



**THE UNIVERSITY OF QUEENSLAND**  
AUSTRALIA

**Food Tourism: Consumer Behaviour in Relation to Traditional Food**

Fu-Chieh Hsu

*A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at*

*The University of Queensland in 2014*

Business School

## **Abstract**

Traditionally, sun, sea, and sand are the major reasons why tourists travel, however, in post-modern tourism, tourism products are no longer restricted by these types of natural resources. In order to extend the tourism life cycle and to attract more inbound tourists from overseas, more and more niche markets are developing. One such market that has been highlighted recently is food tourism. Over the past two decades, food tourism is emerging as an area of practical interest for both the host country and tourists as food is an inevitable experience at the travel destination. Food, unlike other natural resources can be provided year-round by utilizing local ingredients. For destination managers there is a need to develop a sense of regional distinctiveness and to maintain the local cultural traditions of their regions. For tourists, food provides the tourists with a novel experience and the chance to become more deeply involved in the local culture and traditions.

Accordingly, because of the benefits of food tourism, it has also created interest among scholars to investigate in greater depth. However, even though the study of tourism is increasing, research issues and topics are still somewhat limited. At this stage, there is still a lack of research regarding the tourist's traditional food consumption behaviour. In redressing this omission, this study examines consumer choice behaviour of traditional Taiwanese foods. The specific objectives of this study are to: firstly, explore the food choice behaviour in relation to traditional food; secondly, to examine the impact of personality traits on tourists' traditional food choice behaviour. After a review of the literature, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was selected to help explain tourists' traditional food buying behaviour. This theory of TPB was used as it explained human's behaviour from the perspective of the attitude-behaviour relationship and allows the researcher to conduct empirically based research. Furthermore, personality traits have been regarded as an important factor that influences people's food choice behaviour. Therefore, in order to examine the influence of food tourism, two personality traits, food neophobia and sensation-seeking have been examined in this study.

A quantitative research study design was adopted which was based on the postpositivism paradigm. A pilot survey was conducted in Australia involving 149 respondents to confirm the

validity and reliability of the six scales used in the pilot study. As a result, the final questionnaire consisted of a total of 44 items in six different scales and two open-ended questions. The final survey was conducted using face-to-face interviews in Taiwan, with Caucasian tourists using a convenience sampling design. This resulted in 389 completed questionnaires. SPSS version 21 and AMOS version 21 were employed to analyse the numeric data and to test the hypotheses. Statistical techniques used with the pilot survey data included item analysis, reliability, and exploratory factor analysis. For the final survey, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also used to examine the effect of socio-demographic variables while structural equation modelling was used in conjunction with a confirmatory factor analysis, as well as inferential and moderating effect analyses.

Findings from this study revealed that the Theory of Planned Behaviour provided feasible explanations for traditional food consumption behaviour of tourists. In other words, attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control all significantly contributed to the prediction of purchase intention of traditional Taiwanese food. This study also found that the personality trait of food neophobia had a significant negative relationship with traditional food purchase intention. However, it is interesting to note that the sensation seeking personality trait did not appear to be significant. This study also examined the moderating effect of food neophobia and the sensation seeking personality trait using the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Results found that food neophobia was a moderator of the relationship between attitude-purchase intention and subjective norm-purchase intention. However, sensation seeking was neither a predictor nor a moderator of the intention to purchase traditional foods.

Results from the open-ended questions found that the major reasons to purchase traditional Taiwanese food was associated with “new experiences”, “good reputation”, “affordable price”, and “cultural exchange”. The reasons for not trying traditional Taiwanese food was ascribed to “unfamiliar ingredients”, “food poisoning”, “unsanitary environment”, and “language barrier”. This study provided evidence that one of the effective ways to understand tourists’ traditional food buying behaviour is from the perspectives of both attitude-behaviour relationships and personality.

**Declaration by author**

This thesis is composed of my original work, and contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference has been made in the text. I have clearly stated the contribution by others to jointly-authored works that I have included in my thesis.

I have clearly stated the contribution of others to my thesis as a whole, including statistical assistance, survey design, data analysis, significant technical procedures, professional editorial advice, and any other original research work used or reported in my thesis. The content of my thesis is the result of work I have carried out since the commencement of my research higher degree candidature and does not include a substantial part of work that has been submitted to qualify for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution. I have clearly stated which parts of my thesis, if any, have been submitted to qualify for another award.

I acknowledge that an electronic copy of my thesis must be lodged with the University Library and, subject to the General Award Rules of The University of Queensland, immediately made available for research and study in accordance with the *Copyright Act 1968*.

I acknowledge that copyright of all material contained in my thesis resides with the copyright holder(s) of that material.

**Publications during candidature**

Hsu, F. C., Scott, N., & Robinson, R. (2013, February). *Understanding tourists' purchase intention towards traditional Taiwanese food: The role of sensation seeking*. Paper presented at CAUTHE 2013, Christchurch, New Zealand.

**Publications included in this thesis**

“No publications included”.

**Contributions by others to the thesis**

“No contributions by others.”

**Statement of parts of the thesis submitted to qualify for the award of another degree**

“None”.

## **Acknowledgement**

Every journey, regardless whether big and small, has its own challenges and hurdles. As I approach the final days of my academic journey, I think and reflect upon all those good and challenging moments that I had to face within the last three and a half years of my life. I would definitely agree that this journey would not have been possible if I had not had the support of my supervisors, mentors, fellow colleagues, family and friends. The guidance and the encouragement has definitely been a big part of my motivation and dedication. Therefore, I would like to sincerely extend my gratitude to all who have helped me achieve this.

Foremost, I would like to acknowledge the care and guidance of my supervisory panel. I thank Associate professor Noel Scott for his continuous support towards my study and research. His patience, enthusiasm, and immense knowledge always gave me a clear direction when I could not see the way. I would also like to thank Dr. Richard Robinson, for his expertise and useful critiques. Associate professor Noel Scott and Dr. Richard Robinson have been like mentors to me, and I do consider myself extremely fortunate to have them as my supervisors.

Along with the supervisory board, I would like to thank my Thesis committee: Dr. David Solnet, Dr. Karen Hughes and Dr. Shane Pegg for their ongoing encouragement, insightful comments, constructive questions and valuable discussions. The staff members of the schools of Tourism and Business of The University of Queensland have been equally supportive and I would like to thank them for all their help as well.

My Fellow RHD members: Sammy, Vicky, Grace, Kuan, Jaki, Lynn, Marcus, Lavender, Hiro, Romina, Hayato, Riery, Hamed, Lintje, Marisol and Maya. I thank each and every one of you for your stimulating discussions and encouragement. I would also like to thank you all for sharing your sense of humour when I needed it most and making this journey filled with fun and laughter.

I would also like to acknowledge the support of my family members. I cannot express my gratitude towards my parents for their immense love and guidance. It would have been

impossible for me to even start this journey without the backup they provided me. My brother and sister-in-law have been very understanding and I thank you both for your immense faith in me. Each and every member of my family have supported my ambitions and allowed me to pursue my own career path.

Lastly, I would like to thank the friendships that I have made and maintained in Australia and Taiwan. Carina, Can, Jimmy, Martin and Abhinav have been the solution to my emotional pressures with their sympathy and understanding. I would also like to thank all my other friends for the good and fun-loving times that we have shared.

I would also like to thank two very special people in my life. My grandfathers on both my mother's and father's side have been an inspiration to me, not only during my PHD, but throughout my life. They have shaped me to become the person I am both mentally and spiritually. Their blessings and love encouraged me to begin my PHD, be motivated and to finally succeed in completing it. Unfortunately, they passed away during my study and could not witness my achievement. To honor the great men that you were, I would like to dedicate my entire thesis to you both and thank you from the bottom of my heart.

**Key words:** food tourism, food neophobia, traditional food, sensation-seeking, theory of planned behaviour

**Australian and New Zealand Standard Research Classifications (ANZSRC)**

ANZSRC code: 150604 Tourism Marketing, 10%

ANZSRC code: 150606 Tourist Behaviour and Visitor Experience, 90%

**Fields of Research (FoR) Classification**

FoR code: 1506, Tourism, 100%

## Table of Contents

<b>Abstract</b> .....	<b>ii</b>
<b>Acknowledgement</b> .....	<b>vi</b>
<b>List of Tables</b> .....	<b>xi</b>
<b>List of Figures</b> .....	<b>xiv</b>
<b>Table of Abbreviations</b> .....	<b>xv</b>
<b>Chapter 1. Introduction</b> .....	<b>- 1 -</b>
1.1 Background to the Study.....	- 1 -
1.2 Statement of research problem.....	- 3 -
1.3 Theoretical Framework.....	- 6 -
1.4 Research Questions and Hypotheses .....	- 8 -
1.4.1 Research Aims .....	- 8 -
1.4.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses .....	- 8 -
1.5 Key Definitions Used in this Study .....	- 10 -
1.6 Contribution of this Research .....	- 12 -
1.7 Outline of this Thesis .....	- 13 -
1.8 Summary and conclusions .....	- 14 -
<b>Chapter 2. Review of literature</b> .....	<b>1</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	1
2.2 Food Tourism.....	1
2.2.1 What is food tourism?.....	1
2.2.2 Who are food tourists?.....	4
2.2.3 Research on food tourism .....	6
2.3 Food choice models and theories.....	13
2.4 Moderator Variables .....	30
2.5 Sensation-seeking .....	31
2.5.1 Who is a sensation-seeker?.....	32
2.5.2 Sensation-Seeking Research .....	33
2.6 Food neophobia.....	36
2.6.1 The concept of food neophobia.....	36
2.6.2 Food neophobia research .....	37
2.7 The moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia .....	39
2.8 Sociological influence on food choice.....	40
2.9 The Selection of research site–Taiwan .....	41
2.10 Conceptual framework.....	43



2.11 Conclusion .....	45
<b>Chapter 3. Methodology .....</b>	<b>46</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	46
3.2 Research Paradigm.....	46
3.3 Research strategy .....	48
3.4 Research design .....	49
3.5 Sampling procedure and sample size.....	51
3.5.1 Subjects .....	51
3.5.2 Sampling method .....	52
3.5.3 Sample Size.....	53
3.6 Questionnaire design.....	54
3.6.1 Measurement of sensation-seeking.....	54
3.6.2 Food neophobia scale (FNS).....	57
3.6.3 Attitudes toward Taiwanese food .....	58
3.6.4 Subjective norm scale .....	60
3.6.5 Perceived behavioural control.....	62
3.6.6 Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention scale .....	63
3.6.7 Open-ended question .....	65
3.7 Method of analysis.....	65
3.7.1 Analysis methods for the pilot survey .....	66
3.7.2 Major study analysis .....	68
3.7.3 Analysis method of the open-ended question .....	78
3.8 Pilot survey .....	79
3.8.1 Profile of responses of pilot survey .....	80
3.8.2 Data collection .....	81
3.9 Ethical issues.....	83
3.10 Conclusion .....	83
<b>Chapter 4. Results .....</b>	<b>84</b>
4.1 Introduction.....	84
4.2 Result of pilot survey .....	84
4.3 Main study .....	95
4.3.1 Study sample demographics .....	95
4.3.2 Descriptive analysis of each measure .....	96
4.3.3 Hypotheses testing .....	100
4.3.4 Correlation between the constructs (hypotheses 6, 7, and 8).....	115
4.3.5 Moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia to the theory of planned behaviour and the relationship with purchase intention of Taiwanese traditional food (hypotheses 9 to 16) .....	127
4.3.6 Results of the open-ended questions of this study.....	148

4.3.7 Summary of the findings.....	149
<b>Chapter 5. ....</b>	<b>150</b>
5.1 Discussion of the findings for research question 1: demographic influences.....	150
5.2 Discussion of research question 2: predictor - outcome relationships.....	154
5.3 Discussion of research question 3: moderating effect of food neophobia and sensation seeking .....	157
5.3.1 Moderating effect of food neophobia .....	157
5.3.2 Moderating effect of sensation seeking .....	160
5.4 Implications.....	161
5.4.1 Implications for theory.....	161
5.4.2 Implications for food tourism practice/ practitioners and marketing.....	163
5.5 Recommendations for future research .....	165
5.6 Limitations of this study .....	167
5.7 Final concluding comments .....	168
<b>References .....</b>	<b>169</b>
<b>Appendix A. Taiwanese Traditional Food Images.....</b>	<b>185</b>
<b>Appendix B. Questionnaire .....</b>	<b>191</b>
<b>Appendix C. Ethical Clearance approval letter .....</b>	<b>196</b>
<b>Appendix D. Research Project Information Sheet.....</b>	<b>197</b>
<b>Appendix E. Sensation-seeking research .....</b>	<b>199</b>
<b>Appendix F. Food neophobia study.....</b>	<b>203</b>

## List of Tables

Table 2-1: Definition of food tourism.....	4
Table 2-2: Six different issues in food tourism.....	10
Table 2-3: The application of the theory of planned behaviour in the tourism context.....	28
Table 2-4: Description of Taiwanese traditional food .....	43
Table 3-1: Philosophic elements of worldviews/paradigms .....	48
Table 3-2: Number of tourists from western countries to Taiwan.....	53
Table 3-4 : Attitudes scales adopted in this study from previous research.....	59
Table 3-5: Subjective norm scales adopted by this study from previous research .....	61
Table 3-6: PBC scales adopted in this study from previous research.....	63
Table 3-7: Intention scales adopted in this study from previous research .....	64
Table 3-8: Accepted rule of thumb for describing internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha.	67
Table 3-9: Fit indices for structural equation modelling .....	74
Table 3-3: Demographic of respondent profiles from the pilot survey .....	81
Table 4-1: Attitude scale pilot survey (item analysis) .....	85
Table 4-2: Subjective norm scale pilot survey (item analysis) .....	85
Table 4-3: Perceived behavioural control scale pilot survey (item analysis) .....	86
Table 4-4: Purchase intention scale pilot survey (item analysis).....	87
Table 4-5: Sensation-seeking scale pilot survey (item analysis) .....	87
Table 4-6 : Food neophobia scale pilot survey (item analysis) .....	88
Table 4-7: Attitude scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis).....	89
Table 4-8: Subjective norm scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis) .....	90
Table 4-9: Perceived behavioural control scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis).....	91
Table 4-10: Purchase intention scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis) .....	91
Table 4-11: Sensation-seeking scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis).....	93
Table 4-12: Food neophobia scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis).....	94
Table 4-13: Demographic of respondent profiles .....	96
Table 4-14: Descriptive analysis of sensation-seeking .....	97
Table 4-15: descriptive analysis of food neophobia .....	98
Table 4-16: Descriptive analysis of attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food.....	98
Table 4-17: Descriptive analysis of the subjective norm.....	99

Table 4-18: Descriptive analysis of perceived behavioural control.....	100
Table 4-19: Descriptive analysis of purchase intention toward Taiwanese traditional food.....	100
Table 4-20: Variations in sensation-Seeking, food neophobia, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention of males and females.....	101
Table 4-21: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention among different nationalities .....	102
Table 4-22: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention among different educational groups .....	103
Table 4-23: Mean score in the attitude and purchase intention scale among different educational groups.....	104
Table 4-24: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, purchase intention among different income groups .....	105
Table 4-25: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention among different age groups .....	106
Table 4-26: Variations in sensation-seeking among different groups of nationalities .....	107
Table 4-27: Variations in sensation-seeking among different educational groups.....	108
Table 4-28: Variations in sensation-seeking among different groups of family income.....	109
Table 4-29: Variations in sensation-seeking among different age groups.....	110
Table 4-30: Variations in food neophobia among different groups of nationalities.....	112
Table 4-31: Variations in food neophobia among different educational groups .....	113
Table 4-32: Variations in food neophobia among different groups of family income. ....	114
Table 4-33: Variations in food neophobia among different age groups. ....	115
Table 4-34: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for attitude (N=389) .....	116
Table 4-35: Goodness-of-fit measures for the measurement model for attitude (N=389) .....	117
Table 4-36: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for subjective norm (N=389).....	118
Table 4-37: Goodness-of-fit measures for the measurement model for subjective norm.....	119
Table 4-38: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for perceived behavioural control (N=389).....	120

Table 4-39: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for perceived behavioural control (N=389).....	120
Table 4-40: Examination of the normality of input data.....	122
Table 4-41: Goodness-of-fit indices for the structural model (N=389).....	123
Table 4-42: Results of the internal fit of measurement.....	125
Table 4-43: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389).....	130
Table 4-44: Goodness-of-fit measures of first order of CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389) .....	130
Table 4-45: Factor loading of second order of CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389) .....	132
Table 4-46: Goodness-of-fit measures of second order CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389) .....	132
Table 4-47: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389).....	135
Table 4-48: Goodness-of-fit measures of first order CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389).....	136
Table 4-49: Factor loading of second order of CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389).....	137
Table 4-50: Goodness-of-fit measures of second order CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389).....	138
Table 4-51: Examination of the normality of input data (N=389).....	139
Table 4-52: Results of the internal fit of measurement (sensation-seeking) .....	141
Table 4-53: Results of the internal fit of measurement (food neophobia).....	142

