | 14 | 16 | 48 | 9.7 |
| <i>Gado-gado</i> (vegetable salad with peanut sauce) | 21 | 14 | 11 | 46 | 9.3 |
| <i>Rawon</i> (black beef clear soup) | 5 | 7 | 5 | 17 | 3.4 |
| <i>Rendang</i> (beef stewed with thick coconut paste) | 4 | 1 | 7 | 12 | 2.4 |
| <i>Sop buntut</i> (oxtail clear soup) | 5 | 2 | 1 | 8 | 1.6 |
| <i>Nasi Padang</i> (West Sumatra coconut milk rice) | 4 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 1.4 |
| <i>Tempe</i> (fried fragmented soya bean) | 3 | 1 | 3 | 7 | 1.4 |

the identification of three Indonesian dishes ranked within the top fifteen of fifty dishes. These were *rendang*, *nasi goreng*, and *sate ayam*, with *rendang* and *nasi goreng* voted as the top and second most frequently selected while *sate ayam* was ranked fourteenth.

The range of local food names that were recalled by respondents, as illustrated in Figure 6.2 and Table 6.5, provides a positive indication that there was high awareness amongst international visitors concerning the diversity of local Indonesian food. Seo et al. (2013) note that under the influence of globalisation and the information era, exposure towards a wider array of cuisines can now be readily obtained even before the visitors begin an

overseas trip. As a result, more people have the opportunity to become informed about foreign cuisines.

Figure 6.3 and Table 6.6 below show the most salient local Indonesian food characteristics as perceived by the respondents. The larger font size of words in the tag cloud in Figure 6.3 indicates that *spicy*, *rice-based*, *tasty*, *mostly fried*, and *herbs spices* were words most frequently associated with Indonesian cuisine.

In addition to the tag cloud presentation, Table 6.6 provides more detailed insights into how the respondents described the major characteristics of Indonesian local cuisine based on their level of knowledge. The results were categorised into four groups pertaining to taste of the food, ingredients used in the dish, variety of the food, and the way of cooking or preparing the food.



Figure 6.3 The most frequently occurring words that appear in the combined responses relating to characteristics of local Indonesian food

First, relating to the taste of food, local Indonesian food was mostly defined as *spicy*, recalled 213 times. Chilli is an essential ingredient in Indonesian cuisine and is frequently used to cook the main dishes. As part of the Indonesian food culture (foodways), it is very common to have chilly-hot sambal as the condiments to

accompany the main dishes. The cuisines in many regions, such as West Sumatra and North Sulawesi, are well known for their strong flavour which comes from the hot chilli (Koene, 1996).

Second, in relation to the ingredients used in the dish, many respondents preconceived local Indonesian food as *rice-based* (88 recalls). In other words, many respondents were aware that Indonesian cuisine is closely associated with a lot of rice consumption. Von Holzen (1996) argued that rice is central to Indonesian cuisine and considered to be the most popular staple food for the majority of the population. It is usually complemented by one or two main savoury dishes consisting of meat and vegetables (Prince, 2009). Respondents also defined Indonesian food as having *lots herbs and spices* (21 recalls). Accordingly, the preconception as to the intensive use of *herbs and spices* was consistent with the respondent responses expressing that that local Indonesian food was *tasty* (40 recall frequency), and had a *strong flavour* (9 times recall). As described by Prince (2009), basic ingredients of Indonesian cuisine consist of a variety of herbs,

Table 6.6 Preconceptions related to Major Characteristics of Local Indonesian Food

| Major local Indonesian food characteristics recalled by the respondents | First recall | Second recall | Third recall | Total recall | % |
|---|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|------|
| <i>(number of times)</i> | | | | | |
| <i>Related to taste of food</i> | | | | | |
| 1 spicy | 151 | 52 | 10 | 213 | 37.8 |
| 2 tasty | 16 | 15 | 9 | 40 | 7.1 |
| 3 sweet | 12 | 13 | 6 | 31 | 5.5 |
| 4 strong flavour | 2 | 7 | 0 | 9 | 1.6 |
| 5 authentic | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0.4 |
| <i>Related to ingredients of the food</i> | | | | | |
| 1 rice-based | 46 | 29 | 13 | 88 | 15.6 |
| 2 herbs & spices | 9 | 8 | 4 | 21 | 3.7 |
| 3 coconut milk | 4 | 7 | 3 | 14 | 2.5 |
| 4 fresh | 6 | 4 | 2 | 12 | 2.1 |
| 5 lots of vegetables | 3 | 2 | 6 | 11 | 2.0 |
| 6 lots of use of peanut sauce | 1 | 2 | 6 | 9 | 1.6 |
| 7 sambal as condiments | 2 | 5 | 1 | 8 | 1.4 |
| <i>Related to the way of cooking the food</i> | | | | | |
| 1 mostly fried | 9 | 12 | 8 | 29 | 5.2 |
| 2 oily | 12 | 7 | 2 | 21 | 3.7 |
| <i>Related to variety of the food</i> | | | | | |
| 1 lots of variety | 3 | 11 | 6 | 20 | 3.6 |
| 2 halal | 1 | 2 | 5 | 8 | 1.4 |
| 3 lots of seafood | 0 | 5 | 2 | 7 | 1.2 |
| 4 lots of fruits | 1 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 0.8 |

seasoning, and spices, as a reflection of the country's natural resources. As discussed earlier, most Indonesian dishes use fresh herbs, onion and garlic, ginger roots, turmeric, galangal, candlenuts, lemon basil, lemon grass, not to mention chilli (Von Holzen, 1996), leading to the rich flavours of the dishes produced.

In addition, most respondents recalled that in terms of the method of cooking, Indonesian food was characterised as *mostly fried* (29 recalls) and similarly, as *oily* (recalled by the respondents 21 times). With regard to food variety, the preconception of respondents was that Indonesian cuisine has *a lot of variety of food* to offer (20 recalls). This result is reasonable given the fact that as the largest archipelago country, Indonesia also holds cultural diversity with approximately 300 ethnic groups (Ardiwidjaja, 2004). Each ethnicity in Indonesia has its own local food, leading to a wide range of food alternatives on offer to visitors (Alamsyah, 2008).

Participants' identification of major characteristics also revealed that Indonesian food was preconceived as halal. Given the fact that Indonesia has the largest Muslim population in the world, the cuisines in the country, therefore, must follow what Muslim religion believes; that is, they are free of non-halal ingredients, such as pork.

The findings above suggest important implications as to how culinary tourism in Indonesia could be promoted through the appropriate portrayal of food images to international visitors. As identified in Section 2.2.2, Lin et al. (2011) concluded that the dimensions of food, such as class, values, and feature of the food are major determinants of food identity that need to be exposed if the characteristics of a destination are to be portrayed.

6.1.5 Past Dining Experiences with Local Indonesian Food

Table 6.7 Past Dining Experiences with Local Indonesian Food

| Response | Frequency | % |
|----------|-----------|------|
| Yes | 208 | 59.6 |
| No | 141 | 40.4 |

Note: n=349.

With regards to past dining experiences, despite the fact that the vast majority of the respondents (63.3%) visited Indonesia for the *first time* (see Table 6.2), it is interesting

to discover from Table 6.7 that over half of the total respondents (59.6%) claimed that they had eaten Indonesian local food previously. To obtain more insights into this question, the researcher asked a short probing question to some respondents about where their past dining experience took place. Most of them stated that they had eaten Indonesian food in their home country. This finding is reasonable considering that almost one third (28.9%) of the total respondents from Asia resided in Indonesia's closest neighbouring countries such as Singapore and Malaysia. Sharing similar cultural roots with Indonesia, Malay cuisine (Koentjaraningrat, 1975) for example, is often compared with that of Indonesia and there are many Indonesian restaurants in Malaysia. Another interesting fact revealed by some Dutch respondents was that they sometimes cooked Indonesian food at home, either because they were married to an Indonesian or had parents or grandparents who had lived in Indonesia during the Dutch colonial era.

6.1.6 Expression of Interest in Eating Indonesian Local Food

Table 6.8 Expression of Interest in Eating Indonesian Local Food

| Statement | Categories | Frequency | % |
|---|---|-----------|-------|
| Interest in eating Indonesian local food during visit | Yes | 339 | 97.1 |
| | No | 10 | 2.9 |
| | <i>Total</i> | 349 | 100.0 |
| Reasons for <i>no</i> interest in eating local Indonesian food during visit | Unfamiliar with the spices of ingredients used | 1 | 10.0 |
| | Unsure about hygiene during preparation process | 1 | 10.0 |
| | Unfamiliar with the tastes/flavours | 4 | 40.0 |
| | Medical reasons (e.g. dietary restrictions) | 2 | 25.0 |
| | Others | 2 | 25.0 |
| | <i>Total</i> | 10 | 100.0 |

Almost all respondents (97.1%) indicated their interest in eating Indonesian local food while they travelled in Indonesia. By contrast, only 2.9% of total respondents expressed their refusal to eat it, providing the following reasons: unfamiliarity with the tastes or flavours of local Indonesian food (40%); medical reasons or dietary requirements (25%); unfamiliarity with the spices or ingredients used in the food (10%); and feeling unsure about the level of hygiene during the food preparation process (10%). Those who refused to eat Indonesian food are classified as food neophobics - those who hesitate to try new foods (Fischler, 1988). Despite the significant role of local food encounters in enriching the visitor experience, the reasoning projected by respondents

within this group is understandable, since their suspicion is due to unfamiliarity with the ingredients used in the dishes or to hygiene concerns (Cohen & Avieli, 2004).

6.2 Inferential Statistical Analysis

Section 6.1 has provided detailed information as to the profile of the sample group of this study pertaining to demographic and travel characteristics, preconceptions about local Indonesian food, and their expressions of interest in trying the local food during travel to Indonesia. The current section is devoted to describing the underlying factors that influence international visitor expectations prior to engaging with the dining on local Indonesian food.

This would be achieved by utilising EFA and MANOVA. Both analyses involve multivariate analyses. Findings from the analyses are discussed separately in Sections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2.

6.2.1 Factor Analysis: Identifying the Influence of the External Factor on Visitor Dining Expectations

According to Henson and Roberts (2006), EFA is used to identify the factor structure or model for a set of variables or indicators. As comprehensively discussed in Chapter 3, various attributes and indicators have been developed and used by researchers to measure dining expectations (Antun et al., 2010; Batra, 2008; Jalis et al., 2009; Karim & Chi, 2010; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). When developing the conceptual framework of this research, some indicators were adopted from other studies whilst some were modified in accordance with the context of the study. In total, there were 24 dining expectation-related attributes as outlined in Table 5.3. These attributes were grouped deliberately by the researcher into four external aspects pertaining to the dining experience namely: food quality; food cultural-related; physical dining establishment; and social. The existence of 24 attributes of dining as well as the classification of these attributes into four aspects, however, could not be seen as a robust measurement scale. Validation was needed and applying EFA was considered the most appropriate means to address this problem.

To determine the dimensionality of the dining expectation scale, 24 dining-related items, derived from 320 samples, were first extracted by common factor analysis method using Varimax rotation. The result of the factor analysis procedure showed that a value of the KMO measure of sampling adequacy accounted for .797, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity demonstrated a significance at a level of .000 ($\chi^2 = 1.903E3$, $df = 276$), indicating that the factor analysis is appropriate. The unrotated component matrix resulted in a seven component solution with eigenvalue bigger than 1.0, explaining 58.187% of the total variance, which was very close to the cut-off value of 60%, as identified in Section 5.2.3.3.

As also discussed in Section 5.2.3.3, the cut-off for the loading was set at .40. All but one of the 24 items showed loadings above .40 on the first rotated component. *Other people in the dining place* was the only item which had a lower loading factor, at .355. It was therefore removed from the scale. Recent discussions in the literature have recognised the important role of other customers in influencing the quality of the dining experience (Antun et al., 2010; Morgan et al., 2008), and specifically in forming the expectations at pre-encounter service stage (Kim & Lee, 2012). However, in their study, Taylor and Miyazaki (1995) revealed that consumers' pre-encounter expectations for services are shaped primarily around core service benefits that are central to the provision of the service. Applying this in the context of local dining in this research, the expectations of the core benefit sought when dining that the respondents had, was focused on food quality dimensions rather than on the presence of other people in the dining place. This might explain the reason why the *other people in the dining place* item failed to load strongly. As a result of dropping this item, 23 items were left for the second simulation of factor analysis.

In the second analysis, twenty three dining-related items were extracted using the similar extraction and rotation methods to the first simulation. The results of the KMO measure of sampling adequacy reveals a value of .799, which is larger than the minimum cut-off point of .60. Bartlett's test of sphericity illustrates a significance at a level of .000 ($\chi^2 = 1.783E3$, $df = 253$). As for the dimensionality of the scale assessing visitor dining expectations of local food, 59.24% of the total variance emerged from the analysis, slightly larger than the cumulative variance explained in the first analysis and

approaching the cut-off value of 60%. This provides a better indication that more than half of the variance can be explained by the solution of factor analysis, generating seven distinct factors.

The seven new emerging factors were labelled as relating to: *staff quality*, *sensory attributes*, *food uniqueness*, *local servicescapes*, *food authenticity*, *food familiarity*, and *food variety*. All newly extracted factors have Cronbach's alpha coefficients above .50, thus, they meet the minimum cut-off point as required. Five out of seven factors have the alpha coefficient $\geq .60$, and only two factors – *food familiarity* and *food variety* – had lower alpha coefficients with .56 and .51 respectively. Pallant (2011) has highlighted that Cronbach's alpha values are quite sensitive to the number of items in the scale. In this case, both *food familiarity* and *food variety* factors had only 2 items each. It is common, therefore, to find a low Cronbach's alpha coefficient in scales with fewer than ten items (Pallant, 2011). In addition, since the items in *food familiarity* and *food variety* factors were all conceptually related, which is an important consideration with factor analysis (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005), these two extracted factors were deemed acceptable to retain.

A more in-depth analysis of the relative importance of each item that made up the new factors was employed by utilising a 'top box analysis'. It is a technique in which the top two scores, named as a 'top box score', are aggregated to represent the percentage of respondents who gave the highest or top score on the measured scale (Gillett, 1991; Gold & Salkind, 1974). In relation to expressing their level of dining expectations, the respondents had rated each item on a five-point *Likert* scale of importance, from 1 (*not important at all*) to 5 (*very important*). Therefore, the top box scores were calculated by accumulating the percentage of respondents whose response values were 4 and 5 on each item. These percentages suggested the importance of each of the items in influencing respondent expectations prior to their local food consumption experiences. Table 6.9 exhibits the summary of EFA findings as well as the top box scores of each dining expectation item. Each of the seven emerging factors are discussed in more detail below.

Table 6.9 Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis and Top Box Analysis

| Scale item | Factor 1 Staff Quality | Factor 2 Sensory Appeal | Factor 3 Food Uniqueness | Factor 4 Local Servicescapes | Factor 5 Food Authenticity | Factor 6 Food Familiarity | Factor 7 Food variety | Top Box % |
|--|------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| Knowledgeable staff | .737 | | | | | | | 79.1 |
| Responsive staff to specific needs | .718 | | | | | | | 75.3 |
| Communicative staff | .690 | | | | | | | 85.6 |
| Friendly staff | .565 | | | | | | | 93.4 |
| Good description of dishes | .510 | | | | | | | 79.7 |
| Food smells appealing | | .663 | | | | | | 80.9 |
| Clean dining place | | .615 | | | | | | 95.0 |
| The use of fresh ingredients | | .576 | | | | | | 93.1 |
| Food tastes good | | .545 | | | | | | 94.7 |
| Pleasant ambience/atmosphere | | .527 | | | | | | 72.2 |
| Unique way of cooking the food | | | .751 | | | | | 55.3 |
| Unique way of eating the food | | | .717 | | | | | 36.9 |
| Unique way of presenting the food | | | .704 | | | | | 58.1 |
| Dining place is representative of local culture | | | | .805 | | | | 50.3 |
| Unique local décor | | | | .715 | | | | 46.6 |
| Dining place provides a welcoming sense of the culture | | | | .578 | | | | 65.3 |
| Authentic taste | | | | | .773 | | | 75.3 |
| Authentically spicy | | | | | .721 | | | 48.4 |
| Exotic food | | | | | .469 | | | 51.9 |
| Flavoured modified for the taste | | | | | | .855 | | 33.4 |
| The use of familiar ingredients | | | | | | .725 | | 33.1 |
| Try local beverage in the dining experience | | | | | | | .768 | 64.4 |
| Wide range of food available on the menu | | | | | | | .763 | 67.2 |
| Eigenvalue | 4.977 | 2.124 | 1.734 | 1.348 | 1.238 | 1.196 | 1.009 | - |
| Percentage of variance explained | 21.64 | 9.24 | 7.54 | 5.86 | 5.38 | 5.20 | 4.39 | - |
| Reliability of scale (Cronbach's alpha value) | .72 | .74 | .64 | .70 | .60 | .56 | .51 | - |

$N = 332$; $KMO = .799$; Barlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. $Chi-Square = 1.783E3$; $df = 253$, $Sig = .000$; Total variance explained = 59.24%; Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

6.2.1.1 Factor 1: Staff Quality

Five items explaining the *staff quality* factor were: communicative staff, knowledgeable staff, responsive staff, friendly staff, and good description of dishes. This factor had the highest eigenvalue (4.977), 21.64% of the total variance, and a high reliability coefficient of Cronbach's alpha that equalled .72. The factor was labelled *staff quality* since it displayed a predominance of items which were associated with the competence of the dining staff. The top box scores show that more than three-quarters of respondents considered the importance of all items in this factor in influencing their expectations prior to local food consumption.

6.2.1.2 Factor 2: Sensory Appeal

The second factor had an eigenvalue of 2.124, accounting for 9.24% of the total variance, and a Cronbach's alpha of .74. It was articulated by five items with regard to: food smells appealing, clean dining place, the use of fresh ingredients, food tastes good, and a pleasant ambience. All are indicative of dining expectations provoked by human senses. In light of this, the factor was named *sensory appeal*. Similar to the top box scores of the food quality factor, at least three-quarters of respondents also took into account the importance of all items of the *sensory appeal* factor in determining their expectations of local food consumption.

6.2.1.3 Factor 3: Food Uniqueness

The third factor showed an eigenvalue of 1.734, explained 7.54% of the total variance, and a Cronbach's alpha of .64. Important among the items connected with this factor was: unique way of cooking the food, unique way of eating the food, and unique way of presenting the food. The top box analysis illustrated that more than half of respondents believed that the two following items of the *food uniqueness* factor were dominant considerations in respondent dining expectations: unique way of cooking the food (55.3%), and unique way of presenting the food (58.1%).

6.2.1.4 Factor 4: Local Servicescapes

The fourth factor, interpreted as the *local servicescapes* factor, comprised three items: dining place is representative of local culture, unique local décor, and dining place

provides a welcoming sense of local culture. Unlike the food uniqueness factor which put more emphasis on the food aspect, the three items extracted from the *local servicescapes* factor were closely associated with the physical aspect of dining, specifically reflecting the local culture. This factor obtained an eigenvalue of 1.348, described 5.86% of the total variance, and had a Cronbach's alpha of .70. The top box scores of each item in this factor indicated that at least half of respondents considered each item of importance in projecting their expectations prior to local food consumption.

6.2.1.5 Factor 5: Food Authenticity

The fifth factor is *food authenticity* which had an eigenvalue of 1.238, explained 5.38% of the total variance, and had a Cronbach's alpha of .60. This factor emerged from the correlations of three items: authentic taste, authentically spicy, and exotic food, demonstrating a close link with the authenticity aspect. In addition, the top box scores showed that more than half of the respondents stated that authentic taste and exotic food were central considerations in their dining expectations.

6.2.1.6 Factor 6: Food Familiarity

Food familiarity had an eigenvalue of 1.196, accounting for 5.20% of the total variance, and showed a Cronbach's alpha of .56. There were two items contributing to the emergence of this factor: flavour modified for taste and the use of familiar ingredients. Unlike the previous factors, the top box analysis of the two items of this factor indicated low percentages of respondents who considered the item as important in shaping their dining expectations (about 30% for each item).

6.2.1.7 Factor 7: Food Variety

Food variety is the seventh or last factor emerging from the factor analysis. This factor emerged from the correlation of two items: local drink in the destination, and wide range of food available. This factor has an eigenvalue of 1.009, explains 4.39% of the total variance, and exhibits a Cronbach's alpha of .51. The top box scores demonstrated that more than half of the respondents (above 60%) believed that two items of this factor were central considerations in influencing respondent dining expectations.

In summary, the EFA was conducted with the quantitative data as a component of the statistical analysis. The results of the analysis were tabulated as shown in Table 6.9 above. The factor analysis produced seven factors that accounted for 59.24% of the variance. Among these factors, *staff quality* and *sensory appeal* were two dominant factors, accounting for 21.64% and 9.24%, respectively. The emerging factors identified in this analysis add support to the refinement of the conceptual framework presented in Figure 8.1.

6.2.2 MANOVA: Identifying the Influence of Internal Factors on Visitor Expectations of Dining with Local Food

The proposed conceptual framework as presented in Figure 4.1 recognises the role of internal factors in shaping expectations when dining with local food in the destination. These were categorised into four aspects: demographic variables, travel characteristics, visitor preconceptions about local food of the visited destination, and past dining experience. Demographic variables contained five attributes: gender, age group, country of residence, highest education attained, and occupation. Further, travel characteristics pertained to four attributes, namely: purpose of travel; frequency of visit; length of current visit; and composition of travel party. Visitor preconceptions about local food were measured by three attributes: level of knowledge about local food; previous information obtained by hearing from others about local food; and previous information obtained by reading information about the local food. For MANOVA purposes, those attributes of the internal factors (13 attributes in total) functioned as independent variables (IVs), whereas the 7 dining expectation variables, which emerged from the preceding factor analysis, functioned as the dependent variables (DVs).

Following the required MANOVA procedures as discussed in section 5.2.3.4, the multivariate test for homogeneity of variance-covariance of the DVs was detected by performing Box's M Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. The results showed that the evaluation of the observed covariance matrices of the DVs for all thirteen IVs did not reveal any anomalies since every p value was larger than .000. Therefore, the MANOVA analysis could be further undertaken.

Following Box's M Test, the Levene's Test was conducted to examine the homogeneity of error variances on each independent variable across each dependent variable (see Appendix 11). There was no heterogeneity found, except for one set pertaining to the country of residence attribute. Results showed that the significance level for the *sensory attributes* factor was less than the cut-off *alpha* value of .01, indicating possible heteroscedasticity for this variable. Nevertheless, given the presence of homoscedasticity for the other six local dining variables, corrective remedies were not undertaken for the *sensory attributes* factor, thus, it could remain.

6.2.2.1 The Effect of Demographic Variables on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

Five attributes of the visitor demographic variables were statistically measured with MANOVA to identify their significant effect on the dining expectations. The following Table 6.10 and Figure 6.4 present the summary of the MANOVA analysis of these five attributes.

Table 6.10 illustrates that compared to *males*, the *female* group in this study projected a higher level of expectations towards all dining factors except for *staff quality* (with 4.22 for males and 4.18 for females) and *food familiarity* (which had a mean score for both genders of 3.01). However, the *mean* differences between genders for all categories were very small. The multivariate significance tests presented in Table 6.10 which show the Wilk's Lambda of .970, the *F* value of 1.360 and the *p* value of .222 (which was larger than the cut-off value of .05), confirm the insignificant differences of the level of expectations. Additionally, the univariate significance test revealed that there was no significant difference with regard to each dining expectation factor, since the *p* value of between-subjects effect of each dining expectation factor was above the adjusted alpha level of .05. In short, it can be said that gender has no effect on respondent dining expectations with local food.

With reference to the age groups, the MANOVA analysis in Table 6.10 illustrates the Wilk's Lambda of .805, the *F* value of 2.476, and the *p* value of .000, suggesting a

Table 6.10 Summary of MANOVA Results: The Effect of Demographic Variables on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Respondent Attributes | | <i>n</i> | Staff quality | Sensory appeal | Food uniqueness | Local servicescapes | Food authenticity | Food familiarity | Food variety | Multivariate Significance Test |
|--------------------------------|------------------|----------|----------------------|--------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--|
| 1. Gender: | Female | 147 | 4.18 | 4.43 | 3.49 | 3.65 | 3.72 | 3.01 | 3.80 | Wilks' Lambda = .970 <i>F</i> value = 1.360 <i>p</i> value = .222 |
| | Male | 185 | 4.22 | 4.38 | 3.42 | 3.50 | 3.62 | 3.01 | 3.86 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .471 | <i>p</i> = .371 | <i>p</i> = .397 | <i>p</i> = .056 | <i>p</i> = .240 | <i>p</i> = .996 | <i>p</i> = .492 | |
| 2. Age group: | 18-30 | 162 | 4.11 ^{abd} | 4.31 ^{ab} | 3.32 ^a | 3.47 ^a | 3.55 | 3.11 | 3.83 ^a | Wilks' Lambda = .805 <i>F</i> value = 2.476 <i>p</i> value = .000* |
| | 31-40 | 46 | 4.12 ^c | 4.38 | 3.60 | 3.56 | 3.66 | 2.90 | 3.85 | |
| | 41-50 | 54 | 4.34 ^{ad} | 4.52 ^a | 3.70 ^a | 3.77 ^a | 3.83 | 2.80 | 4.09 ^a | |
| | 51-60 | 47 | 4.20 ^c | 4.48 | 3.37 | 3.53 | 3.78 | 3.01 | 3.48 ^{ab} | |
| | Above 60 | 23 | 4.60 ^{abce} | 4.61 ^{ab} | 3.58 | 3.75 | 3.78 | 3.07 | 3.89 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .000* | <i>p</i> = .003* | <i>p</i> = .019* | <i>p</i> = .050* | <i>p</i> = .075 | <i>p</i> = .260 | <i>p</i> = .002* | |
| 3. Country of residence: | Asia | 95 | 4.15 | 4.23 ^a | 3.60 ^a | 3.61 | 3.71 | 3.30 ^{ab} | 3.87 | Wilks' Lambda = .912 <i>F</i> value = 2.084 <i>p</i> value = .011* |
| | America | 19 | 4.13 | 4.28 | 2.94 ^a | 3.49 | 3.53 | 2.65 ^a | 3.85 | |
| | Oceania | 15 | 4.22 | 4.47 ^a | 3.43 | 3.55 | 3.66 | 2.89 ^b | 3.82 | |
| | Europe | 193 | 4.43 | 4.50 | 3.48 | 3.64 | 3.64 | 3.07 | 4.00 | |
| | Others | 6 | 4.33 | 4.73 | 3.50 | 4.17 | 3.61 | 3.17 | 4.00 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .359 | <i>p</i> = .000* | <i>p</i> = .036* | <i>p</i> = .242 | <i>p</i> = .890 | <i>p</i> = .004* | <i>p</i> = .877 | |
| 4. Highest education attained: | Secondary school | 74 | 4.21 | 4.31 | 3.49 | 3.59 | 3.55 | 3.41 ^{ab} | 3.87 | Wilks' Lambda = .803 <i>F</i> value = 1.987 <i>p</i> value = .001* |
| | Diploma/bachelor | 139 | 4.20 | 4.41 | 3.47 | 3.58 | 3.70 | 2.96 ^a | 3.81 | |
| | Postgraduate | 119 | 4.20 | 4.45 | 3.40 | 3.52 | 3.69 | 2.84 ^b | 3.84 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .995 | <i>p</i> = .129 | <i>p</i> = .743 | <i>p</i> = .701 | <i>p</i> = .332 | <i>p</i> = .000* | <i>p</i> = .851 | |
| 5. Occupation: | Student | 112 | 4.11 | 4.28 | 3.39 | 3.52 | 3.52 | 3.31 ^a | 3.84 | Wilks' Lambda = .825 <i>F</i> value = 2.180 <i>p</i> value = .000* |
| | Manager | 36 | 4.41 | 4.50 | 3.32 | 3.59 | 3.69 | 2.85 | 3.79 | |
| | Professional | 108 | 4.17 | 4.44 | 3.58 | 3.55 | 3.75 | 2.82 ^a | 3.80 | |
| | Employee | 47 | 4.24 | 4.45 | 3.37 | 3.52 | 3.70 | 2.89 | 3.83 | |
| | Retiree | 8 | 4.38 | 4.35 | 3.25 | 3.46 | 4.00 | 3.13 | 3.63 | |
| | Others | 21 | 4.23 | 4.55 | 3.50 | 3.92 | 3.70 | 3.00 | 4.13 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .094 | <i>p</i> = .021 | <i>p</i> = .365 | <i>p</i> = .310 | <i>p</i> = .154 | <i>p</i> = .002* | <i>p</i> = .589 | |

n = 332; *denotes statistically significant difference (*p* value ≤ .05); ^{abcde} identify the presence of significant differences between the groups based on post-hoc tests with the Tukey's HSD. Detail output on the MANOVA Analysis can be found in Appendix 16.

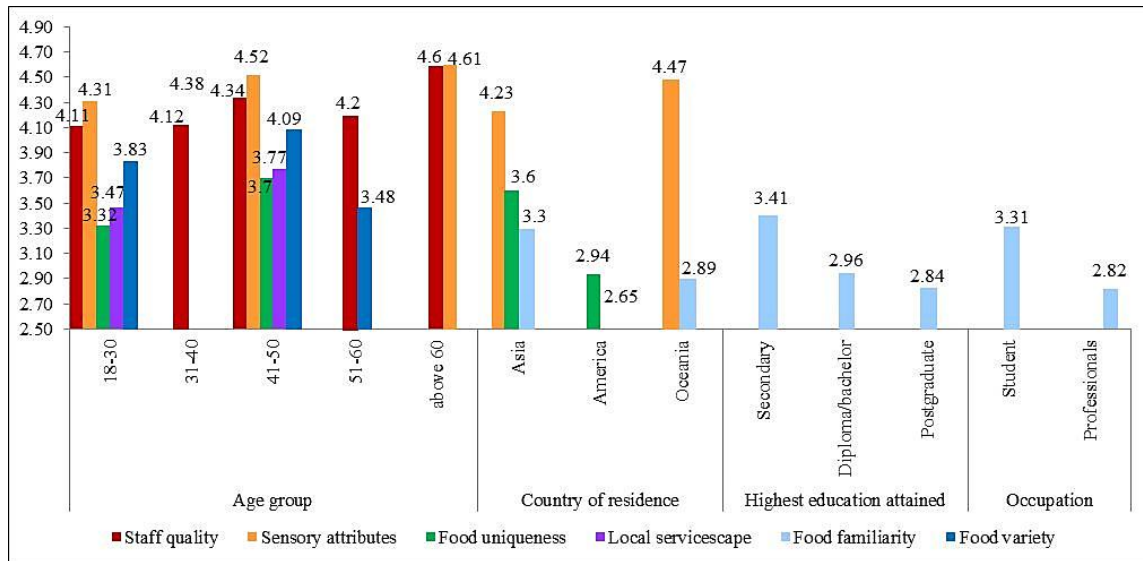


Figure 6.4 Distribution of Differences of External Dining Expectation Factors in Association with Demographic Characteristics

significant effect of age group differences on the dining expectations. Differences were significantly found in relation to the respondent dining expectations toward all dining factors, except for *food authenticity* and *food familiarity* (the respective p values of .075 and .260, which were bigger than the cut-off alpha value of .05). The post-hoc tests with Tukey's HSD statistics exhibited the differences that appeared across various age groups in more detail. As shown in Figure 6.4, the older groups (41-50, 51-60, and above 60 years old) had significantly higher levels of expectations towards *staff quality*, *sensory appeal*, *food uniqueness*, and *local servicescapes* when dining. In addition, the 18-30 years old and 31-40 years old groups expressed a lower level of expectations across all dining factors compared to the rest of the older groups. This result supports Warde and Martens' (2000) finding that, in general, younger people are more adventurous and more open to exposure to novel food and cuisines around the world.