## List of Figures

Figure 1-1: Theoretical framework of this study .....	- 7 -
Figure 2-1: Consumer behaviour model with respect to food .....	16
Figure 2-2: Food preference model.....	17
Figure 2-3: Food choice process model .....	18
Figure 2-4: The theory of reasoned action .....	22
Figure 2-5: The theory of planned behaviour .....	23
Figure 2-6: Conceptual framework of this study .....	44
Figure 3-1: Research process of this study .....	50
Figure 3-2: The data analysis procedure of the pilot survey.....	68
Figure 3-3: Measurement and structural model .....	71
Figure 3-4: Seven-stage processes for structural equation modelling .....	72
Figure 3-5: Framework of the moderator effect .....	76
Figure 3-6: Framework of moderating effects of this study .....	77
Figure 3-7: The data analysis procedure of this study .....	79
Figure 4-1: Standardized estimates of theory of planned behaviour model .....	126
Figure 4-2: Standardized estimates of first order CFA of sensation-seeking .....	129
Figure 4-3: Standardized estimates of Second order CFA model for sensation-seeking .....	133
Figure 4-4: Standardized estimates of first order CFA model for food neophobia .....	136
Figure 4-5: Standardized estimates of second order CFA model for food neophobia.....	138
Figure 4-6: Discriminant validity model for the sensation-seeking scale.....	144
Figure 4-7: Discriminant validity model for the food neophobia scale .....	145
Figure 4-8: Framework of the moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia .....	147
Figure 4-9: Standardized estimates of moderating effect model .....	147
Figure 5-1: Moderating effect of food neophobia on the “Attitude-Purchase” intention relationship.....	159
Figure 5-2: Moderating effect of food neophobia on the “subjective norm-purchase intention” relationship.....	160

## Table of Abbreviations

<b>UNESCO</b>	<b>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization</b>
<b>TPB</b>	Theory of planned behaviour
<b>TRA</b>	Theory of reasoned action
<b>OLA</b>	Optimal level of arousal
<b>OLS</b>	Optimal level of stimulation
<b>SSS</b>	Sensation-seeking scale
<b>CR</b>	Composite reliability
<b>AVE</b>	Average variance extracted
<b>ATT</b>	Attitude
<b>SUB</b>	Subjective norm
<b>PBC</b>	Perceived behavioural control
<b>PUI</b>	Purchase intention
<b>SS</b>	Sensation seeking
<b>FNP</b>	Food neophobia

# **Chapter 1. Introduction**

## **1.1 Background to the Study**

Due to ever-increasing competition in tourism, many countries are now seeking to develop new resources to attract a greater number of inbound tourists to local destinations (Sanchez-Canizares & Lopez-Guzman, 2012). Conventionally, “Sun, Sea, Sand, and Sex” have been the major pursuits for tourists (Hobson & Dietrich, 1995). However, such leisure activities may be restricted by the season and the weather. Destination managers are keen to develop new attractions to their destinations. Food is a resource that has been highlighted recently which has been focused suitable to improve a destination’s attraction (Crotts & Kivela, 2009).

Food is a basic daily need of human life. In the physiological sense, food is a base requirement for human survival. However, food may play a greater role than just in maintaining life especially in the context of tourism (Tikkanen, 2007). Food is not only a functional component of a trip, but can also be highly experiential, sensual, symbolic and ritualistic (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). In some instances, food is regarded as an essential part of the travel experience as it provides tourists with memorable and agreeable pastimes (Sanchez-Canizares & Lopez-Guzman, 2012). In some sense, “every tourist is a voyeuring gourmand” (Lacy & Douglass, 2002, p. 8). Many tourists also seek something different from their everyday life when travelling, and this may include the taste of exotic food. Gastronomy, like the fashion and design industries, is an expression of art and through culinary products and dining experiences, consumer identities are enhanced and expressed (Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009).

The influential role of local food for tourists has been a focus for governments, researchers, and the tourism industry since the 1990s (du Rand & Heath, 2006) and studies specifically on food tourism are increasing. More and more, the importance of developing food tourism has been identified in the literature, as food consumption has been found to have a major economic benefit on destinations. It has been estimated that when travelling, tourists tended to spend more than one-third of their budget on food and beverages (Boyne, Hall, & Williams, 2003; Meler & Cerovic, 2003)). In one study, nearly 60 per cent of respondents claimed that restaurants at a



particular travel destination were important in their decision-making process (Sparks, Bowen, & Klag, 2003). Consequently, the provision of local or regional food specialties have now been recognized as a significant growth niche, as it provides tourists with authentic, memorable and exotic experiences for which they are willing to pay extra (Smith & Costello, 2009).

Food has also been identified as a cultural attraction for some tourists. Culture is multifaceted, and food is one of its key components (Rand, Heath, & Alberts, 2003). Food serves as a mechanism for cultural exchange, allowing tourists to become more deeply involved in local customs and to gain a better understanding of the unique features of a specific culture (Marsh, Hau, Balla, & Grayson, 1998). More importantly, food is involved in the unique customs of a region, and buying and consuming domestic food produce can mean a sharing of the local culture (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000). In light of this, food tourism is considered as a subset of cultural tourism, as cuisine is a manifestation of culture (International Culinary Tourism Association, 2006), that combines the community's or the culture's food with demonstrations for tourists in the form of festivals, rituals, narratives or other aspects of cultural expression (Horng & Tsai, 2010).

Previous research related to food tourism has indicated that local food products can help the sustainability of tourism in a region. More specifically, it contributes to brand identity, enhances destination attraction, and also keeps money in the region by avoiding the importation of expensive foreign food (Sims, 2009). Local food and drink is regarded as important for those who want to experience the local culture and tradition. Moreover, their provision enables a region to create a distinctive identity (Torres, 2002). For example, rural areas can be promoted through food and drink related images. In the tourism industry, marketers are always looking for niche products with a view to fulfilling their own interests whilst meeting the needs and wants of the tourist. Food tourism is a feasible alternative to other natural resources (e.g., the environment) and can be provided on a year-round basis without being affected by the weather (Kivela & Crofts, 2006). Food tourism is likely to provide a potential competitive advantage as well as it is a key element in the branding of a country or destination by marketers (Henderson, 2009). Hence, local food and cuisine have assumed ever-increasing importance in differentiating and promoting specific tourist destinations (Horng & Tsai, 2010).

Food is an essential part of a trip enhancing the total experience in a positive way. One of the major functions of a destination's food industry from a tourism perspective is to provide the experiences and feelings that tourists perceive they should have on their trip (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). Food consumption plays an indispensable role in shaping the total tourist experience. Even though the pursuit of culinary experiences may not be the major motive for people to travel, such experiences are crucial to tourists' overall trip satisfaction (Xiao & Smith, 2008). Food, accommodation and transport are usually viewed as supporting experiences during a trip; however, the whole travel experience may 'go sour' because of dissatisfaction with the available food. By contrast, supporting experiences such as enjoyment in eating exotic food, in certain circumstances, may turn into a peak experience (Quan & Wang, 2004).

The relationship between tourism, food, and gastronomy is becoming closer (Boyne et al., 2003). Through analysing and discussing the different perspectives outlined above, the importance, benefits, and necessities of developing food tourism have been identified. It is clear that food is an important component of tourist destination promotion world-wide (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000) as well as a useful attraction for certain visitors (Hegarty & Barry, 2001; Henderson, 2009). However, although the literature supports the idea that food tourism is needed both by host countries and tourists, there is a need for further research on food tourism and its relationship with tourist behaviour (Henderson, 2009).

## **1.2 Statement of research problem**

As noted in the previous section, food-related activities are essential to a destination. In many cases, dining out experiences, sampling local food, and purchasing regional food products contribute to the holistic experience and may even serve as a major attraction. In light of this, food tourism studies are of great interest to researchers and have been a significant growth in recent years. They have examined issues such as the classification of food tourists, the feasibility of food tourism, food as a tourist experience, the influence of food tourism on the local economy and branding, and food tourism as a promotional resource (Au & Law, 2002; Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Ignatov & Smith, 2006; Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Mitchell & Hall, 2003). Nevertheless, the study of food tourism still represents an immature area of research (Pollard, Kirk, & Cade, 2002).

One of the important issues which is seldom discussed in the food tourism field is the tourists' food choice behaviour at a travel destination. Mitchell and Hall (2003) were the first to draw attention to this issue calling for more research. "Existing studies on consumption of local food and beverages at a destination is at an early stage and as such, is still establishing its basic tenets" (Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009, p. 423).

An understanding consumer behaviour is the first step to establish appropriate marketing strategies included destination positioning. From a marketer's viewpoint, in an highly competitive marketing environment, consumer research provides an effective way to target and discover the real needs and wants of potential consumers (Kanuk & Schiffman, 2004). Understanding consumer buying behaviour is a vital task of marketing management (Kotler, 2008), and in a tourism context, consumer behaviour underpins all market activities. Through an understanding of consumer behaviour patterns, marketers may determine the best timing for their promotions, be able to better design products to cater for consumers' needs, and to persuade them to buy certain products (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2007). Understanding consumer behaviour patterns is similarly vital in food tourism. Thus, further research into consumer and food choice behaviour in food tourism will provide opportunities for marketers and regulators to develop more appropriate products for tourists.

In the study of consumer behaviour and food choice, personality traits are important in explaining and predicting behaviour and influencing food-buying behaviour (Byrnes & Hayes, 2013). Food choice is a complex process, and apart from food-related factors, personal factors (including personality traits) also play an essential role in the decision making process (Eertmans, Victoir, Vansant, & Van den Bergh, 2005). Personal interests and traits are important criteria which affects food choice decisions (Chen, 2007). Hence, when people express food adventurousness or pickiness, they are selecting different food styles which are influenced in part by their personality traits (Furst, Connors, Bisogni, Sobal, & Falk, 1996). Marketers seek to categorize their customers into groups that share similar traits. Thus, personality is a useful concept in marketing positioning and segmentation (Kanuk & Schiffman, 2004). Furthermore, personality has been shown to be a vital determinant of why individuals buy specific products or services (Montgomery, 2008).

However, despite the fact that personality helps researchers to understand consumption patterns and preferences, little is known about its significance and relationship to consumer behaviour (Chen, 2007; Montgomery, 2008). Research into the relationship between personality and food choice behaviour is even less developed (Kim, Suh, & Eves, 2010). Although, some decision frameworks have indicated that personality traits are an important element in terms of the tourists' local food consumption behaviour, they have not been previously used in empirical studies. A study Kim et al. (2009) used a grounded theory approach to explore influential factors and confirmed that personality traits are important in influencing tourists' food consumption behaviour, and also called for further research. Similarly, a study by Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang (2012) has provided theoretical support for personality traits as a factor which influenced tourists' food consumption, but again there was no empirical evidence. This study therefore responds to a need for further empirical research to explore how personality traits influence tourists' local food consumption behaviour.

In the food choice context, neophobia is a concept specifically related to food-related personality traits (Eertmans et al., 2005). Neophobia is a tendency for some people to avoid new types of food, and provides one reason why people's attitudes towards food varies. Given this tendency, individuals can be categorized as having neophobia which is a key indicator (Kim et al., 2010). Food neophobia serves as a mechanism protecting humans from potential physical harm, but also restricts the development of new food products and flavours (Altisent, Jaeger, Johnston, & Harker, 2013).

Sensation-seeking is another personality trait that has been widely discussed and used to explain people's behaviour (Montmany et al., 2004). In the tourism context, the sensation-seeking trait can be utilized as an effective predictor to explain tourists' behaviour and attitudes (Galloway, Mitchell, Getz, Crouch, & Ong, 2007). Accordingly, this concept has also been regarded as a useful explanation for people's food choice behaviour (Byrnes & Hayes, 2013). For example, studies by Galloway et al and Montmany et al (2007; 2004) confirm that there is a relationship between sensation-seeking behaviour and the consumption of local food. In light of this, the sensation-seeking is regarded as an explanation for many behaviour traits in tourists and may also provide a feasible explanation for tourists' traditional food-buying behaviour.

In summary, there is a gap in the food tourism research literature concerning the consumer and food choice behaviour in relation to traditional food, and how personality traits can influence tourists' buying behaviour. In order to address this gap, a review of the literature has been conducted to discuss the existing food choice behaviour models and clarify the theoretical relationship between food neophobia, sensation-seeking, and traditional food purchase intention. The next section discusses the theoretical structure of this research.

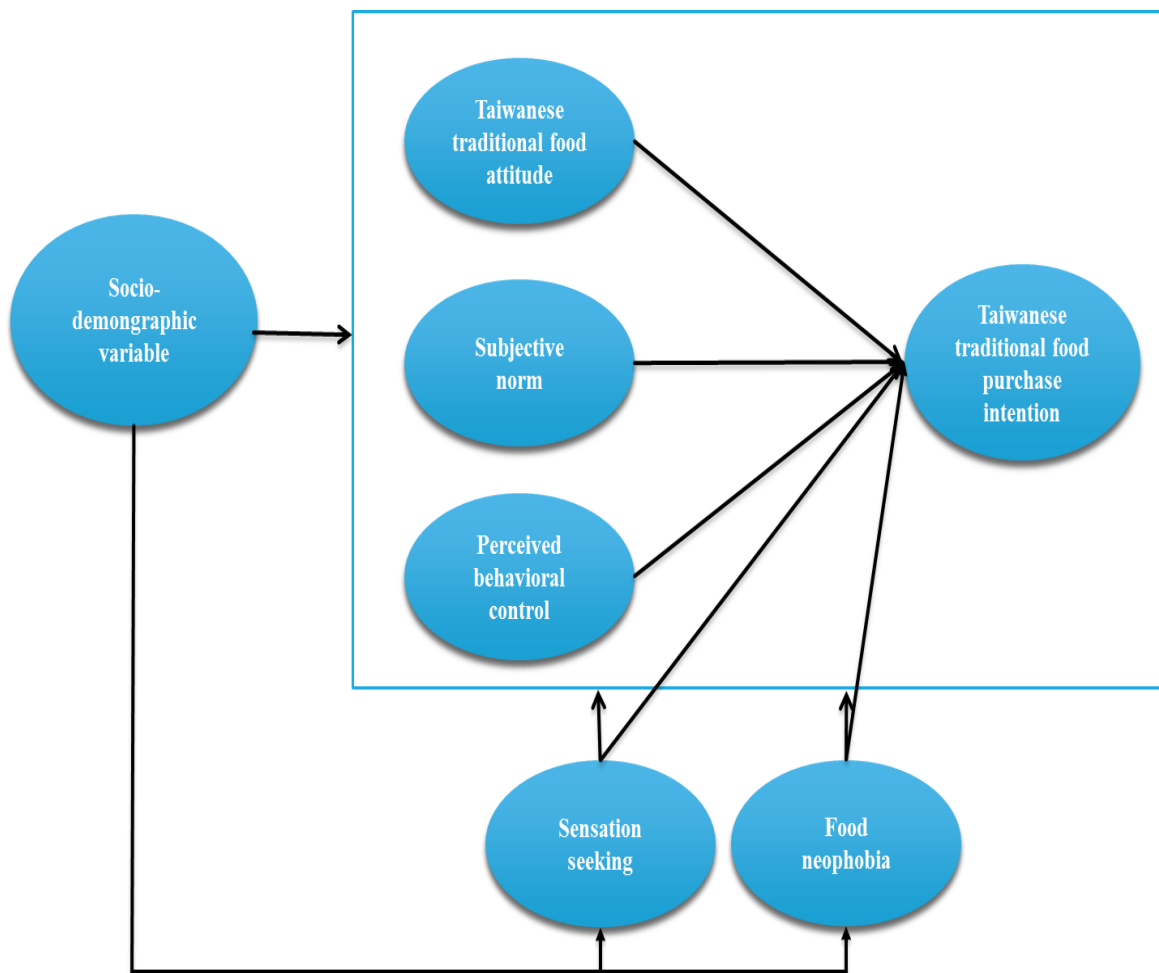
### **1.3 Theoretical Framework**

This study aims to gain a better understanding of tourists' local food choice behaviour in a travel situation. To this end, it involves the theoretical and empirical examination of tourists' traditional food buying behaviour in a travel situation, and the influential role of personality traits during this process. Tourism is a discipline without exact boundaries. In order to search for an understanding of tourism, the researcher needs to transcend many disciplinary boundaries as the study of tourism is related to many different disciplines (Jafari, 1981). This study therefore, reviews the consumer behaviour theory, as well as utilises concepts and theories from a wide number of disciplines including psychology, sociology, social psychology and marketing. Generally, there are many existing consumer behaviour models such as by Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard Model (2006), the Black Box Model (Kotler, 2008), and the Howard-Sheth Model (1969). Nevertheless, although these models have been validated and can be used to explain most consumption situations, it should be noted that food choice is a multifaceted decision which incorporates specific food behaviour (Sobal & Bisogni, 2009). Food and drink choices are among the most frequent human behaviours, yet they are also a complex process as they involve and are determined by many different factors (Köster, 2009).

This study therefore aims to develop a model which is specifically constructed to explain consumer's food choice behaviour. Food choice behaviour has been discussed using many different disciplines ranging from biology to anthropology interact in complex ways to influence the development of food choice (Marion Nestle et al., 2009). However, although these models may reveal potential factors that influence people's food choice behaviour, few of them actually provide the likely mechanisms for action. In other words, such models lack the ability to predict food choice behaviour. On the other hand, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985)

provides an approach for researchers to study food choice (Shepherd, 1999). As the theory of planned behaviour reveals the attitudes-behaviours relationship, tourists' behavioural intentions can be effectively predicted through its application. Thus, it is used in this paper to examine and evaluate consumers' traditional food-buying behaviour when they are travelling.

In addition, among the factors influencing people's food-buying behaviour, personality traits are believed to be an effective predictor of behaviour (Eertmans et al., 2005). Thus, the food related personality traits of food neophobia and sensation-seeking have been selected for examination as the moderators that influence consumers' buying behaviour in relation to traditional food from Taiwan. The above discussion concerning the theoretical framework has been developed and underpins this investigation and is depicted in Figure 1.1.



**Figure 1-1: Theoretical framework of this study**  
**Source: Developed for this study**

## **1.4 Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The purpose of this study is to explore consumer behaviour in relation to the consumption of traditional foods while travelling to an overseas destination, and to identify the effects of tourist's personality traits (sensation-seeking and food neophobia) on tourist's purchase intentions concerning traditional food in Taiwan. The specific research aims, questions, and hypotheses are:

### **1.4.1 Research Aims**

1. To better understand tourist's purchase intentions concerning Taiwanese traditional food by applying the theory of planned behaviour.
2. To explore the key factors that influence tourists' purchase intentions concerning traditional food, including three predictors (attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls), as well as personality traits factors (sensation-seeking and food neophobia).
3. To identify the moderating effect of personality traits (sensation-seeking and food neophobia) on the relationships between three predictors (attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) and an outcome variable (purchase intention).

### **1.4.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses**

1. Are the tourists' sensation-seeking personality traits, food neophobia, attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intentions significantly different based on the social-demographic variables?
  - Hypothesis 1: Tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different depending on gender.
  - Hypothesis 2: Tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, tourist attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different depending on nationality.
  - Hypothesis 3: Tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, tourist attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and

Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different depending on education.

- Hypothesis 4: Tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, tourist attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different depending on family income.
- Hypothesis 5: Tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, tourist attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different depending on age.

2. Is there a significant connection between the tourist's attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, food neophobia and sensation-seeking and the Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention?

- Hypothesis 6: Attitude has a significantly positive correlation to the purchase intention.
- Hypothesis 7: Subjective norm has a significantly positive correlation to the purchase intention.
- Hypothesis 8: Perceived behavioural control has a significantly positive correlation to the purchase intention.
- Hypothesis 9: Sensation-seeking has a significantly positive correlation to the purchase intention.
- Hypothesis 10: Food neophobia has a significantly negative correlation to the purchase intention.

3. Would the relationship between the tourist's attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention be moderated by the concepts of sensation-seeking and food neophobia?

- Hypothesis 11: Sensation-seeking has positive effect on the relationship between the tourist's attitude and purchase intention. More specifically, when high sensation-seeking tourists have more positive attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention increase.
- Hypothesis 12: Sensation-seeking has positive effect on the relationship between the subjective norm of the Taiwanese food and purchase intention. More specifically, when



high sensation-seeking tourists suffer more peer pressure of trying Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention increase.

- Hypothesis 13: Sensation-seeking has positive effect on the relationship between the perceived behavioural control of Taiwanese food and purchase intention. More specifically, when high sensation-seeking tourists feel less difficulty to buy, try, and sample the Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention increase.
- Hypothesis 14: Food neophobia has positive effect on the relationship between the attitudes toward Taiwanese food and purchase intention. More specifically, when low food neophobia tourists have more positive attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention increase.
- Hypothesis 15: Food neophobia has positive effect on the relationship between the subjective normality of the Taiwanese food and purchase intention. More specifically, when low food neophobia tourists suffer more peer pressure of trying Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention increase.
- Hypothesis 16: Food neophobia has positive effect on the relationship between the perceived behavioural control of Taiwanese food and purchase intention. More specifically, when low food neophobia tourists feel less difficulty to buy, try, and sample the Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention increase.

## **1.5 Key Definitions Used in this Study**

The definitions of key concepts are important. The main variables and key terms adopted in this thesis are defined as follows:

### ***Food tourism***

Culinary tourism is any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources. In other words culinary tourism is an international and reflective encounter with any culture including one's own through culinary resources (Xiao & Smith, 2008, p. 289)

### ***Food tourists***

Those who participate in any kind of food-related activity at the travel destination, including the consumption of traditional food products, dining in traditional restaurants and participating in food-related activities and events.

### ***Attitudes***

“The degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). In this study, attitude refers to the tourists’ evaluations of Taiwanese traditional food.

### ***Subjective norm***

“The perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). In this study, the social pressure relates to the opinions of family, friends, and significant others regarding buying or not buying Taiwanese traditional food.

### ***Perceived behavioural control***

“The perceived ease of difficulty of performing the behaviour and it is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediment and obstacles” (Ajzen, 1988, p. 132). In this study, perceived behavioural control refers to the tourists’ perception of any difficulties in purchasing the traditional food from Taiwanese.

### ***Purchase intention***

The measure of intention to perform a given behaviour indicating how hard people are willing to try with the view of performing this behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). Purchase intention in this study refers to tourists’ willingness and the efforts they make to buy traditional food from Taiwan of all kinds.

### ***Sensation-seeking***

“The need for change, variety, and intensity of stimulation manifesting itself in many aspects of behaviour, including sensory, social, and thrill-seeking types of activity” (Zuckerman, 1971, p. 45)

### ***Food neophobia***

Neophobia can be conceptualized as a personality trait which is situated on, “a continuum along which people can be located in terms of their stable propensity to approach or avoid novel foods” (Pliner and Hobden, 1992, p. 107).

### ***Traditional food***

Food that is differentiated by particular qualitative aspects, and has a specific cultural identity (Jordana, 2000).

## **1.6 Contribution of this Research**

Consumer behaviour research provides an effective way to target and discover the real needs and wants of the potential consumer (Kanuk & Schiffman, 2004). Through understanding consumer buying behaviour, the more appropriate policy for product positioning and management can be made (Kotler, 2008). The study of consumer behaviour in relation to traditional food can provide insights for stakeholders and marketers in countries keen to develop their respective food tourism market. Understanding potential consumers’ desires, allows host countries to develop more appropriate policies, products, and marketing strategies to cater for the needs and wants of tourists. Hence, with the purpose of exploring tourist’s traditional food buying behaviour, this study will help to gain a better understanding of food choice from a tourist’s perspective. This, in turn, can provide hosting countries with practical advice regarding marketing strategies and promotion of their traditional food to visitors.

This study will also contribute to the theoretical understanding in the field of food tourism research. This study will use the Theory of Planned Behaviour in a new context and confirm that this theory is appropriate in gaining an insight into tourists’ local food choice behaviour. Previously, there have been many attempts in the literature to explore tourist’s motivations for purchasing local food, the importance or feasibility of food tourism, and the development of food tourism, however little attention has been given to explaining tourist’s purchase behaviour. Research into tourists’ motivations for participating the food tourism is one of the slowest developing research areas, while research regarding to food choice behaviour at travel destinations is even younger (Kim et al., 2009). Knowledge of consumer behaviour in relation to

traditional food choices in the travel context has been unclear and fairly fragment (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). This study will offer a theoretical examination of tourists' traditional food choice behaviour within the food tourism context by using the theory of planned behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour has been applied to help explain many different situations and behaviours, such as the intention to purchase organic food (Chen, 2007), travel intentions in Hong Kong (Hsu & Lam, 2004), and the intention to stay in 'green' hotels (Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010). However, it has not been used for the exploration of tourists' intentions in regard to purchasing traditional food.

In addition, this study will examine the influence of personality traits to determine whether personality play (food neophobia and sensation seeking) as an essential role on an individual's food choice behaviour in a travel situation. While the application of the theory of planned behaviour is useful to gain a wider view of tourist behaviour in relation to traditional food, personality traits provide an insightful understanding to explain this behaviour. Generally, personality traits have been regarded as an important element that affects people's food choice behaviour (Byrnes & Hayes, 2013). Nevertheless, little is known about its influence when it comes to local food choice behaviour at a travel destination. Hence, this study fill a research gap and provide support for the belief that personality traits are one of the essential factor in terms of local food choice behaviour a the travel situation.

## **1.7 Outline of this Thesis**

This thesis is composed of five major chapters: (1) introduction; (2) literature review; (3) methodology; (4) results of pilot survey and major study; and (5) discussion, implications and conclusion.

**Chapter One:** In this chapter, the background to the research topic of food tourism is introduced. The following sections discuss the motivations which have been developed for this research, the research questions and research hypotheses. The significance of the study and definitions of key terms are described in this chapter.

**Chapter Two:** Discusses previous research on food tourism. It provides a definition of food tourism, discusses food tourism research and current issues requiring further study. It also discusses relevant food consumer behaviour research and the Theory of Planned Behaviour. The underpinning theory and structure for this study is provided and key concepts are discussed. Two moderating variables: sensation seeking personality traits and food neophobia are also described and defined, including any previous research. Finally, the conceptual framework is presented and discussed.

**Chapter Three:** This chapter focuses on methodology. A detailed description of the research paradigm, research strategy, and the quantitative method used in this study are addressed. Moreover, the sampling method, sample size, questionnaire development, types of Taiwanese traditional food, data analysis and ethical considerations are also discussed in detail.

**Chapter Four:** Findings of the pilot survey and major survey are presented in this chapter. Findings in relation to the pilot survey include the reliability and validity of the scales applied. Findings associated with the major survey are presented with an examination of the research hypotheses in this study.

**Chapter Five:** In this chapter, a discussion of the findings in relation to the research aims of this study are presented. Implications for food tourism theory and food tourism practice are addressed. Recommendations for the future and limitations of this study are also outlined.

## **1.8 Summary and conclusions**

Chapter 1 has presented the overall introduction to the thesis. In Section 1.1, the background to food tourism was described and the importance of developing food tourism was identified. Section 1.2 focused on the existing knowledge gaps and the need for further research in the area of traditional food consumer behaviour. Section 1.3 outlined the theoretical structure employed in this study. Based on the discussion of the previous section, Section 1.4 highlighted the research questions and hypotheses of this study. Following this, the key definitions adopted in this thesis were outlined. The research contributions were then presented. Chapter two provides a comprehensive review of the relevant theory and literature.

## **Chapter 2. Review of literature**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The primary aim of this study is to gain a better understanding of food tourists' consumption of traditional food. In order to guide the study, this chapter reviews the relevant literature to establish a conceptual framework that will underpin this thesis. Section 2.2 discusses the concept of food tourism and its definition, and provides a review of food tourism research. This review identifies key issues of concern to researchers and gaps in the food tourism research. Section 2.3 discusses food consumer behaviour models and justifies the selection of the theory of planned behaviour which underpins this study.

Food choice behaviour is multifaceted and influenced by many different factors. In this study, the moderating effects of two particular concepts (sensation-seeking personality trait and food neophobia) are examined within the framework of the theory of planned behaviour. Section 2.4 discusses these moderating variables. The concept of sensation-seeking is further introduced in Section 2.5. A definition of sensation-seeking personality trait and developments in associated research are also discussed to justify its use in explaining consumer behaviour in relation to traditional food in Taiwan. The concept of food neophobia is introduced in Section 2.6. Section 2.7 the moderating role of sensation seeking and food neophobia in food choice behaviour is identified. Section 2.8 provides information on the socio-demographic influence of the variables in this study. Section 2.9 justify the Taiwan as the appropriate research site for this study. On the basis of the literature review, a conceptual framework is established as outlined in Section 2.10.

### **2.2 Food Tourism**

#### **2.2.1 What is food tourism?**

The phenomenon of tourists trying and tasting the unique, local or authentic food of a travel destination is important for the tourism industry. Food is highly experiential for tourists and is not merely important in dealing with hunger, but is also a significant and meaningful component of the travel experience. (Quan & Wang, 2004; Smith & Costello, 2009). Many different terms have been applied to express the connection between 'food' and 'tourism' including 'food

tourism', 'culinary tourism', and 'gastronomy tourism' (Ignatov & Smith, 2006). The definitions of these terms are discussed below and shown in Table 2-1.

An analysis of definitions of food tourism indicates that it is considered an experience related to local food: "Culinary tourism is any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources. In other words culinary tourism is an international and reflective encounter with any culture including one's own through culinary resources" (Xiao & Smith, 2008, p. 289). Another definition by Green and Dougherty (2008) is that "culinary tourism is the pursuit of unique and memorable eating and drinking experiences, providing a way of linking local food systems with the tourist experience" (p. 150). These definitions emphasise two important dimensions of culinary tourism. Firstly, it indicates that culinary tourism is a memorable experience derived from appreciating the local food culture of the tourist destination. Secondly, it indicates culinary tourism is not restricted to any specific food-related activities.

While these definitions focus on how local food enhances tourist experiences, other definitions have emphasised traveller motivations. For example, "gastronomy and culinary tourism can be described as tourism where an opportunity for memorable food and drink experiences contributes significantly to travel motivation and behaviour" (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2010, p. 14). A related definition states that "culinary tourism involves tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional food (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity" (Ignatov & Smith, 2006, p. 237). Hall and Mitchell (2001, p. 9) defined food tourism as, "a visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production regions are the primary motivations for travel". On the other hand, 'culinary tourism' can be simply defined as, "an experience of food or food ways other than one's own" (Long, 2004, p. 21). These definitions narrow the scope by indicating that culinary tourism only occurs when food-related activities serve as the major motivation for tourists to travel.

Clearly, some definitions of food tourism are oriented toward marketing by maintaining that food serves as a major pull factor for people to travel, while others emphasize the unique experience

of trying a range of trying local food in a travel situation. Both approaches to the definition however, emphasize that tourists appreciate local food and beverages. The major difference between these two definitions is that the motivation-oriented one indicates that food is the major reason for travel. Although this definition is applicable to some food tourism travellers, it appears to overstate the size of this market. This was noted by Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (1998, p. 230) who stated, “Regardless of whether or not gastronomy is the tourist’s main attraction, it clearly provides a source of enjoyment and opportunities that will no doubt have pleasant memories for the tourist.” After an analysis of the various definitions of food tourism, this study adopts its definition using an experiential approach. The reasons for this are firstly, to determine whether or not a tourist is visiting a destination primarily because of its food, and sampling local food significantly enriches their travel experience. Secondly, food related activities are mostly deemed as pleasurable experiences and highly regarded by most tourists. Thus, the definition of food tourism in this study has been adopted from Xiao & Smith (2008) as “Culinary tourism is any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources. In other words culinary tourism is an international and reflective encounter with any culture including one’s own through culinary resources” (p. 289).