In terms of country of residence, the multivariate significance tests (Wilk's Lambda of 0.814, F value of 2.314, and p value of .000) in Table 6.10 show that overall there is a significant relationship between respondents' country of residence and dining expectations with local Indonesian food. A further look into the *mean* values across the groups illustrates that respondents from *Europe* showed a higher level of expectations across all dining factors compared to other groups. More specifically, significant

differences in their dining expectations can be found in terms of *sensory appeal*, *food uniqueness*, and *food familiarity* factors. The most striking results from the post-hoc test revealed that respondents from *America* and *Oceania* had a lower level of expectations of the *food uniqueness* and *food familiarity* factors compared to those from *Asian* countries. In other words, these groups of respondents tended to be more open to exploring new culinary tastes. They did not have a high expectation that the local food they would encounter in Indonesia would be familiar to them.

Interestingly, as opposed to the level of expectation of *food familiarity* factor, the level of expectation of the *sensory attributes* factor amongst respondents from *Oceania* ($mean = 4.47$) was higher than those from *Asia* ($mean = 4.23$). The *sensory appeal* factor comprised items of taste, aroma or smell, freshness of ingredients of the food, as well as cleanliness and ambience of the dining place. Having a lower level of expectation on the *food familiarity* factor implied that for respondents from *Oceania* and *America*, encountering unfamiliar food is somewhat acceptable especially for those who were keen to seek new food experiences in travel. In contrast, all aspects that pertained to the *sensory appeal* factor were taken more seriously into account as potentially affecting the overall dining experiences.

With regard to respondents' education level, the results of Wilk's Lambda of .912, the F value of 2.084, and the p value of .011 suggest a significant influence of education differences on the dining expectations. However, across seven factors of dining, as demonstrated in Figure 6.4, it was only *food familiarity* which contributed to the significance of mean differences. That is, respondents with lower education attainment projected higher levels of expectations concerning *food familiarity* when dining with local food. Previous studies have noted the role of education in influencing visitor food-related behaviour, particularly the way in which education can enhance a visitor's knowledge about various cuisines from around the world (Shenoy, 2005). Correspondingly, this knowledge increases the sense of familiarity with, and willingness to try, different cuisines.

Finally, the multivariate significance tests relating to respondents' occupation in Table 6.11 revealed Wilk's Lambda of .803, F value of 1.987, and p value of .001. These figures indicate that, in general, the occupation differences had a significant effect on

dining expectations with local Indonesian food. Figure 6.4 clearly shows that significantly different respondent dining expectations were evident between the *student* and the *professional* groups, with the former having higher expectations concerning *food familiarity* and a willingness to encounter local Indonesian food. The relatively well-educated in professional or managerial occupations, are more likely to engage in dining experiences with different cuisines.

6.2.2.2 The Effect of Travel Characteristics on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

MANOVA procedures were applied to examine the significant effect of respondent travel characteristics on their dining expectations. Travel characteristics comprised four variables: purpose; frequency; length of visit; and composition of travel party. The summary of the analysis of these four variables is provided in Table 6.11 and Figure 6.5.

In relation to purpose of visit, the multivariate significance tests (Wilk's Lambda of .825, *F* value of 2.180, and *p* value of .000), as presented in Table 6.11, shows that overall, there was a significant effect of distinct visit purpose on respondent dining expectations, in particular the expectations concerning the *sensory appeal*, *food authenticity*, and *food familiarity* factors. The post-hoc Tukey's HSD tests provided more detailed information as to the mean values across different groups. For instance, with reference to *sensory appeal* and *food familiarity* factors, two groups who had significant differences in their expectations were those who travelled for *holiday* and those who travelled for education or cultural exchange purposes. Respondents who were on holiday had a higher level of expectation in terms of sensory attributes prior to their dining experience, whereas in regard to food familiarity, the holiday travellers group expressed a lower level of expectation (*mean*= 2.88) compared to those whose travel purpose was for *education or cultural exchange* (*mean*= 3.24). Further, differences were also found between these groups and the *business* traveller group, with the latter expressing a higher level of expectation in terms of the *food authenticity* factor.

Table 6.11 Summary of MANOVA Results: The Effect of Travel Characteristics on Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Respondent's Attributes | | <i>n</i> | Staff quality | Sensory appeal | Food uniqueness | Local servicescapes | Food authenticity | Food familiarity | Food variety | Multivariate Significance Test |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|----------|-----------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|---|
| 6. Purpose of travel | Holiday | 138 | 4.26 | 4.49 ^a | 3.41 | 3.58 | 3.73 | 2.88 ^a | 3.87 | Wilks' Lambda = .825 <i>F</i> value = 2.180 <i>p</i> value = .000 |
| | Business | 78 | 4.20 | 4.42 | 3.56 | 3.56 | 3.80 ^a | 2.98 | 3.72 | |
| | VFR | 8 | 4.29 | 4.54 | 3.48 | 3.53 | 3.38 | 2.36 | 3.50 | |
| | Education/cultural exchange | 96 | 4.11 | 4.25 ^a | 3.40 | 3.50 | 3.48 ^a | 3.24 ^a | 3.86 | |
| | Other | 12 | 4.22 | 4.28 | 3.53 | 3.93 | 3.60 | 3.40 | 4.10 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .323 | <i>p</i> = .002 [*] | <i>p</i> = .687 | <i>p</i> = .465 | <i>p</i> = .027 [*] | <i>p</i> = .006 [*] | <i>p</i> = .347 | |
| 7. Frequency of visit | First time | 213 | 4.19 | 4.38 | 3.37 | 3.58 | 3.60 ^a | 3.13 ^a | 3.87 | Wilks' Lambda = .894 <i>F</i> value = 2.567 <i>p</i> value = .001 |
| | 2-3 times visit | 59 | 4.16 | 4.44 | 3.57 | 3.50 | 3.65 | 2.70 ^a | 3.76 | |
| | More than 3 times visit | 60 | 4.28 | 4.45 | 3.59 | 3.58 | 3.89 ^a | 2.88 | 3.76 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .425 | <i>p</i> = .405 | <i>p</i> = .084 | <i>p</i> = .784 | <i>p</i> = .021 [*] | <i>p</i> = .003 [*] | <i>p</i> = .490 | |
| 8. Length of visit | Less than 3 days | 25 | 4.09 | 4.16 ^a | 3.06 ^a | 3.33 | 3.44 ^a | 3.39 | 3.30 ^{ab} | Wilks' Lambda = .877 <i>F</i> value = 1.977 <i>p</i> value = .006 |
| | 4-7 days | 41 | 4.25 | 4.50 ^a | 3.76 ^a | 3.62 | 3.92 ^a | 2.85 | 3.93 ^a | |
| | 1-2 weeks | 50 | 4.23 | 4.40 | 3.47 | 3.55 | 3.75 | 2.80 | 3.76 | |
| | More than 2 weeks | 216 | 4.20 | 4.41 | 3.42 | 3.58 | 3.62 | 3.05 | 3.89 ^b | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .703 | <i>p</i> = .050 [*] | <i>p</i> = .009 [*] | <i>p</i> = .438 | <i>p</i> = .030 [*] | <i>p</i> = .043 | <i>p</i> = .005 [*] | |
| 9. Travel party | Alone | 83 | 4.28 | 4.52 ^a | 3.48 | 3.59 | 3.75 | 3.06 ^a | 3.83 | Wilks' Lambda = .857 <i>F</i> value = 2.350 <i>p</i> value = .001 |
| | Couple | 71 | 4.19 | 4.39 | 3.30 | 3.48 | 3.73 | 2.64 ^{ab} | 3.79 | |
| | Family | 47 | 4.30 | 4.55 ^b | 3.55 | 3.74 | 3.66 | 3.03 | 3.84 | |
| | Group | 131 | 4.12 | 4.28 ^{ab} | 3.47 | 3.53 | 3.58 | 3.18 ^{ab} | 3.85 | |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .111 | <i>p</i> = .000 [*] | <i>p</i> = .363 | <i>p</i> = .211 | <i>p</i> = .313 | <i>p</i> = .001 [*] | <i>p</i> = .971 | |

n = 332; *denotes statistically significant difference (*p* value ≤ .05); ^{ab} identify the presence of significant differences between the groups based on post-hoc tests with the Tukey's HSD.

Detail output on the MANOVA Analysis can be found in Appendix 16.

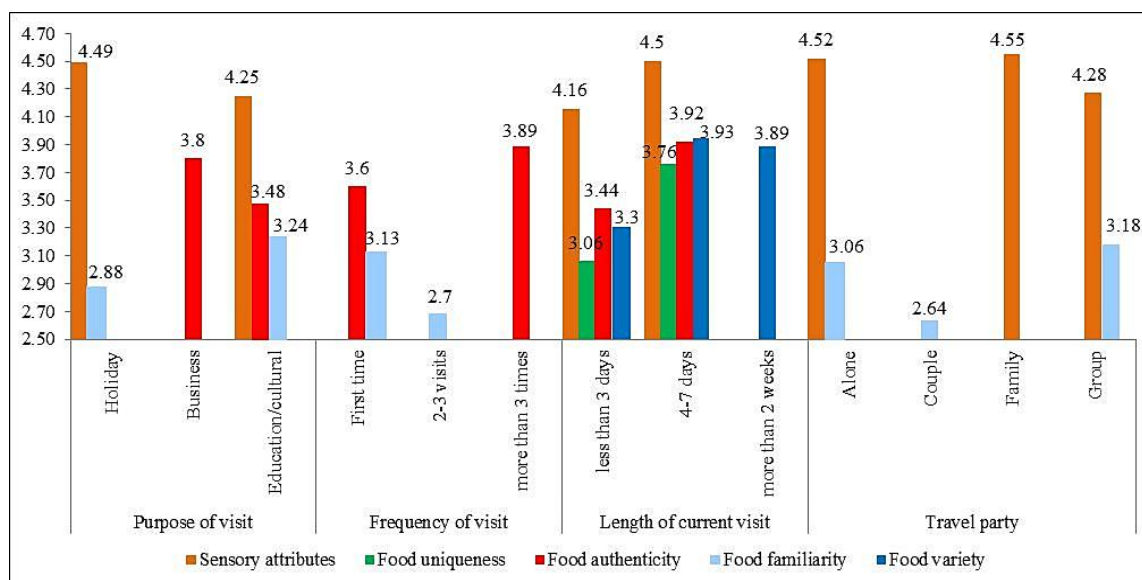


Figure 6.5 Distribution of Differences of External Dining Expectation Factors in Association with Respondent's Travel Characteristics

The findings presented in Table 6.11 indicate the influence of frequency of visit on dining expectations. The Wilk's Lambda of .894, the F value of 2.567, and the p value of .001 indicated a statistically significant difference amongst respondents who travelled to Indonesia for the *first time*, *2-3 times*, and *more than 3 times* in terms of their overall dining expectations. In other words, a significant effect of the frequency of visit attribute was found on the visitor's dining expectation. Specifically, out of seven dining expectation factors, two dependent variables, which were *food authenticity* and *food familiarity*, recorded a significant value less than the cut-off of .05.

In regard to *food familiarity*, as illustrated in Figure 6.5 above, respondents who were *visiting Indonesia for the first time* expressed higher expectations ($mean = 3.13$) than those who had previously *travelled to the country for 2-3 times* ($mean = 2.70$). In the context of this study, *food familiarity* pertains to the ingredients used and to the flavour of the food. It is unsurprising, therefore, to find that those who travelled to Indonesia for the first time, expected to encounter food that was unfamiliar to them, compared with those who had visited Indonesia before (assuming that they had previous dining experience with Indonesian local food).

According to the figures of Wilk's Lambda of .877, the F value of 1.977, and the p value of .006, the length of current visit was found to be a significant variable affecting the overall dining expectation factors. As seen in Table 6.12, a significant univariate main effect and the post-hoc test was found for the factors of *sensory appeal*, *food uniqueness*, *food authenticity*, and *food variety*. Further, Figure 6.5 clearly shows that significant differences were found amongst the respondents who visited Indonesia for *less than 3 days*, *4-7 days*, and *more than 2 weeks*, where those who travelled for a longer time expressed a higher level of expectation in terms of the *sensory appeal* attributes and *variety of the food* that they would like to encounter in the country.

The last MANOVA procedure pertaining to travel characteristics variables was conducted to examine the effect of different groups of travel party attributes on dining expectations, as indicated by the multivariate tests results as follows: Wilk's Lambda of .857, the F value of 2.350, and the p value of .001. The examination of the univariate F -ratios revealed a significant main effect for two factors, namely: *sensory attributes* (p value= .000) and *food familiarity* (p value= .001). Further, post-hoc tests using Tukey's HSD were conducted to determine differences across the travel party groups with respect to these two factors. In regard to the *sensory appeal* factor, it was found that differences lay between those who travelled *alone* and respondents who travelled with a *group of people or visitors*, with respondents who travelled *alone* having a higher level of expectation ($mean= 4.52$) than those who travelled with *a group* ($mean= 4.28$). Similar to this, those who travelled with *family* had a significantly higher level of expectation in the sensory attributes factor. Meanwhile, in relation to the *food familiarity* factor, there were significant mean differences across the respondents who travelled *alone*, *as a couple*, and *with a group*.

6.2.2.3 The Effect of Visitor's Preconceptions and Past Experiences on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

The following Table 6.12 and Figure 6.6 provide summaries of the influence of visitor's preconceptions and past experiences on dining expectations. Preconceptions constituted three variables: level of knowledge about local Indonesian food; previous information heard prior to travelling to Indonesia; and previous information read about local Indonesian food.

Table 6.12 Summary of MANOVA Results: The Effect of Preconceptions and Past Dining Experience on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Respondent's Attributes | | <i>n</i> | Staff quality | Sensory appeal | Food uniqueness | Local servicescapes | Food authenticity | Food familiarity | Food variety | Multivariate Significance Test |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|----------|------------------|-------------------|--------------------|------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <i>Preconceptions of local food</i> | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Level of knowledge | Low level of knowledge | 111 | 4.14 | 4.35 | 3.25 ^{ab} | 3.46 | 3.47 ^{ab} | 2.91 | 3.71 | Wilks' Lambda = .928 |
| | Neutral | 133 | 4.23 | 4.38 | 3.55 ^a | 3.65 | 3.74 ^a | 3.08 | 3.91 | <i>F</i> value = 1.678 |
| | Good level of knowledge | 87 | 4.21 | 4.49 | 3.54 ^b | 3.55 | 3.78 ^b | 3.01 | 3.87 | <i>p</i> value = .054 |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .416 | <i>p</i> = .082 | <i>p</i> = .008* | <i>p</i> = .115 | <i>p</i> = .002* | <i>p</i> = .338 | <i>p</i> = .125 | |
| 11. Heard the information | Yes | 266 | 4.21 | 4.42 | 3.48 | 3.56 | 3.72 | 2.95 | 3.84 | Wilks' Lambda = .951 |
| | No | 65 | 4.15 | 4.34 | 3.32 | 3.58 | 3.46 | 3.25 | 3.79 | <i>F</i> value = 2.304 |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .416 | <i>p</i> = .273 | <i>p</i> = .154 | <i>p</i> = .852 | <i>p</i> = .010* | <i>p</i> = .020* | <i>p</i> = .634 | <i>p</i> value = .027 |
| 12. Read the information | Yes | 169 | 4.22 | 4.43 | 3.54 | 3.56 | 3.75 | 2.96 | 3.94 | Wilks' Lambda = .956 |
| | No | 162 | 4.18 | 4.37 | 3.36 | 3.57 | 3.58 | 3.07 | 3.71 | <i>F</i> value = 2.032 |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .514 | <i>p</i> = .194 | <i>p</i> = .048* | <i>p</i> = .915 | <i>p</i> = .039 | <i>p</i> = .279 | <i>p</i> = .007* | <i>p</i> value = .051 |
| 13. Past dining experiences | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Yes | 202 | 4.21 | 4.44 | 3.45 | 3.51 | 3.71 | 2.89 | 3.80 | Wilks' Lambda = .928 |
| | No | 130 | 4.19 | 4.34 | 3.45 | 3.64 | 3.60 | 3.21 | 3.88 | <i>F</i> value = 1.678 |
| | | | <i>p</i> = .729 | <i>p</i> = .071 | <i>p</i> = .949 | <i>p</i> = .101 | <i>p</i> = .182 | <i>p</i> = .002* | <i>p</i> = .351 | <i>p</i> value = .054 |

n = 332; *denotes statistically significant difference (*p* value ≤ .05); ^{ab} identify the presence of significant differences between the groups based on post-hoc tests with the Tukey's HSD. Detail output on the MANOVA Analysis can be found in Appendix 16.

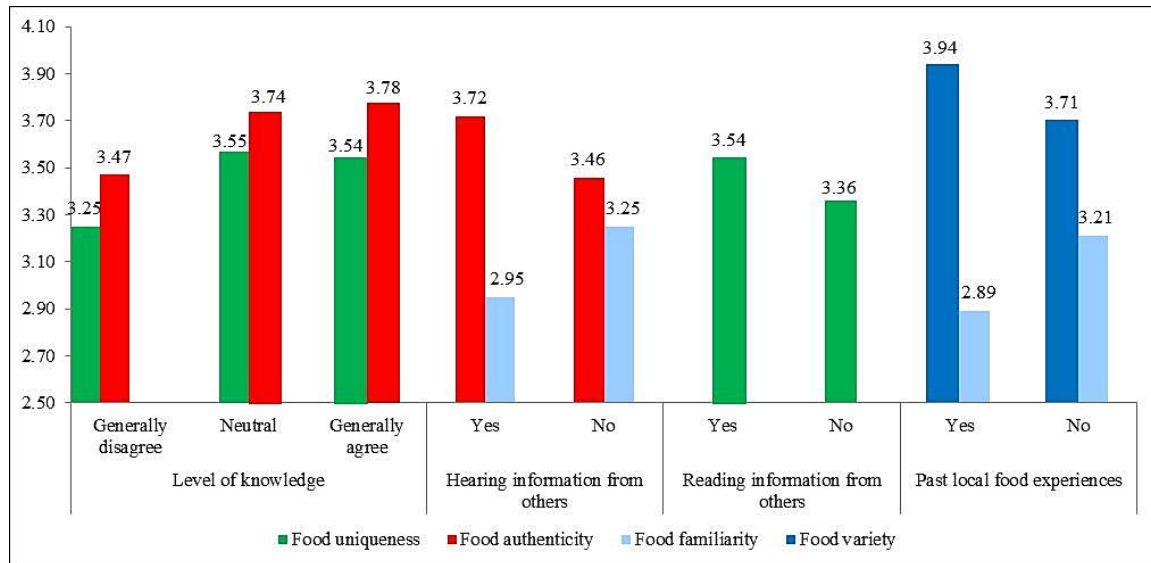


Figure 6.6 Distribution of Differences of External Dining Expectation Factors in Association with Respondent's Preconceptions & Past Experiences

With reference to the respondent level of knowledge about local Indonesian food, the MANOVA results illustrated in Table 6.12 reveal the Wilk's Lambda of .928, the F value of 1.678, and the p value of .054. This indicates that their level of knowledge had a significant effect on dining expectations. The significant influence of this attribute was found particularly with the *food uniqueness* and *food authenticity* factors (p value= .008 and .002 respectively). As indicated from the post-hoc Tukey test, the higher the respondents' agreement that they had good knowledge of local Indonesian food, the higher their level of expectation in terms of *food authenticity*.

In addition, the Wilk's Lambda of 0.951, the F value of 2.304, and the p value of .027 indicated that the knowledge that respondents obtained by hearing information about local Indonesian food from others had a significant influence on visitor dining expectations. Further analysis shown in Table 6.12 indicates that, compared to those who had never heard any information relating to local Indonesian food (the *no* group), the respondents who had heard relevant information before (the *yes* group) expressed higher expectation levels across all dining factors except *local servicescapes* and *food familiarity*. However, significant differences of the means between the two groups only appeared pertaining to the expectation of the *food authenticity* and *food familiarity* factors (p value= .006 and .007, respectively).

Table 6.12 also shows the results of examining the influence of knowledge through reading information about local Indonesian food on visitor dining expectations. The result of the MANOVA (with Wilk's Lambda of .956 F value of 2.032, and the p value of .51) confirmed this significant influence. Further, the analysis of the univariate F -ratios revealed a significant main effect for *food uniqueness* and *food variety* (p value=.048 and .007, respectively). That is, the respondents who had read (the *yes* group) and those who never read (the *no* group) expressed significantly different levels of expectations specifically pertaining to the *food variety* factor. The results suggest that the preconceptions that respondents had about local Indonesian food significantly affected their dining expectations.

Finally, MANOVA analysis was applied to assess the significant influence of past dining experience on dining expectation with local Indonesian food. Results shown in Table 6.12, indicated by the Wilk's Lambda of .933, F value of 3.183, and the p value of .67, confirmed this effect in which there was significant difference between those who had and who had not ever eaten local Indonesian food before, particularly in terms of the *food familiarity* factor (p value=.002). Figure 6.6 shows in more detail that a higher level of expectation of *food familiarity* was expressed by the respondents who never had experiences in eating local Indonesian food ($mean= 3.21$), compared to those who had eaten the local food before their current visit ($mean= 2.89$). Since this latter group had had previous experience of consuming local Indonesian food, it would be expected that they were more familiar with that food.

6.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter reported findings derived from the survey, aiming to portray the respondent profiles and identify the underlying factors influencing their expectations of dining on local food. The survey was conducted prior to the actual dining encounter, thus, it was anticipated that the projections of expectation levels were not biased by the perceptions evoked during and after the dining course at the current visit.

The results from the EFA showed 7 emerging factors that influenced the dining expectations. These factors, presented in their order of importance were: staff quality; sensory appeal; food uniqueness; local servicescapes; food authenticity; food

familiarity; and food variety. Moreover, MANOVA analysis revealed that there were significant differences in terms of dining expectation levels across different demographics (except gender) and travel characteristic groups. It was also found that respondents who had past dining experiences and had preconceptions of the local food projected significantly different levels of dining expectations of their culinary experiences with local Indonesian food compared to those who had neither previous experiences nor preconceptions about the local food in the country.

The subsequent chapter is devoted to presenting the interview findings depicting how the actual dining and post-dining experiences at with local Indonesian food were perceived by respondents.

Chapter 7

Actual and Post-Dining Experiences with Local Food

7.0 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the quantitative findings that illustrated the respondents' preconceptions and expectations of local dining experiences prior to their actual dining activities in Indonesia. This chapter presents the findings and analysis of the qualitative phase of the study, drawn from 15 semi-structured interviews with international visitors from various demographic and travel characteristic backgrounds. Data collected sought to provide more detailed descriptions as to how the international visitors perceived their actual dining experiences and how the dining quality was evaluated afterwards. The chapter is organised into three major sections. The first section describes the characteristics of the participants involved in the interviews. The second section discusses the findings of the interviews that were coded, categorised and themed as relevant to addressing the research questions.

7.1 Profiles of Informants

Table 7.1 presents a summary of informant profiles relating to their demographics characteristics. With reference to gender, there was a balanced composition between female (7) and male participants (8). Similarly, seven informants were aged 18-30 years old and eight were above 30 years old, indicating an equal involvement across

participant age groups. Almost all informants had attained a diploma/bachelor or postgraduate degree. In regard to occupation, the participants varied from working as professionals and business managers, to still pursuing education as students. Meanwhile, one participant was an employee and another was retired. In terms of country of residence, five informants lived in the Asian region whilst the rest resided outside Asia.

Table 7.1 Demographic Profiles

| Informant (In) | Gender | Age group | Country of Residence | Education Attained | Occupation |
|----------------|--------|-----------|----------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| I1 | female | 31-40 | Italy | postgraduate | employee |
| I2 | female | 18-30 | The Netherlands | diploma/bachelor | student |
| I3 | female | 18-30 | HK China | diploma/bachelor | student |
| I4 | male | 18-30 | HK China | Diploma/bachelor | student |
| I5 | male | 18-30 | The Netherlands | secondary | student |
| I6 | male | 51-60 | Australia | postgraduate | professional |
| I7 | male | 31-40 | Malaysia | postgraduate | professional |
| I8 | female | 31-40 | Malaysia | dip/bachelor | business manager |
| I9 | male | 18-30 | France | postgraduate | professional |
| I10 | male | 51-60 | Pakistan | postgraduate | business manager |
| I11 | female | 18-30 | The Netherlands | postgraduate | others |
| I12 | male | Above 60 | The Netherlands | diploma/bachelor | retiree |
| I13 | female | 51-60 | The Netherlands | diploma/bachelor | employee |
| I14 | male | 51-60 | Germany | postgraduate | professional |
| I15 | female | 18-30 | Italy | postgraduate | others |

Table 7.2 presents a summary of respondent travel characteristics.

Table 7.2 Travel Characteristics

| Informant (In) | Purpose of visit | Frequency of visit | Length of current visit | Travel party |
|----------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|
| I1 | holiday | 2-3 previous visit | 4-7 days | couple |
| I2 | cultural exchange | first time | more than 2 weeks | group of people |
| I3 | cultural exchange | first time | more than 2 weeks | group of people |
| I4 | cultural exchange | first time | more than 2 weeks | group of people |
| I5 | cultural exchange | 2-3 previous visit | more than 2 weeks | group of people |
| I6 | business | more than 3 visit | 1-2 weeks | alone |
| I7 | business | first time | less than 3 days | group of people |
| I8 | business | more than 3 visit | 4-7 days | group of people |
| I9 | business | first time | more than 2 weeks | alone |
| I10 | business | 2-3 previous visit | more than 2 weeks | family |
| I11 | holiday | first time | 1-2 weeks | couple |
| I12 | holiday | first time | more than 2 weeks | couple |
| I13 | holiday | first time | more than 2 weeks | group of people |
| I14 | conference | more than 3 visit | more than 2 weeks | family |
| I15 | cultural exchange | first time | more than 2 weeks | group of people |

The purpose of travel varied equally from holiday, business, to cultural learning (5 informants, respectively). All except two informants (I6 and I9) stated that they travelled to Indonesia either as a couple, or with a family or other group of visitors. Nine informants indicated that it was their first time of visiting Indonesia and ten out of fifteen intended to spend more than two weeks in the country.

In summary, Tables 7.1 and 7.2 have provided a preliminary overview of the demographic and travel characteristics of the interview participants. Both tables show that whilst there was a balanced composition in terms of gender and age group, the interview participants were predominantly from non-Asian countries, visiting Indonesia for the first time, with the intention of spending more than two weeks in the country. These demographic and travel-related background compositions accorded with the demographic and travel characteristics of the respondents involved in the survey ($n=349$, see Section 6.1), indicating the representativeness of the interview participants of the total survey participants. Given these facts, it was expected that some noteworthy findings would be revealed pertaining to the dynamics of experiences that occurred at the actual and post-dining experiences with local Indonesian food.

7.2 Interview Findings

As discussed in Section 5.3.4, this thesis applied a content analysis approach to analyse the interview data. Fifteen interview transcripts were manually analysed and 83 codes emerged during the first data iteration process (see Appendices 12a and 12b). The majority of codes were related to the food aspect (38 codes), given the most dominant words and phrases articulated. The next most dominant code related to dining place, which appeared in 21 codes, followed by 12 codes with reference to staff or personnel. The rest of the codes related to: social interaction; participant satisfaction; expression of future behavioural intentions; participant involvement in local culinary events; and preconceptions about local food.

Following the identification of the above codes, a second data iteration process was conducted to seek the similarities and relationships amongst the codes. Similar codes were then grouped into categories and, after a close look at the relevant data, the 83 codes were clustered into 28 distinct categories (see Appendix 12c).

Further analysis on those emerging categories revealed 10 new general themes (see Appendix 12d). Nine themes are relevant to the participants' perceptions of their actual dining experiences whilst one theme pertained to the post-dining experiences. These themes are:

1. Food quality
2. Hygiene standards
3. Dining place quality
4. Staff quality
5. Information search prior to the actual dining
6. Local food culture or foodways
7. Authenticity
8. Food neophilia tendency
9. Food neophobia tendency
10. Post-dining experiences

The following sections (7.2.1 to 7.2.10) are devoted to describing the evolution of each theme that has been generated on the basis of its relevant categories and codes. This is illuminated through the provision of a diagram for each theme. The diagrams, built on a rigorous and complex iteration process, aim to convey a circular progression of the emergence of the particular theme from its antecedent categories and codes. Each theme is presented along with the illustrative quotations from the interview transcripts to aid the clarity of the findings. Each quotation is numerically assigned, for example, “In, R n ” refers to “Informant number n whose response is number n ”, so I5, R2 indicates “Informant number 5, second response”.

7.2.1 Theme 1: Food Quality

As shown in the interview guidelines in Appendix 7, in the early section of the interview, questions centred on the informant perceptions of their travel dining experiences relating to food aspects of the local Indonesian dishes that they ate. The results of the semi-structured interviews suggest that *food quality* is the first theme projected by the informants. As illustrated in Figure 7.1, their perception of this aspect

was articulated by six categories, namely: taste, spiciness, flavour, freshness, presentation, and variety of food.

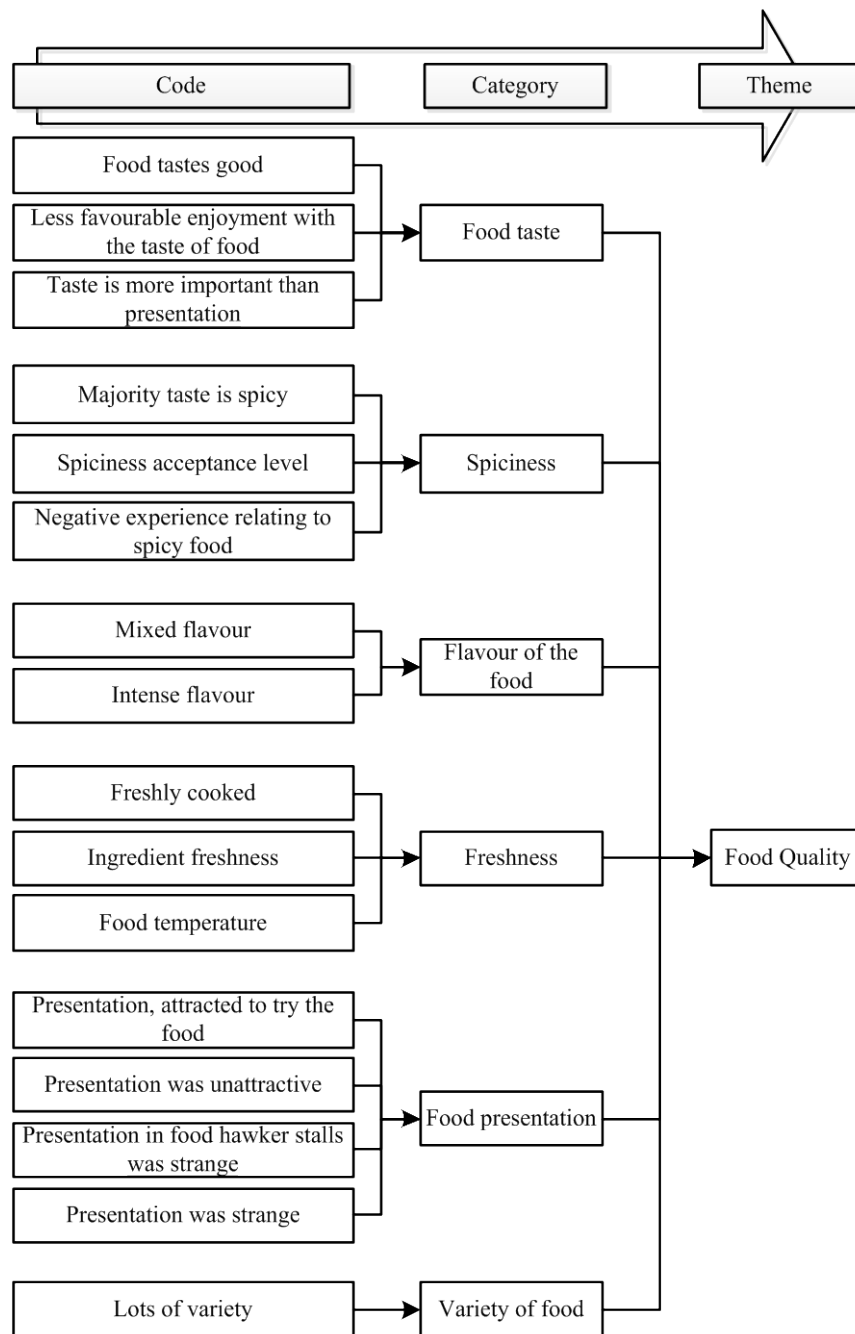


Figure 7.1 The evolution of code-category-theme 1: Food quality

7.2.1.1 Food Taste

With regard to the taste of the food, it appears that the majority of the informants in this study expressed positive responses about how the local Indonesian food tastes. Comments such as *'the food is very tasty'* (I12, R1), *'the meals taste good'* (I9, R1), *'I*

really like the taste' (I1, R1), indicate that the informants enjoyed the taste of the food, notwithstanding the fact that, for some of them, this was their first dining experiences with local Indonesian food. The following statements represent more detailed responses:

We went to the local restaurant in Surabaya and at that time I tried some new food that I never tasted before. I don't remember the name of the dish, but it was chicken with salt and pepper with sambal and nasi and vegetables, and it was really nice (I2, R1).

But surprisingly, some of the Indonesian dishes are very good, very very good, regardless of the lack of information about the food. But we don't know about it until we eat it. So the food tastes better than what is presented in the pictures on the menu book. They are fantastic dishes and if I knew Indonesian I would be willing to eat more often (I6, R1).

Most of the time when I eat, it is not the appearance which attracts me. It is when I have a taste of it and then I keep eating it until I finish (I3, R1).

However, not all those interviewed had positive perceptions about the taste of local Indonesian food that they had. One male informant from Hong Kong whose purpose for visiting was to join an education and cultural exchange program, declared his unfavourable response regarding the taste of the food and compared it with other types of Asian cuisine that he eaten. He said:

I see myself as a person who can adapt to different kinds of food. While here, I try to adapt but I'm not really comfortable with the taste of the food. I find that the rice in Indonesia is stickier than Thai rice (I4, R1).

7.2.1.2 Spiciness

In addition, there were mixed responses from the informants in relation to their perception of food spiciness. Some informants acknowledged that local Indonesian food is spicy yet they could deal with the spiciness and could accept it up to a certain level. As indicated in the following responses, one female informant from Hong Kong stated that she did not eat spicy food frequently, and she coped with it by drinking a lot of water. While a male informant conceded that the spiciness made the food taste even better. They commented as follows:

I had another dish which was another soup, also thick, with chicken and rice and it was so spicy. I can stand it but I had to drink a lot of water. But I think, with this kind of food, if it is not eaten too frequently, it's OK (I3, R2).

For me, chilli or sambal is a little bit spicy and even more so for my European friends, but for me it's fine, because sometimes it makes the food taste stronger and better (I4, R2).

Another respondent noted the difference in national cuisines:

I see there are different sources of spiciness between Western food and Indonesian food. With many Western foods, the spiciness comes from the pepper, while with Indonesian food much more comes from the chilli ... I reckon that Indonesia has quite a good mixture of tastes, not too spicy, and if you want more spice, you can add sambal (I1, R2).

Whilst some participants could still accept the spiciness of local Indonesian food, other informants avoided spiciness completely when ordering their food. One male informant from France who visited Indonesia for business-related purposes explained how he had an unpleasant experience after eating spicy food, as follows:

The first time I ordered the food at a restaurant, I asked whether the meal is spicy or not, and the staff member said it was mild, but it was still spicy for me. So after that I learned and every time I went to order a meal at a restaurant, I always said 'tidak pedas' [not spicy]. I am not used to eating spicy food, and although the first time I ate spicy food, I didn't get a stomach-ache, I did have a problem with my stomach after another time. I thought because of the first time, I could eat spicy food, but actually I can't, the only least pleasurable experience I have is when I have spicy food (I9, R2).

7.2.1.3 Flavour of the Food

As opposed to the food spiciness, which received mixed responses from the informants, in terms of the flavour of the food, some informants declared that they really enjoyed the flavour of some local dishes. This pleasure came from the mixture of the ingredients as well as the spices and herbs used in cooking the dish. All added to the intensity of the flavour, as the following quotations illustrate:

Good flavour to the beef rending. The meat is very soft but the taste is very good at the same time, so it's properly marinated before and the mixture was really nice. The taste was neither too strong nor too thick for me, because they put more time into preparation - first adding all the herbs, then the spices all together, then

the meat. All the flavours come together really well, I like the spicy pepper, ginger, and that's what I really like about Indonesian food. I only ate one or two spicy dishes here, but the beef rendang was not too spicy. I really like the taste. It's really tasty. I reckon that Indonesia has a quite good mixture of tastes (I1, R3).

Rawon is very tasty, I mean an intense flavour, especially for people who come from Europe. Asian food is more spicy and intense, but I mean it is not always spicy as in hot, but there are many spices in it, and we are not used to it. We are more used to flavour from vegetables and meat. In Indonesia especially there are lots of spices, and I am happy with it (I15, R1).

7.2.1.4 Freshness

When probed further, the majority of informants elaborated that the intense flavour of the local dishes in fact came from the use of fresh ingredients, spices and herbs. Indonesia is often referred to as the 'Spice Islands', moreover the country has enormous natural resources and this enables the locals to cook with fresh produce, as noted in the following responses:

The beef rendang was very good because you can taste that it's freshly made, and one thing that I like very much about Indonesian food in general is that it's really genuine. This is not so true in Italian cooking, people use a lot of chemical substances to replace things that you might not find or use dried food or vegetables, and the taste is so different. Also, I can say that in terms of ingredients, Indonesian food is fresher. It is because you have the resources here (I1, R4).

I tried coconut meat fresh from the coconut tree with the water in it and it was so nice. It is very fresh (I9, R3).

Another nice experience I had was eating coconut fresh from the tree. So at that time in the village, one villager climbed the coconut tree, cut it, and I drank the coconut water and ate coconut meat. It was so nice because it was really fresh (I2, R2).

Despite the intensive use of herbs and spices which contributed considerably to food freshness, the temperature of the food played an essential role in influencing the informant's perception as to whether the food was freshly prepared or not. This can be seen in the following responses:

I understand that here people serve the food a bit warm, not really warm but not cold, like in between, but I don't like it that much. I would prefer only when the

food is warm, for example when we eat in the restaurant, the food is still fresh and warm when it is served. Because I'm used to having my satay warm in the Netherlands, when I'm having a BBQ, or something (I2, R3).

For my breakfast here, I have rice and ingredients like chicken, which is cold but it's supposed to be warm. I don't like it. I want something hot. So instead of that meal, I usually make an instant hot meal like cup noodles just to get like a good breakfast, so that I get the right start (I5, R1).

And people cooked chicken or meat with the skin on it but you have to be aware of the temperature. We know that skin sometimes can be contaminated, that's why in Australia, people do BBQ, and they heat it if they cook with skin, or they just take the skin off. But I do realise that it is part of the culture. I am not saying that it is bad, but for me, it is not the way the food should be processed (I6, R2).

7.2.1.5 Food Presentation

With regard to the presentation of the food, there were mixed responses where some informants provided their short positive comments such as, *"the food looked nice, it made me want to try the food"* (I9, R4), and *"all the food is served in a special way and with no comparison to Dutch food"* (I13, R1). Others articulated their favourable responses in more detail, stating that their appetite was increased by seeing how the local dishes were presented on the table, as illustrated by the following comments:

I find the appearance appeals and it's a plus. For example you have fried fish like gurami, but sometimes you present it so differently ... it's beautiful, something that I must try, so it attracts me to try and raises my appetite. I am actually not a big eater, but when I travelled to Indonesia, I found so many things that I must try. Actually it's a normal fish, also available in my country but maybe because the appearance is so different, I just want to eat it (I8, R1).

There was nothing that I didn't want to try. Well, like when you order, it was always difficult to know of course, then it's always nice to see how it's presented, again it makes the difference, and in the end the taste is good (I1, R5).

In contrast to the above favourable perceptions towards the presentation of the food, several informants thought that the way the food was presented was unattractive or strange, stating that *"the appearance of the food, it doesn't attract me to eat it"* (I4, R3), and similarly, *"the appearance, yeah, sometimes it's a bit weird"* (I5, R2).

One Malaysian informant who travelled for business purposes commented on the unfamiliar food that was sold by food hawkers and the negative impact that this had on her:

When I went to Jakarta, I found out that one food stall didn't sell chicken, beef or pork meat, but they sold dog meat. At that time, this gave me a bad perception that maybe there are other stalls also selling dog meat for food ... this made me stop eating from hawkers at all and I went to normal dining places like Padang, Sunda, and Asian restaurants, I never go to hawkers anymore (I8, R2).

7.2.1.6 Variety of Food

With reference to food variety, the majority of the informants expressed a preference for wide options when selecting a local dish they would like to try. Some even compared the variety of food that they had in Indonesia with what they had when travelling to other countries. This can be seen from the subsequent statements below:

I love cuisine from all over the world, both when I travel around or cook it at home, I try to cook different cuisines ... and I actually expected something more similar to Thai or Cambodian food. I was a little bit surprised with Indonesian food. I found so many varieties in Indonesian food (I15, R2).

Personally, I think Indonesian food is better [than Malaysian food]. Also, there are more options to choose from (I7, R1).

I find there is a lot of variety in the food. The food really fits me" (I3, R3).

In summary, with reference to the food quality aspect, six major issues, namely: taste, spiciness, flavour, freshness, food presentation, and food variety were addressed by the informants. The majority of responses were positive, specifically when concerned with taste, flavour, and the variety of the local Indonesian food. By contrast, more concerns were demonstrated by the informants with regard to spiciness, freshness, and food presentation. For instance, the level of spiciness that some informants could accept influenced their level of enjoyment of the local food experiences. The perceived strangeness or unattractive nature of some local food also led to some less favourable perceptions.

7.2.2 Theme 2: Hygiene Standards

The theme of *hygiene standards* in the dining experience with local food was put forward by the majority of informants. As shown in Figure 7.2, this pertains to two key aspects: hygiene standards relating to food, and hygiene relating to dining place.

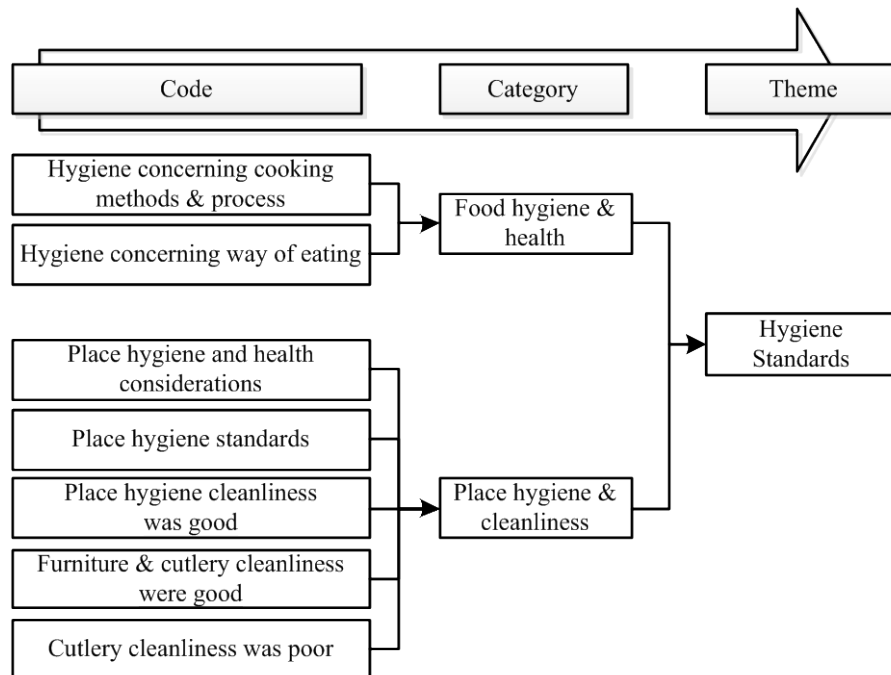


Figure 7.2 The evolution of code-category-theme 2: Hygiene standards

7.2.2.1 Food Hygiene and Health

As Figure 7.2 shows, perceptions of food hygiene and health were associated with the cooking process and the way of eating food. The majority of participants stated that although the local dishes they ate tasted good, many of them were deep-fried, which was considered a less healthy cooking process. Comments included:

The first time I arrived, every time I ate I had fried food, but actually although the meals taste good, I don't think I will be able to eat it every day ... everything is fried (I9, R5).

I don't like very much fried stuff. So even though there are many fried foods here, I never eat fried food and I don't like it. It is unpleasant for me (I15, R3).

In addition, some others emphasised their concern more with the cleanliness of the food when it was prepared. For example, one female informant from Italy who travelled with her husband and spent for 4-7 days in Indonesia, said:

Once it is cooked it's fine, so I am not afraid to try it, but when there are vegetables or salad involved or something fresh ... sometimes I had people present vegetables like cucumbers with the peel still on it ... I think I will be afraid ... have they been washed with the water or not? Because I had a bad experience when I was in Malaysia when I ate salad, and I think it's maybe the water problem. Of course, when it is a very local place [i.e. non-touristy], then the concern is also sometimes about whether hygiene has been overlooked (I1, R6).

Whilst the unfavourable thoughts and feelings projected above suggest the association between food hygiene and the health of the cooking process, some informants highlighted their hygiene concerns relating to the manner of eating. Although it was realised that eating with fingers is common and acceptable in the Indonesian food culture, some participants still considered this to be unhygienic. This is apparent in the following statement:

When they eat fish, my colleagues said to me that it is better to use our hands to eat it. In my culture, eating using fingers or hands is considered impolite. It seems like hands are not clean enough and then you put the food into your mouth using your hands (I9, R6).

7.2.2.2 Place Hygiene and Cleanliness

During the interviews, it appeared that hygiene concerns were not merely related to the local dishes, but also to the dining place where the food was consumed. The concern encompassed the cleanliness of the place in general as well as more specific aspects of the dining place, such as the furniture and the cutlery being used. Various responses from negative to positive can be seen in several excerpts, as the following comments illustrate:

I had a nice experience when I ate at a small restaurant. The restaurant was part of the lodging I stayed at. The restaurant was very nice, very clean, very hygienic, no flies or mosquitos because they got something to prevent flies from flying on the food (I6, R3).

The cleanliness of the restaurant was above average ... the floor, tables, chairs, crockery and cutlery, even, the uniform of the waiters was clean (I10, R1).

Usually what I saw was that the place was clean enough but sometimes the utensils were not, for example the spoon I was given had some old vegetables on it still because they didn't wash it properly and that did not make me very happy. What I did was scratch it off with a tissue. I didn't ask for a new one because I didn't think that the other spoons were clean enough either (I5, R3).

The majority of informants pointed out that dining place hygiene should be taken into account by all types of food service establishments, including the street food stalls. For them, the cleanliness issue of the dining place has become their main consideration before deciding in which place they would like to go for local dining. Some eventually preferred to dine in a restaurant compared to street food stalls since they doubted the hygiene standards in the latter place, as expressed in the following comments:

I only eat at restaurants, so I never go to street food stalls, which is why I don't see a problem with the hygiene issue (I9, R7).

I had two nights in Surabaya, and in the hotel I had one night dining experience and then another night I went to a nearby restaurant, just 5 minutes walk, that was fine. I only ate just at the restaurant, not at street food stalls, the ones on the street, I don't think they are good for me (I5, R4).

The hygiene in Indonesia is very bad so we only ate in the more respectable restaurants to be sure there are no problems with eating food (I14, R1).

I am used to dining in hotel restaurants like this, where the hygiene is very good (I6, R4).

Several informants further urged the important role of the government to implement hygiene standards for all food service establishments. This is particularly important if, Indonesia wishes to use its local culinary assets to attract international visitors. Such thoughts are evident in the following comments:

I know that now Indonesia is trying to promote their culinary [diversity] to international travellers, and in many cities in Indonesia. Most of them are the medium restaurants, with many varieties; people can choose where to go. So the quality has to be different from one place to another. Each different restaurant has to offer different unique quality but the hygiene has to be the same. There has to be a standard (I6, R5).

I think what is lacking in the Indonesian eating experience is hygiene standards in street hawker stalls. In Malaysia the hawker stalls, even very small ones, have to be certified by the government, so that we are very sure that they are hygienic and we don't worry about eating there. People also want to see the hygienic aspect too. It doesn't have to be high class hygiene but a basic standard one. Food has to be safe to eat (I8, R3).

In summary, with regard to hygiene standards, informant perceptions fell into two types. First, relating to the hygiene of the food, deep-fried cooking processes were considered to be an unhealthy way to cook food, raising serious concern amongst some informants. Second, when it comes to the hygiene of the place, most informants preferred to eat local Indonesian food at the hotel restaurants rather than in places like small restaurants and street food stalls. Most informants had negative perceptions about the hygiene standards of these stalls. On the other hand, the hygiene standards in hotel restaurants were perceived to be of a higher standard with cleaner environments and fewer risks.

7.2.3 Theme 3: Dining Establishment Quality

As illustrated in Figure 7.3, the dining atmosphere and the role of the printed menu appeared to be two major contributors to the quality of the dining establishments as perceived by informants.

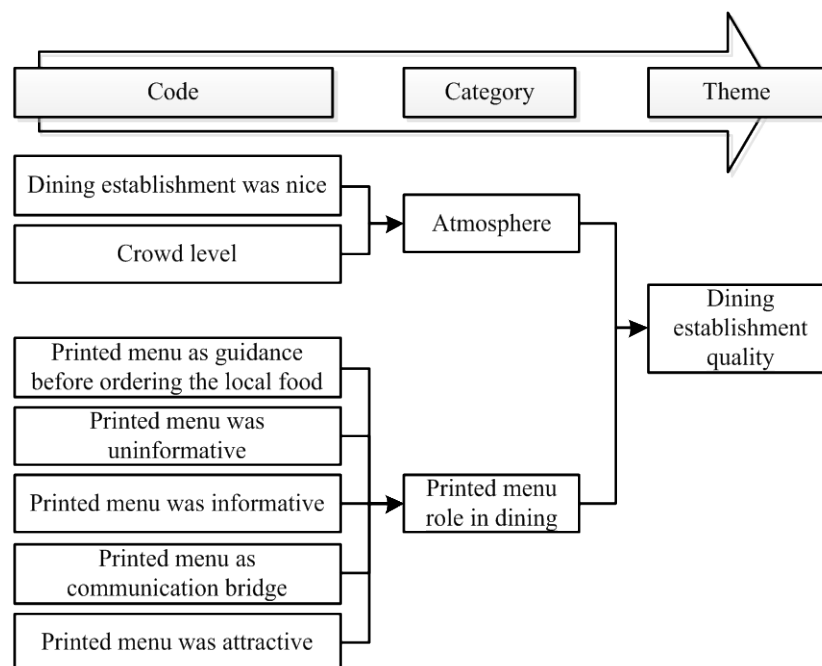


Figure 7.3 The evolution of code-category-theme 3: Dining establishment quality

7.2.3.1 Atmosphere

Differences of opinions existed with regard to the atmosphere of the dining place, where several informants expressed positive feelings such as, “*the dining place was nice*” (I9, R8), and “*the restaurant was fine, good, very good atmosphere*” (I11, R1). One respondent spoke about the atmosphere of a small local restaurant in glowing terms, as follows:

Well I think my best experience was when I was at a small restaurant near Borobudur [Temple] area. It was very cosy, very nice wooden furniture ... The atmosphere was nice and there were only a few tables and a few people but it was really relaxing and it was nice. It was a small restaurant [privately] owned by the house owner (I1, R7).

Another informant voiced her less positive dining experience due to crowd levels, as she said “*I went to one restaurant, it was crowded and the music was also too loud. No conversation was possible*” (I14, R2). Other informants also expressed the importance of customer numbers in influencing the quality of the dining experience, as another stated: “*as long as the seating is not congested and other customers observe social etiquette, there’s no problem for me*” (I10, R2).

7.2.3.2 The Role of the Printed Menu in Dining

The interview results indicated the significant role of the printed menu in contributing to the perceived quality of local dining experience. This was expressed by Informant 7, a visitor from Malaysia who travelled to for business purposes:

So the thing is that even if the menu book is not descriptive, you can look at the pictures on it, people can see it. Because nowadays people need to visualise, even sometimes people are too lazy to read, even myself, if I go anywhere, I don’t want to look at the name of the food, I would like to see how the food itself looks (I7, R2).

Several informants perceived that the menu was not attractive due to the absence of English descriptions. This was evident in the following comment made by one male Australian informant who had travelled to Indonesia more than three times:

I think one of the major problems is about communication, because all visitors can't speak Bahasa, but many hotel staff, especially in the restaurants, can speak English even though not all of them can speak fluently. I myself won't expect them to speak English, but at least we can be helped by the description or well written communication on the menu book. What they have is only descriptions in Bahasa, so we cannot understand them. If they got the menu presented with well-written English, it would help (I6, R6).

In contrast to the previous less favourable perceptions, most agreed that the menus they found during their dining in Indonesia, specifically those in restaurants not street food stalls, had been attractive and informative, as indicated in the two comments below:

When we saw the menu [pictures], we saw something so different, the presentation of the food on the menu was very authentic and with sambal and fresh vegetables. And then we thought that we should try it. The pictures on the menu were attractive. I think even the menu description was very detailed (I8, R4).

In most of my time there, I found that the descriptions on the menus were bilingual (I9, R9).

Some informants emphasised that a printed menu should represent more than a list of foods, it should act as a guide, providing information to those who were unfamiliar with local Indonesian cuisine. In other words, it should function essentially as a bridge of communication between the visitors and the dining place establishments, not just as a means of attracting the visitor to eat. These thoughts are represented in the following comment:

When I look at the menu, I am looking at what I want, not just what the restaurant provides. If you got the menu presented in a manner in which English was well-written, it would help. So the description on the menu book is a kind of bridge between travellers and the food providers (I6, R7).

In summary, the various responses above indicate that the perception of quality was not determined merely by the cleanliness of a dining establishment, but also by atmosphere. The role of the printed menu was considered to be an essential element as an information and communication tool.

7.2.4 Theme 4: Staff Quality

The concept of *staff quality* emerged as one of the key themes articulated by the informants during interviews. As illustrated in Figure 7.4, it was built upon three major categories: communication skills, staff hospitality, and staff competence. Each category is discussed below.

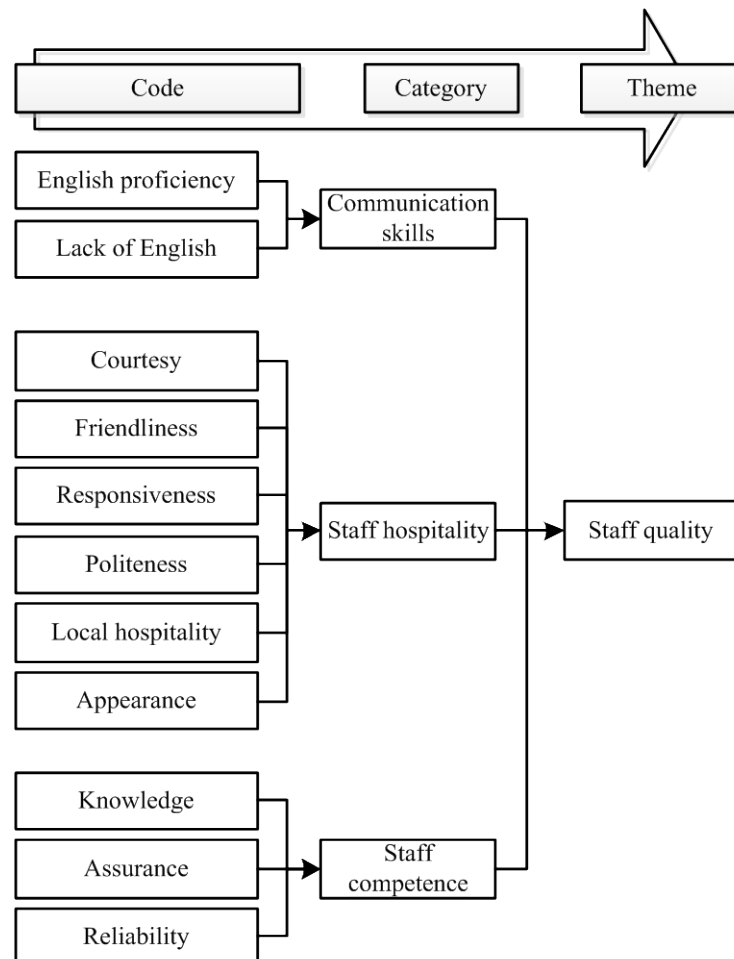


Figure 7.4 The evolution of code-category-theme 4: Staff quality

7.2.4.1 Communication Skills

In terms of communication skill, the major issue relates to the proficiency of English spoken by the service personnel when interacting with customers during the course of dining. Some informants expressed their positive impressions on this subject, as shown in these two statements:

The lady who served us did speak English and well enough to explain the concept and different dishes. So, I felt I was being helped by the explanation from the lady (I1, R8).

Sometimes I ask the waiters directly, and sometimes they can explain it, they speak English very well and sometimes just like me whose English is not a mother language. But I think it's not a major problem (I9, R10).

In contrast to the above responses, other informants found the language barrier to be a major constraint when communicating with the local staff. It was also considered to be the major cause of inaccuracy in service delivery. These less favourable responses are represented by the following comments:

I think one of the major problems is about communication, because all visitors can't speak in Bahasa ... And the barriers are sometimes in the language and communication with the staff. Not everyone can speak the same language (I6, R8).

We were not dealing directly with them, we had Indonesian people who were dealing with them, so they interacted in the Indonesian language with the staff. So they never spoke in English with us. I don't think that anyone could speak in English, because the place is so local ... Surabaya is not a very touristy area (I15, R4).

They tried to explain the food and helped me, but often they didn't understand English well enough and I didn't understand Indonesian well enough. Although I used body language, it's still pretty complicated, sometimes you just have to give up and you just order something. For example, in one restaurant in Surabaya, my friend ordered ice tea but without ice cubes, but then they got it with ice cubes, so they tried to explain it for five minutes, and they just gave up and then they got rid of the cubes (I2, R4).

7.2.4.2 Staff Hospitality

Despite the problems associated with the communication skills of the service personnel, all informants agreed that the hospitality level performed by the staff during dining was quite positive. The responses varied from projecting aspects of courtesy, politeness, friendliness, responsiveness, to local hospitality that was shaped by local culture. This is evidenced in various remarks, from short comments such as: “*the waiters were mostly friendly*” (I14, R3), and “*very polite!! The West still has many things to learn*” (I12, R2), to longer comments as follows:

It is a plus point when you have waiters/waitresses who are very good in English and communication. The waiters/waitresses are also very friendly and it is because of the culture. You can feel it. And that makes us think that this is something that we should try (I7, R3).

The behaviour of staff was very good, they are very cheerful, welcoming, and responsive too. Their uniform looks nice and neat. Nothing I recall was unpleasing (I10, R3).

7.2.4.3 Staff Competence

In addition to the impressive hospitality shown by the local staff, the positive comments from the informants included reference to staff competence, which incorporated: staff knowledge when explaining the local dishes to the customers prior to ordering the food; service reliability; and assurance provision. This is evident in the following responses:

Yeah, many times they are very nice. They have tried to fulfil what I asked. Sometimes they do not understand what I am saying, so at that time I am not quite enjoying what I eat (I6, R9).

The waiters were mostly friendly and the service was correct (I14, R4).

When I looked at the food ... I would asked to the waiter and I said... actually I wanted this and please gave me some information about it, how the things were prepared etc. When the waiter managed to explain the food then I decided to order it, OK, I will try the food, I like that (I7, R4).

In summary, with respect to *staff quality*, English proficiency amongst the staff was perceived as lacking, specifically among staff at small restaurants and street food stalls, or in places that are less touristy. This became a communication barrier for obtaining information about the local food. Whilst discussion of communication skills resulted in mixed responses, more positive perceptions were apparent in relation to hospitality and staff competence in serving international visitors.

7.2.5 Theme 5: Information Search Prior to the Actual Dining

One important theme highlighted by most informants in the interviews was the information search undertaken prior to the actual dining encounters. As illustrated in

Figure 7.5, this relates to searching for information to select where the local dining would take place, as well as which local dishes would be tried.

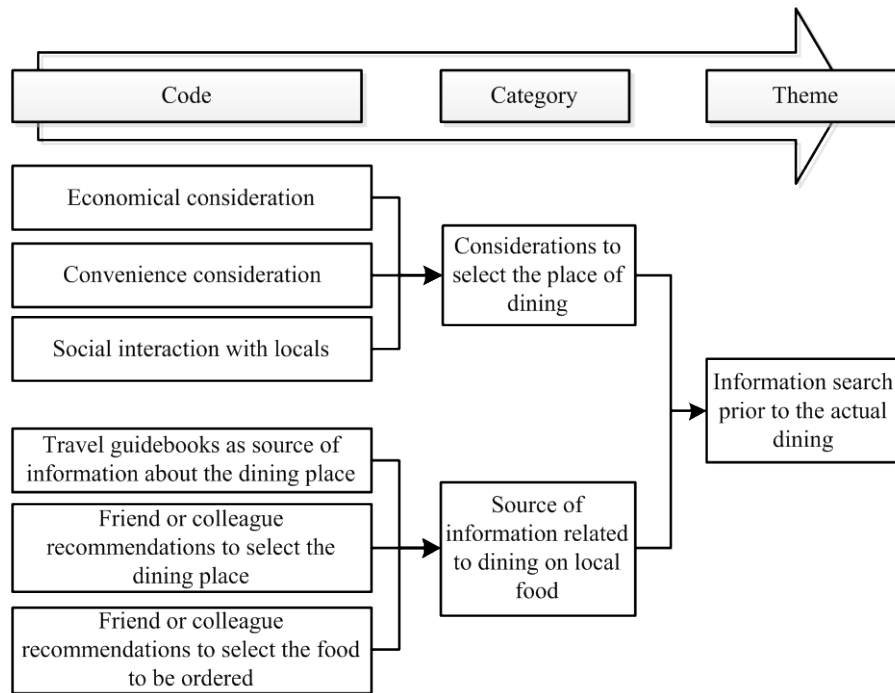


Figure 7.5 The evolution of code-category-theme 5: Information search prior to the actual dining

7.2.5.1 Considerations to Select the Place of Dining

The informants expressed different factors to be considered with regard to choosing the dining place. For instance, Informant 14 stated that “*I went to a restaurant in one shopping mall in Surabaya, I wanted to combine shopping and dinner*” (I14, R5). This statement indicates convenience as one factor that international visitors would take into account when selecting their dining place location in the visited destination.

Several informants, particularly from the student group, had economical reasons when selecting the place. Rather than paying more money when dining at medium or large sized restaurants, they did not mind eating at street hawkers, in spite of the fact that hygiene in street stalls might not be as good as in the restaurants. This group was represented by Informant 15, who was from Italy and had a scholarship from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Indonesia to learn about Indonesian culture. She said:

It really depends on where you eat and at what level of restaurant of course. I realised that street foods are not hygienic at all, but I went there sometimes to save money, then sometimes I went to restaurants when I can see the place is clean. It doesn't have to be a place for tourists, it's also when local people go there. I like medium level restaurants (I15, R5).

Other informants made their eating establishment choices based on the social interactions that might occur, as indicated in the following quote from a Dutch female informant who spent her holiday alone in Indonesia for 1-2 weeks:

I ate at street stalls mostly. Because I could have lots of contacts with the locals and I guessed I would have real Indonesian food there. Besides, I could see the people working in the street stalls, the way of locals dining and the use of ingredients (I11, R2).

7.2.5.2 Sources of Information Sought Relating to Dining

Together with various reasons when considering the dining place, informants sought information about local dining from different sources. The informants who travelled to Indonesia for the first time, sought the information from travel guide books, as expressed by Informant 12 who stated that “*this is our first time visiting Indonesia, mostly we ate at hotels and restaurants because it was recommended by the traveller guide book. Most guide books warned against street stalls, and we complied*” (I12, R3). Similarly, Informant 1 also referred to a travel guide book, stating that “*we chose that restaurant because we read about it in the guide book*” (I1, R10).

In addition, those who visited for business purposes or for joining education or cultural exchange programs, requested information and recommendations from local people, either their business colleagues or local friends. This is evident in the following statements:

We ate at a medium size restaurant in Malang, East Java and we were recommended to it by a colleague (I6, R10).