**Table 2-1: Definition of food tourism**

<b>Author /year</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Motivation orientation</b>	<b>Unique experience</b>
<b>Smith and Xiao (2008, p. 289)</b>	Culinary tourism is any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources.	✓	
<b>International Culinary Tourism Association (2011)</b>	Culinary tourism is the pursuit of unique and memorable culinary experience of all kinds while in a travel context.	✓	
<b>Green and Dougherty (2008, p. 150)</b>	Culinary tourism is the pursuit of unique and memorable eating and drinking experiences, and provides a way of linking local food systems with the tourist experience.	✓	
<b>Ignatov and Smith (2006, p. 237)</b>	Culinary tourism is tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represents a significant motivation or activity.		✓
<b>Ottenbacher &amp; Harrington (2010, p. 14)</b>	Gastronomy and culinary tourism can be described as tourism where an opportunity for memorable food and drink experiences contributes significantly to travel motivation and behaviour.		✓
<b>Hall &amp; Mitchell (2006, p. 137)</b>	Food tourism as a visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production regions are the primary motivation for travel.		✓
<b>Long (2004, p. 21)</b>	It is an experience of food or food ways other than one's own.		✓

**Source: Developed for this study**

### 2.2.2 Who are food tourists?

A similar series of definitions have been found for the food tourist. The term ‘food tourist’ is usually applied to describe the relationship between food-related activities and tourists. By reviewing previous research a number of definitions have been proposed. One type tends to categorise tourists according to the activities they participate in during their trip. In Australia, a visitor to a winery is defined as either a domestic or international visitor who visits at least one winery during their travel in Australia. A food visitor is defined as either a domestic or international traveller who eats at a commercial establishment during their trip in Australia (South Australia Tourism Commission, 2011). Other research that distinguishes between types of food visitors, using ‘winos’ to describe “tourists on the wine side of wine and culinary tourism interests” and ‘foodies’ for “tourists on the food side of wine and culinary tourism” (Stewart, Bramble, & Ziraldo, 2008, p. 310).

Other authors have identified a food tourist based on their interest level in local food, and hence differentiate between tourists primarily motivated to visit a destination for its local food and those who regard the consumption of food as part of their travel experience. Based on this principle, food tourists can be classified as one of four types in terms of their level of interest in local food: gourmet tourists; gastronomy and cuisine tourists; culinary tourists; and rural/urban tourists (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). From a marketing perspective, food tourists may be segmented into three different types. One type is highly involved in food activities when travelling, with food also being a highly influential factor in their travel decision choice. A second group considers food to be important but not the only consideration, and the third group is less committed to food related activities (McKercher, Okumus, & Okumus, 2008).

Another taxonomy of food tourists is based on the importance of food in their travel decision-making process, and is divided into four types ranging from the most committed and active tourists in food related activities to those demonstrating no interest in gastronomy (Boyne et al., 2003). In research conducted by Ignatov and Smith (2006), culinary travellers were divided into food tourists, wine tourists, and food and wine tourists. Food and wine tourists characteristically engaged in activities such as farmers' fairs/ markets, shopping for/ browsing gourmet foods in retail stores or farms, pick-your-own farms/ harvesting. Food tourists were those who participated in restaurant dining (regional or local cooking), restaurant dining (at internationally acclaimed restaurants), visiting cooking schools, and staying in accommodation with gourmet restaurants on premises. Wine tourists are those engaged in the activities of touring a region's wineries staying for one or more nights, going to wineries for day visits and tasting.

Based on the above finding, food tourists may be defined in three ways. The first definition is from the perspective of those for whom food related activities are their primary reason and major motivation to travel to a destination. The second group are those whose major motivation for travel is not driven by the local food, but who nevertheless find consuming traditional food and dining in local restaurants as agreeable pastimes and an essential part of their trip. The third group are identified based on the activities the tourists participate in during their trip. These activities are food-related (for example attending food festivals, learning about local food, experiencing the local food culture or simply sampling the local food).

Clearly, searching for a new culinary experience and appreciating local and authentic food has become a reason for some people to travel (Horng & Tsai, 2010). Those who travel especially for the food associated with a travel destination are deemed to be food tourists. On the other hand, even for those who do not see food as their primary motivation, the dining out experience and trying local cuisine may still be an enjoyable experience and an agreeable pastime (Henderson, 2009). When travelling, it is hard to avoid different culinary experiences, and although this experience may not be a major factor for people to travel, it undoubtedly is an essential part of a trip and sometimes offers a peak touristic experience (Quan & Wang, 2004; Xiao & Smith, 2008).

Therefore, food tourists are arguably not only those who regard the tasting of local cuisine as a major motivation to travel, but are those who consume local food incidentally when travelling. Thus, in this study food tourists are defined as those who participate in any kind of food-related activity at a travel destination, including the consumption of traditional food products, sampling traditional food, dining in traditional restaurants, and participating in food-related activities and events. This definition has been developed to assist businesses and local economic development. Clearly business managers who target not only those whose travel motivation is related to the destination's food but as well are those who consume local food incidentally to other experiences, while developing a larger market. Hence, an effective marketing strategy should aim at both these types of groups.

### **2.2.3 Research on food tourism**

Research into the relationship between food and tourism can be traced back to the early 1980s. Since this time, food tourism has gradually become an active area of research for many scholars over the past two decades. This study reviews the previous research aiming to provide understanding of the development and transformation of food tourism studies, issues concerning this area, and requirements for future research. In this section the development of food tourism research would firstly be introduced followed by a review of the food tourism literature. As a result, literature undertaken for this thesis has found six main areas of research (see Table 2-2): 1. The general importance of food tourism in local development; 2. Food tourism as a new marketing niche; 3. The importance of food tourism in local development; 4. The impact of

tourist's culinary experiences on their satisfaction and revisiting intention; 5. Food tourism marketing strategies; and 6. Food as a manifestation and expression of identity. Each of these areas, with the relevant research, is discussed in Table 2-3

### **2.2.3.1 The development of food tourism research**

The first research that discussed the relationship between food and tourism was written in 1983. This study discussed food imports for tourist consumption as a threat to the local economy due to a number of reasons, including foreign exchange leakage (Bélisle, 1983). In the following year, the same author illustrated how these threats were found in Jamaica (Bélisle, 1984). In the 1990s, the terms 'food tourism', 'culinary tourism', and 'gastronomy tourism' began to emerge in the tourism-related literature and an edited book titled *Culinary Tourism* was published in 1998 (Long, 2004). The study of food tourism gradually become one of academic interest but the research issues discussed were fairly limited before 2000, and we can now regard food tourism research to be in an early stage of development. Before 2000, efforts were made to link local food to tourism (Telfer, 1996) In addition, there was an emphasis on food (include beverages) presenting a regional flavour to improve its attraction to tourists and as a resource for sustainable tourism (Reynolds, 1993).

After 2000, food tourism research experienced major growth and the issues discussed became more diverse. A conference was specially organized to discuss the connection between local food and tourism was held in Cyprus in November 2000 (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). The growth of the food tourism research during this period largely contributed to the recognition of the importance and necessity of food tourism for both tourists and the travel destination. A number of authors highlighted that local food is a significant attraction for tourists and helps to enrich their travel experience (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Kim et al., 2010; Kivela & Crotts, 2005). Moreover, local food provides a competitive edge for a destination struggling with tourism development and further boosts local economy (Mak et al., 2012). It appears that the study of food tourism during these two decades is similar to that of other new fields of study, moving from descriptive and disjointed research to detailed and more empirical studies (Robinson & Tran, 2013) although food tourism research is still immature and more research is needed in this area (Pollard et al., 2002).

Having introduced the development of food tourism studies, in the following section a systematic analysis of 25 food tourism papers published after year 2000 is presented. By doing so, a more systematic and holistic analysis of food tourism studies can be provided which will subsequently allow further identification of future research needs of this field.

### **2.2.3.2 Food tourism study**

As discussed in the previous section, food tourism studies have enjoyed substantial growth over the past two decades. Table 2-2 reviews 25 previous food tourism papers. The following section analyzes these studies in terms of research issues and methods to identify six different topics which have been frequently discussed.

Firstly, Table 2-2 identified a number of papers indicating local food provides tourists with a unique experience. Food at the travel destination is different from the food in the tourist's daily life. Therefore, sampling local food is regarded as a novel experience pursued by most of the tourist (Braun & Clarke, 2006). These novel experiences as Quan and Wang (2004) argued, are an essential part of the trip, and can sometimes be regarded as a 'peak' experience. Another research further indicated that the destination's local food contributes positively to the tourists' holistic experiences and can influence their revisiting intentions (Kivela & Crofts, 2006). Therefore, gastronomy is an essential element contributing to tourist's travel experience (Crofts & Kivela, 2009). In sum, these studies tend to discuss the role of local food from a tourist's perspective and confirmed the importance of the gastronomy experience for tourists who are travelling.

The second group of studies concern the food tourists segment. Some papers argue that apart from sightseeing at natural locations, food tourism can effectively serve as a niche market. More specifically, researchers maintain that food is a distinct marketing segment and can play a major role in either motivating people in that segment to travel, or to generate revisit intentions (Crofts & Kivela, 2009; Kivela & Crofts, 2005). McKercher, Okumus, and Okumus (2008) argued that although food may not be a primary motivation for tourists to travel, it is a unique activity during a trip. Researchers also investigated the relationship between a destination's food image and a tourist's visiting intentions and demonstrated there was a positive relationship between the

variables (Karim & Chi, 2010). These papers have demonstrated that specific food tourism market segments exist.

The third group of studies are interested in the role that food plays in regional development. Researchers have sought to provide a feasible solution for regions struggling to develop by highlighting and utilizing the uniqueness of food products and culture. The contribution of local food promotion for regional development is discussed in the literature, and confirms that there is a relationship between the increased interest levels of food tourism and regional development such as the retention and development of regional identity (Everett & Aitchison, 2008). Other research have demonstrated that culinary tourism benefits the regional area's culture, economy and agriculture (Green & Dougherty, 2008). Rand et al. (2003) also asserted that local food plays an essential role in the authenticity of the destination and strengthens the local economy. These papers have focused on the benefits of food tourism and sustainable development that utilizes regional foods.

The fourth group of studies examines the relationship between the local food and overall trip satisfaction. One study argues that food is an important determinant of tourist satisfaction (Correia, Moital, Costa, & Peres, 2008). Another study indicates that in a culinary event, sampling food and beverages has a significant positive relationship with overall satisfaction (Smith & Costello, 2009). The findings from these papers indicate that there is a positive relationship between enjoyable food experiences, tourist's overall satisfaction, and future revisiting intention.

The fifth group of studies examines marketing strategies for food tourism. Researchers in this area have analysed and compared the differences in marketing strategies among different travel destinations. Horng and Tsai (2010) explored the content of government websites in six East Asian countries and provided an in-depth analysis of the differences among them. Okumus et al. (2007) has focused on how a destination can be differentiated through its food. These papers usually analyse websites, brochures, and booklets, tend to be descriptive, and provide suggestions regarding marketing strategies.

Finally, the sixth group of studies discuss the role that food plays in our society as a manifestation and expression of its identity. This group of papers examines the role and meaning of food in our society and maintains that local cuisine represents more than food, and involves cultural meaning and historical implications. Hwang, Westering and Chen (2005) connected food tourism and culinary history in Tainan City, Taiwan, and suggested that food links tradition and modernity. Another study argued that food can also be regarded as a form of fine art (Hegarty & Barry, 2001). Liao (2008) conducted research in Lukang, Taiwan, and examined the transformation of this area's local cuisine, concluding that changes in local cuisine are driven by the tourism industry.

**Table 2-2: Six different issues in food tourism**

Issues	Importance of food tourism	marketing niche	local development	revisit intentions	marketing strategies	expression of identity
Quan and Wang (2004)	✓					
Ab Karim & Chi (2010).	✓					
Kivela & Crotts (2006).	✓					
Kivela & Crotts(2005)		✓				
Crotts & Kivela (2009)		✓				
McKercher et al (2008)		✓				
Everett & Aitchison (2008)			✓			
Green & Dougherty (2008)			✓			
Rand et al (2003)			✓			
Correia et al (2008)				✓		
Smith & Costello (2009)				✓		
Horng & Tsai (2010)					✓	
Okumus et al. (2007)					✓	
Hegarty (2001)						✓

**Source: Developed for this study**

According to the analysis of Table 2-2, food tourism has been discussed from six different perspectives over the last two decades. One important point about these studies is that they focused mostly on demonstrating the viability of food tourism, promotional strategies, or food product positioning. These studies have enriched our knowledge and contributed to the development of food tourism. On the other hand, despite the fact that food tourism has gained considerable attention in a wide variety of research areas, limited efforts have been made to examine food tourists' consumer behaviour. Research from a consumers' perspective allows food tourism stakeholders to develop more appropriate policies and products to cater for tourists' needs when consuming and purchasing local food (Ryu & Jang, 2006).

Several scholars have also expressed concern about the lack of consumer behaviour research in the field of food tourism. Mitchell and Hall discussed this issue and pointed out that there was a clear research gap in this field related to consumer behaviour of food consumption (du Rand & Heath, 2006). Almost 10 years later, a similar concern was expressed indicating that there was a continuing need for research on tourist's food related behaviour (Kim, Kim, & Goh, 2011). Of the limited literature, one study applied the theory of reasoned action to examine the intention to experience local food in the travel destination, by using students in the sample (Ryu & Jang, 2006). This study provided a preliminary understanding of the local food buying behaviour of food tourists; although the use of students as the study respondents was indicated by the author as a major limitation. Another study examined food tourist behaviour and revisiting intentions in the context of a food festival (Kim et al., 2011). Another study sought to predict tourist intention to try the local food in New Orleans (Arnett, 1994). Although, this study provides reasons why tourists try local food, it did not discuss differences between international tourists and domestic tourists.

The literature review above demonstrates that there is a need of more consumer behaviour research in the food tourism field. Moreover, it also revealed that current food tourism consumer behaviour studies have not examined local consumption behaviour. Therefore, given the scarcity of research on local food consumption behaviour and in order to address the shortcoming related to lack of existing research, the primary aim of this study is to gain a better understanding of tourists' traditional food consumption behaviour when travelling in a foreign country. To this



end, this study reviews the existing food consumer behaviour models which are discussed in Section 2.3.

**Table 2-2 food tourism research**

<b>Author/year</b>	<b>Key concept /</b>	<b>Theory</b>	<b>Research method</b>	<b>Discussion issue</b>
Hegarty (2001)	Gastronomy	The theory of knowledge	Qualitative descriptive	Management policy
Marcel and Zdenko (2003)	Food, Marketing	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Marketing strategy
Cohen & Avieli (2004)	Culinary establishment	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Attraction and impediment
Quan & Wang (2004)	Tourists experience	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Experience
Kivela & Crofts (2005)	Marketing segment	N/A	Quantitative Explanatory	Marketing segment
Okumus et al (2007)	Gastronomy. Destination marketing	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Marketing strategy
McKercher et al (2008)	Food tourism, Special interest tourism.	N/A	Quantitative Explanatory	Marketing strategy
Stewart et al. (2008)	Wine and culinary tourism	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Management policy
Everett & Aitchison (2008)	Rural regeneration Food tourism	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Regional identity
Correia et al (2008)	Gastronomy, Satisfaction	N/A	Quantitative Explanatory	Gastronomy satisfaction
Hassan (2008)	Food, destination marketing.	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Marketing strategy
Lee, Lee, and Lin (2008)	Food tourism, channel strategies,	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Management policy
Gyimothy & Mykletun (2009)	Adventure tourism,	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Destination marketing
Kim et al (2009)	Food tourism	Grounded theory	Qualitative descriptive	Motivation of local food consumption
Thompson and Prideaux (2009)	Culinary tourists	N/A	Quantitative Explanatory	Segment culinary tourists
Smith and Costello (2009)	Culinary tourism,	N/A	Quantitative Explanatory	Tourists' motivation and satisfaction of culinary event
Crofts and Kivela (2009)	Gastronomy, narrative	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	local food for visitors' experience
Hornig and Tsai (2010)	Internet marketing	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Marketing strategy

### Continuous with Table 2-2 food tourism research

Author/year	Key concept /	Theory	Research method	Discussion issue
Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010b)	Culinary tourism	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Marketing strategy
Ryu & Han (2010)	Local cuisine, tourists' behavioural intention	Theory of reasoned action (TRA)	Quantitative Predictive	Consumer behaviour
Kim, Kim, and Goh(2011)	Revisit intention	The modified theory of reasoned action (TRA)	Quantitative Predictive	Tourists behaviour
Lin, Pearson, & Cai (2011)	Destination identity and branding	N/A	Content analysis, Quantitative Exploratory	Destination marketing
Kim, Goh, et al (2010)	Food tourism motivation	Pull and push theory	Quantitative Exploratory	Developing a scale for food tourists motivation
Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán (2011)	Culinary Tourist	N/A	Quantitative Exploratory	Marketing strategy
Mak, Lumbers, Eves, et al (2012)	Tourists eating behaviour and food consumption	N/A	Quantitative Exploratory	Tourists' food consumer behaviour
Barre et al (2013)	Food tourism, Tourists experience	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Local food product positioning
Son & Xu (2013)	tourist culinary experience	N/A	Qualitative descriptive	Motivation and experience

### 2.3 Food choice models and theories

Consumer behaviour is concerned with explaining the behaviour of groups of consumers, and the behaviour of consumers in the economy as a whole (Foxall, 1974). More specifically, a definition of consumer behaviour indicates that it discusses the “acts of individuals directly involved in obtaining, using, and disposing of economic goods and services, including the decision processes that precede and determine these acts” (Engel et al., 1986, p. 66). Seeking explanations either to predict or interpret consumer behaviour and decision-making processes has always been of great interest among researchers and consumer behaviour and is an essential subject in many different research fields (Charnigo et al., 2013). The importance of this subject is because understanding consumer’s behaviour allows managers to establish more appropriate marketing policies of benefit to their customers. Likewise, studying tourist’s traditional food

consumption behaviour would greatly help the development of food tourism. Another benefit of this kind of research is that it helps marketers to segment the market.