When I first got to know Batagor, I even didn't see the menu, because we walked to the factory outlet and we saw an Indonesian guy who worked at the outlet just come in bringing a dish and it looked nice and different. I didn't think I could find this in Jakarta, Bali, or Medan, so we then asked our Indonesian colleague who

accompanied us, and he said, oh, that is Batagor and it is something you must eat while you are in Bandung (I8, R5).

The interview findings above show the importance of information searches both in selecting an eating place and in deciding what to eat.

7.2.6 Theme 6: Local Food Culture or Foodways

During the interviews, cultural-related food issues were prominently discussed. This was not surprising given that informants came from different cultural backgrounds. These issues related to: different methods of cooking; the perception concerning ways of eating the food; the structure of the meal that differed from their home country; and different personal views in relation to dining.

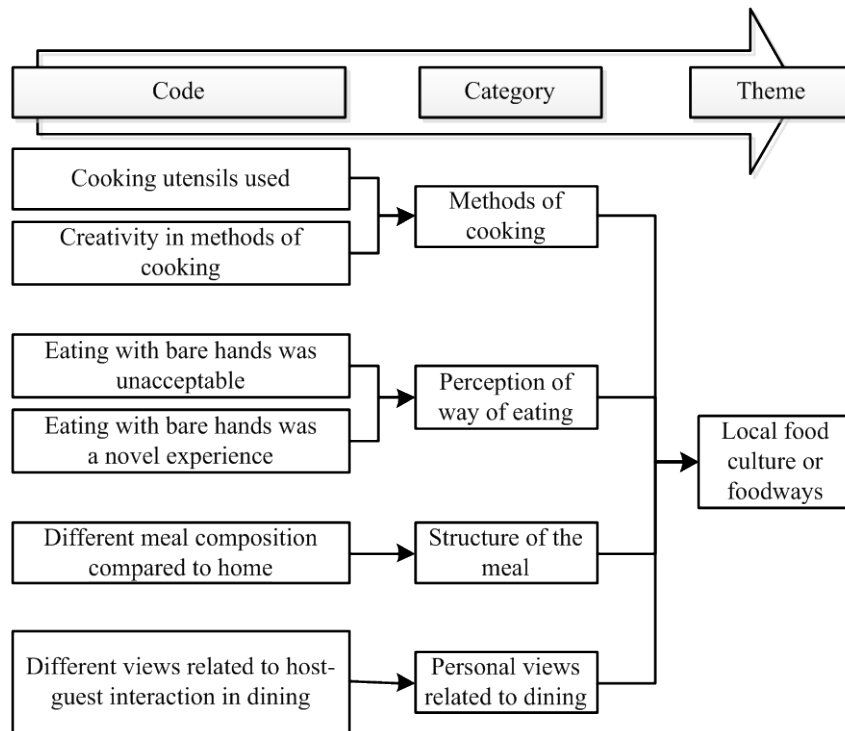


Figure 7.6 The evolution of code-category-theme 6: Local food culture or foodways

7.2.6.1 Methods of Cooking

With reference to cooking methods, several informants, specifically those who had the chance to eat food from street hawkers, noticed that the cooking utensils that the food

street vendors used to prepare the dishes were simple, yet the food tasted good, as positively expressed below:

I went to the local tofu stall in the street and I met the person who made the tofu and then they gave us the fresh one that was just fried, and it was really good. They used very traditional and simple cooking equipment (I1, R11).

Positive comments were also obtained regarding the creativity, either in cooking the dish, or in the way that it was presented, or in the simple preparation of the dish, as shown in the quotations below:

All the food is served in a special way and has no comparison to Dutch food (I13, R2).

Sometimes you don't garnish it too much, you try to keep it simple, and I like it that way (I7, R5).

On the other hand, less favourable responses were received from two informants who expressed their concerns about different methods of preparing the dish compared to the way it was done in their home country:

I am not sure whether it is a traditional way to cook the vegetables because I see that people here seem to like to mix all kind of vegetables all together. And honestly, I think it is a mess. So I do not really like [eating] the vegetables. Besides, my mother is a Chinese doctor, and I have been taught since I was a child that vegetables should be cold or hot. Here, they usually mix all things together and that makes me a bit scared to eat it. So I do not really enjoy [eating] the vegetables...but maybe it is influenced by my own culture. In Chinese culture, we serve vegetables separately, so maybe the culture here makes me upset. (I4, R4).

There is a difference in the way the food is cooked. Usually I have a skinless fish dish, but here in Indonesia, most of the fish is cooked and served with the skin on it. (I6, R11).

7.2.6.2 Perceptions of the Way of Eating

Distinct opinions were voiced with regard to the local way of eating food. As part of the local food culture, it is common to take and eat food using your hands. Some informants perceived this as a novel positive experience, which they enjoyed:

I went to the restaurant near mangrove forest, It was very very nice, I enjoyed it a lot. There were Asian style tables, so we were sitting on the floor, sharing, eating food with our hands and it was very very nice. And it's very different compared to what I had in my country. I think it is part of food experience to eat the way the locals do (I15, R6).

Nonetheless, this positive approach was not adopted by all informants as the following comment illustrates:

I am used to using a knife, it is a very important eating utensil accompanied by either fork or spoon, but then here you eat most food, for example fish, using both hands. Especially when they eat fish, they said to me that it is better to use our hands to eat it. But yeah... licking fingers is something that is very strange to me. So until now, I never try eating using my hands or fingers. I only use fingers when eating the fries. I don't get used to it. I never use my hands so it's very difficult for me using hands. Also, in my culture, eating using fingers or hands is considered impolite (I9, R11).

7.2.6.3 Structure of the Meal

The reflection of food culture differences was also indicated through several informants' perceptions that the structure of the meal they experienced during their visit in Indonesia differed from what they were used to in their countries. This is echoed by these three statements:

It was hard for me in the first days especially when I have breakfast, they gave me nasi, as Indonesian people eat nasi [rice] for breakfast, I prefer to have omelette with bread instead of nasi. For lunch sometimes I eat nasi, but sometimes I eat bread. For the dinner is always nasi (I2, R5).

In [the] Netherlands, I eat bread with stuff on it for breakfast and lunch. Especially for breakfast, it is important for me to have like something that I like. For my breakfast here, I have rice and ingredients like chicken meat... (I5, R5).

It's just a thought and just something that I realised when I was there we ate more rice and less meat and less vegetables, the meat is not much and it's a very little part of the meal or dish. I don't see it as a disappointing thing, the thing I see this is a matter of different style and I learnt that this part of cultural differences I got in joining the program. We Europeans, we eat less rice and more meat, while In Indonesia, is the other way around (I15, R7).

7.2.6.4 Personal Views related to Dining

Another interesting finding that emerged from the interviews was the presence of different perspectives in valuing the dining activity. As described in detail by Informant 15 from Italy, where dining is seen as more than just a matter of physical sustenance. Instead, it is a time to interact or socialise with other people. During her stay in Indonesia, this Informant learned that for the host, respecting the guests was more important than sharing conversations with the people who were dining. She said:

I think the food is always something that you can rely on to provide a moment to share with other people ... this is something very Italian, because in Italy it is very important for us that eating is not just about the food ... but also it is a time when we meet people, either you go out for dinner or lunch. I noticed that in Indonesia, it's different. In Italy, when we have food, we are sitting together eating together at the table. In Indonesia, it's something strange for me because people always wait for us as the guests to eat and then the host eats later and we are not sitting at the table all together. You are in the room together but not sitting together. I know that the hosts are trying to show their respect to their guests, it's part of Indonesian culture, I know this, but ... for me eating with other people is about sitting together, and chatting and not only about giving nutrition to my body. So this was a bit difficult to understand in the beginning. I think it was a good experience for me to see for myself the true way of life of local people (I15, R8).

Differences in terms of local foodways were highlighted in the interviews, particularly when the informants compared what they were used to in their home countries with the food culture they experienced in Indonesia. The perceptions in terms of the methods used to prepare and serve the food, ways of eating, composition of the meals they had during their stay, and the way of seeing the course of dining with other people have dominated informant responses.

7.2.7 Theme 7: Authenticity

A prevailing key theme that was also addressed by informants during interviews was related to authenticity, both incorporating the authenticity of food as well as dining place authenticity. These two aspects are essential, particularly for those whose reason for travelling to Indonesia was to learn more about Indonesian culture through their involvement in the education or cultural exchange program.

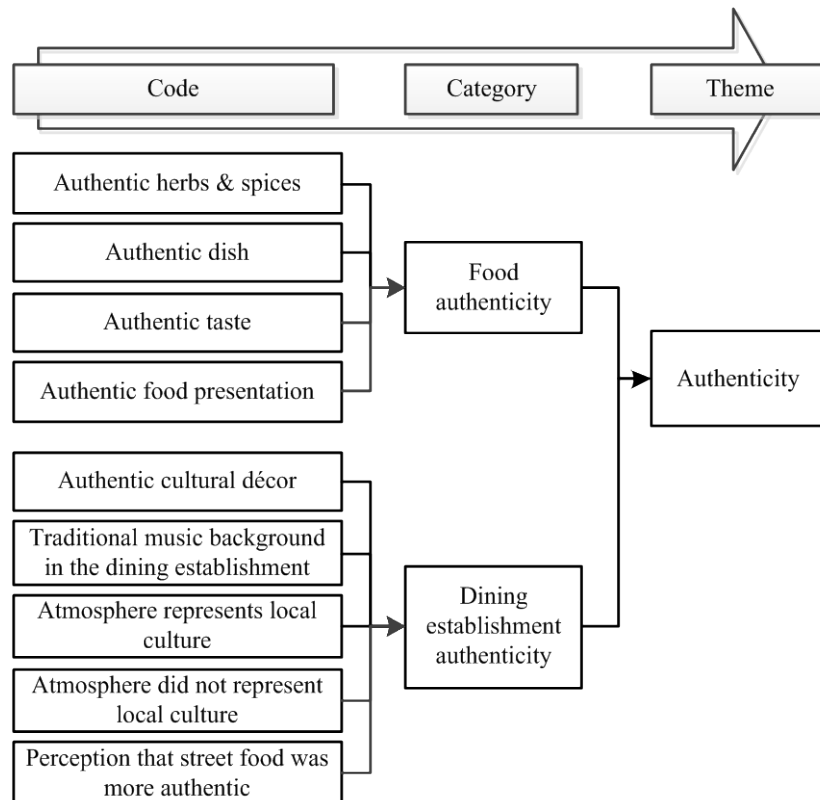


Figure 7.7 The evolution of code-category-theme 7: Authenticity

7.2.7.1 Food Authenticity

A majority of the informants agreed that the authentic food experience they had was due to the use of authentic herbs and spices in the dishes they ate. One female informant (Informant 3) from Hong Kong, who was a student of medical science in her home country, described her excitement when first time eating *tempe*, as follows:

I really have an appetite for eating tahu [tofu] and tempe, but I prefer tempe. I find that the texture of tempe is quite special and I haven't tasted this kind of food in Hong Kong. It is very rich and it is a little bit salty and it is rich in protein, and kind of a main energy source (I3, R4).

Similarly, Informant 4 shared his positive experience of eating unfamiliar ingredients:

In one restaurant, I ate an oxtail soup, I know that it was part of a cow, which was its tail, yeah, but I like it. The taste was so strong, and it was true. Also, I ate cow's mouth [cingur], but at that time, my Indonesian friends did not tell me until I finished eating it. I felt weird when eating it, I kept questioning what the food

was but I kept eating it until I finished. I reckon I am a kind of food adventurer, so I am eager to try new food, as you know that Chinese people eat a lot (I4, R5).

The way of presenting food in a unique way supported the sense of authenticity as well. Positive responses are illustrated through the following statements:

I already learned a lot because of my Indonesian husband. At home, I cook Indonesian food. I like it very much. But here, I ordered the same dishes as I cook at home, the taste was different. Here it is much more delicious, you can get the original taste because of the spices used in food. It's more authentic. It was above all I anticipated although I am a good cook and know how to make Indonesian food in Holland. But like I said before, not all ingredients are available in Holland and I don't know them all, so the food was lovely to eat in the country itself!" I like it a lot (I13, R3).

The food yes definitely, it is culturally Indonesian (I9, R12).

We saw something so different, you know like, nasi - I forgot the name, but a few types of nasi with a very authentic way of cooking and unique. And the presentation is very authentic and with sambal and fresh vegetables. And then we thought that why shouldn't we try it and then we tried it and we found something was interesting (I8, R7).

7.2.7.2 Dining Establishment Authenticity

Besides authentic food, the interviews also revealed the contribution of dining place authenticity in the overall perceptions of local dining quality. This encompassed the atmosphere, interior décor of the restaurants, as well as the presence of traditional music during the dining course. While Informant 9 thought the dining place atmosphere did not much represent the local culture, stating that "*I don't really think the atmosphere is culturally Indonesian. I don't think so*" (I9, R13), most informants agreed that the place they went to dine reflected the authenticity they searched for, as expressed in the following comments:

Yeah, we ate at different restaurants and we had [a traditional] atmosphere with gamelan music, and it was nice (I1, R12).

Good, it was a very good atmosphere. It was fine, I would like to try it again (I11, R3).

At that time I was walking with my husband and basically he is not a food adventurer like me, so, he is not like a person who really wants to try much local

food during travelling, so we went to Indago to one shop, then we saw an authentic warung [small local food vendor], the place itself was made of a bamboo kind of thing, we saw something different, the strength of the place is the décor, and it was interesting (I8, R8).

Moreover, one informant commented on his visit to the street food stalls, saying “*I think outdoor hawker stalls can have better food than we ever experience in fine dining restaurants*” (I7, R6). This statement suggests that having travel food experiences in street hawker places can be more authentic than in restaurants.

The above discussions show that almost all responses were positive. Informants perceived that local Indonesian food was authentic, using local fresh herbs, spices and other ingredients that often differed from Indonesian food they had eaten in their home country. In addition, the authenticity of the experience was enhanced through the atmosphere which reflected local culture, such as the décor and background music in the restaurants.

7.2.8 Theme 8: Food Neophilia Tendency

Food is an inseparable component in travelling regardless of the purpose and benefits sought by the visitors to a destination. The interview findings have indicated a certain level of openness toward engaging with local food experiences or a food neophilia tendency that is exhibited by some informants during their visit to Indonesia. As Figure 7.8 shows, this tendency is contributed to by three major factors, namely: novelty seeking benefits; familiarity with Indonesia and the food of the country; and social interactions with local people.

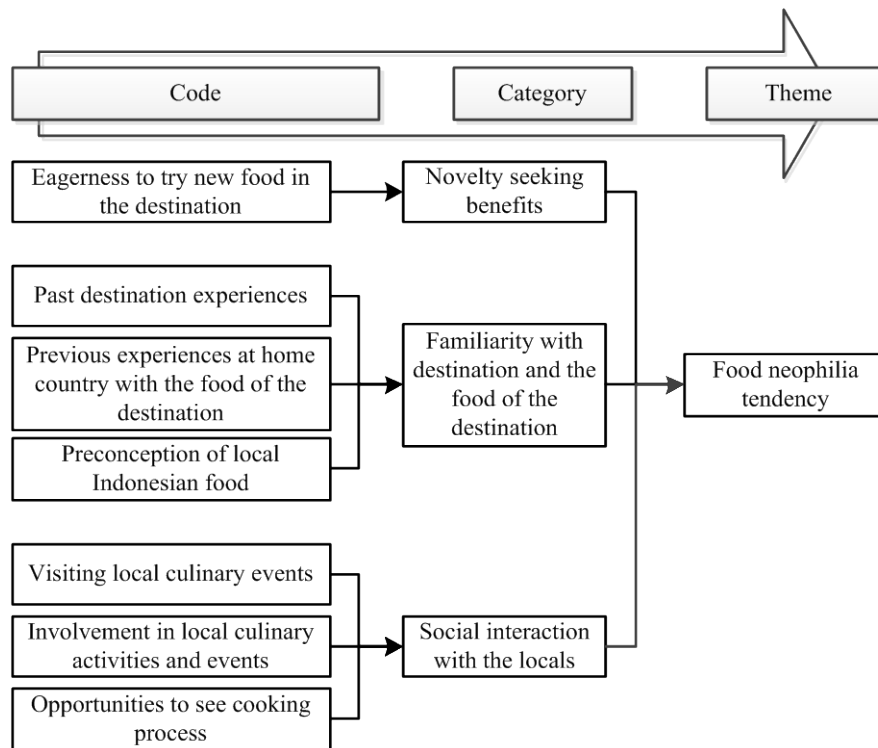


Figure 7.8 The evolution of code-category-theme 8: Food neophilia tendency

7.2.8.1 Novelty Seeking Benefits

In terms of novelty seeking benefits, several informants stated that whenever they travel to a destination, they like to seek and try local food, as evident in the following statements:

I always try variations; I especially look for healthy food and drinks whenever I travel (I14, R6).

Of course, that's what I am going to do because you know, when I am travelling, and even when I am in Italy, I do eat food from other countries. And when I am travelling I always eat local food because it's part of the experience when we travel, to eat something which is different, the local food. I never eat Italian when I am abroad (I15, R10).

7.2.8.2 Familiarity with the Destination and the Food of the Destination

The informant familiarity with the destination and with the food of the visited destination was partly influenced by past experiences of travelling to Indonesia. As can be seen in Table 7.2 earlier, six informants had travelled to Indonesia before

participating in the present research. This fact suggests that they might have had past dining experiences with local Indonesian food, as evident in the following quotations:

Yeah, I travelled to Bandung and I really enjoyed the food there. First time I went to Bandung, I didn't know that Sunda food is a nice food to eat, because at that time, we were looking for Nasi Padang because in Malaysia, Nasi Padang is so popular and also many Malaysian say if you go to Indonesia you have to eat Nasi Padang (I8, R9).

I travelled to Indonesia in March this year [2011]. I have been working on a research project since 2008 and it will finish in 2012. We invest money to build the infrastructure in agriculture in developing countries. (I6, R12).

The preceding Table 7.1 showed that two informants involved in this study were from Malaysia, one of the closest neighbour countries of Indonesia. Indonesia and Malaysia are part of the Austronesian or the Malay race, sharing similarities in many cultural aspects such as language, norms, and religion (Koentjaraningrat, 1975; Steven, 2005). The cuisines of the two countries are quite alike, which in turn, contributes to some extent, to the familiarity with and preconceptions of local Indonesian food. This food familiarity was noted by Informant 8 as follows:

Basically Malaysian and Indonesian food are the same, you can find Nasi Padang in Malaysia because in Malaysia, Nasi Padang is so popular (I8, R10).

Interestingly, the interviews also revealed the fact that some informants felt some connections with Indonesia and with the food in particular even though they lived some distance from the country. It appears that emotional attachment, such as family history, contributed to this feeling and familiarity, as indicated by two informants:

I was 8 years old the first time I travelled to Indonesia with my parents, but I spent most of the time in Jakarta, Bandung, and Bogor ... It was for holiday and for family history because my father was born in Jakarta. He has died now ... so Indonesia is not a new country for my family because my grandma lived there for 2 years. This time is my first visit to Surabaya after a long time. I like the country, I love to come back and especially travelling to Java, I love to see culture and nature here (I1, R13).

I have learned a lot about Indonesian food...I am a good cook and know how to make Indonesian food in Holland because my husband is Indonesian but I'm willing to learn more (I13, R4).

In addition, the informant's prior knowledge about local Indonesian food contributes to openness about engaging with local food experiences (i.e. the food neophilia tendency). These are evident in short comments such as, "*I know that nasi is the major staple*" (I2, R6), and "*As I am of Dutch origin, I am rather familiar with Indonesian food*" (I12, R4), as well as longer comments, as follows:

I have a friend from Maluku, Indonesia, and he cooks for us traditional Indonesian and other foods, and some tastes are very similar here. I like satay ayam because it is also very familiar. I have had that in Holland, and we call it satay as well, and it is very dominant in Holland (I5, R5).

Taste is about what I expected before coming here, and that's including the level of spiciness that I get. I have a friend in the Netherlands, and she's Indonesian, so she cooks a lot of Indonesian food, so I know some Indonesian food, and that helped me to set my expectations about Indonesian food being spicy (I2, R7).

7.2.8.3 Social Interactions with the Locals

Opportunities for social interaction with local people during local food dining experiences in Indonesia were also highlighted by some informants. For instance, Informant 1 expressed a positive response when she had the chance to seeing first-hand how the food was prepared, she said:

I went to the local tofu seller in the street near Borobudur area, and I met the person who made the tofu, so I got the chance to see how the tofu was being made. It was really good (I1, R14).

Moreover, the interactions were built through their involvement in local culinary events or activities such as cooking class, as described by Informant 15, whose travel purpose was to join a cultural exchange program:

I also want to share you my experience and I think it is very important. We were taught how to cook Soto Madura and Rujak Uleg ... we learned about the ingredients and it was really really nice, especially because as I told you, I love food in general and I love food from other places and I love cooking also. It was actually pretty straight forward to learn a bit about how to cook Indonesian food. It was a bit more complicated than I expected anyway it was really really nice, because we all worked, we learned many things because we were not only eating the food ... we learned about all the spices, how to make lontong, peanut sauces, and these things happened because we were invited to participate at the Rujak

Uleg Festival¹. So at that time, we learned it at cooking class before and then we made it during the festival. So we learned, we cooked and then we ate (I15, R11).

Favourable comments relating to social interactions with the local people were also echoed through descriptions of visits to traditional markets, as expressed in the following statement:

Another time that I enjoyed a lot was when we went to traditional market and I really really wanted to go because first of all I think the market is the place where you can really experience the local food culture. I mean, you can really understand what people do, eat and there you can smell, taste and you can see. It's very beautiful and I bought some spices there. Going to the market it was really really good (I15, R12).

Food neophilia behaviour was reflected in the openness shown in trying local Indonesian food. Various factors that encouraged such openness included the interest in trying novel local food, involvement in social interactions with the locals, and relative familiarity with Indonesia and the food of the country.

7.2.9 Theme 9: Food NeophobiaTendency

In contrast to the food neophilia behaviour demonstrated by some informants, others were more wary. As Figure 7.9 shows, this food neophobia tendency is shaped by: informants' more hesitating inclinations toward trying local food; and personal beliefs relating to diet restrictions.

¹ *Rujak Uleg Festival* is an annual festival held every May in conjunction with Surabaya City anniversary events. *Rujak Uleg* is one of signature traditional foods from Surabaya, East Java. It is a fresh fruit and vegetable salad with shrimp paste sauce that is pounded with bean, chilli and garlic in a mortar and pestle. At the event, the participants have to prepare *Rujak Uleg* on the spot. In addition, the participants have to wear unique traditional outfits. In 2013, there were 1,225 participants and thousands of spectators, both locals and foreigners (Hakim, 2013).

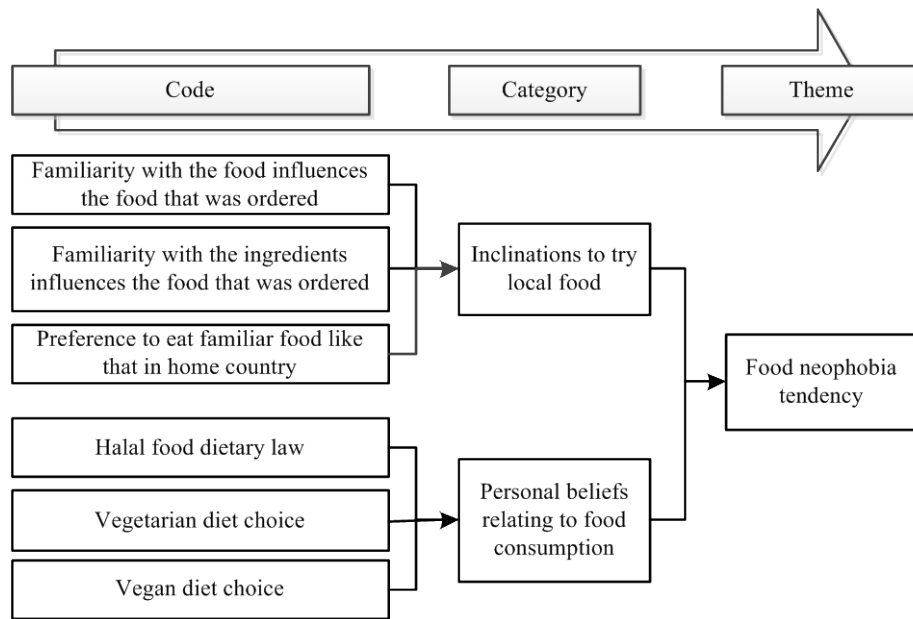


Figure 7.9 The evolution of code-category-theme 8: Food neophobia tendency

7.2.9.1 Inclinations to Try Local Food

Those neophobics who did express an inclination to try local food stated that what they ordered was something that they were familiar with, either familiar in terms of the ingredients, or because they had eaten it in their home country. This is evident in the following statements:

When I was in Malang, I ate in the restaurant in the Tugu Hotel ... I didn't even look at the menu, as soon as they said something about the food and the ingredients were familiar, I order it (I6, R13).

I like to have a good description because actually there are many ingredients that I don't like such as olives, pickles, raw onions. I don't really like egg either, so for me it's pretty important that I can know what I order otherwise I just order satay ayam because that's what I know, I know it's just like a safe choice (I5, R6).

7.2.9.2 Personal Beliefs relating to Food Consumption

With regard to personal beliefs, Informant 8 emphasised the importance of having halal food as part of her belief as a Muslim, as she stated:

What I saw in Jakarta, of course there is nothing to offend you whether you are Christian or not Christian, but if you are Moslem, you want to make sure that you

eat halal food, you know, while in Malaysia, we have the that halal kind of thing, and I think it's not only for Moslem, but also for foreigners as well (I8, R11).

For several informants, their personal belief was related to their dietary restrictions rather than religious law, as expressed in the following comments:

All people have their limitations in terms of what they eat, what they don't eat. So I would like to know more about what is that before I may touch it. Some people they don't eat red meat and like me I don't eat pork, so my preferences for food may change. (I6, R14).

I'm a vegetarian and it's not that easy to eat non-meat in Indonesia (I11, R5).

Yes, and I always try variations. I am looking for healthy food and drinks (I14, R7).

In contrast to the food neophilia group, those who exhibited food neophobia behaviour tended to be more hesitant about trying local food during their stay in Indonesia. This was due to the preference to eat food or ingredients that were familiar or were aligned to personal beliefs and dietary restrictions.

7.2.10 Theme 10: Post-Dining Experiences

Interviews were concluded with questions aimed at exploring the overall dining experiences of informants in relation to satisfaction and future behavioural intentions. This is illustrated in Figure 7.10.

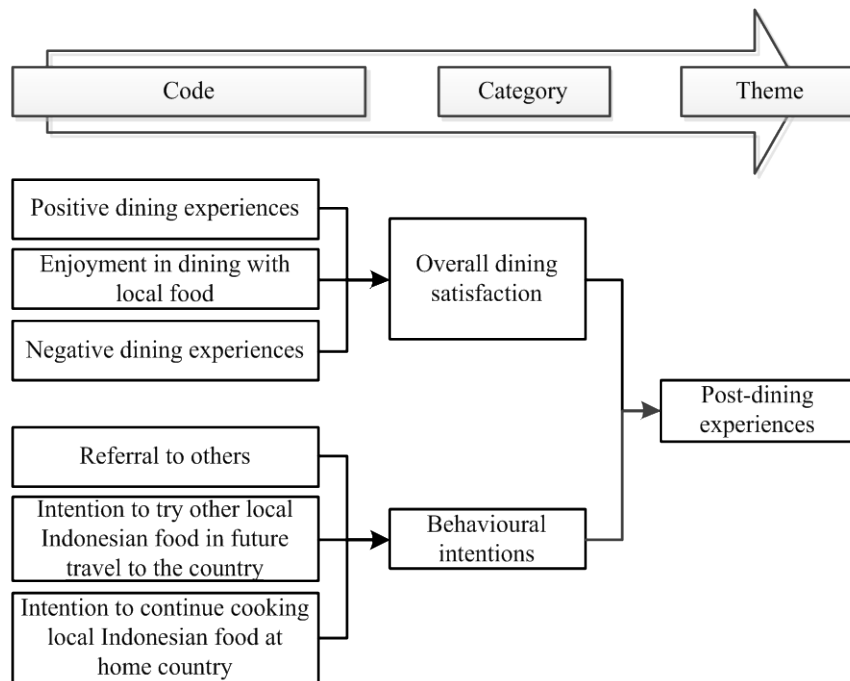


Figure 7.10 The evolution of code-category-theme 9: Post dining experiences

7.2.10.1 Overall Satisfaction with Local Food Experiences

Only two out of fifteen informants stated that, overall, they were not satisfied with their local dining experiences. Comments such as, “*If it’s scored in 1 to 5 and 5 is the best, so I rate it 2, so it’s below my expectation. For me, chilli sauce or sambal is a little bit too spicy*”, and “*I imagine that the dishes were not too spicy in order to accommodate tourists*” (I12, R5), suggest that dissatisfaction was partly caused by different levels of spiciness and informant tolerance. However, others were more positive, as Informant 3 declared:

Compared to my expectation, I find my actual food experience in Indonesia is better, especially not only because of the food quality, but because of my ability to eat spicy food. I am not a person who likes spicy food. In Hong Kong I usually avoid it, but now I sometimes even add more chilli to my meals. So I reckon, my parents back home will be surprised (I3, R5).

Given the fact that different responses were received in relation to food spiciness, this issue needs to be taken into account by local food service providers especially when dealing with international visitors.

Most informants expressed their favourable overall comments, including “*excellent cuisine*” (I12, R6), “*satisfied in one case and delighted in the other*” (I10, R4), and “*an experience for live*” (I13, R5), as well as longer comments, such as:

My food experience was good and I would like to try more different dishes. I would like to try more fish in the future. I think the quality would be an eight out of ten in score and for me was beyond my expectations (I1, R15).

I find there is a lot of variety of food...the food really fit me. I always feel hungry and I really have a good appetite for eating tahu [tofu] and tempe. I eat a lot of this (I3, R6).

Indonesia for me is like a heaven for food. When we Malaysians go to Penang, we think that this place is heaven for food, but here in Indonesia, it's more than that. And I am sure that more people go here for food, and for me, I think Indonesia will reach that level where people will go to Indonesia because of the food (I8, R12).

7.2.10.2 Future Behavioural Intentions

Some informants stated quite positively that they would love to try more local Indonesian food once they have the opportunity to travel to Indonesia in the future, as remarked by short comments such as, “*yes definitely*”, “*yes, of course*”. These comments were echoed by nine other informants, as evident in the two statements below:

Yeah, when I travel to Indonesia, I will eat Indonesian cuisine again (I9, R14).

Yeah, I have planned already to visit Indonesia with my friends and travel to other parts of Indonesia, and yes, we will try other local food there (I2, R8).

Like responses to dining satisfaction, favourable comments were also obtained pertaining to the informant willingness to recommend trying local Indonesian food to other people. For example, a male senior informant from the Netherlands stated that he and his wife would like to continue cooking Indonesian food at home.

As I am from Dutch origin I am rather familiar with the Indonesian food and I will continue to cook it at home (I12, R7).

In showing their willingness to make referrals to others, two informants below acknowledged additional notes relating to the issues of spiciness and hygiene, as follows:

Yeah I am sure to tell my friends and family, but before, they have to know what they are going to eat, so, for example the spiciness, because like my mother, she cannot eat spicy food. But yeah, so there are lots of different sights so you can see so many different kinds of the food (I15, R13).

Yes, but careful at the street (I13, R7).

There are no reasons for not trying Indonesian food. They [family members] will really enjoy it. But as I said, the food has to cater for different tastes and needs of different people. So for example, like my wife, she is a vegetarian person and she's very careful in choosing the food (I6, R15).

Yes, but combined with some guidance or recommendations, particularly when they are European (I14, R8).

7.3 Chapter Summary

Chapter 7 presented the results of the semi-structured interviews conducted in this study to uncover international visitor perceptions concerning actual dining experience. It also examined the post-dining experiences, looking at participant satisfaction and future behavioural intentions.