Several different models have been developed to explain consumer's behaviour. Three general models are discussed here. The EMB model which is designed to describe the consumer decision-making process and how decisions are made when consumers face a list of available alternatives (Engel et al., 2006). The EMB model is the most commonly used due to its applicability and generality (Teo & Yeong, 2003). The Howard-Sheth model was the first that applied learning theory and was the first truly integrative model of buyer behaviour. This model focuses on brand choice behaviour and repeat purchase behaviour (Howard & Sheth, 1969). The Black Box model arises from early stimulus-response theory and emphasizes the effect of external stimuli and highlighting the fact that consumers' buying behaviour depends on marketing strategies and other marketing activities (Kotler, 2008).

Although traditional decision-making models can explain consumer behaviour, the decision-making behaviour of consumers in relation to food has some specific characteristics. Food choice is a multifaceted decision that incorporates various behaviours (Sobal & Bisogni, 2009). It is a complex process involving many different factors that influences consumer choice (Kornelis, Herpen, Lans, & Aramyan, 2010; Lindeman & Väänänen, 2000; Steptoe, Pollard, & Wardle, 1995). Many models have been specifically developed to emphasise behavioural differences in specific contexts and the influencing factors in this regard (Wardle et al., 2004). These models tend to explain food choice behaviour from different perspectives and in the following section food choice models are introduced to explain the factors which are seen to influence behaviour.

### **2.3.1 Consumer behaviour model with respect to food**

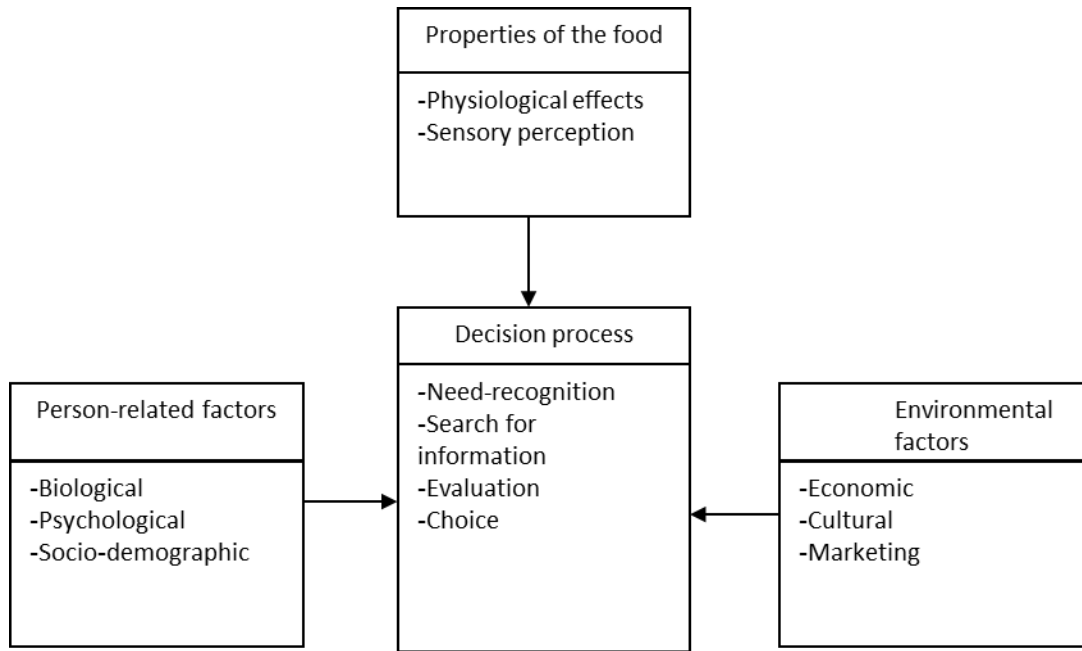
Steenkamp (1997) was one of the first researchers to develop a consumer behaviour model especially for food consumption (see figure 2.1). This model divides the food purchase decision process into four steps, similar to the EKB model (Steenkamp, 1997). The first stage is "need recognition," when consumers encounter a discrepancy between a desired and actual state of being. This state can be aroused by three different situations. The first situation is when a food product is no longer available. The second is when customers are dissatisfied with existing food

products. The third is when there is a desire to experience a new food product with a view to stimulating their activation level. The second stage is information searching, influenced by consumers' previous purchase experiences. The last stage is the evaluation of alternatives. As there are many different food products that may satisfy the expectation of consumers, judgement and purchase criteria arise when selecting different alternatives. This evaluation is based on product quality, price, brand name/reputation, freshness, and guarantee.

According to this model, the decision-making process is influenced by specific variables relating to three different groups of factors: properties of the food, factors related to the consumer, and environmental factors. Studies have examined the properties of food mainly discuss physiological effects and sensory perceptions. Dealing with and reducing hunger to reach satiation is one of the purposes of eating. However, the level of satiation differs according to the properties of the food, even though one consumes the same quantity of different foods. For instance, solid food leads to satiation more easily than liquid does. The satiation effects of those foods contain more protein are greater than those produced by the caloric value of fats or carbohydrates.

Personal factors may be divided into biological and psychological factors. Biologically, age and weight serve as the two major factors affecting food consumption behaviour. For instance, newborns are inclined toward tasting sweet stimuli while rejecting bitter stimuli. However, this may change as taste and smell are highly adaptable throughout a lifetime. The second biological factor weight, also influences food consumption behaviour. One of the explanations for this phenomenon is the physiological reaction. Obese people react to smell and sight stimuli four times as quickly as lean people do. Psychological factors in this context, are divided into three different constructs. The first is exploratory buying behaviour tendencies. Consumers, to some extent, "experience exploratory risk-taking in making product choices, and innovativeness in adopting new products and retail facilities, variety-seeking in purchase behaviour, and curiosity-motivated information acquisition. All these behaviours provide novel and exciting purchase experiences that satisfy consumer's desire for knowledge" (Steenkamp, 1997, p. 156). They also encourage curiosity. Environmental factors include economic, cultural, and marketing factors. Economic factors mainly involve the family income and price of food, and these influence food

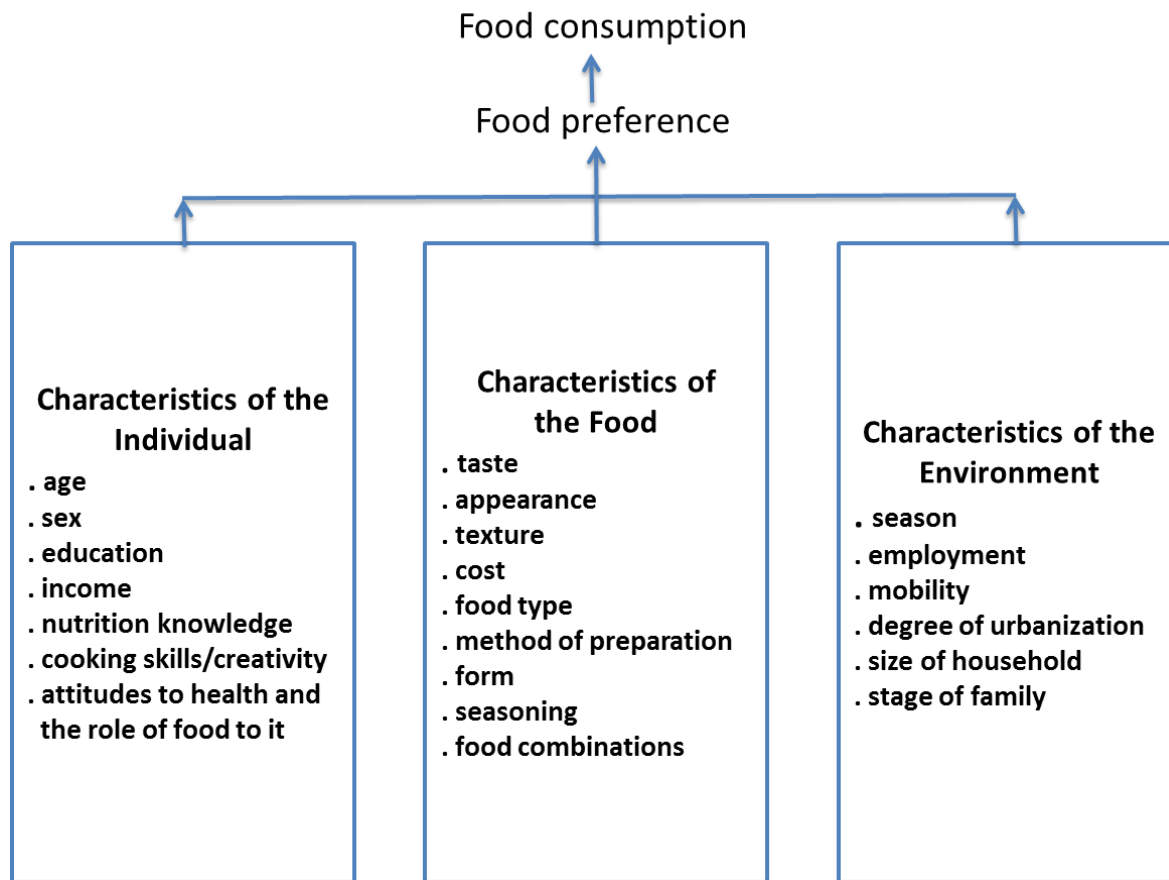
purchase behaviour. Culture also influences food consumption, since food may present special significance to different ethnic groups. Such as pork which is regarded as taboo in Jewish and Muslim societies (Steenkamp, 1997).



**Figure 2-1: Consumer behaviour model with respect to food**  
**Source: Adopted from Steenkamp (1997, p. 144)**

### 2.3.2 Food preference model

Another framework for the study of food consumption discusses food preferences (see Figure 2.2). In this framework, food consumption is influenced by food preferences, while food preferences are influenced by three factors. The first factor relates to the individual, including age, sex, education, income, nutrition, knowledge, cooking skill/creativity, and attitudes to the relationship between health and food. The second factor relates to the nature of food, including taste, appearance, texture, cost, food type, method of preparation, form, and seasoning. The third factor is environmental, including season, employment, mobility, degree of urbanization, size of household, and stage of family (Randall & Sanjur, 1981).



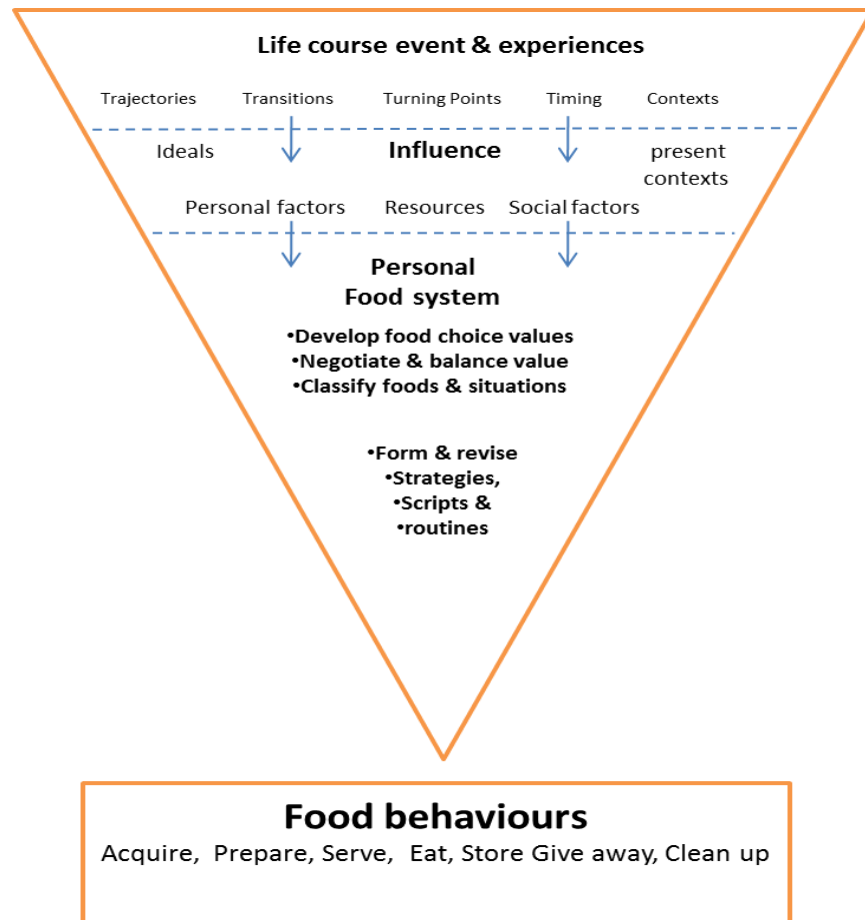
**Figure 2-2: Food preference model**

Source: Adopted from Randall and Sanjur (1981, p. 153)

### 2.3.3 Food Choice Process Model

Sobal and Bisogni (2009) propose another food choice process model (see Figure 2.3). In this model, food choice behaviour is influenced by three major factors. These factors then operate together to produce many types of food behaviour. The first factor is life events and experiences. This includes several dynamic processes that transcend cycles or stages including trajectories, transitions/turning points, timings, and contexts. This factor conceptualises the food choice decision process with consideration of current influences. The second factor in this model is influence. Influences on food choice decisions can be drawn from a broad array of physical, psychological, and social components. For example, cultural ideals, personal factors, and resources all affect consumers' food choice decision making about what, when, where, with whom, and how much to eat. Moreover, these influences change over time. The third factor is personal food system, including food choice value, classification of food and situations,

development of strategies, scripts, and routines for recurring food choice. Personal food systems are regarded as cognitive processes, guiding an individual’s eating behaviour in particular settings, which also change over the course of their lives and are adapted to particular contexts and settings.



**Figure 2-3: Food choice process model**  
**Source: Adopted from Sobal & Bisogni (2009, p. 41)**

In summary, the literature indicates that food choice decisions are multifaceted, dynamic, and situational. These models contribute to our knowledge by clearly delineating consumer decision making processes when buying a product as well as pointing out the likely influences during the process. Nevertheless, Shepherd (1999) argued that while these models delineate the potential factors affecting food choice, few of them quantify these factors or demonstrate any indication of likely mechanisms of action. In other words, these models do not make any quantitative prediction concerning food choice.

As this study is a preliminary study and seeks to quantify and predict tourists' traditional food choice behaviour, therefore, none of the models discussed are appropriate for this purpose. In order to address this shortcoming, one possible solution is to explain humans' food choice behaviour using theory from other disciplines such as sociological and social anthropology, social theory, or social psychology. These address individual food choices and other dietary behaviours from different viewpoints. From the perspective of sociological and social anthropology, the main points are the influence of cultural and social group eating pattern and local food culture. In other words, people's eating behaviour is closely connected to their sociocultural context (Arnold, 1982). This explains people's food choice behaviour as mainly influenced by two different factors. The first is systems constructed by society. While the other is the personal situation characteristics- such as socioeconomic status which affect food choice behaviour (Contento, Williams, Michela, & Franklin, 2006). Although sociological and social anthropological factors play an essential role in explaining food choice behaviour, it should be better integrated from both methodological and theoretical models and discuss the effect of other aspects such as social history, political science, and parts of psychology (Arnold, 1982).

Sociologists highlight the importance of social relation when it comes to food choice and eating patterns. For example, a study conducted by Delormier, Frohlich, & Potvin (2009) employed Giddens' structuration theory to explain food eating patterns and concluded that food eating behaviour is an activity of social practice. This study provides an explanation explaining people daily eating pattern and routine which is different from the situation when people are in an overseas travel destination. Another difficulty to apply this theory to explain food choice behavior is it would be challenging to employ this theory in empirical examination as it lacks of clear concept for more specific direction (Stones, 2005).

Food choice behaviour has also been examined from the perspective of social- psychology. Social psychology has more than 100 years of history and has witnessed a major growth in the past six decades (Franzoi, 2007). Social psychology is rooted in sociology, anthropology, and psychology and is the study of an individual's social behaviour (Gergen, 1909; Queener, 1951). More specifically social psychology studies:



*what makes people, as social groups or communities or as cultures or subcultures, different from each other, and a desire to discover the systematic and generalizable 'law' that determine how people behave as they do, for instance, of the working process like the attribution of responsibility and blame or how and why people's attitudes changes and how this affect their behaviour (Stainton Rogers, 2011, p. 5).*

Social psychologists are interested in studying factors that affect behaviour such as feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions, attitudes, and goals (Brown, 2006). Attitude-behaviour relationships have been highlighted as these are regarded as crucial in understanding people's behaviour. "Attitudes provide useful input into making choices and determining how one behaves (e.g. people who think ice cream is good are more likely to purchase and consume it than people think it is bad.)" (Brinol & Petty, 2012, p. 284). Perhaps the most well-known attitude-behaviour theories are the theory of reasoned action (TRA) developed by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1988). TRA and TPB have been applied widely to explain human's and consumer's behaviour in many different situations because of its strong predictive power.

In this section, models and theories that could provide explanations of food choice behaviour have been introduced. All of them are clearly examining the process and likely influencing factors. Yet, TRA and TPB indicate the direct antecedences of the behaviour. In these theory, people's behaviour and intention towards doing something would be influenced by two (TRA) or three (TPB) antecedents. In other word, these two theories allow the researcher to make hypotheses and conduct quantitative research. Moreover, TPB has been suggested as a useful theory to explain food choice behaviour (Shepherd, 1999). In the following section more detailed discussion of TRA and TPB are introduced and provide underpinning theory applied in this study.

#### **2.3.4 The theory of planned behaviour**

In social psychology, several models have been developed of which the theory of reasoned action (TRA) and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) have been the most widely adopted and used (Armitage & Conner, 2001a). These two theories are closely connected, since TPB is an extension of TRA. The main difference is that TRA assumes that people's behaviour is

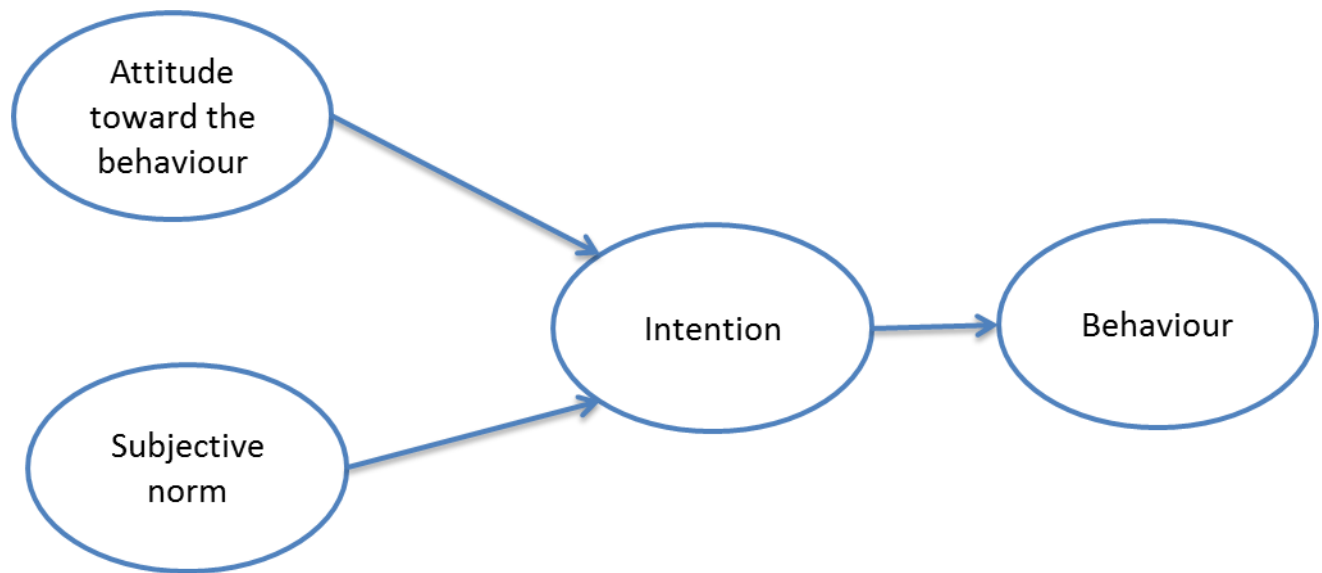
dependent on volitional control, while the TPB consider it non-volitional. In the following section we begin with an introduction to these theoretical models.

#### **2.3.4.1 The development of the theory of planned behaviour**

Social psychologists have highlighted the relationship between attitude and behaviour, and how attitudes can effectively predict human behaviour. This relationship has been questioned by Wicker (1969), however, who concludes that there is only a slight relationship between attitudes and behaviour. Becoming aware of this shortcoming, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) provided another theory to explain the relationship between attitude and behaviour, that is, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA - see Figure 2.4).

The TRA was developed to enhance the predictive power of attitudes to behaviour. This theory outlines that attitude toward an object influences a person's overall response to the object, but does not necessarily predict behaviour. Instead, behaviour is determined by behavioural intention, which consists of a person's attitude to behaviour and his subjective norm (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). This theory successfully provides a framework to explain consumers' volitional behaviour (McCarthy, de Boer, O'Reilly, & Cotter, 2003). Because of its significant predictive ability, this theory has been applied to predict and explain different types of behaviour.

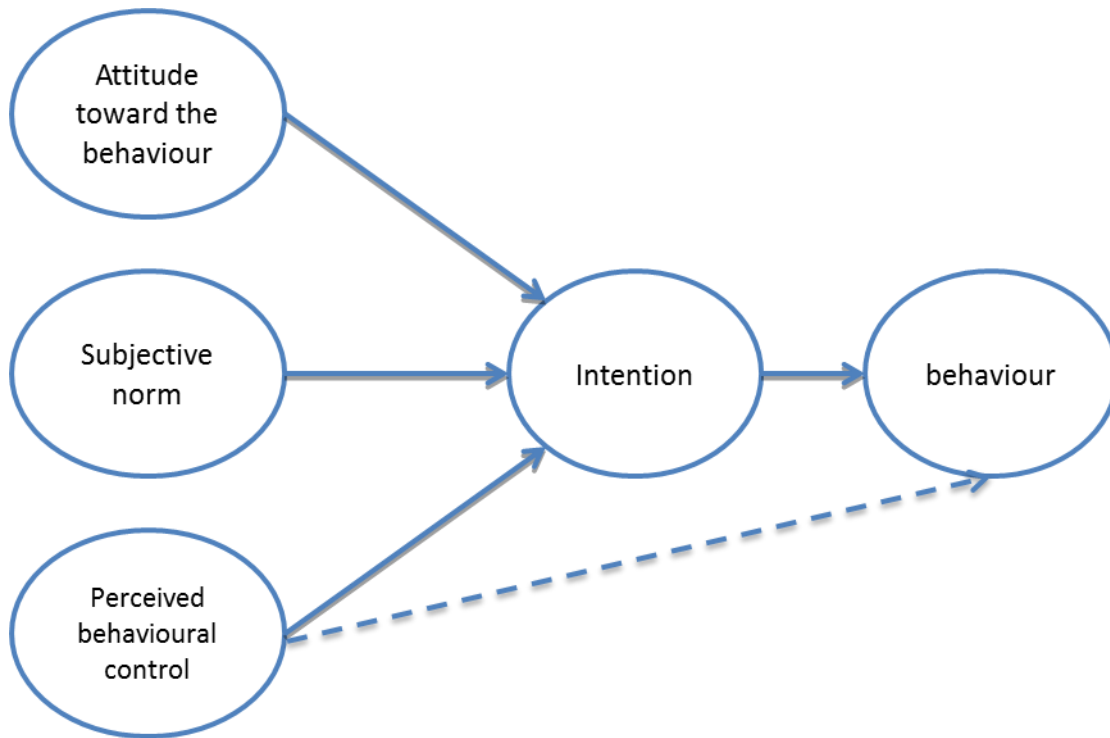
For example, TRA has been applied to predict eating in fast-food restaurants (Brinberg & Durand, 1983) and purchasing pork and poultry in markets (McCarthy et al., 2003). A meta-analysis study conducted by Sheppard, Hartwick, and Warshaw (1988) concluded that the model has strong predictive ability. However, one of the major concerns about this theory is that it was designed to explain purely volitional behaviour, which restricts its applicability when the behaviour is not completely under volitional control (Lee & Back, 2008).



**Figure 2-4: The theory of reasoned action**

**Source: adopted from Ajzen (1988, p. 118)**

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was introduced by Ajzen (1991). The TPB is an extension and modification of the TRA (see Figure 2.5). As in the original TRA, the primary factor is the individual's intention. However, the difference between the two theories is the individual's intention in the TRA is influenced by two factors (attitudes and subjective norm), while the individual's intention in the TPB is influenced by three factors (attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control) (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). In the TRA, behaviour only depends on a person's intention. In other words, the application of the TRA is restricted to behaviour that is undertaken voluntarily. By adding the perceived behavioural control, the TPB on the other hand, takes into account the perceived impediment when executing the behaviour and extends the boundary conditions of pure volitional control (Lee & Back, 2008; Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992).



**Figure 2-5: The theory of planned behaviour**

**Source: adopted from Ajzen and Driver (1992, p. 210)**

#### **2.3.4.2 The Theory of Planned Behaviour**

The theory of planned behaviour explains and predicts human behaviour in a specific context, especially regarding behaviour in which people have incomplete volitional control (Ajzen, 1991). In this theory, behavioural intention is deemed to be the major predictor of overt behaviour, while behavioural intention is influenced by three different factors: behavioural attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. The antecedents of these three determinants are salient beliefs. At the most basic level, the theory maintains that human beliefs are closely connected to behaviour. Therefore, three different salient beliefs are distinguished: behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs. A more detailed introduction of each factor and belief follows in the next section (Ajzen, 1991, 2005).

#### **Attitudes (ATT)**

The first conceptually independent determinant of intention are attitudes toward behaviour, which refers to, “the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or

appraisal of the behaviour in question” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). The formation of attitudes stems from behavioural beliefs, which are associated with certain attributes. Thus, attitude can be modelled by equation 1. These behavioural beliefs are linked to specific outcomes (either positive or negative) depending on the performance of the behaviour that is weighted by the consumer’s subjective evaluation (Verdurme & Viaene, 2003). Once expected outcomes are valued positively or negatively, consumers acquire attitudes toward the behaviour automatically and simultaneously. In other words, people tend to hold favourable attitudes to behaviour that would lead to a desirable outcome, and unfavourable attitudes toward those behaviours associated with undesirable consequences. Thus, the expected outcomes of performing the behaviour are the important antecedents and determinants of the behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991). In this study, if consumers perceive that purchasing and consuming traditional food in Taiwan can benefit them, for example, in helping them learn about nutrition, they will hold a positive attitude toward this behaviour.

**Equation 1**

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

Source: Adopted from Ajzen (1991, p. 191)

(b=salient belief, I and  $e_i$ =the evaluation of the outcome i, A is directly proportional ( $\propto$ ) to this summative belief index).

**Subjective norm (SUB)**

The concept of subjective norm in the TPB is regarded as the second conceptually independent determinant of intention, and refers to “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). A subjective norm is regarded as a social factor formed from normative beliefs (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). Normative beliefs are concerned with the “likelihood that important referent individuals of groups approve or disapprove of performing a given behaviour” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 195). In a subjective norm, individuals are concerned about the opinions of important people in their lives such as parents, siblings, friends and so forth. These opinions will therefore influence behavioural intention. Thus, social pressure plays an

essential role in a person's decision to perform or not to perform certain behaviours (Bagozzi, Wong, Abe, & Bergami, 2000). The equation for subjective norm is provided in equation 2

**Equation 2**

$$SN_{\infty} = \sum_{i=1}^n n_i m_i$$

Source: Adopted from Ajzen (Ajzen, 1991, p. 195)

(n= normative belief, m= motivation to comply, SN= is directly proportional to the sum of the resulting products across the n salient referents.)

**Perceived behaviour control (PBC)**

Perceived behavioural control (PBC) is the third determinant that influences intention. It is defined as the “perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour, and it is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles” (Ajzen, 1988, p. 132). In other words, if individuals believe that they possess more opportunities or resources and fewer obstacles or impediments, they will have greater perceived control over their behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). This description is formulated as Equation 3. In this equation, “control belief (c) is multiplied by the perceived power (p) of the particular control factor to facilitate or inhibit performance of the behaviour, and the resulting products are summed across the (n) salient control beliefs to produce the perception of behavioural control (PBC)” (Ajzen, 1991, pp. 196,197). Distinct from the first two predictors, in the TPB, perceived behavioural control is used directly to predict behavioural achievement. According to the theory, PBC can increase the probability of a successful action, and can also be regarded as a substitute for a measure of actual control.

**Equation 3**

$$PBC_{\infty} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i p_i$$

Source: Adopted from Ajzen (1991, p. 197)

(n= resources and opportunities belief, c= control belief, p= perceived power, PBC= summed across the n salient control beliefs to produce the perception of behavioural control)

## **Behavioural intention**

In the TPB, behavioural intentions are closely linked to volitional actions. In other words, this theory suggested that the strongest or most proximal predictor of volitional behavioural is one's behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1988). A volitional action is determined by a person's intention to perform or not to perform this behaviour. The intention to perform a given behaviour indicates how hard people are willing to try to perform this behaviour. This is a central factor in the TPB. Generally, if a person holds a strong intention to perform behaviour, the behaviour is more likely to be performed (Ajzen, 1985, 1991).

### **2.3.4.2 Issues surrounding the The Theory of Planned Behaviour**

Although the TPB has been successful in predicting people's behavioural intention in various situations, it has been criticised. TPB is an extension from the TRA since not all behaviours are under volitional control. However, the variable perceived behavioural control needs more research using longitudinal and experimental designs to examine whether it influences intention and behaviour (Manstead & Parker, 1995). This theory also doesn't take into account affective influences which have been regarded as important in the decision-making process (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Richard, Pligt, & Vries, 1996). The TPB also doesn't include past behaviour which is considered playing an important factor in influencing both intention and behaviour (Ouellette & Wood, 1998) .

Since TRA and TPB have been developed, there are many attempts to modify and extend these two theories. The above criticisms are sound and need to be properly addressed. Nevertheless, a meta-analytic review of the TPB analysing 185 independent studies from 161 articles concluded that TPB is sufficient and capable to explain intention and behaviour (Armitage & Conner, 2001b). Perceived behavioural control has also been proved to be an effective antecedence to enhance overall predictive power of behavioural intention across a wide range of behaviours (Doll & Ajzen, 1992; Madden et al., 1992; Manstead & Parker, 1995). Although the past behaviour may be a additional variable to influence intention and behaviour, Triandis (1977) discussed that past behaviour would not influence people's behaviour in a novel situation (Triandis, 1977). As this study is to examine tourist's traditional food purchase intention in a

novel travel destination, past behaviour may not impact on tourists' purchase intention or buying behaviour.

In summary, while suggestions for extending the TPB are available, this theory is able to support prediction of behaviour. Moreover, this study mainly focuses on understanding tourists' purchase intention for traditional food rather than modifies or extends this theory. Therefore, this study employs the original version of TPB as the underpinning theory to conduct research.

#### **2.3.4.3 The application of The Theory of Planned Behaviour to the food and tourism content.**

Since 1985, this theory has been applied to explain many different situations and behaviours. This section reviews prior studies applied the TPB, with a particular focus on its application to the food and tourism sector. Examples of how the theory has been applied in the tourism and food choice context are discussed below and provided in Table 2-4. Perhaps, the earliest study to apply the TPB to the tourism context was conducted by Ajzen and Driver (1992), who applied the TPB to predict the intention and behaviour of college students with regard to five different leisure activities. Research found that attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control can predict the leisure intention ( $R=.50$  to  $.86$ ), and intention and perceived behavioural control predict leisure behaviour ( $R= .48$  to  $.78$ ). Another study that applied the theory to 'green' hotel choice found that TPB demonstrated a strong predictive power in explaining consumers' intentions to visit a green hotel. In this study, all the factors in the TPB (i.e., attitudes, subjective norm, and attitudes) were positively related to the intention to visit a green hotel (Han & Kim, 2010). Lam and Hsu (2006) utilized the TPB to predict tourists' travel intentions in Hong Kong. This study concluded that the core constructs in the TPB are related to the behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination. A similar study conducted by Quintal, Lee, and Soutar (2010) examined potential Chinese, Japanese and Korean tourists to Australia who also reported that attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control were significant positive predictors of tourists' intention to visit Australia. Han and Kim (2010) investigated the revisit intention for a green hotel and found that three core constructs in the TPB were all positively and significantly associated to the revisit intention.