Through the utilisation of content analysis, 10 major themes emerged. Of these, 9 related to perceptions of the actual local food experiences and 1 theme related to post-local food experiences. The nine themes discussed were: food quality; hygiene standards; dining establishment quality; staff quality; information search prior to the actual dining; local food culture or foodways; authenticity; food neophilia tendency; and food neophobia tendency. Various responses, ranged from less favourable to favourable, were conveyed by the participants in perceiving the quality of the aforementioned themes. The summary table portraying participant responses can be found in Appendix 13, whilst more detail discussions in regard to the underlying themes and how the overall dining experiences with local Indonesian food is captured by the participants in this study are presented in Chapter 7.

Chapter 8

Discussion and Conclusion

8.0 Introduction

The central focus of this research is the domain of visitor experience involving dining on local food in the destination. The study commenced with a review of the literature relevant to culinary tourism and the travel dining experience. The review, as provided in Chapters 2 and 3, was undertaken to determine to what extent the gaps in the knowledge existed. Whilst the importance of culinary experiences in tourism has been increasingly acknowledged by destination management and researchers alike, there appears to be a lack in the research which systematically investigates this domain from the theoretical perspective of the pre-, during, and post-tourism experience stages. The results of the literature review directed the focus of the study on to obtaining an improved understanding of dining experiences with local food undertaken by international visitors in the context of Indonesia as the visited destination.

To conceptualise such understanding, a comprehensive framework was proposed. Discussed in Chapter 4, the framework views visitor experience as sequential and having an interactive relationship over three stages: pre-, during, and post-dining. Considering the complexity of the visitor experience, the framework acknowledges the influence of internal and external factors on visitors' local food consumption experiences at every dining stage. To assess the applicability of the proposed framework, empirical research was conducted.

The study applied a mixed methods research design, as described in Chapter 5, comprising the survey at phase 1 and semi-structured interviews at phase 2. The participants in the two data collection phases were drawn from the same sample group. That is, those participating in the interviews to describe their perceptions of the actual dining and satisfaction after dining were also those who had participated in the preceding survey. The results of the research have been reported and analysed in detail in Chapters 6 and 7.

This concluding chapter is organised into three sections. The first section is devoted to discussing the major study findings, highlighting how these have addressed the research propositions and further, provided a basis for improving the applicability of the proposed conceptual framework. The second section elicits the significance of the study from theoretical, methodological, and managerial perspectives. The last section acknowledges limitations of the investigation and proposes recommendations for further research.

8.1 Major Findings and Discussion

This section discusses the key findings of the study in three parts. First, the major findings of the survey, describing the underlying factors that affected participant expectations of local food experiences at pre-dining stage are provided. Second, discussion on the key findings of the semi-structured interviews, reflecting participant perceptions of the experiences during the actual dining and post-dining stages are presented. Following the discussion, the proposed conceptual framework is revisited and necessary refinements presented based on the most prevalent factors revealed. This will improve the framework applicability. Lastly, summary depicting the relationships amongst aim of the study, research objectives, research questions, and the major findings is outlined.

8.1.1 Pre-Dining Experiences with Local Food: Factors Influencing Visitor Expectations

As illustrated in the proposed framework in Figure 4.1, this study recognises the role of both internal and external factors in shaping visitor dining experiences with local food.

In particular, the contribution of the external factors is reflected in **Proposition 5**: ‘*visitor dining experiences with local food in the destination are influenced by external factors including food quality, food cultural-related, physical dining establishment, and social aspects*’. The subsequent discussions provide evidence of how these factors contribute specifically to the levels of visitor expectations of dining on local food.

8.1.1.1 The Influence of External Factors on Dining Expectations

This study has revealed seven external factors affecting participant expectations prior to the actual dining experience with local Indonesian food. Presented in order of importance, these seven factors are: staff quality, sensory appeal, food uniqueness, local servicescapes, food authenticity, food familiarity, and food variety. Each is now discussed in detail.

Staff quality appeared to be the most important factor anticipated by participants. In this thesis, staff quality comprised the attributes relating to the ability of local staff to provide adequate information about local food, to offer responsive and friendly services, as well as to communicate well with the participants. It was reasonable to expect adequate assistance from the staff during the experience of dining on local food, given that they were part of the local community with whom the participants were keen to interact. Additionally, participants were international visitors who might not be familiar with Indonesian food. As such, expecting good service from local staff was understandable as it was considered an important element in enhancing the quality of the dining experience with local food. The importance of this aspect was also confirmed by Gibbs and Ritchie (2010), as discussed in Section 3.4.2.2, who stated that besides the food that is being consumed at dining establishments, staff capacity in providing services to customers is also a key determinant in providing memorable dining experiences.

Sensory appeal was found to be the second most important factor anticipated by the participants prior to their actual dining, indicative of dining expectations stimulated by human senses. The emergence of this factor in the research was thought-provoking since the sensory appeal factor was extracted not merely by food-related elements, such as taste, smell, and freshness of the food. It was also determined by sensory appeal

concerning the cleanliness and pleasant ambience of the dining establishment where the food consumption took place. This evidence suggests that in dining, the role of items beyond food are considered by international visitors as being just as essential as the food itself and as such, should not be overlooked by relevant tourism authorities. Kivela and Crotts (2006) noted that dining experience could offer a pleasurable sensory experience since it involves stimuli from the food that is seen, smelt, tasted, touched, and felt. The results of this thesis confirm this belief with sensory appeal playing a critical role in motivating participants who were initially unfamiliar with local food to try that food.

The third factor contributing to participant dining expectations was food uniqueness, including ways of cooking, presenting, and eating local food in ways that were considered different from what they experienced at home. In other words, the food uniqueness factor in this study is a reflection of Indonesian's unique way of preparing, serving, presenting, and eating the food. As identified in Section 3.4.2.2, previous research, such as Jang, Ha, and Silkes' (2009) study, has suggested that the food uniqueness factor was represented by sensory-related aspects, such as being exotic, spicy, and aromatic. However, the findings of this study revealed that the unique aspect of local cuisines composed of elements of food quality *outside* of the sensory appeal attributes. As described in the preceding paragraph, sensory appeal emerged as a distinct factor with a significant influence on participant expectations.

According to Smith et al. (2010), the provision of memorable food experiences during travel cannot be separated from the quality of food service establishments. The local servicescape was found in this study to be a significant external factor affecting participant dining expectations with local Indonesian food. The term servicescape was initially introduced by Bitner (1992), as discussed in Section 3.4.2.2, who argued that servicescapes comprise three dimensions: ambient conditions; spatial layout and functionality; and signs, symbols, and artefacts. In this thesis, local servicescapes were found to be closely associated with the physical aspect of dining representing local Indonesian culture. These aspects included: the unique design, décor, and layout of the dining establishment; how the place reflected local Indonesian culture, for example, through traditional music played; and how it provided a sense of welcome to visitors.

These results suggest the important role of this factor as the first ‘moment-of-truth’ of the services encountered by the visitors, prior to the actual engagement with the local food itself.

Food authenticity was the fifth external factor found to significantly contribute to shaping participant dining expectations. The emergence of food authenticity as a distinct extracted factor incorporated: the authentic taste of the food; authentic spiciness of the food; and any local dishes that the diners found to be exotic. It is important to note that this result was in accordance with the preconceptions that the participants had regarding the major characteristics of Indonesian cuisines that they were required to describe at the beginning of the survey. As discussed in Section 6.1.4, most of these initial descriptions were related to the taste of local Indonesian food, which was perceived as *spicy, containing lot of herbs and spices, and authentic* (see Figure 6.3 and Table 6.6).

Along with food authenticity, food familiarity was the sixth important factor significantly influencing participant dining expectations. The appearance of this factor in this study was notable, given that food authenticity, as discussed above, also emerged as a significant expected factor. Despite projecting expectations of seeking authenticity in the food, the participants nevertheless expected some familiarity with the local food they intended to eat. Here, this constituted participant familiarity with food ingredients that were known, as well as a degree of flavour modification in the local dishes they wanted to eat. These findings imply that whilst visitors travel in search of novelty and strangeness, most need a degree of familiarity to enjoy their experience. The new factor of food familiarity that emerged from factor analysis in this research was evidence that this factor affects expectations involving dining on local food.

Food variety was the last factor significantly affecting participant expectations. It encompassed two items, namely: the wide range of local dishes that catering to participant preferences or needs; and the availability of local Indonesian beverages that participants might want to experience. It is noteworthy to find that expectations concerning variety were not exclusively related to local food, but also involved the presence of various options for local beverages.

In summary, the foregoing discussions have indicated the significant contribution of the external factors of food quality, food cultural-related, physical, and social aspects in affecting visitor dining expectations with local Indonesian food. Although the emerging factors were not entirely the same as those depicted in the proposed conceptual framework in Figure 4.1 and as stated in **Proposition 5**, the results of this study provide evidence of the relationships between the examined concepts. That is, they appeared to have influence on international visitor dining experiences with local food in the destination.

8.1.1.2 The Influence of Internal Factors on Dining Expectations

In addition to the significant contribution of external factors on influencing dining expectations of local food experiences, further analysis was undertaken to examine whether internal factors played a significant role in affecting dining expectations prior to the actual encounter with local Indonesian food. These internal factors are: demographics; travel characteristics; preconceptions about local Indonesian food; and past dining experiences.

The survey results showed that with the exception of gender, demographic factors significantly influenced participant dining expectations. Using age as the grouping factor, it was revealed that there were differences when it came to expecting the dining factors of: the quality of the dining staff; sensory appeal attributes; local servicescapes or the physical environment where the dining was taken; the uniqueness of the local food; and the variety of the local food available to choose. That is, compared to the younger age group (18-30), the older groups (41-50, 51-60, and above 60) projected a significantly higher level of expectation relating to those aforementioned factors. For instance, in terms of staff quality, these older groups expected the staff at the dining establishment to be more friendly, responsive, and able to communicate with them in catering to their specific dining needs.

Besides expectations toward staff quality, older participants also had a significantly higher level of expectation concerning the sensory appeal attributes, including the appealing smell of the food, its taste, the cleanliness and ambience of the dining establishments, and the use of fresh ingredients. Relating to these attributes, Khan and

Hackler (1981) and Moschis and Ünal (2008), as discussed in Section 3.4.2.1, asserted that different expectation levels of dining attributes projected by older people are natural and might be partially due to changes in their bodily systems. For example, a decline in the ability to taste and smell food, and to distinguish stimuli presented in certain physical environment may account for different expectations. This result suggests an important implication, similar to the previous research conducted by Amuquandoh (2011) and Warde and Martens (2000) as described in Section 3.4.2.1, that younger participants appear to be more adventurous and more open to exposure to novel local foods when travelling to a destination.

Whilst this study recognised the significant contribution of age differences in influencing expectations of dining on local food, this is not the case with regard to gender. As reviewed in Section 3.4.2.1, some previous research in the food tourism context revealed that gender differences significantly affected culinary activity preferences, such as food and wine tourism activities (Barber, 2009; Lee et al., 2005). According to Saad and Gill (2000), such differences might be partially due to gender socialisation regarding the distinct roles assigned to males and females which are deep-rooted in most societies, for instance, men are considered more willing to take on challenges than women. However, it is important to qualify that while the foregoing may apply within some social contexts, it is not applicable in all. Sirakaya and Sonmez (2000) describe that the dramatic changes of women's role in society has begun since the 1940s and this has led to the evolving societal norms and values about gender equality. The finding revealed in this study may reflect such phenomenon since no significant differences were found between male and female participants in relation to expectations around familiarity with the food, food sensory appeal, the authenticity of the food, and the variety of the local food.

In contrast to gender, significant results were discovered when nationality was used as a grouping variable. Those who reside in Asian countries had significantly higher expectations of food uniqueness and familiarity than non-Asian residents. According to McKercher and So-Ming (2001), the greater the cultural distance, the greater the visitor interests in cultural tourism activities including culinary tourism. This research showed a similar phenomenon, whereby participants residing in non-Asian countries expressed

a significantly lower level of expectation specifically regarding the familiarity with local food they would encounter in Indonesia. The participants tended to be more open to unfamiliar culinary tastes. Interestingly, when it came to expectations toward the sensory appeal factor, non-Asian country residents conveyed a significantly higher level of expectation than those from Asian countries. As described in Section 6.2.1.2, the sensory appeal factor that emerged in this study comprised human sense-related items that were not merely related to taste and aroma of food, but were also closely associated with hygiene issues, such as freshness of food ingredients and the cleanliness of the dining establishment. A higher level of expectation of the sensory appeal factor, which was expressed by participants from non-Asian countries, was an evident as to the significant influence of such hygiene issues on the overall dining experience with local food.

A high proportion of the survey participants in this study were university graduates. This group had significantly lower expectations specifically concerning the food familiarity factor compared to the group whose highest educational attainment was at secondary school. As also acknowledged by previous research discussed in Section 3.4.2.1, the results of this study have highlighted the contribution of educational attainment to the level of familiarity with different cuisines. That is, the higher the level of education, the more exposure to information relating to diverse cuisines. This results in greater interest in engaging with food-related tourism and leisure activities. Moreover, the literature has indicated that along with other socio-demographic variables, occupation is a significant predictor of visitors' travel food consumption (Hong et al., 1996; Shenoy, 2005). In the context of this study, the finding suggests that such groups are potential targets for Indonesia's culinary tourism marketing strategies.

In addition to visitor demographics, this study also revealed that travel characteristics had a significant influence on participant dining expectations. It was found that there were *groups differences* with regard to the expected level of: first, the familiarity with local food; and second, the attributes relating to sensory appeal. That is, those who were: visiting Indonesia for business; who were visiting Indonesia for the first time; and who travelled in a group, expressed higher expectations of familiarity with the local food. In particular, with respect to those who travelled in a group, expecting local foods

with ingredients that were familiar to them was reasonable. Referring to Plog's (1974) well-known tourist categorisation of *psychocentrics* and *allocentrics*, Plog defined the first group as tourists who prefer to seek and engage with familiar travel-related products and services. In the case of this study, although eating is a basic need that must be fulfilled in travel, for this group, the encounter with local Indonesian food may pose a serious issue to be dealt with, especially when they never visited Indonesia before or had limited knowledge about the food of the country.

Meanwhile, participants who travelled for holidays, and who travelled with family had significantly higher expectations concerning the sensory appeal attributes than those whose travelled for educational or cultural exchange purposes. The latter group, prior to visiting Indonesia, would have anticipated encounters with Indonesian culture such as language and food. Another aspect of travel characteristics that was significant was length of visit, with those who travelled to Indonesia for a longer time having a significantly higher level of expectation relating to the variety of food. This result is reasonable since they spent a longer time in Indonesia and would anticipate having more exposure to diverse local culinary experiences.

When examining the effect of participant preconceptions about local Indonesian food, it was noted that those who had more information about the food prior to travelling, projected significantly higher expectations concerning the uniqueness, the authenticity, and the variety of the food. This finding is reasonable, given the growing influence of globalisation and the information era. The information received would assist them in developing certain images about Indonesia as a tourism destination. Further, it also offered the participants an opportunity to familiarise themselves with the country before travelling.

Past dining experience with local Indonesian food was also used as a grouping variable to determine any differences with regard to the various external dining expectation factors. Compared to those who had had dining experiences with local Indonesian food, significantly higher expectations concerning food familiarity were expressed by the participants who had no prior experiences. Since the former group had previous experience of consuming local Indonesian food, they might have been relatively familiar with it. This finding was consistent with other research, as discussed in Section

3.4.2.1, highlighting past visitor experiences as a significant determinant of intentions to consume local foods in the destination (Kwun & Oh, 2006; Ryu & Han, 2010b; Ryu & Jang, 2006). Kwun and Oh (2006) further assert that past experience strongly affects future consumption-related expectations for the same experience. Moreover, they note that experienced consumers form their expectations differently compared with first time consumers, even for the same products. This is due to their high level of familiarity with, and level of knowledge about, the local product.

The preceding discussion has shown that the participants, with respect to their differences of: age, country of residence, educational attainment, occupation, travel purpose, frequency and length of visit, travel party, preconceptions about local food, and past dining experiences – had significant distinct levels of dining expectations concerning factors of: staff quality, sensory appeal, food uniqueness, local servicescapes, food authenticity, food familiarity, and food variety. Table 8.1 summarises the contribution of these internal and external factors on dining expectations.

Table 8.1 Summary of the Influence of Internal and External Factors on Visitor Expectations of Dining on Local Indonesian Food - Between Groups Differences

| | Staff quality | Sensory appeal | Food uniqueness | Local servicescapes | Food authenticity | Food familiarity | Food variety |
|--------------------------------|----------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|------------------|
| Demographic variables | older groups ↑ | older groups ↑ | older groups ↑ | older groups ↑ | - | Asian countries' residents ↑ | older groups ↑ |
| | - | non-Asian countries' residents ↑ | Asian countries' residents ↑ | - | - | lower education attainment ↑ | - |
| | | | | | | Student group ↑ | |
| Travel characteristics | - | holiday purpose ↑ | stayed longer ↑ | - | business purpose ↑ | business purpose ↑ | stayed longer ↑ |
| | | stayed longer ↑ | | | repeat visitors ↑ | first time visitors ↑ | |
| | | travel with family ↑ | | | stayed longer ↑ | travel with groups ↑ | |
| Preconceptions | - | - | more knowledge ↑ | - | more knowledge ↑ | more knowledge ↑ | more knowledge ↑ |
| Past dining experiences | - | - | - | - | - | no previous experiences ↑ | - |

Source: data analysis, extracted from tables and figures at Section 6.2.2 (2013)

Note: ↑ indicates a higher level of expectation that the group had concerning the external dining factor

8.1.2 The Actual Dining and Post-Dining Experiences with Local Food: Perceptions, Satisfaction, and Future Behavioural Intentions

In regard to the experiential outcomes at the actual and post-dining stages, similar results revealed from the interviews that both internal and external factors contributed to perceptions and satisfactions of the local food encounters. The discussion in Section 7.2 has indicated that various internal factors such as occupation, travel purpose, and preconceptions about local Indonesian food, were evidence influencing both the responses and how the participants perceived what they encountered during the actual dining on local Indonesian food. For instance, those who had a certain level of knowledge and familiarity with local Indonesian food due to the information gathered prior to arrival at the destination or due to socio-cultural bonding exhibited more favourable or positive responses in perceiving the quality of the dining experiences with local Indonesian food. Thus, this is an evidence of the relationships amongst the concepts as formulated in *Propositions 4* and *5*, which stated that both internal and external factors affect visitor dining experiences with local food.

Amongst ten emerging themes discussed in Chapter 7, there were five underlying issues representing the perceptions of the actual and overall post-dining experiences that need to be paid attention, namely: the role of dining staff; hygiene standards concerning food and dining establishments; food cultural-related factors and food personality traits; the role of social interactions with local people; and post-dining experiences. Of these five issues, dining staff, hygiene standards, and social interactions were the external factors influencing participant perceptions and post-dining experiential outcomes. On the other hand, food personality-related traits (food neophilia versus food neophobia) was an internal factor that appeared from the interviews to be contributing to how they perceived the quality of the actual and overall dining experiences.

It is important to note that although there were differences in the research results regarding the factors concerning visitors' dining experiences were found between the survey and the interviews, the respective findings were not contradictory. Rather, they complemented one another, with participants elaborating more freely and deeply in the interviews on what they had indicated in the surveys. This corroborates one of the advantages of using a mixed methods research approach, with richer data obtained by

applying different methods of data collection. Moreover, it can be said that the emergence of the additional issues reflecting the experiences during and post-dining also indicate the influence of expectations on the perceptions and overall satisfaction towards dining experiences. In other words, this has supported the relationships of the concepts that were formulated in ***Proposition 1*** which stated that visitor expectations of dining experiences with local food influence the perceived quality of those dining experiences with local food.

8.1.2.1 Perception Concerning Staff Quality

Firstly, this study has shown that staff quality is deemed as an essential factor contributing to the whole spectrum of dining experiences with local food, not merely as the most expected factor, but also being addressed frequently by participants. It constituted three major aspects: communication skills; hospitality; and staff competence. Communication skills mainly referred to staff English proficiency, and hospitality related to staff friendliness, courtesy, responsiveness, and local culture hospitality. Meanwhile, service competence was closely associated with staff knowledge about the local Indonesian food offered in the dining establishments. English proficiency was one of the barriers that staff dealt with when communicating with participants. This was found particularly in the case of those working at smaller, more informal food service establishments such as small restaurants or street food stalls. From the participants' perspective, language barriers posed difficulties when ordering or trying novel local foods since they could not get adequate information about the local dish from staff. Issues relating to the lack of communication skills in staff could be reduced by providing an informative printed menu, as suggested by some interview participants. According to them, the printed menu should function as a communication bridge between the visitors and service providers, not just as an attraction for the visitor to try the food.

Despite problems linked with staff communication skills, it was noted that participants agreed that the quality of local hospitality, such as courtesy, friendliness, and responsiveness, as presented by local staff during dining, was impressive. Although staff quality has been acknowledged in various commercial food service studies, little discussion has been given to the contribution of staff quality in the specific context of

local food experiences in destination settings (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). The literature, as reviewed in Section 3.4.2.2, showed that in such contexts, the focus of the studies was extensively on the role of food quality and food cultural-related factors rather than staff quality. Given the scarcity of research on this area, it is suggested that devoting more attention could benefit the destination by improving the provision of memorable dining experiences with local food.

8.1.2.2 Perception Concerning Hygiene Standard

Another issue articulated significantly during the interviews related to the perception of hygiene standards concerning both the food and the dining establishments. The major concern regarding food hygiene was the deep-frying cooking process that was considered an unhealthy method of food preparation. Meanwhile, main concerns with place hygiene related to the cleanliness of the establishment, particularly in the case of dining at the local food hawkers' stalls. This study has shown that concerns relating to hygiene and safety issues influenced participant decisions as to where the dining experience with local food would be undertaken. It appeared that those visiting Indonesia for the first time decided to dine at medium to large restaurants, such as those found in hotels where they stayed, rather than at more informal dining establishments, such as street food stalls. From the interviews, it was revealed that hygiene concerns related mostly to doubting the standard when preparing and cooking the food, the use of kitchen and eating utensils, as well as the cleanliness of the place. Previous research, as identified in Section 3.4.2.2, has highlighted the significance of hygiene concerns in determining the quality of tourism dining experiences (Chao, 2010, Yüksel & Yüksel, 2003), and more importantly when visitors are travelling to less touristy destinations and/or to less developed countries (Amuquandoh, 2011).

Despite responses about hygiene standards, some participants in this study deliberately chose to buy local Indonesian food from hawker food stalls and/or from traditional markets. Positive comments were given about hawker food where a variety of food was available. Whilst hawker food was popular amongst some participants, the anxiety towards sanitation and hygiene level during dining however, still existed. It was also found that participant hygiene concerns were mainly shaped based on the food-related information that participants obtained from their friends, the Internet, and travel guide

books portraying a brief overview about Indonesia. Given that fact, the issues relating to hygiene standards should be addressed seriously by the relevant tourism destination stakeholders to reduce international visitor disinclination to engage with culinary tourism activities while travelling to Indonesia. The government in particular should take action in developing and improving the supporting infrastructure and/or facilities related to culinary tourism in the country, so that Indonesia can compete against other culinary destinations worldwide. Marketing communication strategies should also be implemented to effectively manage the information sent to international markets in relation to Indonesian culinary tourism.

8.1.2.3 Perception Concerning Food Cultural-related

When travelling to different destinations either for holidays or for other purposes, food cultural-related factors often pose a serious challenge for international visitors, including the distinct ways of cooking and/or ways of eating the food. This is unsurprising because some visitors seek novel experiences through consuming local food that differs from what they have at home. In this study, cultural-related factors were: authenticity; food-related personality traits; food cultural-related; and familiarity with the food.

Some participants appeared to seek authentic Indonesian cultural experiences through their engagement with dining on local Indonesian food. And surprisingly, in contrast with previous research which emphasised the authenticity of the food that visitors consume as discussed in Section 3.4.2.2, the results of this study revealed that the issue of authenticity as voiced by participants surpassed simple food aspects (original and exotic herbs, spices, and food ingredients). It also incorporated authenticity relating to the capacity of the dining establishments to reflect the local servicescapes of the country.

In many cases, eating experience becomes more complicated dependent on the context in which the food is consumed (Beer, 2008). This proposition is more relevant when visitors deal with food that is distinct from what they have at home. It was apparent from this research that, despite increased participant interest in seeking authentic culinary experiences in Indonesia, some internal and external factors discouraged

visitors from trying local food. The literature, as reviewed in Section 3.4.2.2, has recognised food-related personality traits, categorised as food neophilia and neophobia (Fischler, 1988). This thesis revealed the same phenomena relating to two distinct food preference tendencies. Food neophilia behaviour was reflected in openness to trying local Indonesian food. Various reasons prompted this and included: novelty seeking benefits in terms of the food eaten; eagerness to make social interactions with the locals; and informant familiarity with Indonesia and the food of the country. Conversely, those who exhibited food neophobia behaviour tended to be more hesitant about trying local food during their stay in Indonesia. Such a tendency was due to reasons including a preference for eating food or ingredients that were familiar; and personal beliefs or dietary restrictions.

In accordance with the literature as reviewed in Section 2.3, the results of this thesis suggest that the underlying reason explaining food-related personality traits was due to local food culture or foodways differences between what prevails in the visitor's home country and the host (visited) destination. This included the perceptions about distinct methods applied to prepare and serve the food, such as eating without using any cutlery. Different meal compositions could also lead to the willingness to try to or not to try the local food, such as too much rice or vegetables or less meat. Lastly, personal values related to host-guest interactions during dining could impact on the dining experience. These aforementioned differences regarding local food culture have been addressed in-depth in this study, indicating the contributions made to the improved understanding of visitor dining experiences with local food.

Furthermore, the results of this study showed that whilst responses relating to taste, flavour, and the variety of the food were largely positive, conversely, participants expressed more concerns with regard to the issues of spiciness, freshness, and food presentation. Some participants preferred to eat local Indonesian food when they considered it to be prepared to suit their tastes: for instance, if it had undergone some sort of reduction in the level of spiciness. Interestingly, this inclination was most evident amongst those who were unfamiliar with Indonesian food. These findings provide evidence of the crucial role of participant familiarity with the local food of the destination in affecting the whole dining experience. The literature, as discussed in

Section 3.4.2.2, has noted that most international travellers are more willing to eat local cuisines when they consider them to have been prepared to suit their tastes. Unfamiliar local food that is considered strange or ‘scary’ can have the effect of eliciting less favourable emotional reactions like fear or even disgust, as recognised in Section 3.4.2.2 (Gyimóthy and Mykletun, 2009).

8.1.2.4 Perceptions Concerning Social Interactions with Local People

The fourth underlying finding revealed from the interviews related to the role of social interactions with local people. This factor however, when questioned in the preceding survey as *other people in the dining place* item, did not appear to be significantly expected by the participants. As depicted in Section 6.2.1, the result of factor analysis showed that this item had the lowest loading factor. This indicates that the survey participants did not consider the social aspect, particularly the presence of other people such as friends and other customers in the dining place, to be significantly affecting their expectations of dining on local Indonesian food. As a consequence, the item was excluded in further analysis. In contrast with the survey finding, the interview result has found that the social aspect, conveyed as participants’ positive responses to build social interactions with local people, has emerged as a major determinant in enhancing opportunities for participants to know and learn about Indonesian culture. As such, the social aspect role was evident through participant involvement in local culinary events or activities ranging from attending local food festivals, to joining cooking classes, and visiting traditional markets. It was also found that dining at food street hawker stalls was seen as providing a more authentic culinary experience, a chance to meet local food sellers, and to witness how the local food was prepared. As acknowledged in Section 3.4.2.2, engaging in culinary activities through dining with local food is a means of building social interactions between visitors and staff and/or the locals (Batra, 2008; Kim & Lee, 2012). Therefore, the above findings suggest the importance of bringing together the local culinary aspects along with socio-cultural aspects of the destination as an “experience to live” that can be offered to visitors.

In addition, it is important to note that the differences between the survey and interview findings in regard to the role of the social factor in this study are viewed as one of the benefits of applying mixed-methods research design. That is, as described in Section

5.1.2, data gathered from both research approaches can complement one another. Accordingly, it helps the researcher to obtain more in-depth understanding about the phenomenon being studied. In this case, the interviews seemed to be an effective means to gather richer data whereas similar information cannot be identified through the conduct of a quantitative survey method.

8.1.2.5 Post-Dining Experiences

The overall participant perceptions of the dining experience with local Indonesian food were positive, indicative of a willingness to refer others to try local Indonesian food. Most participants also projected future intentions to sample local Indonesian food, either when they had returned to their home countries or when they returned to visit Indonesia in the future. This finding supported conceptual relationships reflected in **Proposition 2** which stated that visitor perceptions of dining experiences with local food influence the overall dining satisfaction and the visitor future behavioural intentions. Moreover, this study also found that, to some extent, the experiences reflected after the actual dining experience shaped participant dining expectations when they got the opportunity to revisit the country and/or to engage with dining on local Indonesian food in the future. For example, actual experiences might influence future expectations concerning the level of food spiciness or the choice of where to dine. This result provides evidence of the conceptual relationships presented in **Proposition 3**, which stated that: visitor experiences at the post-dining stage would influence visitor expectations toward dining on local food activities in the future.

8.1.3 Refinement of the Conceptual Framework

In light of the key findings that have been discussed in Sections 8.1.1 and 8.1.2, it is necessary to make modifications to the proposed conceptual framework developed for this study. Figure 8.1 contains both the proposed and the revised version of the conceptual framework of visitor dining experiences with local food.

As seen in Figure 8.1, the revised framework, positioned on the right side of the figure, consists of more sub-factors than what was initially proposed. This suggests that although the examined concepts in the proposed framework have been developed based on the comprehensive review of the relevant literature, there are five additional factors

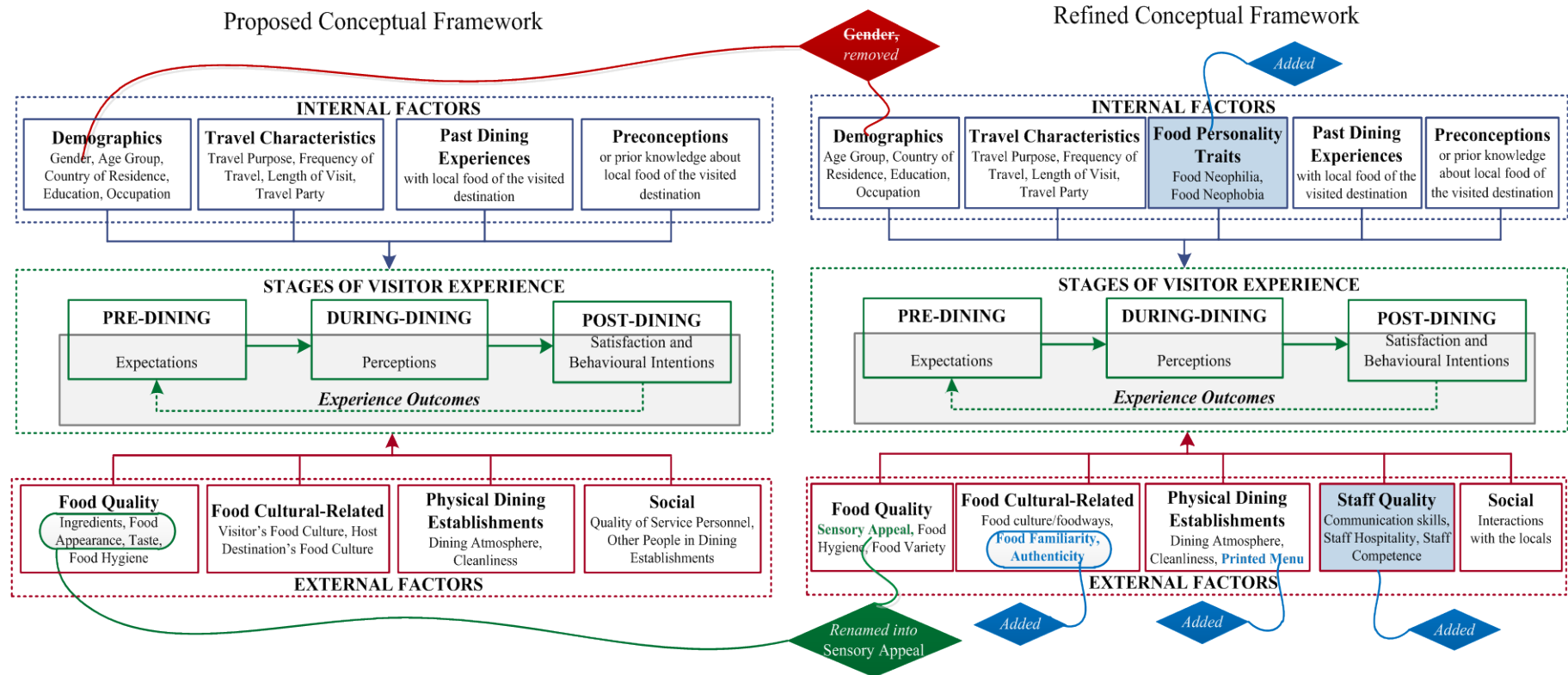


Figure 8.1 Revisiting the Conceptual Framework of International Visitor Dining Experiences with Local Food

incorporated in the refined framework. Two factors relate to internal factors whilst the rest link to external factors.