In the prediction of food choice behaviour perspective, this theory also demonstrated its usefulness and effectiveness. For example, it has been used to examine consumption of fish products in Vietnam (Tuu, Olsen, Thao, & Anh, 2008), where it was found that attitudes, social norms, descriptive norm and behavioural control have significant positive effect on behavioural intention. Cook, Kerr, and Moore (2002) utilized the TPB to explore consumers' intentions to purchase genetically modified food in New Zealand and concluded that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control were all significant in determining intention. Similarly, this theory was also applied to predict genetically modified food in Britain and demonstrated that all the components in the TPB were significant predictors of the intention. Another research study applied this theory to explain consumer's intention to purchase organic food. Results have confirmed the usefulness of applying the TPB in explaining organic food choice behaviour (Chen, 2007).

**Table 2-3: The application of the theory of planned behaviour in the tourism context**

<b>Authors (year)</b>	<b>title</b>	<b>Applied in predicting .....</b>
<b>Ajzen &amp; Driver (1992)</b>	Application of the theory of planned behaviour to leisure choice	The intention to choose five different leisure activities.
<b>Cook, Kerr, &amp; Moore (2002)</b>	Attitudes and intentions towards purchasing GM food.	Intention to purchase genetically modified food.
<b>Lam &amp; Hsu (2006)</b>	Predicting behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination.	Intention to travel to Hong Kong
<b>Chen(2007)</b>	Consumer attitudes and purchase intentions in relation to organic foods in Taiwan: Moderating effects of food-related personality traits.	Intention to purchase organic food
<b>Quintal et al. (2010)</b>	Risk, uncertainty and the theory of planned behaviour: A tourism example.	Intention to travel to Australia
<b>Tuu, Olsen, Thao, &amp; Anh (2008)</b>	The role of norms in explaining attitudes, intention and consumption of a common food (fish) in Vietnam	Intention to purchase fish products
<b>Han &amp; Kim (2010)</b>	An investigation of green hotel customers' decision formation: Developing an extended model of the theory of planned behaviour	Intention to stay in a green hotel
<b>Han et al. (2010)</b>	Application of the theory of planned behaviour to green hotel choice: Testing the effect of environmental friendly activities.	Intention to stay in a green hotel

**Source: Developed for this study**

After a review of the previous research in relation to the TPB in the tourism and food choice context, this theory appears to provide the strongest explanation of consumers' and tourists' behaviour. However, few studies have applied this theory to explain tourists' traditional food purchase intention when travelling in a foreign country. As introduced in section 2.2.3, most of food tourism studies have focused on motivations to sample local food though little attention has been paid to traditional food intentions (Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009; Kim et al., 2009; Prescott, Young, O'Neill, Yau, & Stevens, 2002). Therefore, in order to gain a better understanding of tourists' traditional food consumption behaviour, TPB has been adopted in this study to explain and explore tourists' purchase intentions regarding Taiwanese traditional food.

#### **2.3.4.4 Personality traits and food choice behaviour**

Although this study applied the TPB to explore tourists' traditional food purchase intention, there are still many different factors that would influence humans' food choice behaviour. With all the factors, one of the most important determine are the individual's personality traits (Eertmans et al., 2005). "Personality traits provide both conceptually legitimate and empirically useful explanations for human behaviour and experience" (McCrae & Costa, 1995, p. 232). Therefore, personality traits are regarded as important factors in explaining human's behaviour (Kim et al., 2010). Likewise, food choice behaviour is also considered to be linked with the personality traits. This argument was also supported by an early research which was dedicated to on establishing a conceptual model for food choice. In this model personal traits and interests contributed to shape people's food choice behaviour (Furst et al., 1996). However, although personality traits play an essential role in explaining behaviour, there have been few attempts to explore how personality traits influence either on both tourists' behaviour or tourists' traditional food choice behaviour (Eachus, 2004).

Food neophobia is a personality trait which is especially related to the food choice behaviour. This is a concept describing a person who has a tendency to avoid unfamiliar food (Pliner. & Hobden, 1992). Evidences from previous research indicated that this concept influences people's food choice and suggested that people with this personality traits were less willing to try novel food (Chung et al., 2012; Siegrist, Hartmann, & Keller, 2013). Traditional foods have been categorized as one of the types of new food, such as foods which are only familiar in a certain

culture (Tuorila, Lahteenmaki, Pohjalainen, & Lotti, 2001). When travelling in a foreign country, most of the local foods are unfamiliar to tourists. Therefore, it is logically to postulate that this trait will influence tourists' local food choice behaviour in the host country.

Another personality trait that will potentially exert an influence on the food choice of tourists is sensation seeking. Sensation seeking is a personality trait which seeks novelty and stimulation, however, the level of novelty and the degree of stimulation varies from person to person (Lepp & Gibson, 2007; Pizam, Reichel, & Uriely, 2002). According to previous research, this concept has been successfully applied to explain people's or tourist's behaviour and indicates that tourists' behaviour will perform differently because of this trait (Eachus, 2004; Lepp & Gibson, 2007; Pizam et al., 2002; Wymer & Self, 2010). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that this concept may also provide an explanation of why some tourist would choose familiar food (for example; MacDonald or KFC) at the travel destination while some would choice traditional food instead.

In summary, this section discusses the potential influence of personality traits on food choice behaviour, with particular focus on the food neophobia and sensation seeking. These two personality traits are associated with food choice behaviour. Therefore, this study also seeks to understand the effect of personality traits (sensation-seeking and food neophobia) in the TPB model by examining their moderating effect. In the following section, the concept, function, and application of the moderating variable are introduced.

## **2.4 Moderator Variables**

In general terms, "a moderator is a qualitative (e.g., sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). Moderator variables have enjoyed a surge in popularity in many marketing and consumer based research as in a conventional consumer behaviour model it may not fully explain consumer behaviour in some circumstances (Sharma, Durand, & Gur Arie, 1981). Therefore, the importance of moderator variables, is they serve as third variable and helps researchers gain more understanding of the relationship between predictor and outcome variables (Gianfranco, Heiner, & Maren, 2008).

Although the TPB has been found to be effective in predicting and explaining consumer's and tourist's behaviour (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Han et al., 2010; Han & Kim, 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Lobb, Mazzocchi, & Traill, 2007; Masalu & Astrøm, 2001; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Quintal et al., 2010; Tuu et al., 2008; Verbeke & Vackier, 2005) few studies have discussed the moderating effects on the relationship between three predictors (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control) and behavioural intention. As introduced in the previous section, food choice behaviour is a complex behaviour which is affected by many different factors (Contento et al., 2006; Köster, 2009). This study attempts to provide additional insights into the relationship between constructs in relating to the Theory of Planned Behaviour by examining the effects on the following moderators: sensation-seeking and food neophobia. In the following section, the concept of sensation-seeking and food neophobia will be introduced.

## **2.5 Sensation-seeking**

The term 'sensation seeking' was firstly introduced by Zuckerman in 1964. This personality trait describes individual differences in terms of their reaction to external stimuli. One of the primary reason for Zuckerman (1964) developing this concept was to quantify the construct of optimal stimulation level and to make this construct measurable. The theories of optimal level of arousal (OLA) and optimal level of stimulation (OLS) serve as two bases when constructing the sensation-seeking scale. The theory of OLA suggests that there is an optimal level of excitement for different individuals, meaning that while some people need higher levels of excitement to make them feel their best, some require lower levels. In other words, in order to maintain the best feelings, high sensation-seekers tend to seek more novelty and intense situations to reach a higher OLA. OLS theory described how, after a series of stimulations and sensations, people reach an optimal level at which they feel the most pleasant. However, less pleasant emotions occur when stimulation and sensation are lower (Zuckerman, 2007).

A number of experiments have shown that in a situation of sensory deprivation where participants' visual and auditory sensory input are controlled, minimum reactions include anxiety, boredom, hallucination, and cognitive inefficiency (Zuckerman, 2007). Based on this, this concept of sensation-seeking was constructed to describe "the need for change, variety, and intensity of stimulation [that] would manifest itself in many aspects of behaviour, including

sensory, social, and thrill-seeking types of activity” (Zuckerman, 1971, p. 45). Simply speaking, “the trait of sensation-seeking refers to the tendency to seek relatively novel and stimulating situations and to explore them” (Zuckerman, 1979, p. 10). Moreover, the author specifically defined sensation-seeking as “...a trait defined by the seeking of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experiences” (Zuckerman, 1994, p. 27). According to these definitions, particular behaviours are involved in sensation-seeking, including exploratory behaviour in unfamiliar situations, tending toward risk-taking by seeking more exciting activities.

### **2.5.1 Who is a sensation-seeker?**

“A sensation-seeker is seen as a person who needs varied, novel, and complex sensations and experiences to reach or maintain an optimal level of arousal” (Zuckerman, Bone, Neary, Mangelsdorff, & Brustman, 1972, p. 308). Generally speaking, sensation-seekers tend to search for more stimuli in their life. Normally, a sensation-seeker is assumed to be bored when the environment provides less stimulation or the experience is repeated (Zuckerman et al., 1972).

The novel, intense, and varied experiences sought by sensation-seekers usually involve a potential physical, social, or financial risk (Grinblatt & Keloharju, 2009). Hence, a major discrepancy between high sensation-seekers and low sensation-seekers is the former would do things the later would regard as risky (Zuckerman, 1979). Sensation-seeking is a trait that not only explains the behaviour of taking risks, but also refers to one who tends to seek an intense and novel sensory experience in their life. Thus, a high sensation-seeker could be described as a person who holds a strong need for variety, novelty, complex sensation and experiences (Pizam et al., 2002).

In the tourism context, one of the motivations for people to travel can be explained through novelty (Montmany et al., 2004). People travel to experience new things that they are unable to experience in their familiar areas (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Given this, the concept of novelty plays a central role in shaping the tourist experience (Cohen, 1972). Novel pleasure travel includes an altered routine and experiencing different things, people and environments (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Among the novel experiences pursued by tourists when travelling, sampling

local food is regarded as one of the highest priorities. Tourists explore food new to them as an entry point to exploring culture and different lifestyles when travelling (Long, 2004).

The main aim of this study is to explore tourists' traditional food consumption behaviour. Therefore, the construct of sensation-seeking personality trait is applied to examine the moderating effects of tourists' willingness to try traditional Taiwanese food. In the following section, more detailed information regarding the relationship between sensation-seeking and food choice, and sensation-seeking research is discussed.

### **2.5.2 Sensation-Seeking Research**

Since the concept of sensation seeking was introduced in the 1960s, a great deal of research has been conducted (Arnett, 1994) and this section reviews previous research to gain a better understanding of how this concept has been applied, its relationship with tourists' behaviour and its connection to food choice (a table of relevant sensation seeking studies is provided in Appendix F). Based on previous research it is interesting to note that this concept has been extensively applied to explore general behaviour and tourist behaviour.

These studies provide an understanding of the significance of this concept in explaining some behaviours (Dahlen, Martin, Ragan, & Kuhlman, 2005; Deandrea, Carpenter, Shulman, & Levine, 2009; Desrichard & Denarie, 2005; Eachus, 2004; Gullette & Lyons, 2006; Litvin, 2008; Lopez-Bonilla & Lopez-Bonilla, 2008; Pizam et al., 2002; Slater, 2003; Weisskirch & Murphy, 2004b). For example, research has shown that sensation-seeking is associated with drug use, alcohol use, sexual behaviour, and Internet abuse. These behaviours or activities usually involve dangerous, deviant, or reckless behaviour. This demonstrates that high sensation-seekers have a tendency to perform and engage in more risky activities. In other words, high sensation-seekers are inclined to seek more stimuli or novel experiences in their lives. These studies have concluded that sensation-seeking is a stable personality trait capable of predicting behaviour (Desrichard & Denarie, 2005; Galloway & Lopez, 1999; Gullette & Lyons, 2006; Martin et al., 2002; Spitalnick et al., 2006; Weisskirch & Murphy, 2004b).

Other researchers have applied this concept in a tourism context primarily for marketing purposes. These studies have attempted to understand tourists' and vacationers' behaviour

through the concept of sensation-seeking and in turn to help with travel destination positioning and marketing strategies (Cho & Jang, 2008; Dickinson, Gilchrist, & Povey, 1995; Galloway, 2002; Galloway et al., 2007). Sensation-seeking has been utilized in marketing and product positioning, as tourists can be segmented by sensation-seeking behaviour (Litvin, 2008). For example, high sensation-seekers act differently to low sensation-seekers during park visits. They tend to camp more often in parks, engage in more activities during their visit, rank higher the importance of park facilities, and experience higher satisfaction than low sensation-seekers (Galloway, 2002). Further, high sensation-seekers tend to visit more remote parks, prefer unstructured tours, have increased willingness to discover areas where native animals might exist, see wildlife, and engage in more challenging activities (Galloway & Lopez, 1999). In a study of wine tourism, differences in tourists were found between low sensation-seekers and high sensation-seekers. High sensation-seekers tended to spend more on wine and drink more wine per month. They also tended to participate in more activities during trips. High sensation-seekers rated stimulation and indulgence as the criteria they used in deciding which wine region to visit (Galloway et al., 2007).

Sensation-seeking is found to be related to a tourists' role in their destination choice. High sensation-seekers prefer to arrange their own travel, travel without a fixed itinerary, involve themselves with the local culture, and engage in authentic experiences more than low sensation-seekers (Lepp & Gibson, 2007). When comparing high sensation-seekers to low sensation-seekers, it can be concluded that high sensation-seekers are more likely to participate in extreme sport during their trip, and tend to manage their own travel arrangements (Pizam et al., 2002). Further, research also confirmed that the level of an individual's sensation-seeking can be an effective predictor of that individual's holiday preference. This is to say people scoring high on the sensation-seeking scale need more stimulation during their holiday. These people would tend to need more adventure experiences and be involved in exciting activities such as exploring a destination's night-life, rather than spending their time on cultural activities (Montmany et al., 2004).

According to the discussion above, the concept of sensation seeking appears to be a useful variable in explaining tourist behaviour. Accordingly, this concept will also provide an

explanation for people's behaviour in terms of their food choice. Previous research has demonstrated the strong relationship between sensation-seeking and food choice. For example, Donnenwerth and Kish (1972) conducted research to test the relationship between sensation-seeking and a food preference utilizing a sensation-seeking scale and food preference inventory. Study results demonstrated that a moderate negative relationship between the sensation-seeking scale and food preference inventory existed. More specifically, high sensation-seekers had a tendency to prefer spicy, sour and crunchy food to bland, sweet and soft food (Donnenwerth & Kish, 1972). Further research also demonstrated that high sensation-seeking had a significant positive relationship with interest in spicy food and alcoholic beverages (Terasaki & Imada, 1988). Thus, certain food qualities play a critical role in linking food preferences to sensation-seeking, with the link between food preference and sensation-seeking determined by the stimulation value of these food qualities (Zuckerman, 1979).

The novelty of food has an impact on the relationship between food preference and sensation-seeking (Terasaki & Imada, 1988). Further, a positive relationship between sensation-seeking and exotic food has been found (Zuckerman, 1983). Researchers have investigated the relationship between bitter food intake and sensation-seeking, and demonstrated a significant correlation between sensation-seeking and caffeine use (Mattes, 1994). High sensation-seekers tend to choose unfamiliar food more than low sensation-seekers (Pline. & Melo, 1997), and a significant correlation was found between willingness to taste unusual food and the experience-seeking subscale of the sensation-seeking scale (Otis, 1984). Other research investigating the tourist behaviour of young adults indicates that tourists who have a high score on the combined measure of risk taking and sensation-seeking are inclined to engage in activities such as sampling local food, going to bars, camping, and going swimming in the open ocean to a greater extent than those who are low sensation-seekers (Montmany et al., 2004).

The previous discussion has demonstrated that the sensation seeking personality trait is a useful construct to explain general behaviour, tourist behaviour and preferences, and even their food choice behaviour. Although this concept has been shown to be associated with many different behaviours and activities, little research has been applied to explain tourists' traditional food choice behaviour. Sensation-seeking is not only related to risk-taking; it is also related to the



intensity of an intention to seek novelty in sensory experiences (Arnett, 1994). In the tourism context, novelty is an essential motivating factor for those seeking a vacation (Jang & Feng, 2006; Snepenger, 1987). Therefore, the desire to experience something new and different motivates people to travel (Ariffin, 2008).

Local food is often a novel experiences sought by tourists. However, each individual, according to their preferred state of arousal, seeks different levels of novelty (sensation-seeking) while travelling (Petrick, 2002). Therefore, tourists with different levels of sensation-seeking may vary in their food choice in a foreign country. More specifically, high sensation seekers may be assumed to be more willing to try unfamiliar local food in the travel destination. Given the scarcity of relevant research, this study intends to utilize this concept to explore tourists' traditional food purchase intention as well as to identify if this concept would influence the relationship between constructs in the theory of planned behaviour.