The first major key difference between the proposed and the revised framework is the exclusion of the gender attribute, as part of the demographic characteristics factor from the revised framework. Based on the research findings discussed in Section 8.1.1.2, gender differences had no significant influence on shaping participant dining experiences with local food.

Second, food-related personality traits comprising food neophilia and food neophobia emerged as distinct internal factors. The decision to include these as part of the internal factors was made as they represent individual food behaviour tendencies. Food personality traits were found to be essential in affecting the overall dining experiences with local food undertaken by international visitors at destination settings.

Third, relating to the external influential factors, food sensory appeal has been added as a new attribute of the food quality factor. As seen in the proposed framework (left side of Figure 8.1), food ingredients, food appearance, and taste are included as part of the food quality factor. In the refined framework, these attributes has been merged into one attribute named food sensory appeal.

Fourth, food familiarity and authenticity attributes have been added as part of the food-cultural related factor. The inclusion of these attributes is essential as evidence in this study suggest that, despite the eagerness to seek authentic culinary experiences, participants still demanded some level of familiarity with the food.

Lastly, staff quality has been acknowledged as a new external factor. As shown in the proposed framework, staff quality was part of the social factors along with the presence of other people, including local friends, colleagues, and other customers in the dining establishments. However, as evident in both quantitative and qualitative findings, staff quality has emerged as a significant influential factor on the whole dining experience with local food. As a result of the inclusion of staff quality as a single distinct factor, in the refined framework, social interaction with locals emerged as a single external factor and this appears within a separate box.

8.1.4 Revisiting Research Aim, Research Objectives, and Research Questions

This section is devoted to describing how the findings revealed in this study have addressed the aim of the study, the research objectives, and the research questions. The summary table is outlined in Table 8.2.

As shown in Table 8.2, to achieve the first research objective and answer the two related research questions (RQ1a and RQ1b), the conceptual framework was proposed. It was deemed appropriate to illustrate the complex nature of the visitor dining experiences with local food. The framework encompasses three major dimensions: stages of the visitor dining experience (pre-, during, and post-dining); the outcomes of experience at each stage of dining (expectations, perceptions, and satisfaction and behavioural intentions); and influential factors of dining (internal and external).

To achieve the second research objective, Indonesia was selected as the geographical research context to examine how international visitors experienced dining with local Indonesian food while travelling in the country. To answer RQ2a, the survey data was analysed using factor analysis and it appeared that there were 7 external factors influencing participant dining expectations with local food. These were: staff quality; sensory appeal; food uniqueness; local servicescapes; food familiarity; food authenticity; and food variety factors. MANOVA analysis was used and it revealed that the expectation level towards each external dining factor varied significantly across: age, country of residence, educational attainment, occupation, travel purpose, frequency and length of visit, travel party, preconceptions about local food, and past dining experiences.

Further, as an attempt to answer RQ2b, the interview data was analysed using content analysis with constant-comparative analysis technique. The results showed 10 major themes being addressed by participants in regard to their perceptions of the actual dining on local Indonesian food. These were: food quality; hygiene standards; dining establishment quality; staff quality; information search prior to the actual dining; local food culture or foodways; authenticity; food neophilia tendency; food neophobia tendency, and post-dining experiences. More specifically, there were prevalent issues

Table 8.2 Summary of Key Findings Addressing Aim of the Study, Research Objectives, and Research Questions

| <i>Aim of study: to improve understanding of dining on local food that international visitors experience when travelling to a destination</i> | | |
|---|--|---|
| Research objectives | Research questions | Key Findings |
| RO1: to develop a conceptual framework of the international visitor dining experiences with local food | RQ1a: What dimensions constitute an applicable framework for examining international visitor dining experiences with local food? | <i>Proposed conceptual framework. It constituted 3 dimensions: stages; influential factors; and outcomes:</i> 1. Stages of experiences: 3 stages of pre-, during, post-dining 2. Influential factors of dining experiences with local food: 3.1. Internal: demographics; travel-characteristics; preconceptions of local food; and past dining experiences factors. 3.2. External: food quality; food cultural-related; physical dining establishment; and social factors. 3. Experience outcomes: expectations (pre-dining); perceptions (during-dining); and satisfaction and behavioural intentions (post-dining). |
| | RQ1b: What factors influence international visitor dining experiences with local food? | |
| RO2: to assess the applicability of the proposed conceptual framework by conducting empirical research on dining experiences with local food undertaken by international visitors in the Indonesian context. | RQ2a: What factors influence international visitor dining expectations prior to the actual encounter with local Indonesian food? | <i>Influential factors of expectations at pre-dining experience stage:</i> 1.1. Internal: demographics (except gender); travel-characteristics; preconceptions of local food; and past dining experiences factors. 1.2. External, revealed 7 factors: staff quality; sensory appeal; food uniqueness; local servicescapes; food familiarity; food authenticity; and food variety factors. |
| | RQ2b: How do international visitors perceive the quality of experiences during and after the actual dining with local Indonesian food? | |
| | RQ2c: What are the relationships between the various experiences that international visitors encounter prior to, during, and after dining with local Indonesian food? | <i>The perceptions concerning the actual and post-dining revealed 10 issues:</i> 1. Food quality 2. Hygiene standards 3. Dining establishment quality 4. Staff quality 5. Information search prior to the actual dining 6. Local food culture 7. Authenticity 8. Food neophilia tendency 9. Food neophobia tendency 10. Post-dining experiences 1. The expectations expressed in the survey influenced the perceptions of the actual dining, while subsequently, these perceptions affected the satisfaction and behavioural intentions after dining. <i>2. Prevalent issues highlighted in the survey and interviews:</i> 1. The role of local staff 2. Hygiene standards concerns related to food and dining establishments 3. Food cultural-related factors and food personality traits 4. The role of social interactions with local people 5. Post-dining experiences influence the expectations in the future <i>3. Refined conceptual framework</i> |

highlighted by the participants where these issues pose implications that need to be paid attention. These were: the role of local staff in the dining experience, hygiene standards concerns related to food and dining establishments, food cultural-related factors and food personality traits, the valuable contribution of social interactions with local people to visitor more meaningful culinary experiences.

With reference to RQ2c, both survey and interview findings have confirmed the presence of the sequential, interactive, subjective, and dynamic nature of experience across the pre-, during, and after dining stages. In terms of the relationship between pre- and during dining experiences, the findings showed that the expectation levels of local food encounters expressed in the survey did contribute to the emerging perceptions during the actual dining stage. For instance, staff quality was found not just being the most important factor expected by the participants prior to their food encounters, but also the underlying aspect that shaped the perception when the participants engaged with the actual local food dining. In addition to staff quality, two other aspects that have been consistently articulated by the participants both at pre- and during the actual dining experiences were: 1) hygiene standards concerns relating to sensory appeal in food and dining establishments; and 2) food cultural-related factors, illustrating the unique elements of local Indonesian food.

Moreover, in regard to the relationship between during and after dining experiences, it is evident that perceptions conveyed at the actual dining influenced participant satisfaction and behavioural intentions after dining. That is, favourable or positive perception of the actual dining experience led to the willingness to eat local Indonesian food in the future and provide referrals about the food to others. Similarly, it is also evident that the responses projected relating to post-dining experiences shaped participant dining expectations in the future, particularly when they would have the opportunity to revisit Indonesia and encounter dining experiences on local Indonesian food in the future.

The integration between the survey and interview findings has resulted in the evolving of the conceptual framework. This includes adding, removing, and renaming several influential factors of dining in the refined framework as illustrated in Figure 8.1.

8.2 Significance of the Study

This study focuses on the sequential stages of dining experiences involving local food undertaken by international visitors in a destination setting. The major findings, as discussed in Section 8.1, offer important implications for theoretical, methodological, and practical reasons, as discussed below.

8.2.1 Theoretical Implications

This study has added to the body of culinary tourism literature, with an improved understanding of food-related visitor behaviours in three following ways. First, given the scarcity of previous research on the visitor dining experience with local food, the major theoretical contribution of this study is the development of a holistic and systematic conceptual framework that acknowledges the complex nature of visitor dining experience. It incorporates multi-experiential stages, influential factors, and experiential outcomes. The conceptual framework has been refined based on the results of the empirical investigation. It offers a more solid foundation for undertaking subsequent empirical research in other destination contexts that can provide firsthand insights from international visitors pertaining to dining on local food.

Culinary tourism is a form of special interest tourism offering ‘real’ travel (Ignatov, 2003). This involves introducing visitors to a new culture and providing them with learning opportunities. This study has provided a second theoretical contribution by suggesting that the quality of local cuisines, hospitable staff, and unique local servicescapes are not the only critical factors in enticing visitors. For a culinary destination to succeed in catering to the international market, other factors outside food service factors are equally important to be taken into account. It is imperative to note that hygiene factors, informative printed menus, and the understanding of food culture differences, are all central determinants in international visitors’ experience of culinary tourism. Furthermore, as evident from this study, demographic characteristics (with the exception of gender), travel characteristics, preconceptions about local food of the visited destination, and past dining experiences with the local food of the visited destination, are amongst the internal factors which are proven to significantly influence international visitors when engaging with local culinary experiences.

Lastly, with respect to the geographical context, this study has enriched the body of literature by providing a better understanding of culinary tourism in Indonesia, one of the emerging tourism destinations in South East Asia region. This is noteworthy as the existing literature has been mainly concerned with the culinary tourism offerings in Western and more developed destinations. Therefore, this study provides a space for academic discussions related to culinary tourism from the Asian perspective.

8.2.2 Methodological Implications

The conceptual framework that has evolved in this study offers a comprehensive coverage of visitor dining components at different stages of experience. Therefore in terms of methodological implications, any empirical investigation that is carried out based on the framework should be both systematic and rigorous. It is critical to select an appropriate research design to ensure that the framework and propositions have been adequately assessed. The use of a single research approach may be insufficient for addressing the complexity of the visitor experience (Palmer, 2010). In the case of this study, the data depicting dining expectations were completed through the survey before the visitors had actual dining with local Indonesian food. The collection of data was free of bias since the expectations projected were not interfered with by the actual experiential perceptions during the current visit. Following this, to discover how the participants: perceived their actual dining; assessed the overall dining experiences; and then compared this with what they expected, a subsequent phase of data collection needed to be accomplished. In this study, this was achieved by the conduct of the semi-structured interviews. As discussed in Section 4.2.1.1, measuring visitor expectation before the actual experiences is proved to improve the accuracy of the data obtained. That is, the selected mixed methods research design has assisted the researcher to attain the whole portrayal of visitor dining experiences with local food and its complexities.

Next, from the sampling perspective, the selection of the same group of research participants at the three dining stages created a challenge in managing the empirical work in a timely manner. However, the approach facilitated the collection of data leading to a comprehensive understanding of the complexities of dining experiences.

8.2.3 Managerial Implications

This study has successfully provided a more solidly based understanding of food-related visitor behaviours concerning dining experiences with local food in destination settings. It has done so through the conduct of systematic empirical investigation in East Java province, Indonesia. In this setting, the culinary culture differs markedly from those that international visitors are used to in their countries of residence. As discussed in Section 2.4, Indonesia has a rich legacy of gastronomy products and local Indonesian food boasts strong combinations of flavours and wide ranging variety, giving plenty of opportunities for tourists to savour different local foods. However, it still remains a challenge to establish Indonesia's position as a world-class food tourism destination. This study offers at least four managerial implications that could assist relevant stakeholders in Indonesia in delivering favourable local food experiences to the international market. These are: assistance in improving the communication skills of local staff; printed menus as an alternative means of communication; improvement in hygiene standards; and understanding of food cultural-related factors and food personality traits.

First, the results of this study revealed that communication plays a critical role in the provision of culinary experiences that are memorable to the participants. It is evident from this study that international visitors commonly cannot speak or understand the Indonesian language. Most of them had relatively little experience of dining in different types of establishments in the country. In this case, communication plays a very crucial role as a starting point to build good interpersonal relationships with international visitors so that they feel welcomed in the country. As described in Section 2.4, part of Indonesian food culture and hospitality is to treat and serve customers as special guests. On this basis, food providers should be more attentive to the role of these attributes in establishing a positive image of Indonesian culture. This, in turn, will attract more international visitors. In meeting the challenge relating to improving communication skills, adequate language training for local staff is essential, especially when interacting with foreign travellers and seeking to respond promptly and accurately to their needs.

Second, another challenge remains in terms of the communication between local hosts and international visitors. This could also be addressed by designing informative printed

menus for international visitors. These should include descriptions in other languages, at least English, regarding the essential information, such as food ingredients, spices, level of spiciness, as well as the inclusion of interesting food pictures and prices. This could surely assist international visitors to make wise choices according to their preferences. Further, brief descriptions about the story behind the local dishes, with particular emphasis on the historical or cultural aspects, could be included either in the printed menu or when local staff is explaining the menu to international visitors. This would provide visitors with the opportunity to learn more about Indonesian food culture. In a broader context, this challenge carries marketing implications for the government and DMOs, at both local and national levels to design effective marketing communication strategy when promoting culinary tourism to the international market. For instance, when designing promotional materials and tourism websites, or when participating at the international travel fairs, the government should not merely portray the country's culinary diversity, but it is also worth taking into consideration to expose stories about the values of Indonesian food culture as well.

Third, this study showed that most participants had rated food hygiene at many dining establishments in Indonesia and the accessibility of local food information as relatively poor. Addressing this, the ability to provide local food that is safe and acceptable to potential visitors should become a priority area for improvement. Local food service operators must be aware of the major safety concerns of international visitors about local foods being offered in Indonesia. The Minister of Health of the Republic of Indonesia has, in fact, already established regulations (number 1098/MENKES/SK/VII/2003) setting out the hygiene and sanitation standards required for food service establishments (Ministry of Health, 2003). However, the challenge remains for the relevant government departments to monitor and evaluate whether food service operators have complied with the legislation when applying hygiene and sanitation standards in their day-to-day business operations. Direct support could be provided by the government. This might be in the form of training provision for food service operators around food safety and hygiene. Such training would be particularly important for small to medium and non-formal food service operators in tourist areas. This becomes more relevant given the fact that for Indonesia, culinary tourism is increasingly becoming a special interest tourism activity that the government and DMOs have

utilised to stimulate international visitation (Ministry of Tourism & Creative Economy, 2012).

Fourth, as appeared profoundly in the findings, the differences relating to food cultural-related factors and food personality traits between the locals and the participants who were international visitors pose a challenge to be addressed. The participants, who had various socio-demographical and cultural backgrounds (such as, age groups, country of residence, travel purpose, and travel party), did express themselves differently when they were questioned as to what factors really mattered for them to be expected before dining on local Indonesian food, for instance, when expecting the authenticity and familiarity of the food. Similar findings also emerged when the participants were probed in the interviews to further express their perceptions of the actual dining experiences. Accordingly, the relevant stakeholders, both the government and the food service providers, need to be aware of these facts and attempt to accommodate such differences when offering culinary experiences to international visitors. For example, in regard to food cultural-related aspects, as highlighted by some participants, modifying the spiciness level could be made since not all international visitors can adapt to spicy food. Besides, ensuring the provision of halal food is also essential, specifically to attract Muslim travellers for culinary tourism.

8.3 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

Although this study has made important contributions to understanding the complexity of local dining experiences in destination settings, several limitations should be acknowledged. Additionally, addressing these limitations is essential to providing direction and encouraging more effective research in the future. Three limitations acknowledged here are related to: the depiction of reality; the cultural setting of the research; and possible sample bias.

First, with respect to its nature, visitor experience is a complex concept to study. The review of literature has shown that engaging with dining on local food can be viewed by some visitors as novel and a unique experience, whereas for others, it can be seen as an impediment to the broader experience. Recognising this fact, the conceptual framework contains various stages and components to anticipate possible experiential outcomes

that would be revealed from the examination of the local food experiences at three dining stages. The discussions in Section 8.1 have illustrated that the participant dining experiences with local Indonesian food were characterised by both favourable and less favourable responses. These diverse responses describe the reality that dining experiences involving local food are indeed complicated, subjective, and dynamic. Therefore, it is notable that the conceptual framework that has evolved should not be seen as a total depiction of reality. In light of this view, it cannot be totally confirmed whether such experiences have been accurately captured by assessing the components measured in the conceptual framework. Further research using the same theoretical approach of three dining experience stages can be replicated to improve the validity of the evolving conceptual framework. This would allow for a more holistic understanding of international visitor experiences with local dining in the destination settings.

Moreover, due to resource constraints, the empirical investigation was only conducted in the geographical scope of Surabaya and Malang cities in East Java province, which might have resulted in possible cultural setting bias. That is, this study does not represent the whole region of Indonesia whose food culture is very diverse. Accordingly, this research should not be widely interpreted to be representative of the general experiential examination on dining with all local Indonesian food. It is therefore recommended that to increase the transferability and validity of the conceptual framework and follow the same methodology, future studies should be conducted in other destination contexts and/or in other cultural settings.

The methodological limitation related to possible sample bias is characterised by sample size, sampling technique, and sample representativeness. With regard to the sample size, a deliberate attempt had been made to improve the participation of international visitors in the research by setting no limitation on specific travel purpose visitors. This resulted in a total of 349 respondents participating in the first phase of the study (the survey), exceeding the absolute minimum sample size of 100 as suggested by Hair et al. (2006). Although the sample size was adequate, it was still too relatively small to enable the researcher to conduct a group comparison according to the participants' country of residence, since some groups turned out to be quite small. Thus, to enhance generalisability of the study findings, it is recommended to assess the proposed

relationships among the examined constructs by using a greater sample size. Nevertheless, selecting a specific segment of visitors, such as business travellers, holiday makers and VFR, might provide deeper insights.

In relation to the sampling technique, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected using a purposive sampling at hotels and the airport. As part of non-probability sampling, the application of purposive sampling might make the results vulnerable. That is, the generalisability of the findings cannot be assumed since the question of whether the participants are representative of all international visitors remains uncertain. Thus, future research should consider using a more comprehensive sampling design that would contribute to higher reliability and validity of the data.

Finally, in terms of the sample representativeness, the number of participants from Asian countries was less than those residing in non-Asian countries. In many cases this was due to the inability to understand the English-written survey questionnaire. To address this limitation, future research should consider the questionnaire design in other languages, such as Chinese and Japanese. Doing so will improve the participation by visitors from these countries. This is important given the dramatic increase of outbound Chinese tourists predicted to travel in the future.

8.4 Concluding Statement

This thesis aimed to comprehensively analyse the local culinary experiences of international visitors when they travel to a destination. Through the development of the visitor dining experience conceptual framework as the first objective and the completion of empirical investigation as the second objective of the research, this study has made a significant contribution to knowledge in the culinary tourism area. The conceptual framework has proven to play a major role in identifying underlying factors which influence visitor experiences at each stage of dining with local food. This study also provides insights for relevant tourism stakeholders including DMOs and food service providers into the importance of having an adequate understanding of food-related behaviour exhibited by visitors. As such, more effective culinary experiences catering to the international market can be offered. However, acknowledging the limitations of this study, there is a need for further research to improve the understanding of visitor dining

experiences involving local food in different cultural settings, particularly given the fact that such dining experiences are subjective, dynamic, and multi-influential.

Finally, it is anticipated that this study will be seen as an attempt to fill a gap in the research as highlighted by Richards (2012) and as stated at the beginning of this thesis:

The rise of the experience economy has ushered in a growing role for food experiences in tourism. [However], ***research into the food experiences of tourists is still in its infancy.*** Although more information has emerged in recent years on the general motivations and profile of culinary tourists, we still have relatively little information on how tourists perceive and experience different foods... ***There is therefore much room for further research...***(Richards, 2012, pp. 13, 41)

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Information for Survey Participants

[VU Letter Head]

INFORMATION TO SURVEY PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

Invitation to participate

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled **Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experiences of International Visitors**. The project is being conducted by a student researcher **Mrs. Serli Wijaya**, an **academic staff member of Petra Christian University, Surabaya**, who is currently doing a PhD study at **Victoria University Melbourne, Australia** under the supervision of Professor Brian King and Associate Professor Barry O'Mahony from the School of International Business, Faculty of Business and Law, Victoria University, Melbourne.

Project explanation

The primary objective of this research is to investigate the experiences which international visitors encounter at pre-dining, during, and post-dining stages during visits to Indonesia. The results of the research will provide insights for tourism stakeholders to more fully understand the behaviour of international visitors when consuming local food in Indonesia, so that more effective strategies can be designed to offer unique, memorable Indonesian culinary experiences to international tourists in the future.

What will I be asked to do?

You are requested to answer questions in the questionnaire. The questionnaire will ask your preconceptions of local Indonesian food and your expectations if you express an interest in eating local Indonesian food during your stay. The survey will take ± 10 minutes to complete.

What will I gain from participating?

As an international visitor, your views are extremely valuable for the study. Your participation will contribute to the development of knowledge about the creation of memorable culinary tourism experiences for international tourists in Indonesia. Findings of this project will be produced and submitted to local tourism stakeholders to allow them to establish better culinary experiences for you as an international visitor in your future visits to Indonesia.

How will the information I give be used?

The information that participants provide will be analysed and used to complete a Doctoral thesis. Raw data collected from all participants will be kept in a safe place and will only be viewed and accessed by the researcher and research supervisors. The information you provide will be kept confidential at all stages of the project. The information may also be used to develop academic publications and the participations will not be named.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?

There are no expected risks from participation. Your participation in the questionnaire survey is voluntary. If you think you would like to withdraw or not answer certain questions, you may do so and it will not affect you directly or indirectly whatsoever.

Who is conducting the study?

The study is being conducted through the School of International Business in the Faculty of Business and Law at Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia. The researcher's details are as follows:

| | |
|----------------------|--|
| Principal Researcher | : Professor Brian King; phone: +61 3 99195348; email: brian.king@vu.edu.au |
| Associate Researcher | : Associate Professor Barry O'Mahony; phone: +61 3 99191091; email: barry.omahony@vu.edu.au |
| Student Researcher | : Serli Wijaya; phone: +61430190212; email: serli.wijaya@live.vu.edu.au |

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to contact details below:

Student Researcher: Serli Wijaya; phone +62 31 2983084; e-mail: serli.wijaya@live.vu.edu.au; or
Principal Supervisor: Professor Brian King; phone +61 3 99195348; email: brian.king@vu.edu.au or,
Head of Program of Hotel Management, Faculty of Economics, Petra Christian University Surabaya, Indonesia:
Sienny Thio, S.E., M.Bus.; phone: +62 31 2983080; email: sienny@peter.petra.ac.id

Your participation and precious time is very much appreciated. **Thank You**

Serli Wijaya
PhD Candidate

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics and Biosafety Coordinator, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 phone (03) 9919 4148.

Appendix 2: Consent Form of Survey Participant

[VU Letter Head]

CONSENT FORM FOR SURVEY PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study entitled “Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experiences of International Visitors”.

Full details of the project and your involvement are provided in the accompanying sheet titled “Information to Survey Participants Involved in Research”

CERTIFICATION BY SUBJECT

I, “_____” *(Please write your name)*

certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the study entitled “Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experiences of International Visitors” being conducted at Victoria University by: Serli Wijaya.

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the procedures listed hereunder to be carried out in the research, have been fully explained to me by: Serli Wijaya;

and that I freely consent to participation involving the below mentioned procedures:

Survey

I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential and raw data collected will be kept in a safe place and will only be viewed and accessed by the researcher and research supervisors. I also have been informed that all material presented in any relevant publications of this study will be anonymous.

Signed : _____

Date : _____

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to contact details below:

Student Researcher: Serli Wijaya; phone +62 31 2983084; e-mail: serli.wijaya@live.vu.edu.au; or

Principal Supervisor: Professor Brian King; phone +61 3 99195348; email:brian.king@vu.edu.au or,

Head of Program of Hotel Management, Faculty of Economics, Petra Christian University Surabaya, Indonesia:

Sienny Thio, S.E., M.Bus.; phone: +62 31 2983080; email: sienny@peter.petra.ac.id

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics & Biosafety Coordinator, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 phone (03) 9919 4148.

Appendix 3: Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE

[VU Logo]

Qs Code: [researcher only]

| Part A: Demographic Profiles & Travel Characteristics | | | |
|---|--|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Gender | <input type="checkbox"/> female | <input type="checkbox"/> male | |
| 2. Age group | <input type="checkbox"/> 18-30 | <input type="checkbox"/> 31-40 | <input type="checkbox"/> 41-50 |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> 51-60 | <input type="checkbox"/> above 60 | |
| 3. Country of residence | | | |
| 4. Highest education attained | <input type="checkbox"/> secondary school | <input type="checkbox"/> diploma or bachelor degree | |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> postgraduate degree | | |
| 5. Occupation | <input type="checkbox"/> student | <input type="checkbox"/> business manager | <input type="checkbox"/> professional |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> employee | <input type="checkbox"/> retiree | <input type="checkbox"/> others |
| 6. Purpose of current visit | <input type="checkbox"/> holiday | <input type="checkbox"/> business | |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> visiting friends & relatives | <input type="checkbox"/> education/cultural exchange | |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> others | | |
| 7. Frequency of visit | <input type="checkbox"/> first time visiting Indonesia | <input type="checkbox"/> 2-3 previous visits | |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> more than 3 visits | | |
| 8. Length of current visit | <input type="checkbox"/> less than 3 days | <input type="checkbox"/> 4-7 days | <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 weeks |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> more than 3 weeks | | |
| 9. Travel party | <input type="checkbox"/> alone | <input type="checkbox"/> couple | <input type="checkbox"/> family |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> group of people/tourists | | |

| Part B: Preconceptions of Indonesian Food | | Strongly disagree | | | | Strongly agree |
|---|---|--|---|-----------------------------|---|----------------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. | Before visiting, do you usually gather general information relating to the destination? | | | | | |
| 2. | Before visiting, do you usually gather information about local food from the destination area? | | | | | |
| 3. | Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Indonesian cuisine? | | | | | |
| 4. | Have you had heard about Indonesian food before your current visit? | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | | <input type="checkbox"/> No | | |
| 5. | Have you had read information on Indonesian food before your current visit? | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | | <input type="checkbox"/> No | | |
| 6. | Mention name of local Indonesian food which you can recall immediately: | _____ | | | | |
| 7. | As far as you know, the major characteristics of local Indonesian food are: | _____ | | | | |
| 8. | Have you previously eaten Indonesian food (either in your home country or elsewhere outside Indonesia) | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | | <input type="checkbox"/> No | | |
| 9. | Do you plan to eat local Indonesian food during your current stay? | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes (<i>please proceed directly to Questions Part C</i>) <input type="checkbox"/> No (<i>please answer Question number 10</i>) | | | | |
| 10. | Reasons for not eating Indonesian food (please select answers which is most relevant to your circumstances, can be more than one answer): | <input type="checkbox"/> Unfamiliar with the spices/ingredients used <input type="checkbox"/> Unsure about hygiene in the preparation process <input type="checkbox"/> Unfamiliar with the tastes/flavours <input type="checkbox"/> Medical reasons (<i>e.g. dietary restrictions</i>) <input type="checkbox"/> Other, (<i>please specify</i>) _____ | | | | |

(Stop, thank you for your kind participation)

Appendix 3: Questionnaire (continued)

QUESTIONNAIRE (continued)

Part C: Expectations of the Dining Experience

Please answer the following questions by circling the number that best represents your answer, where 1=very unimportant; 2=unimportant; 3=neutral; 4=important; and 5=very important.

| | | Very unimportant | | | Very important | |
|---|---|------------------|---|---|----------------|---|
| <i>When you eat local Indonesian food during your current stay, ...</i> | | | | | | |
| 1. | How important is it that the food tastes good ? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | How important is it to have authentic taste of Indonesian food? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | How important is it to have authentically spicy Indonesian food? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | How important is it to have the flavour modified for your taste? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | How important is it to have the local food to be exotic (i.e. unique & different)? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | How important is it to have the food smell appealing ? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | How important is it to use fresh ingredients (e.g. vegetables, fish)? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | How important is it to use familiar ingredients ? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | How important is it to have an Indonesian unique way of cooking the food? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. | How important is it to have an Indonesian unique way of presenting the food? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | How important is it to have an Indonesian unique way of eating the food? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | How important is it to have a wide range of local food available on the menu? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. | How important to try local Indonesian drink/beverage in your dining experience? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | How important is it to have a good description of local Indonesian dishes? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | How important is it to have pleasant ambience/atmosphere of the dining place? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | How important is it to have an Indonesian unique design/décor & layout ? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | How important is it to have the dining place representative of Indonesian culture (e.g. Indonesian traditional music) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | How important is it to have a clean dining place? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | How important is it to have communicative staff? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. | How important is it to have friendly staff? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. | How important is it to have responsive staff to your specific needs? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. | How important is it to have knowledgeable staff? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. | How important is it to have other people (e.g. friends, other customers) in the dining place who can help you to know more about Indonesian culture? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | How important is it to have the dining place providing you with a sense of belonging of Indonesian culture ? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part D: Participation in the Interview

Do you agree either to be contacted by the researcher *or* to contact the researcher for an interview during your stay at the hotel?

☐ No (*STOP, thank you for your kind participation*)

☐ Yes (*please provide your contact details below*):

Name _____

E-mail _____

Contact number _____

Thank You for Your Kind Participation

Appendix 4: Information for Interview Participants

[VU Letter Head]

INFORMATION TO INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

Invitation to participate

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled **Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experiences of International Visitors**. The project is being conducted by a student researcher **Mrs. Serli Wijaya**, an academic staff member of **Petra Christian University, Surabaya**, who is currently doing a PhD study at **Victoria University Melbourne, Australia** under the supervision of Professor Brian King and Associate Professor Barry O'Mahony from the School of International Business, Faculty of Business and Law, Victoria University, Melbourne.

Project explanation

The primary objective of this research is to investigate the experiences which international visitors encounter at pre-dining, during, and post-dining stages during visits to Indonesia. The results of the research will provide insights for tourism stakeholders to more fully understand the behaviour of international visitors when consuming local food in Indonesia, so that more effective strategies can be designed to offer unique, memorable Indonesian culinary experiences to international tourists in the future.

What will I be asked to do?

As a participant in this study, you will be invited to answer questions that will be asked by the researcher. The interview will take \pm 20-30 minutes to undertake. The interview will ask your opinions about your experiences of local food consumption during your visit to Indonesia. It will include your perceptions, satisfaction level and future behavioural intentions related to your dining experience. Before the interview starts, you will be requested to sign a Consent Form for Interview Participants as evidence of your consent to participate in the interview.

What will I gain from participating?

As an international visitor, your views are extremely valuable for the study. Your participation will contribute to the development of knowledge about the creation of memorable culinary tourism experiences for international tourists in Indonesia. Findings of this project will be produced and submitted to local tourism stakeholders to allow them to establish better culinary experiences for you as an international visitor in your future visits to Indonesia.

How will the information I give be used?

The information that participants provide will be analysed and used to complete a Doctoral thesis. Raw data collected from all participants will be kept in a safe place and will only be viewed and accessed by the researcher and research supervisors. The information you provide will be kept confidential at all stages of the project. The information may also be used to develop academic publications and the participations will not be named.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?

There are no expected risks from participation. Your participation in the questionnaire survey is voluntary. If you think you would like to withdraw or not answer certain questions, you may do so and it will not affect you directly or indirectly whatsoever.

Who is conducting the study?

The study is being conducted through the School of International Business in the Faculty of Business and Law at Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia. The researcher's details are as follows:

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| Principal Researcher | : Professor Brian King; phone: +61 3 99195348; email: brian.king@vu.edu.au |
| Associate Researcher | : Associate Professor Barry O'Mahony; phone: +61 3 99191091; email: barry.omahony@vu.edu.au |
| Student Researcher | : Serli Wijaya; phone: +61430190212; email: serli.wijaya@live.vu.edu.au |

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to contact details below:

Student Researcher: Serli Wijaya; phone +62 31 2983084; e-mail: serli.wijaya@live.vu.edu.au; or
Principal Supervisor: Professor Brian King; phone +61 3 99195348; email: brian.king@vu.edu.au or,
Head of Program of Hotel Management, Faculty of Economics, Petra Christian University Surabaya, Indonesia:
Sienny Thio, S.E., M.Bus.; phone: +62 31 2983080; email: sienny@peter.petra.ac.id

Your participation and precious time is very much appreciated. **Thank You**
Serli Wijaya
PhD Candidate

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics and Biosafety Coordinator, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 phone (03) 9919 4148.

Appendix 5: Consent Form of Interview Participant

[VU Letter Head]

CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

We would like to invite you to be a part of a study entitled “Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experiences of International Visitors”.

Full details of the project and your involvement are provided in the accompanying sheet titled “Information to Interview Participants Involved in Research”

CERTIFICATION BY SUBJECT

I, “_____” *(Please write your name)*

certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the study entitled “Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experiences of International Visitors” being conducted at Victoria University by: Serli Wijaya.

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the procedures listed hereunder to be carried out in the research, have been fully explained to me by: Serli Wijaya;

and that I freely consent to participation involving the below mentioned procedures:

Interview

I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential and raw data collected will be kept in a safe place and will only be viewed and accessed by the researcher and research supervisors. I also have been informed that all material presented in any relevant publications of this study will be anonymous.

Signed : _____

Date : _____

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to contact details below:

Student Researcher: Serli Wijaya; phone +62 31 2983084; e-mail: serli.wijaya@live.vu.edu.au; or

Principal Supervisor: Professor Brian King; phone +61 3 99195348; email:brian.king@vu.edu.au or,

Head of Program of Hotel Management, Faculty of Economics, Petra Christian University Surabaya, Indonesia:

Sienny Thio, S.E., M.Bus.; phone: +62 31 2983080; email: sienny@peter.petra.ac.id

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics & Biosafety Coordinator, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 phone (03) 9919 4148.

Appendix 6: Permission Letter to Hotels for Data Collection

[VU Letter Head]

[Date]

[To: General Manager of Hotel.....]

[Address]

Dear Sir/Madam.....,

We are seeking your permission to conduct a survey of international guests in your hotel.

This survey is part of a research project **Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experiences of International Visitors**. The project is being conducted by a student researcher **Mrs. Serli Wijaya** as part of a PhD study at Victoria University Melbourne, Australia under the supervision of Professor Brian King and Associate Professor Barry O'Mahony from the School of International Business, Faculty of Business and Law, Victoria University, Melbourne.

The primary research objective is to investigate the experiences which international visitors encounter at the pre-dining, during, and post-dining stages of food consumption during their visit to Indonesia. The research findings will provide insights for tourism stakeholders (including hotel businesses) to more fully understand the behaviour of international visitors when consuming local food in Indonesia. This will allow more effective strategies to be designed offering unique, memorable Indonesian culinary experiences to international tourists.

This research involves no risks for your hotel company or for your international guests. The guests will be approached shortly after arrival at the hotel and during or after they have completed check-in. They will be asked to answer a questionnaire delivered by the researcher which will only take them about 5-10 minutes. The questionnaire will ask about their preconceptions of local Indonesian food and their expectations if they express an interest in eating local Indonesian food during their stay. Participation in the survey is voluntary. If guests prefer to withdraw or to decline answering certain questions, they are free to do so and it will not affect them either directly or indirectly. Raw data collected from your guests will be viewed and accessed only by the researcher and the research supervisors. Upon completion of the project, you will be provided with a summary of the main research outcomes and recommendations.

As part of the University's process of Human Research Ethics, it is a requirement that researchers obtain written permission from management at the hotel where the survey is to be undertaken. Should you provide it, your written permission will be attached to the Ethics Application for Approval Form which is submitted to the University's Human Research Ethics Committee (VUHREC) before commencement of the project in July 2011. Please be assured that the student researcher will meet with you to explain the technical aspects of the survey before the survey collection proceeds.

Your permission to conduct the survey on-site will greatly support the data collection stage of this project. The return of this letter with your signature below will be taken as evidence of permission for the student researcher Mrs. Serli Wijaya to distribute the questionnaire in a non-intrusive manner. Any queries about participation in this project may be directed to the Principal Researcher listed below. **Thank You.**

Professor Brian King (Principal Researcher)

Contact details:

Mail : PO Box 14428 MC Melbourne 8001 Mail

Phone : (03) 9919 5348

Email : brian.king@vu.edu.au

Mrs. Serli Wijaya (Student Researcher)

Contact details:

: PO Box 14428 MC Melbourne 8001

Phone : (03) 9919 4133

Mobile : +61430190212

Email : serli.wijaya@live.vu.edu.au

Yours sincerely,

Serli Wijaya

Declaration of Permission

Printed name _____

Signature _____

Position _____

Date _____

Appendix 7: Guideline of Interview Questions

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDELINES

Steps prior to the interview:

- Confirm that the interviewee is comfortable.
- Confirm that the interviewee has read the “Information to Participants” and has signed the “Consent Form”.
- Re-state the objectives and the intended research outcomes. Ask if the participant is happy to go ahead with the interview.
- Ask permission to record the interview.
- Turn on voice recorder after explaining that the responses and recording will remain confidential.

Part A: Food-related aspects

1. What was the name of the local Indonesian food (dish and/or beverage) where you ate?
2. Reason you chose that particular food
3. How would you describe the food you ate in terms of:
 - a. Taste > *How?*
 - b. Appearance > *How?*
 - c. The ingredients or spices used > *How?*
4. How would you rate your food quality relative to your initial expectations:
Below expectations, similar to expectations, above what you anticipated > *How?*

Part B: Physical aspects

5. Where did you eat local Indonesian food?
6. Reasons for choosing this particular location
7. How would you describe your thoughts and feelings about:
 - a. Ambience or atmosphere of the food outlet > *How?*
 - b. Cleanliness of the food outlet > *How?*

Part C: Socio-cultural aspects

8. Do you think or feel that your Indonesian food dining experience provided you with an opportunity to learn about Indonesian culture? Please discuss.
9. How would you describe your thoughts and feelings about:
 - a. Service personnel > *How?*
 - b. Other customers on the premises > *How?*

Part D: Satisfaction and Behavioural Intentions

10. Overall, how would you describe your food experiences compared with your expectations?
 - a. What was pleasurable and what was not?
 - b. What words best describe your feelings?
11. Overall, how satisfied were you with the quality of the food?
12. Would you like to eat local Indonesian food again during a future visit to Indonesia?
 - a. Yes > *Would you like to try some other foods?*
 - b. No > *Why?*
13. Would you recommend eating Indonesian food to others?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No > *Why?*

Would you like to add other comments?

Appendix 8: Approval Letter from the VU HREC



MEMO

DATE 19/07/2011

TO A/Prof Barry O'Mahony
School of International Business
Victoria University

Prof Brian King
School of International Business
Victoria University

FROM Dr Deb Kerr
Acting Chair
Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee

SUBJECT Ethics Application – HRETH 11/110

Dear A/Prof O'Mahony,

Thank you for submitting this application for ethical approval of the project:

HRETH 11/110 Culinary Tourism in Indonesia: The Dining Experience of International Visitors

The proposed research project has been accepted and deemed to meet the requirements of the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) 'National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)' by the Acting Chair of the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee. Approval has been granted from 19 July 2011 to 31 October 2011.

Continued approval of this research project by the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee (VUHREC) is conditional upon the provision of a report within 12 months of the above approval date (by **19th July 2012**) or upon the completion of the project (if earlier). A report proforma may be downloaded from the VUHREC web site at: <http://research.vu.edu.au/hrec.php>.

Please note that the Human Research Ethics Committee must be informed of the following: any changes to the approved research protocol, project timelines, any serious events or adverse and/or unforeseen events that may affect continued ethical acceptability of the project. In these unlikely events, researchers must immediately cease all data collection until the Committee has approved the changes. Researchers are also reminded of the need to notify the approving HREC of changes to personnel in research projects via a request for a minor amendment.

On behalf of the Committee, I wish you all the best for the conduct of the project.

Kind regards,

Dr Deb Kerr
Acting Chair
Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee

Appendix 9a: Pilot Study Findings – Reliability Test

The Cronbach's alphas of the Measured Constructs

| Constructs | Empirical Indicator | Cronbach's alpha |
|--|--|-------------------------|
| Food quality | Good taste of food The food to be presented attractively The food to smell appealing Use fresh ingredients Wide range of food available on the menu Good description of food on the menu book | 0.732 |
| Physical dining | Ambience of the dining place Cleanliness Culturally unique design/décor and layout Ambience/atmosphere represent local culture (e.g. traditional music) | 0.704 |
| Food cultural-related | Original taste of food Authentically spicy food Spiciness modified for usual taste The food appeared exotic (unique and different) Use familiar ingredients Culturally unique way of cooking the food Culturally unique way of presenting the food Culturally unique way of eating the food | 0.587 |
| Social | Communication skill Staff friendliness Staff responsiveness to specific needs Other customers help to enjoy local food and local culture Sense of belonging to local culture as a result of food encounter | 0.553 |
| Total Alpha Cronbach for all constructs | | 0.821 |

Appendix 9b: Pilot Study Findings – Validity Test

Pearson Correlation of the Measured Constructs – Food Quality Aspects

Correlations

| | | Good taste of food | The food to be presented attractively | The food to smell appealing | Use fresh ingredients (e.g. vegetables, fish) | Wide range of food available on the menu | Good description of food on the menu book | Sum_FQ |
|---|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|--|---|--------|
| Good taste of food | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .369* | .121 | -.064 | .363* | -.015 | .443** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .029 | .489 | .713 | .032 | .934 | .008 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| The food to be presented attractively | Pearson Correlation | .369* | 1 | .520** | .273 | .488** | .391* | .781** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .029 | | .001 | .113 | .003 | .020 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| The food to smell appealing | Pearson Correlation | .121 | .520** | 1 | .467** | .582** | .348* | .797** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .489 | .001 | | .005 | .000 | .041 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Use fresh ingredients (e.g. vegetables, fish) | Pearson Correlation | -.064 | .273 | .467** | 1 | .152 | .139 | .480** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .713 | .113 | .005 | | .383 | .425 | .004 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Wide range of food available on the menu | Pearson Correlation | .363* | .488** | .582** | .152 | 1 | .353* | .812** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .032 | .003 | .000 | .383 | | .038 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Good description of food on the menu book | Pearson Correlation | -.015 | .391* | .348* | .139 | .353* | 1 | .537** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .934 | .020 | .041 | .425 | .038 | | .001 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Sum_FQ | Pearson Correlation | .443** | .781** | .797** | .480** | .812** | .537** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .008 | .000 | .000 | .004 | .000 | .001 | |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

Appendix 9b: Pilot Study Findings – Validity Test (continued)

Pearson Correlation of the Measured Constructs – Food Cultural-related Aspects

Correlations

| | | Original taste of food | Authentically spicy food | Spiciness modified for my taste | The food to be appeared exotic (uniquely and differently) | Use familiar ingredients | Culturally unique way of cooking the food | Culturally unique way of presenting the food | Culturally unique way of eating the food | Sum_Food_C ulture |
|---|---------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|--|---|---|----------------------|
| Original taste of food | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .233 | -.008 | -.030 | -.053 | .365* | .443** | .351* | .518** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .179 | .964 | .864 | .763 | .031 | .008 | .038 | .001 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Authentically spicy food | Pearson Correlation | .233 | 1 | .070 | -.060 | .243 | .011 | .180 | .305 | .492** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .179 | | .690 | .731 | .160 | .951 | .300 | .075 | .003 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Spiciness modified for my taste | Pearson Correlation | -.008 | .070 | 1 | .036 | .268 | -.157 | -.060 | -.050 | .293 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .964 | .690 | | .835 | .119 | .368 | .733 | .775 | .087 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| The food to be appeared exotic (uniquely and differently) | Pearson Correlation | -.030 | -.060 | .036 | 1 | .001 | .355* | .412* | .037 | .420* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .864 | .731 | .835 | | .994 | .036 | .014 | .834 | .012 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Use familiar ingredients | Pearson Correlation | -.053 | .243 | .268 | .001 | 1 | -.032 | .189 | .066 | .453** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .763 | .160 | .119 | .994 | | .854 | .276 | .706 | .006 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Culturally unique way of cooking the food | Pearson Correlation | .365* | .011 | -.157 | .355* | -.032 | 1 | .595** | .532** | .630** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .031 | .951 | .368 | .036 | .854 | | .000 | .001 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Culturally unique way of presenting the food | Pearson Correlation | .443** | .180 | -.060 | .412* | .189 | .595** | 1 | .257 | .709** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .008 | .300 | .733 | .014 | .276 | .000 | | .136 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Culturally unique way of eating the food | Pearson Correlation | .351* | .305 | -.050 | .037 | .066 | .532** | .257 | 1 | .599** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .038 | .075 | .775 | .834 | .706 | .001 | .136 | | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Sum_Food_Culture | Pearson Correlation | .518** | .492** | .293 | .420* | .453** | .630** | .709** | .599** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | .003 | .087 | .012 | .006 | .000 | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

Appendix 9b: Pilot Study Findings – Validity Test (continued)

Pearson Correlation of the Measured Constructs – Physical Dining
Establishment Aspects

| | | Correlations | | | | |
|---|---------------------|--|--|--|-----------------------|---------------------|
| | | Pleasant ambience of the dining place | Culturally unique design/decor and layout | Ambience/at mosphere represent local culture (e.g. traaditional music) | Clean dining place | Sum_Physical_Dining |
| Pleasant ambience of the dining place | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .457** | .535** | .282 | .770** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .006 | .001 | .101 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Culturally unique design/decor and layout | Pearson Correlation | .457** | 1 | .367* | .378* | .799** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .006 | | .030 | .025 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Ambience/atmosphere represent local culture (e.g. traaditional music) | Pearson Correlation | .535** | .367* | 1 | .327 | .764** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | .030 | | .055 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Clean dining place | Pearson Correlation | .282 | .378* | .327 | 1 | .591** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .101 | .025 | .055 | | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Sum_Physical_Dining | Pearson Correlation | .770** | .799** | .764** | .591** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Pearson Correlation of the Measured Constructs – Social Aspects

| Correlations | | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|---|---|--|------------------------|
| | | Well communicativ e staff | Friendly staff | Responsive staff of my specific needs as international traveller | Other customers who help to enjoy local food and culture | Gives sense of belonging of local culture | Sum_Social_ Aspects |
| Well communicative staff | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .438** | .186 | .137 | .132 | .507** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .009 | .285 | .433 | .449 | .002 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Friendly staff | Pearson Correlation | .438** | 1 | .369* | .149 | .183 | .579** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .009 | | .029 | .394 | .293 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Responsive staff of my specific needs as international traveller | Pearson Correlation | .186 | .369* | 1 | -.070 | .381* | .527** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .285 | .029 | | .692 | .024 | .001 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Other customers who help to enjoy local food and culture | Pearson Correlation | .137 | .149 | -.070 | 1 | .369* | .653** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .433 | .394 | .692 | | .029 | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Gives sense of belonging of local culture | Pearson Correlation | .132 | .183 | .381* | .369* | 1 | .749** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .449 | .293 | .024 | .029 | | .000 |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| Sum_Social_Aspects | Pearson Correlation | .507** | .579** | .527** | .653** | .749** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .002 | .000 | .001 | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 |

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 10a: Data Cleaning Process – Missing Value Analysis

| Univariate Statistics | | | | | | | |
|--|-----|------|----------------|---------|----|------------------------------|------|
| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Missing | | No. of Extremes ^a | |
| | | | | Count | % | Low | High |
| QC1_Food_Taste_Good | 338 | 4.56 | .652 | 1 | .3 | 4 | 0 |
| QC2_Authentic_Taste | 337 | 4.04 | .920 | 2 | .6 | 0 | 0 |
| QC3_Authentically_Spicy | 338 | 3.45 | 1.078 | 1 | .3 | 15 | 0 |
| QC4_Flavour_Modified | 338 | 2.95 | 1.123 | 1 | .3 | 0 | 0 |
| QC5_Exotic | 338 | 3.41 | .949 | 1 | .3 | 11 | 0 |
| QC6_Smell_Appealing | 338 | 4.07 | .860 | 1 | .3 | 14 | 0 |
| QC7_Fresh_Ingredients | 338 | 4.58 | .727 | 1 | .3 | 6 | 0 |
| QC8_Familiar_Ingredients | 338 | 3.01 | 1.095 | 1 | .3 | 0 | 0 |
| QC9_Way_of_Cooking | 338 | 3.56 | 1.038 | 1 | .3 | 11 | 0 |
| QC10_Way_of_Presenting | 337 | 3.60 | .950 | 2 | .6 | 6 | 0 |
| QC11_Way_of_Eating | 338 | 3.11 | 1.033 | 1 | .3 | 0 | 0 |
| QC12_Wide_Range | 338 | 3.81 | .911 | 1 | .3 | 7 | 0 |
| QC13_Local_Beverage | 338 | 3.81 | 1.041 | 1 | .3 | 0 | 0 |
| QC14_Good_Description | 338 | 4.09 | .932 | 1 | .3 | 20 | 0 |
| QC15_Pleasant_Ambience | 338 | 3.93 | .947 | 1 | .3 | 0 | 0 |
| QC16_Unique_Design | 338 | 3.37 | .988 | 1 | .3 | 13 | 0 |
| QC17_Representative_of_Culture | 338 | 3.44 | .942 | 1 | .3 | 10 | 0 |
| QC18_Clean | 338 | 4.63 | .724 | 1 | .3 | 9 | 0 |
| QC19_Communicative | 338 | 4.15 | .828 | 1 | .3 | 14 | 0 |
| QC20_Friendly | 338 | 4.45 | .726 | 1 | .3 | 6 | 0 |
| QC21_Responsive | 338 | 4.00 | .929 | 1 | .3 | 0 | 0 |
| QC22_Knowledgable | 338 | 4.03 | .891 | 1 | .3 | 17 | 0 |
| QC23_Other_People | 338 | 3.41 | 1.078 | 1 | .3 | 18 | 0 |
| QC24_Sense_Belonging | 338 | 3.70 | .901 | 1 | .3 | 10 | 0 |
| a. Number of cases outside the range (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR). | | | | | | | |

Missing Patterns (cases with missing values)

| Case | # Missing | % Missing | Missing and Extreme Value Patterns ^a | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|-----------|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|
| | | | 1 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 |
| 196 | 1 | 4.2 | | | | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 198 | 1 | 4.2 | | | | | | | | | - | | | | |
| 337 | 24 | 100 | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | |

(-) indicates an extreme low value, while (+) indicates an extreme high value.

The range used is (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR).

^a Cases and variables are sorted on missing patterns.

Missing Patterns (cases with missing values)

| Case | # Missing | % Missing | Missing and Extreme Value Patterns ^a | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|-----------|-----------|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|--|
| | | | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 2 | 10 | |
| 196 | 1 | 4.2 | | - | | | | | | | - | | S | |
| 198 | 1 | 4.2 | | | | | | | | | | S | | |
| 337 | 24 | 100 | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | |

(-) indicates an extreme low value, while (+) indicates an extreme high value.

The range used is (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR).

^a Cases and variables are sorted on missing patterns.

Appendix 10b: Data Cleaning Process – Normality Test

| Descriptive Statistics | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| Item | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Std. Error |
| QC1_Food_Taste_Good | 336 | 2 | 5 | 4.56 | .653 | -1.452 | .133 | 1.923 | .265 |
| QC2_Authentic_Taste | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.04 | .920 | -.765 | .133 | .223 | .265 |
| QC3_Authentically_Spicy | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.44 | 1.077 | -.263 | .133 | -.516 | .265 |
| QC4_Flavour_Modified | 336 | 1 | 5 | 2.96 | 1.125 | -.076 | .133 | -.676 | .265 |
| QC5_Exotic | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.41 | .942 | -.387 | .133 | -.140 | .265 |
| QC6_Smell_Appealing | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.08 | .860 | -.970 | .133 | 1.258 | .265 |
| QC7_Fresh_Ingredients | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.59 | .724 | -2.134 | .133 | 5.534 | .265 |
| QC8_Familiar_Ingredients | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.00 | 1.091 | -.022 | .133 | -.630 | .265 |
| QC9_Way_of_Cooking | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.56 | 1.038 | -.377 | .133 | -.392 | .265 |
| QC10_Way_of_Presenting | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.60 | .951 | -.399 | .133 | -.246 | .265 |
| QC11_Way_of_Eating | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.12 | 1.033 | -.175 | .133 | -.392 | .265 |
| QC12_Wide_Range | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.82 | .900 | -.580 | .133 | .352 | .265 |
| QC13_Local_Beverage | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.82 | 1.043 | -.656 | .133 | -.107 | .265 |
| QC14_Good_Description | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.08 | .933 | -1.010 | .133 | .873 | .265 |
| QC15_Pleasant_Ambience | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.93 | .948 | -.633 | .133 | -.186 | .265 |
| QC16_Unique_Design | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.38 | .991 | -.252 | .133 | -.230 | .265 |
| QC17_Representative_of_Culture | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.44 | .932 | -.293 | .133 | -.075 | .265 |
| QC18_Clean | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.63 | .726 | -2.314 | .133 | 5.813 | .265 |
| QC19_Communicative | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.15 | .828 | -1.007 | .133 | 1.277 | .265 |
| QC20_Friendly | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.45 | .727 | -1.477 | .133 | 2.941 | .265 |
| QC21_Responsive | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.00 | .930 | -.850 | .133 | .582 | .265 |
| QC22_Knowledgable | 336 | 1 | 5 | 4.03 | .892 | -.940 | .133 | 1.064 | .265 |
| QC23_Other_People | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.40 | 1.077 | -.364 | .133 | -.452 | .265 |
| QC24_Sense_Belonging | 336 | 1 | 5 | 3.70 | .891 | -.676 | .133 | .774 | .265 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 336 | | | | | | | | |

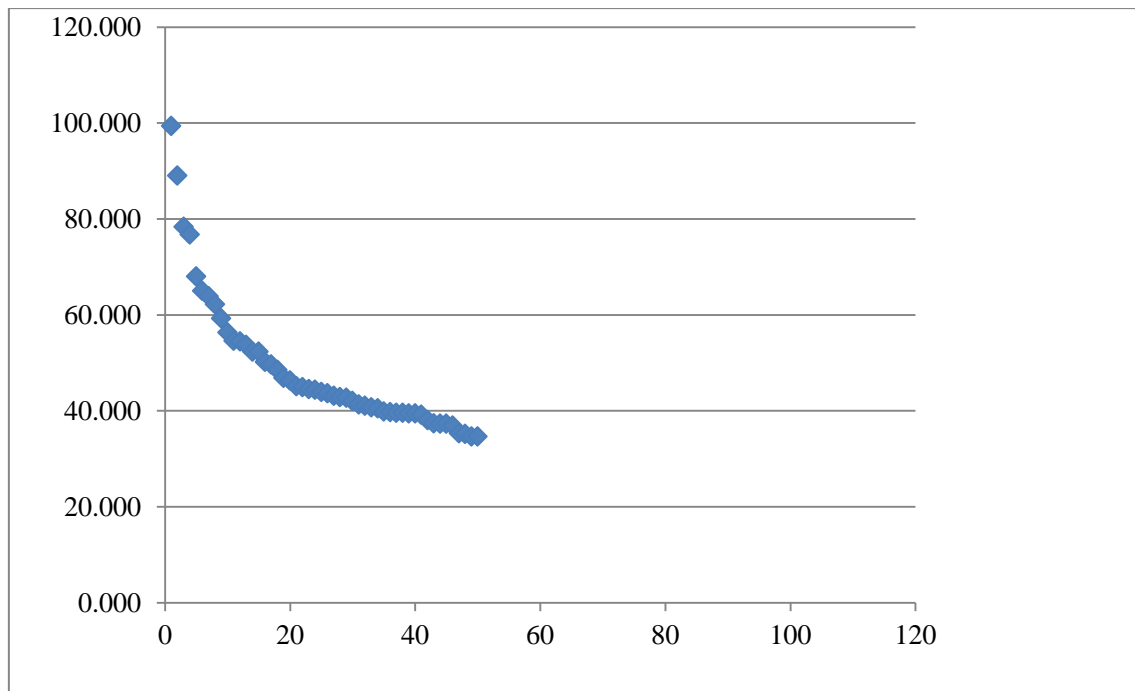
Appendix 10c: Data Cleaning Process – Multivariate Outlier Detection

(observations farthest from the centroid – Mahalanobis distance)

| Observable number ^a | Mahalanobis d-squared | p1 | p2 |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-------|----|
| 207 | 99.380 | 0 | 0 |
| 188 | 89.071 | 0 | 0 |
| 335 | 78.378 | 0 | 0 |
| 206 | 76.755 | 0 | 0 |
| 150 | 67.996 | 0 | 0 |
| 144 | 65.015 | 0 | 0 |
| 296 | 63.909 | 0 | 0 |
| 216 | 62.221 | 0 | 0 |
| 98 | 59.281 | 0 | 0 |
| 264 | 56.351 | 0 | 0 |
| 255 | 54.579 | 0 | 0 |
| 329 | 54.484 | 0 | 0 |
| 192 | 53.713 | 0 | 0 |
| 129 | 52.329 | 0.001 | 0 |
| 318 | 52.327 | 0.001 | 0 |
| 121 | 50.207 | 0.001 | 0 |
| 172 | 49.647 | 0.002 | 0 |
| 22 | 48.548 | 0.002 | 0 |
| 53 | 46.868 | 0.003 | 0 |
| 47 | 46.340 | 0.004 | 0 |
| 315 | 45.163 | 0.006 | 0 |
| 303 | 44.965 | 0.006 | 0 |
| 196 | 44.535 | 0.007 | 0 |
| 195 | 44.387 | 0.007 | 0 |
| 97 | 43.921 | 0.008 | 0 |
| 263 | 43.662 | 0.008 | 0 |
| 336 | 43.107 | 0.010 | 0 |
| 88 | 42.843 | 0.010 | 0 |
| 205 | 42.713 | 0.011 | 0 |
| 149 | 42.039 | 0.013 | 0 |
| 70 | 41.350 | 0.015 | 0 |
| 170 | 41.048 | 0.016 | 0 |
| 252 | 40.702 | 0.018 | 0 |
| 313 | 40.500 | 0.019 | 0 |
| 8 | 39.884 | 0.022 | 0 |
| 21 | 39.696 | 0.023 | 0 |
| 312 | 39.615 | 0.024 | 0 |
| 81 | 39.601 | 0.024 | 0 |
| 333 | 39.455 | 0.024 | 0 |
| 331 | 39.438 | 0.025 | 0 |
| 61 | 39.212 | 0.026 | 0 |
| 204 | 38.055 | 0.034 | 0 |
| 244 | 37.362 | 0.040 | 0 |
| 24 | 37.316 | 0.041 | 0 |
| 25 | 37.316 | 0.041 | 0 |
| 291 | 36.955 | 0.044 | 0 |
| 182 | 35.297 | 0.064 | 0 |
| 5 | 35.207 | 0.065 | 0 |
| 62 | 34.667 | 0.073 | 0 |
| 253 | 34.659 | 0.074 | 0 |

| Observable number ^a | Mahalanobis d-squared | p1 | p2 |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-------|-------|
| 241 | 34.555 | 0.075 | 0 |
| 145 | 34.250 | 0.080 | 0 |
| 249 | 33.743 | 0.089 | 0 |
| 7 | 33.622 | 0.092 | 0 |
| 143 | 33.618 | 0.092 | 0 |
| 311 | 33.239 | 0.099 | 0 |
| 282 | 33.157 | 0.101 | 0 |
| 75 | 33.120 | 0.102 | 0 |
| 96 | 33.062 | 0.103 | 0 |
| 194 | 33.056 | 0.103 | 0 |
| 288 | 32.745 | 0.110 | 0 |
| 183 | 32.669 | 0.111 | 0 |
| 283 | 32.232 | 0.121 | 0 |
| 2 | 32.135 | 0.124 | 0 |
| 280 | 31.717 | 0.134 | 0.002 |
| 164 | 31.623 | 0.137 | 0.001 |
| 123 | 31.555 | 0.138 | 0.001 |
| 224 | 31.206 | 0.148 | 0.004 |
| 116 | 30.944 | 0.155 | 0.009 |
| 320 | 30.922 | 0.156 | 0.007 |
| 240 | 30.725 | 0.162 | 0.010 |
| 203 | 30.673 | 0.163 | 0.009 |
| 300 | 30.445 | 0.170 | 0.016 |
| 237 | 30.366 | 0.173 | 0.015 |
| 316 | 30.302 | 0.175 | 0.014 |
| 64 | 30.200 | 0.178 | 0.015 |
| 72 | 30.151 | 0.180 | 0.013 |
| 73 | 30.120 | 0.181 | 0.010 |
| 260 | 30.065 | 0.183 | 0.009 |
| 105 | 29.685 | 0.195 | 0.031 |
| 222 | 29.291 | 0.209 | 0.088 |
| 137 | 28.862 | 0.225 | 0.224 |
| 147 | 28.823 | 0.227 | 0.206 |
| 319 | 28.598 | 0.236 | 0.286 |
| 284 | 28.403 | 0.243 | 0.361 |
| 68 | 28.389 | 0.244 | 0.324 |
| 265 | 28.209 | 0.251 | 0.394 |
| 245 | 28.134 | 0.254 | 0.397 |
| 273 | 28.091 | 0.256 | 0.378 |
| 231 | 27.997 | 0.260 | 0.394 |
| 59 | 27.979 | 0.261 | 0.360 |
| 133 | 27.973 | 0.261 | 0.318 |
| 270 | 27.772 | 0.270 | 0.406 |
| 11 | 27.668 | 0.274 | 0.431 |
| 236 | 27.475 | 0.283 | 0.522 |
| 42 | 27.357 | 0.288 | 0.559 |
| 38 | 27.351 | 0.288 | 0.515 |
| 258 | 26.990 | 0.305 | 0.720 |
| 32 | 26.845 | 0.312 | 0.768 |
| 112 | 26.828 | 0.313 | 0.740 |

Appendix 10c: Data Cleaning Process – Multivariate Outlier Detection (continued)



Note: ^a indicates observable number differs from case number

Observable number 207 = Case number 214
Observable number 188 = Case number 192
Observable number 335 = Case number 348
Observable number 206 = Case number 213

Appendix 11: MANOVA Analysis Results

The Effect of Gender on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|--------|------|-------------------------|---------|
| | Female | Male | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.04 | 4.10 | 0.905 | 0.342 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.49 | 3.42 | 0.719 | 0.397 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.43 | 4.38 | 0.803 | 0.371 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.65 | 3.50 | 3.690 | 0.056 |
| Food authenticity | 3.72 | 3.62 | 1.387 | 0.240 |
| Food familiarity | 3.01 | 3.01 | 0.000 | 0.996 |
| Food variety | 3.80 | 3.86 | 0.473 | 0.492 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.966, *F* value = 1.557; *p* value = 0.148; partial eta squared = 0.034.

The Effect of Age Group on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | 18-30 | 31-40 | 41-50 | 51-60 | > 60 | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.04 ^a | 4.00 ^a | 4.15 | 4.03 | 4.39 ^a | 3.105 | 0.016 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.32 ^a | 3.60 | 3.70 ^a | 3.37 | 3.58 | 2.990 | 0.019 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.31 ^a | 4.38 | 4.52 ^a | 4.48 | 4.61 ^a | 4.073 | 0.003 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.47 ^a | 3.56 | 3.77 ^a | 3.53 | 3.75 | 2.397 | 0.050 |
| Food authenticity | 3.55 | 3.66 | 3.83 | 3.78 | 3.78 | 2.143 | 0.075 |
| Food familiarity | 3.11 | 2.90 | 2.80 | 3.01 | 3.07 | 1.326 | 0.260 |
| Food variety | 3.83 ^a | 3.85 | 4.09 | 3.48 ^a | 3.89 | 4.220 | 0.002 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.820, *F* value = 2.253; *p* value = 0.000; partial eta squared = 0.048.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Country of Residence on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------|-------------------------|---------|
| | America | Asia | Australia Pacific | Europe | Others | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.08 | 4.09 | 4.30 | 4.04 | 4.22 | 1.124 | 0.345 |
| Food uniqueness | 2.94 ^a | 3.60 ^a | 3.44 | 3.43 | 3.50 | 2.596 | 0.036 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.49 | 3.61 | 3.58 | 3.55 | 4.17 | 1.377 | 0.242 |
| Food authenticity | 3.53 | 3.71 | 3.64 | 3.66 | 3.61 | 0.282 | 0.890 |
| Food familiarity | 2.65 ^a | 3.30 ^a | 3.03 | 2.89 ^a | 3.17 | 3.927 | 0.004 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.805, *F* value = 2.452; *p* value = 0.000; partial eta squared = 0.053.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Highest Education Attained on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | Secondary School | Diploma/Bachelor | Postgraduate | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.14 | 4.07 | 4.04 | 0.745 | 0.476 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.49 | 3.47 | 3.40 | 0.297 | 0.743 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.31 | 4.41 | 4.45 | 2.063 | 0.129 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.59 | 3.58 | 3.52 | 0.356 | 0.701 |
| Food authenticity | 3.55 | 3.70 | 3.69 | 1.106 | 0.332 |
| Food familiarity | 3.41 ^a | 2.96 ^a | 2.84 ^a | 9.276 | 0.000 |
| Food variety | 3.87 | 3.81 | 3.84 | 0.161 | 0.851 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.909, *F* value = 2.163; *p* value = 0.008; partial eta squared = 0.046.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

Appendix 11: MANOVA Analysis Result (continued)

The Effect of Occupation on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------|-------------------|----------|---------|--------|-------------------------|---------|
| | Student | Manager | Professional | Employee | Retiree | Others | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.05 | 4.21 | 4.02 | 4.09 | 4.15 | 4.16 | 0.971 | 0.435 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.39 | 3.32 | 3.58 | 3.37 | 3.25 | 3.50 | 1.092 | 0.365 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.28 ^a | 4.50 | 4.44 ^a | 4.45 | 4.35 | 4.55 | 2.706 | 0.021 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.52 | 3.59 | 3.55 | 3.52 | 3.46 | 3.92 | 1.197 | 0.310 |
| Food authenticity | 3.52 | 3.69 | 3.75 | 3.70 | 4.00 | 3.70 | 1.620 | 0.154 |
| Food variety | 3.84 | 3.79 | 3.80 | 3.83 | 3.63 | 4.13 | 0.746 | 0.589 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.814, *F* value = 1.865; *p* value = 0.002; partial eta squared = 0.040.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Purpose of Visit on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------|------------------------------|--------|-------------------------|---------|
| | Holiday | Business | VFR | Edu/ Cultural Exchange | Others | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.07 | 4.10 | 4.07 | 4.05 | 4.12 | 0.109 | 0.979 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.41 | 3.56 | 3.48 | 3.40 | 3.53 | 0.567 | 0.687 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.49 ^a | 4.42 | 4.54 | 4.25 ^a | 4.28 | 4.394 | 0.002 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.58 | 3.56 | 3.53 | 3.50 | 3.93 | 0.898 | 0.465 |
| Food authenticity | 3.73 | 3.80 ^a | 3.38 | 3.48 ^a | 3.60 | 2.765 | 0.027 |
| Food familiarity | 2.88 ^a | 2.98 | 2.36 | 3.24 ^a | 3.40 | 3.676 | 0.006 |
| Food variety | 3.87 | 3.72 | 3.50 | 3.86 | 4.10 | 1.120 | 0.347 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.827, *F* value = 2.160; *p* value = 0.000; partial eta squared = 0.046.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Frequency of Visit on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | First time | 2-3 visit | > 3times | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.06 | 4.01 | 4.16 | 1.255 | 0.286 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.38 | 4.44 | 4.45 | 2.495 | 0.084 |
| Food authenticity | 3.60 ^a | 3.65 | 3.89 ^a | 3.917 | 0.021 |
| Food familiarity | 3.13 ^a | 2.70 ^a | 2.88 | 5.945 | 0.003 |
| Food variety | 3.87 | 3.76 | 3.76 | 0.716 | 0.490 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.891, *F* value = 2.635; *p* value = 0.001; partial eta squared = 0.056.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

Appendix 11: MANOVA Analysis Result (continued)

The Effect of Length of Current Visit on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | <3 days | 4-7days | 1-2weeks | >2weeks | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.02 | 4.13 | 4.06 | 4.07 | 0.281 | 0.839 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.06 ^a | 3.76 ^a | 3.47 | 3.42 | 3.903 | 0.009 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.16 ^a | 4.50 ^a | 4.40 | 4.41 | 2.630 | 0.050 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.33 | 3.62 | 3.55 | 3.58 | 0.906 | 0.438 |
| Food authenticity | 3.44 ^a | 3.92 ^a | 3.75 | 3.62 | 3.031 | 0.030 |
| Food familiarity | 3.39 ^a | 2.85 | 2.80 ^a | 3.05 | 2.747 | 0.043 |
| Food variety | 3.30 ^a | 3.93 ^a | 3.76 | 3.89 ^a | 4.396 | 0.005 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.878, *F* value = 1.967; *p* value = 0.006; partial eta squared = 0.042.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Travel Party on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------|-------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | Alone | Couple | Family | Group | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.18 | 3.99 | 4.10 | 4.05 | 1.834 | 0.141 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.48 | 3.30 | 3.55 | 3.47 | 1.068 | 0.363 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.52 ^a | 4.39 | 4.55 | 4.28 ^a | 6.595 | 0.000 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.59 | 3.48 | 3.74 | 3.53 | 1.513 | 0.211 |
| Food familiarity | 3.06 ^a | 2.64 ^a | 3.03 | 3.18 ^a | 5.498 | 0.001 |
| Food variety | 3.83 | 3.79 | 3.84 | 3.85 | 0.080 | 0.971 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.857, *F* value = 2.350; *p* value = 0.001; partial eta squared = 0.050.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Level of Knowledge About Local Indonesian Food on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | | | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|------|-------------------|------|-------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | SDA | D | N | A | SA | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 3.99 | 4.03 | 4.11 | 4.06 | 4.12 | 0.466 | 0.760 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.06 ^a | 3.31 | 3.55 ^a | 3.45 | 3.74 ^a | 3.569 | 0.007 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.41 | 3.47 | 3.65 | 3.58 | 3.49 | 1.198 | 0.311 |
| Food authenticity | 3.32 ^a | 3.51 | 3.74 | 3.73 | 3.89 ^a | 3.664 | 0.006 |
| Food familiarity | 2.08 | 2.94 | 3.08 | 2.89 | 3.26 | 1.395 | 0.235 |
| Food variety | 3.87 | 3.65 | 3.91 | 3.85 | 3.89 | 1.377 | 0.242 |

SDA (strongly disagree); D (disagree); N (neutral); A (agree); SA (strongly agree)

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.887, *F* value = 1.343; *p* value = 0.107; partial eta squared = 0.030.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

Appendix 11: MANOVA Analysis Result (continued)

The Effect of Previous Information Obtained by Hearing from Others About Local Food on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|------|------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | Yes | No | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.08 | 4.05 | 0.226 | 0.635 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.48 | 3.32 | 2.046 | 0.154 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.42 | 4.34 | 1.207 | 0.273 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.56 | 3.58 | 0.035 | 0.852 |
| Food authenticity | 3.72 | 3.46 | 6.761 | 0.010 ^a |
| Food familiarity | 2.95 | 3.25 | 5.430 | 0.020 ^a |
| Food variety | 3.84 | 3.79 | 0.227 | 0.634 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.952, *F* value = 2.264; *p* value = 0.029; partial eta squared = 0.048.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Previous Information Obtained by Reading the Information About Local Food on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|------|------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | Yes | No | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.10 | 4.05 | 0.858 | 0.355 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.54 | 3.36 | 3.937 | 0.048 ^a |
| Local servicescapes | 3.56 | 3.57 | 0.012 | 0.915 |
| Food authenticity | 3.75 | 3.58 | 4.283 | 0.039 ^a |
| Food familiarity | 2.96 | 3.07 | 1.175 | 0.279 |
| Food variety | 3.94 | 3.71 | 7.286 | 0.007 ^a |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.955, *F* value = 2.078; *p* value = 0.046; partial eta squared = 0.045.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

The Effect of Past Experience Eating Local Indonesian Food on Visitor Dining Expectations with Local Food

| Dependent Variable | Mean | | Between-Subjects Effect | |
|-----------------------------|------|------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | Yes | No | F value | p value |
| Social encounter with staff | 4.06 | 4.09 | 0.302 | 0.583 |
| Food uniqueness | 3.45 | 3.45 | 0.004 | 0.949 |
| Sensory attributes | 4.44 | 4.34 | 3.286 | 0.071 |
| Local servicescapes | 3.51 | 3.64 | 2.704 | 0.101 |
| Food familiarity | 2.89 | 3.21 | 9.945 | 0.002 ^a |
| Food variety | 3.80 | 3.88 | 0.873 | 0.351 |

Note: Wilks' Lambda = 0.934, *F* value = 3.139; *p* value = 0.003; partial eta squared = 0.066.

^a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was found in the Tukey test.

Appendix 12a: Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) Process: Example of Data Reduction – InVivo coding based on the interview transcript

| Quotation Number | Relevant Quotation | Code 1 | Code 2 |
|------------------|--|--|--|
| 16 | I think one of the major problems is about communication, because all the visitors they can't speak in Bahasa, but for many hotel staff especially in the restaurant, they can speak English even though not all of them can speak fluently. I myself won't expect them to speak English, but at least we can be helped by the description or well written communication on the menu book. What they have is only description in Bahasa, so we cannot understand that. If they got the menu presented in a manner that English was well-written, it would help (I6, R6). | English proficiency | printed menu was uninformative |
| 19 | The beef <i>rendang</i> was very good because you can taste that it's freshly made...and one thing that I like very much of Indonesian food in general is that it's really genuine, not so much in Italian cooking, People use a lot of chemical substances to replace things that you might not find or use dried food or vegetables, and the taste is so different (I1, R3). | food is freshly cooked | - |
| 40 | I went to the restaurant near mangrove table, so we were sitting on the floor very different compared to what I have seen the locals have (I15, R9). | were Asian style very nice. And it's eat with the way | - |
| 41 | I used to use knife, it is very important spoon, but then here you eat most of them they said to me that it is better to use something strange for me. So until now, I never use French fries. I don't get used to it. In my culture, eating using fingers or hands and then you put the food into your mouth | other fork or they eat fish, something that very when eating hands. Also, in it clean enough | perception about hygiene when eating with bare hands |
| 45 |I am not saying that I am disappointed something that I realised when I was clear.....the food here is a bit poor than the meal or dish.....But I don't see and I learn that this part of cultural and more meat while In Indonesia, vegetable there. I was very surprised different vegetables and it is not expensive | light and just less, it's pretty very little part of of different style we eat less rice because I ate less than you have many | - |
| 51 |appearance, it's well. I find it appears and it's a plus. For example you have fried fish like <i>gurami</i> , but sometimes you present it so different, so it's totally different appearance and the food experience is looking it, it's beautiful, something that I must try, so it's attract me to try and raise my appetite. I am actually not a big eater, but when I travelled to Indonesia, I found something that I must try the food. Actually it's a | presentation attracted to try the food | - |

QDA Process: Data Reduction
(see Figure 5.4)

Transcript contains quotations of the informant responses toward each question based on the interview guidelines. Each quotation was extracted and numbered. **It was read, re-read, and broken up into distinct meaning units on a sentence-by-sentence basis through simple coding.** Thus, it is possible that one quotation generates more than one code (e.g. quotations 16, 41, and 140).

Appendix 12a: QDA Process: Example of Data Reduction – InVivo coding based on the interview transcript (continued)

| Quotation Number | Relevant Quotation | Code 1 | Code 2 |
|------------------|--|---|--|
| 79 | I ate at street stalls mostly. Because I could have lots of contacts with the locals and I guessed I would have 'real' Indonesian food there. Besides, I could see the people working in the street stalls, the way of locals dining, using ingredients (I11, R2). | social interaction with locals | - |
| 84 | The hygiene in Indonesia is very bad so we only ate in the more respectable restaurants to be sure there are no problems with eating food (I14, R1). | place hygiene and health consideration | - |
| 130 | I also want to share to you my experience and it was very important. We were taught cooking Soto Madura and Rujak Uleg. So it was altogether cooking, we learn about the ingredients and it was really really nice, especially because as I told you, I love food in general and I love food from other places and I love cooking also. It was actually pretty straight forward to learn a bit about how to cook Indonesian food. It was a bit more complicated as I expected anyway it was really really nice, because we all worked we learned many because we were not only eating the food, but then what really helped was also we learned about all the spices, how to make lontong, peanut sauces, and these things happened because we were invited and we participated at the Rujak Uleg festival. So at that time, we learned it at cooking class before and then we made it during the festival. So we learned, we cooked and then we ate (I15, R11). | involvement with different culinary activities and events | - |
| 132 | ...And you know I think the food is always something that you can rely to um..., how to say... a moment to share with other people and eating time especially and this is something very Italian, because in Italy it is very important for us that eating is not just having the food with all families and friends, but also it is a moment when we meet people, either you go out for dinner or lunch. I noticed that in Indonesia, it's different. In Italy, when we have the food, we are sitting together eating together on the table. In Indonesia, it's something that strange for me because people always wait for us as the guests to eat and then the host eating later and not sitting at the table all together, but em I don't know. You are in the room together but not sitting together. I know that the host are trying to show their respects to their guests, it's part of Indonesian culture, I know this, but it was em for me eating with other people is also sitting together, and chatting and not only give the nutrition to my body. So this was a bit difficult to understand in the beginning. I think it was good experience for me to see myself the true ways of life of local people have (I15, R8). | different views related to host-guest interaction in dining | - |
| 140 | More than satisfied. It was above all I anticipated although I am a good cook and know how to make Indonesian food in Holland. But like I said before, not all ingredients are available in Holland, and I don't know them all, so the food was lovely to eat in the country itself! (I13, R5) | the food experience is positive | the ingredients used are more authentic |

Appendix 12b: QDA Process: Example of Data Reduction – Grouping the Similar Codes

| Quotation Number | Relevant Quotation | Code (Recap) |
|------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| 3 | First time I arrived, every day I had fried food, but actually the meals taste good. but I don't think I will be able to eat it every day and like many other food, because everything is fried (I9, R1). | Food: taste good |
| 21 |good flavour to the beef rendang and the meat is very soft but the taste is very marinated before and the mixture was really nice. The taste was neither too strong more time into preparation first, so the faster let's say to all the herbs, the spices flavours come really well together, I like the spicy pepper, ginger, and that's what although I only ate one or two spicy dishes here, but the beef rendang was not too really tasty....I reckon that Indonesia has a quite good mixture of taste.... (I1, R1) | Food: taste good |
| 23 | But surprisingly, some of Indonesian dishes are very good, very very good, really good. But we don't know about it until we eat it. So even sometimes the food is better than the book (I6, R2). | Food: taste good |
| 55 | Most of time when I eat it is not the appearance which attracts me. It is when I eat until finish (I3, R1) | Food: taste good |
| 84 | The hygiene in Indonesia is very bad so we only ate in the more respectable restaurant with eating food (I14, R1). | Place: hygiene & health consideration |
| 87 | I only eat at the restaurants, so never go to street food stalls, which are why I do not (R7). | Place: hygiene & health consideration |
| 88 | I had 2 nights stayed in Surabaya, and in the hotel I had one night dining experience and then another night I went to nearby restaurant, just 5 minutes walk, um.... that was fine, and also I stayed in Jakarta for 5 days before, um.... There were also eating out experience there. I only ate just at the restaurant, not at street food stalls, em..the ones on the street, I don't think they are good for me, yeah.. (I5, R4). | Place: hygiene & health consideration |
| 89 | The only thing we ate at the street stall was very baked food what we say making at that time and the rest we ate at different restaurants as well small/medium/large. Hygiene issue. I do not want to get a stomachache....but I still want to try the local food too (I13, R3). | Place: hygiene & health consideration |
| 132 | I would say, yes, I am satisfied, because I am used to dine in in hotel restaurants like this, where the hygiene is very alert (I6, R4). | Place: hygiene & health consideration |

QDA Process: Data Reduction (referred to Figure 5.4)

Quotations which have similar codes were located and grouped into one category. For instance, quotations 3, 21, 23, and 55 whose code was “taste good” were located together.

Appendix 12b: QDA Process: Example of Data Reduction – Grouping the Similar Codes (continued)

| Quotation Number | Relevant Quotation | Code (Recap) |
|------------------|---|---|
| 16 | I think one of the major problems is about communication, because all the visitors they can't speak in Bahasa, but for many hotel staff especially in the restaurant, they can speak English even though not all of them can speak fluently. I myself won't expect them to speak English, but at least we can be helped by the description or well written communication on the menu book. What they have is only description in Bahasa, so we cannot understand that.... all people have their limitation in terms of what they eat, what they don't eat. So I would like to know more about what is that before I may touch it..... Some people they don't eat red meat and like me I don't eat pork, so the preferences may change. So those when I look at the menu, I am looking at what I want, not what the restaurant provides..... A lot of people they want to buy but hey don't know what the food is. And the barriers is sometimes is the language and the communication from the staff. Not everyone can speak. If they got the menu presented in a manner that English is well-written, so it will help. So the description on the menu book is a kind of the bridge for travellers and the food providers (I6, R8). | Staff: lack of English |
| 115 | The lady who served us did speak English and well enough to explain the concept and different dishes. So, I felt being helped by the explanation from that lady (I1, R8). | Staff: English proficiency |
| 116 | Sometimes I asked to waiters directly, and sometimes they can explain it, they speak English very well and sometimes just like me whose English is not a mother language. But I think it's not a major case (I9, R10). | Staff: English proficiency |
| 117 | They tried to explain the food and help me, but often they don't understand English well enough and I don't understand Indonesian well enough. Although I used a body language, it's still pretty complicated, sometimes you just have to give up and you just order something. For example, in one restaurant in Surabaya, um, my friend ordered ice tea but without ice cubes because they don't think it's quite safe, but then they got it with ice cubes, so they tried to explain it for 5 minutes, and they just gave up and then they get rid of the cubes to a glass on another tables which already finished. Um.. then I just ordered something which is not spicy, but if it is spicy, usually I just use the rice or the drink to complement it (I2, R4). | Staff: language barrier in delivering service |
| 118 | ...Yeah, many times they are very nice. They have tried to fulfil it. Sometimes they do not understand what I am saying, so at that time I am not quite enjoying what I eat (I6, R9). | Staff: courtesy |
| 119 | They were so nice but actually in this case we were not dealing with them, we had Indonesian people who dealing with them, so they interact in Indonesian language with the staff. So they never speak in English with us. I don't think that anyone could speak in English, because the place is so local, and I think because Surabaya is not a very touristic area so I don't think that is something very common (I15, R4). | Staff: courtesy |

Appendix 12c: QDA Process: Data Reduction – Categorising Based on the Emerging Codes

| No | <i>in-vivo</i> Code (using Constant Comparative Analysis Method - n=83) | Category (n=28) |
|----|---|--|
| 1 | Food aspect: Taste good | 1. Food taste |
| 2 | Food aspect: Negative enjoyment with the taste | |
| 3 | Food aspect: Taste is more important than presentation | |
| 4 | Food aspect: Taste majority is spicy | 2. Spiciness |
| 5 | Food aspect: Spiciness acceptance level | |
| 6 | Food aspect: Negative experience relating to spiciness | |
| 7 | Food aspect: Mixture flavour | 3. Flavour of the food |
| 8 | Food aspect: Intense flavour | 4. Freshness |
| 9 | Food aspect: Freshly cooked | |
| 10 | Food aspect: Ingredient freshness | |
| 11 | Food aspect: Food temperature | 5. Food presentation |
| 12 | Food aspect: Presentation attracts | |
| 13 | Food aspect: Presentation is unattractive | |
| 14 | Food aspect: Presentation is strange | 6. Variety of food |
| 15 | Food aspect: Lots of variety | |
| 16 | Food aspect: Hygiene concerning | |
| 17 | Food aspect: Hygiene concerning | 7. Food hygiene and health |
| 18 | Place aspect: Hygiene & health c | 8. Place hygiene and cleanliness |
| 19 | Place aspect: Hygiene standard | |
| 20 | Place aspect: Cleanliness is good | |
| 21 | Place aspect: Furniture and cutlery | 9. Atmosphere |
| 22 | Place aspect: Cutlery cleanliness | |
| 23 | Place aspect: Dining place is nice | |
| 24 | Place aspect: Crowd level | 10. The role of printed menu in dining |
| 25 | Place aspect: Menu as guidance | |
| 26 | Place aspect: Menu book is uninformative | |
| 27 | Place aspect: Menu book is informative | |
| 28 | Place aspect: Menu book as communication bridge | |
| 29 | Place aspect: Menu book is attractive | |

QDA Process: Data Reduction (referred to Figure 5.4)

Similar codes were collated and organised into larger and more encompassing categories.

As seen in the table, in total there were 83 codes, and the categorisation process generated 28 distinct categories.

Appendix 12c: QDA Process: Data Reduction – Categorising Based on the Emerging Codes (continued)

| No | <i>in-vivo</i> Code (using Constant Comparative Analysis Method - n=83) | Category (n=28) |
|-----------|--|---|
| 30 | Staff aspect: English proficiency | 11. Communication skills |
| 31 | Staff aspect: Lack of English | |
| 32 | Staff aspect: Language barrier in delivering service | |
| 33 | Staff aspect: Courtesy | 12. Staff hospitality |
| 34 | Staff aspect: Friendliness | |
| 35 | Staff aspect: Responsiveness | |
| 36 | Staff aspect: Politeness | |
| 37 | Staff aspect: Local hospitality | |
| 38 | Staff aspect: Appearance is neat | |
| 39 | Staff aspect: Knowledge | 13. Staff competence |
| 40 | Staff aspect: Assurance | |
| 41 | Staff aspect: Reliability | |
| 42 | Place aspect: Economical consideration | 14. Considerations to select the place of dining |
| 43 | Place aspect: Convenient consideration | |
| 44 | Place aspect: Social interaction with locals consideration | |
| 45 | Place aspect: Travel guidebook as Source of information | 15. Sources of information sought related to dining |
| 46 | Social aspect: Friends recommendations to select dining place | |
| 47 | Social aspect: Friends recommendations to order the food | |
| 48 | Food aspect: Cooking utensils | 16. Methods of cooking |
| 49 | Food culture aspect: Creativity in methods of cooking | |
| 50 | Food culture aspect: Different method of cooking the food | |
| 51 | Food culture aspect: Eating with bare hands is unacceptable | 17. Perception of way of eating |
| 52 | Food culture aspect: Eating with bare hands is a novel experience | |
| 53 | Food culture aspect: Different meal composition compared to at home | 18. Structure of the meal |
| 54 | Food culture aspect: Different views related to host-guest interaction in dining | 19. Personal views related to dining |
| 55 | Food culture aspect: Authentic Herbs and Spices | 20. Food authenticity |
| 56 | Food culture aspect: Authentic food | |
| 57 | Food culture aspect: Authentic taste | |
| 58 | Food culture aspect: Authentic presentation | |
| 59 | Place aspect: Authentic cultural décor | 21. Dining establishment and authenticity |
| 60 | Place aspect: Traditional music | |
| 61 | Place aspect: Atmosphere represents local culture | |
| 62 | Place aspect: Atmosphere not represents local culture | |
| 63 | Place aspect: Perception of food hawkers is more authentic | |

Appendix 12c: QDA Process: Data Reduction – Categorising Based on the Emerging Codes (continued)

| No | <i>in-vivo</i> Code (using Constant Comparative Analysis Method - n=83) | Category (n=28) |
|----|---|--|
| 64 | Food culture aspect: Preconception of local Indonesian food | 22. Familiarity with the destination and the food of the destination |
| 65 | Past destination experiences | |
| 66 | Food culture aspect: Previous experience at home with the food of the destination | |
| 67 | Food culture aspect: Eagerness to try new local food | 23. Novelty seeking benefits |
| 68 | Food culture aspect: Visiting local culinary events | 24. Social interactions with the locals |
| 69 | Food culture aspect: Involvement in local culinary activities and events | |
| 70 | Food culture aspect: Visiting traditional markets | |
| 71 | Food culture aspect: Opportunities to see food cooking process | |
| 72 | Food culture aspect: Familiar ingredient affect the order | 25. Inclinations to try local food |
| 73 | Food culture aspect: Food culture familiar food like home | |
| 74 | Food culture aspect: Order based on familiar ingredient | |
| 75 | Food culture aspect: Halal food dietary law | 26. Personal beliefs relating to food consumption |
| 76 | Food culture aspect: Healthy diet | |
| 77 | Food culture aspect: Vegetarian diet | |
| 78 | Positive dining experience | 27. Overall satisfaction with local food experiences |
| 79 | Enjoyment in dining with local food | |
| 80 | Negative dining experience with local food | |
| 81 | Recommendations to others | 28. Future behavioural intentions |
| 82 | Try other Indonesian foods in the future | |
| 83 | Continue cooking Indonesian food in the future | |

Appendix 12d: QDA Process: Data Reduction – Theming Based on the Emerging Categories

| No | Category (n=28) | | Theme (n=10) |
|----|--|---|--|
| 1 | Food taste | | 1. Food quality |
| 2 | Spiciness | | |
| 3 | Flavour of the food | | |
| 4 | Freshness | | |
| 5 | Food Presentation | <p>QDA Process: Data Reduction (referred to Figure 5.4)</p> <p>Similar categories were collated and organised into one theme.</p> <p>As seen in the table, in total there were 28 categories, and the iteration process generated 10 distinct themes.</p> | 2. Hygiene standards |
| 6 | Variety of food | | |
| 7 | Food hygiene and health | | 3. Dining establishment quality |
| 8 | Place hygiene and cleanliness | | |
| 9 | Atmosphere | | 4. Staff quality |
| 10 | The Role of printed menu | | |
| 11 | Communication skills | | 5. Information search prior to the actual dining |
| 12 | Staff hospitality | | |
| 13 | Staff competence | | 6. Local food culture or foodways |
| 14 | Considerations to select | | |
| 15 | Sources of information | | 7. Authenticity |
| 16 | Methods of cooking | | |
| 17 | Perception of way of eating | | 8. Food neophilia tendency |
| 18 | Structure of the meal | | |
| 19 | Personal views related | | 9. Food neophobia tendency |
| 20 | Food authenticity | | |
| 21 | Dining establishment authenticity | | 10. Post-dining experiences |
| 22 | Familiarity with the destination and the food of the destination | | |
| 23 | Novelty seeking benefits | | |
| 24 | Social interactions with the locals | | |
| 25 | Inclinations to try local food | | |
| 26 | Personal beliefs relating to food consumption | | |
| 27 | Overall satisfaction with local food experiences | | |
| 28 | Future behavioural intentions | | |

Appendix 13: Summary of Responses of the Interview Participants

Summary of Responses towards During-Dining and Post-Dining Experiences

| Theme | Category | Informant-n | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | Total | Frequency of Response | | |
|---|--|-------------|----|----|----|----|-----|----|-----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-------|-----------------------|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | | | | |
| Food quality | Food taste | R1 | R1 | R1 | R1 | | R1 | | | R1 | | | R1 | | | | 7 | 1 | - | 6 |
| | Spiciness | R2 | | R2 | R2 | | | | | R2 | | | | | | | 4 | 1 | 3 | - |
| | Flavour of the food | R3 | | | | | | | | | | | | | R1 | | 2 | - | - | 2 |
| | Freshness | R4 | R2 | | | R1 | R2 | | | R3 | | | | | | | 6 | 3 | - | 3 |
| | Food presentation | R5 | R3 | | R3 | R2 | | | R1 | R4 | | | | R1 | | | 7 | 3 | - | 4 |
| | Variety of food | | | R3 | | | | R1 | | | | | | | | R2 | 3 | - | - | 3 |
| Hygiene standards | Food hygiene and health | R6 | | | | | | | | R5 | | | | | | R3 | 4 | 3 | 1 | - |
| | Place hygiene and cleanliness | | | | | R3 | R3 | | R3 | R7 | R1 | | | | R1 | | 8 | 4 | 1 | 3 |
| Dining establishment quality | Atmosphere | R7 | | | | | | | | R8 | R2 | R1 | | | R2 | | 5 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| | The role of printed menu in dining | | | | | | R6 | R2 | R4 | R9 | | | | | | | 4 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Staff quality | Communication skills | R8 | R4 | | | | R7 | | | R10 | | | | | | R4 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| | Staff hospitality | | | | | | R3 | | | | R3 | | R2 | | R3 | | 4 | - | - | 4 |
| | Staff competence | R9 | | | | | R9 | R4 | | | | | | | R4 | | 4 | - | - | 4 |
| Information search prior to the actual dining | Considerations to select the place of dining | | | | | | | | | | | R2 | | | R5 | R5 | 3 | - | - | 3 |
| | Sources of information sought related to dining | R10 | | | | | R10 | | R5 | | | | R3 | | | | 4 | - | - | 4 |
| Local food culture or foodways | Methods of cooking | R11 | | | R4 | | R11 | R5 | R6 | | | | | R2 | | | 6 | 3 | - | 3 |
| | Perception of the way of eating | | | | | | | | | R11 | | | | | | R6 | 2 | 1 | - | 1 |
| | Structure of the meal | | R5 | | R5 | | | | | | | | | | | R7 | 3 | 2 | 1 | - |
| | Personal views related to dining | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | R8 | 1 | - | 1 | - |
| Authenticity | Food authenticity | | | R4 | R6 | | | | R7 | R12 | | | | R3 | | | 5 | - | - | 5 |
| | Dining establishment authenticity | R12 | | | | | | R6 | R8 | R13 | | R3 | | | | R9 | 6 | 1 | - | 5 |
| Food neophilia tendency | Familiarity with the destination and the food of the destination | R13 | R6 | | | R5 | R12 | | R9 | R10 | | | R4 | R4 | | | 8 | - | - | 8 |
| | Novelty seeking benefits | | | | | | | | | | | | | | R6 | R10 | 2 | - | - | 2 |
| | Social interactions with the locals | R14 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | R11 | 3 | - | - | 3 |
| Food neophobia tendency | Inclinations to try local food | | | | | R6 | R13 | | | | | | | | | | 2 | 1 | 1 | - |
| | Personal beliefs relating to food consumption | | | | | | R14 | | R11 | | | R5 | | | R7 | | 4 | 1 | 3 | - |
| Post-dining experiences | Overall satisfaction with local food experiences | R15 | | R5 | | | | | R12 | | R4 | | R5 | R5 | | | 9 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| | Future behavioural intentions | | R8 | | | | R15 | | | R14 | | | R7 | R7 | R8 | R13 | 7 | - | - | 7 |

Note:

 Negative or less favourable response
 Neutral response
 Positive response or favourable response

Appendix 14: Certificate of CAUTHE Best PhD Paper Award for the 23rd CAUTHE Conference 2013



CAUTHE BEST PHD PAPER AWARD

IS AWARDED TO

Serli Wijaya

PAPER TITLED:
INTERNATIONAL VISITOR ENCOUNTERS WITH LOCAL FOOD: A
PRELIMINARY CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

14 FEBRUARY 2013



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