## **2.6 Food neophobia**

A second personality trait specifically discussed in this study is food neophobia. As introduced in the previous section food choice is complex, and understanding it allows marketers to construct more appropriate marketing policies, position products more effectively, and to develop new dishes. Food neophobia is a personality trait especially regarded as an influential factor affecting consumers' food choice behaviour. This section will introduce the definition of this concept and reviews the food neophobia literature.

### **2.6.1 The concept of food neophobia**

The availability of new types of food is accompanied by a reluctance of some people to sample these foods. This phenomenon is referred to as food neophobia (Ritchey, Frank, Hursti, & Tuorila, 2003). Food neophobia, as defined by Pliner and Hobden (1992, p. 105) is, "a reluctance toward and/ or an avoidance of novel food". "Food neophobia, literally means 'fear of the new,' manifests in avoidance of new foods" (Birch, 1999, p. 49). "Neophobia can be conceptualized as a personality trait, a continuum along which people are located in terms of their stable propensity to approach or avoid novel foods" (Pliner. & Hobden, 1992, p. 107). Although food neophobia may serve to protect people from being poisoned by potentially unsafe food, nowadays food is

reasonably safe (Pliner & Melo, 1997; Pliner & Hobden, 1992). Another reason for studying this personality trait is to assist managers of service establishments to minimize consumers' fears toward new food. Thus, one of the purposes of this research is to apply this concept in a food tourism context to discover the relationship between food neophobia and traditional food sampling among tourists.

### **2.6.2 Food neophobia research**

Food neophobia is a popular field of research and has been examined in many studies. In this section, previous research related to this concept is reviewed (see Appendix F). By reviewing previous research, it was found this concept is closely connected to food choice behaviour. For example, one study concluded that customers holding strong food neophobia personality trait would result in them being less familiar of Asian food and further influenced their attitude and purchase intention (Hwang & Lin, 2010). Eertmans et al. (2005) reveal in their study that food neophobia is negatively related to spicy food intake but positively correlated with familiar food, while Choe and Cho (2011) find a negative correlation between food neophobia and the willingness to try non-traditional food restaurants in Korea. Tuorila et al. (2001) indicated that the less neophobic subjects have a tendency to try both familiar and unfamiliar food which means their diet have more items and variety. Similarly, Olabi et al. (2009) concluded that student with high food-neophobia trait is negatively correlated with the willingness to try the novel food. Further, food neophobia has also be found to be associated with liking fewer food types, disliking more food types, having less food preference, and the number of untried foods among two to five year-old children in Australia (Russell & Worsley, 2008).

Apart from studies of the effect of food neophobia on food choice, there are other studies interested in exploring the antecedents that influences the traits of food neophobia. For example, one study divided these influences into three major categories. The first is the sensory quality of the food itself, the second is information regarding the food product, and the third is the consumers' attitude or personality traits (Tuorila, Meiselman, Bell, Cardello, & Johnson, 1994). Other research discussed the effect of genetics, and recent research demonstrates the heritability of food neophobia (Cooke, Haworth, & Wardle, 2007; Knaapila et al., 2007). There are also some studies discussing the impact of social influence on food neophobia levels. These studies

found children to be influenced by adult models with regard to food choice (Addressi, Galloway, Visalberghi, & Birch, 2005), and parental food choice to affect children's acceptance of new food (Falciglia, Troyer, & Couch, 2004).

In Verbeke and Lopez's research (2005), taste and appearance are hindrances that deter people from trying ethnic food. Other studies argue that the perception of food taste is the main reason why people are unwilling to try novel food (Arvola, Lahteenmaki, & Tuorila, 1999; Martins & Pliner, 2005; P. Pliner, Pelchat, & Grabski, 1993). The final factor is the information influence. Research shows that information about and familiarity with novel food decreases food neophobia. Information influences include sensory education (Mustonen & Tuorila, 2010) advertisement stimuli (Dovey, Taylor, Stow, Boyland, & Halford, 2011), and the taste of the food (Pelchat & Pliner, 1995). Familiarity can also improve people's willingness to try new food (Choe & Cho, 2011; Hwang & Lin, 2010).

With all these factors that can potentially influence food neophobia, the influence of socio-demographic factors have been found to be inconsistent. Some studies reveal no significant difference between socio-demographic factors with regard to food neophobia (Johns, Edwards, & Hartwell, 2011; Russell & Worsley, 2008; Verbeke & Lopez, 2005), while others concluded that they had no effect (Flight, Leppard, & Cox, 2003; Olabi et al., 2009; Tuorila et al., 2001).

In summary, the concept of food neophobia has been examined in many different contexts. Food neophobia has however received little attention in the tourism context, and has not been applied to traditional food consumption behaviour. The most frequent subjects of food neophobia studies are with children (Addressi et al., 2005; Birch, Francis, & Hofer, 2001; Cooke et al., 2007; Dovey et al., 2011; Pelchat & Pliner, 1995; Russell & Worsley, 2008), adults (Arvola et al., 1999; Choe & Cho, 2011; Hwang & Lin, 2010; Tuorila et al., 2001; Verbeke & Lopez, 2005) and students (Edwards, Hartwell, & Brown, 2010; Eertmans et al., 2005; Flight et al., 2003; Martins & Pliner, 2005; Olabi et al., 2009; P. Pliner et al., 1993).

Food is an important experience when people travel to other countries, and clearly during their trip, food choice is an unavoidable part of every day. Nevertheless, food choice away from home

can be either an impediment or attraction (Cohen & Avieli, 2004), which leads some to choose familiar food, and others to try unfamiliar local cuisine. The concept of food neophobia provides a possible explanation for such behaviour. According to the literature, people exhibiting food neophobia try to avoid unfamiliar food and have less food variety than people with a low rating for food neophobia. Accordingly, tourists with a high rating are unlikely to try the traditional food of a host country. Thus, the concept of food neophobia in this study is examined with regard to its relationship to the intention to purchase traditional food.

## **2.7 The moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia**

One of the research aims of this study is to explore the interaction role of sensation seeking and food neophobia on the constructs included in the theory of planned behaviour. This theory stipulates that tourists' traditional food purchase intentions are positively affected by attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control. Moreover, according to the discussion in section 2.5, high sensation-seeking tourists tend to have higher intention to buy local food. Therefore, a high sensation-seeking tourists with a more positive attitude to Taiwanese traditional food, is likely to have a higher purchase intention than low sensation-seeking tourists. Also, when a high sensation-seeking tourists experiences more peer pressure to try Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention is likely to be higher than for low sensation-seeking tourists. Finally, when a high sensation-seeking tourists feel less difficulty in buying, sampling, or trying Taiwanese food, their purchase intention is likely to be higher than for low sensation-seeking tourists.

In addition, as discussion in the section 2.6, tourists with high food-neophobia tend to avoid buying traditional food while low food neophobia tourists would be more willing to try it. Therefore, when a low food-neophobia tourists has more positive attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention would stronger than for high food-neophobia tourists. Accordantly, when a low food-neophobia tourists experiences peer pressure to try the Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention is likely to be higher than for high food-neophobia tourists. Finally, when a low food –neophobia tourists feel less difficulty engaging in the purchase of traditional food, their purchase intention is likely to be higher than for low sensation-seeking tourists.

## **2.8 Sociological influence on food choice**

Sociological influences on food choice or eating behaviour are important. The notion of social influence on human's food choice behaviour suggests such behaviour is a collective characteristic of society, the expression of culture and religion, or the influence from family members and peers (M. Nestle et al., 1998; Patricia Pliner & Mann, 2004; Rozin, Fallon, & Mandell, 1984). For example, family play an important role of developing human's eating pattern as it is a basic part of the- social environment (Taylor, Evers, & McKenna, 2005). Other peoples eating behaviour can influence our dieting preference and food choice (Birch, 1980).

Food choice behaviour and food consumption may also be influenced by other social factors such as gender, age, educational level, and income (Ares & Gámbaro, 2007; Verbeke & Lopez, 2005). As a result, researchers have explored how differences in attitudes toward food and purchase intention are related to socio-demographics. One study reveals there are significant differences in attitude towards fruit consumption depending on the participant's gender and age. This study also concluded that age and gender also have significant effects on the consumption of sweets, chocolate, fruit, and chips (Dennison & Shepherd, 1995). Another study investigated customers' attitudes toward organic food and revealed that educational levels affect buying behaviour (Maria, Anne, Ulla-Kaisa Koivisto, Lars, & Per-Olow, 2001). However, Grogan, Bell, and Conner (1997) claim that there was no a significant difference in sweet snacks consumption behaviour between genders. Further, Meulenberg and Viaene (1998) claimed that there was not a strong correlation between education and food consumption behaviour.

Some research has also examined the effect of socio-demographics on sensation-seeking and food neophobia, but there is no consensus in the results. Zuckerman, Eysenck, and Eysenck (1978) claimed that age, gender, and nationality (American and British) have a significant effect on sensation-seeking, while another study revealed no difference in sensation-seeking between gender among different age groups (Hoyle, Stephenson, Palmgreen, Lorch, & Donohew, 2002). However, Gilchrist, Povey, Povey, and Dickinson (1995) found a significant difference in the sensation-seeking personality trait based on gender but not on age differences. Food neophobia has been related to gender, educational level, nationality, income and age (Camarena, Sanjuán, &

Philippidis, 2011; Dovey, Staples, Gibson, & Halford, 2008; Meiselman, King, & Gillette, 2010; Tuorila et al., 2001).

The discussion of social influence on food choice behaviour above highlights potential interaction between social factors and other variables in this study. Gender, age, income, educational level, and nationality are selected to be included to examine their influence on food choice. Undoubtedly, other social factors are important in terms of people food choice behaviour, nevertheless, factors such cultural expression and social practices are beyond the scope of this study. Moreover, subjective norms in the TPB refers to the opinions from important others (family, friends, and so forth). In this case, the influence of family and peers will be discussed and explored within the concept of subjective norm.

## **2.9 The Selection of research site–Taiwan**

The aim of this study is to explore tourists purchase intentions toward traditional food when travelling. To this end, it was necessary to select a country with a rich traditional food culture as a research site. Taiwan is viewed as fitting this criterion. In Taiwan, food tourism is prospering, as the Taiwanese have always been proud of their traditional food culture. In order to introduce its unique food culture to the world, the Taiwanese government has actively developed food tourism (Horng & Tsai, 2010; Lan, Wu, & Lee, 2012). Moreover, the diverse food culture in Taiwan is considered to be one of the most important food cultures in the world (Lien, Hsiao, & Huang, 2010). Taiwan is also noted for its variety and uniqueness as a food tourism destination and is distinguished by two important characteristics - richness and diversity in cooking styles, and readily available ingredients.

The Taiwanese traditional food culture is diverse, and has been influenced by various ethnic, cultural, geographic, and economic factors. Consequently, there are many varieties of Taiwanese cuisine (台灣菜; pinyin: Táiwāncài; Peh-ōe-jī: Tâi-oân liâu-lí) with two noticeable influences. The first was the conquest of Taiwan by Japan between 1885 and 1945. The second was the migration of more than two million people from the Chinese mainland to Taiwan in 1949. The result is that there is considerable variety in the food which is traditionally eaten in Taiwan with influences from many middle and southern provinces of Mainland China (notably from the

province of Fujian, but including cuisine from Guangdong, Jiangxi, Chaoshan, Shanghai, Hunan, Sichuan and Beijing), sometimes in combination with Japanese styles of cooking. Traditional Chinese food dishes can be found alongside native Taiwanese Fujian and Hakka-style cooking. Thus, the Taiwanese food culture includes representative local dishes from the people of Hoklo (Hō-ló) ethnicity and aboriginal dishes with Min (Fujian Province), Yue (Guangdong Province), Hakka, and Japanese influences. This has led to a rich and diverse range of local food products, cuisine and dining customs. The diversity of Taiwanese traditional food, therefore, contributes to its reputation as a food paradise. This has been proven by statistics drawn from the Taiwanese Tourism Bureau (2007, 2008, 2009, and 2010). Of all activities available, sampling Taiwanese traditional food has been the most popular activity and attraction among tourists for several years in a row.

Further, sampling Taiwanese traditional food does not necessitate going to a restaurant. One of the special features of Taiwan food culture is its convenience. According to statistics from the Directorate General of Budget, Accounting, and Statistics (DGBAS), in 2008 there were more than 161,091 vendors selling snacks, food products and beverages on the street. This constituted more than 50% of all street vendors in Taiwan (DGBAS, 2011). In addition, among the most popular tourist destinations are night markets, where tourists can experience all kinds of Taiwanese traditional food. At night markets in Taiwan, more than 60% of the vendors sell food and drinks (Wang, 1999), which means that tourists can always follow their noses to take a break (Tu & Liou, 2008).

There are various types of traditional snacks and food in Taiwan. In order to promote Taiwanese traditional food, the Taiwanese government have listed some examples on the Taiwanese Bureau of Tourism website. These include Danzai Noodles, Oyster Omelet, Stinky Tofu, Taiwanese Meatballs, Coffin Sandwich, Meat Wrap, Oyster Vermicelli, Thousand Years Egg, Braised Pork Rice, Meat Rice Tamales, and Steamed Sandwiches. Table 3-2 lists a description of each of these snacks (A relevant images see Appendix A).

**Table 2-4: Description of Taiwanese traditional food**

Items	Description
Thousand Years Egg	Duck eggs are used instead of chicken eggs. This mixture leaches into the shell and egg, making the interior smooth and creamy—like a ripe avocado in texture. The yolk turns a vivid green and the white various shades of yellow, blue and green. It has been compared to the colours of a black opal. The flavour is rich, pungent and cheese-like.
Danzai Noodles	Oil noodles and bean sprouts are the main ingredients in this Tainan specialty dish. The noodles are served in a small bowl and usually topped with meat or an egg boiled in soy sauce for an extra flavour boost.
Oyster Omelet	Sea-fresh oysters is an important ingredient in this popular snack, available at just about every night market in Taiwan. The oysters are coated in potato starch and tapioca. Eggs and leafy vegetables are added to the mixture, which is skillet fried over a high flame. A sweet and sour sauce further adds to the addictively delicious taste.
Stinky Tofu	With stinky tofu, the greater the smell, the tastier the results. And while many people are put off by the smell, those who take the plunge are usually won over by this distinctively yummy treat. Stinky tofu is made of large squares of fermented tofu fried in oil and then cut into four smaller pieces and served with a garnish of pickled cabbage. The crispy skin of tofu and its soft inside are the best parts of this dish's charm.
Coffin Sandwich	This Tainan specialty often turns heads for its very unusual name. The sandwich is a thick slice of bread with a hollow centre filled with a mixture of chicken meat and liver, shrimp, carrots, potatoes, and milk. The filling is then covered with another piece of bread and cut into four pieces. Best when served hot.
Oyster Vermicelli	No night market worth the name is without this unassuming little treat. The quality of this dish is judged by the freshness of the oysters and chewiness of noodles. The dish is made with a type of red vermicelli that does not crumble easily. The noodles are served in a soup stock with fresh oysters and soy stewed large intestines and flavoured with black vinegar, a special sauce, and a garnish of cilantro.
Steamed Sandwich	Steamed sandwiches ("guabao") were originally eaten during employees' dinner parties held on the 16th day of the 12th lunar month, but today they can be enjoyed at night markets throughout the year. The sandwiches resemble a kind of hamburger made with a soft white bun. The bun is stuffed with melt-in-your-mouth pork and garnished with pickled vegetables, peanut powder and cilantro, creating a nose-pleasing and tasty combination.
Pig's Blood Cake	Pig Blood Cake is composed of pig's blood steamed with rice. The outside of the cake is coated with peanut powder.
Taiwanese Meatballs	Changhua and Hsinchu counties are the most famous places for Taiwanese meatballs. In Changhua, the meatballs are deep-fried, while those in Hsinchu are steamed, giving each local variety a distinctive taste. The meatballs are cooked in an outer wrapper made of tapioca powder, rice powder, potato starch, and water, while the filling includes pork, mushroom, bamboo shoots and other ingredients. The chewy outer skin and fragrant filling make a perfectly delicious match.
Braised Pork Rice	This dish has been defined by the mayor of Taipei as cultural heritage. It is stewed pork and mostly served with rice. The braised meat sauce is usually made with onion, garlic, and soy sauce.
Meat rice Tamales	Tamales are made of glutinous rice, mushrooms, peanuts, egg yolks and pork all wrapped up in bamboo leaves, which impart their subtle flavour.

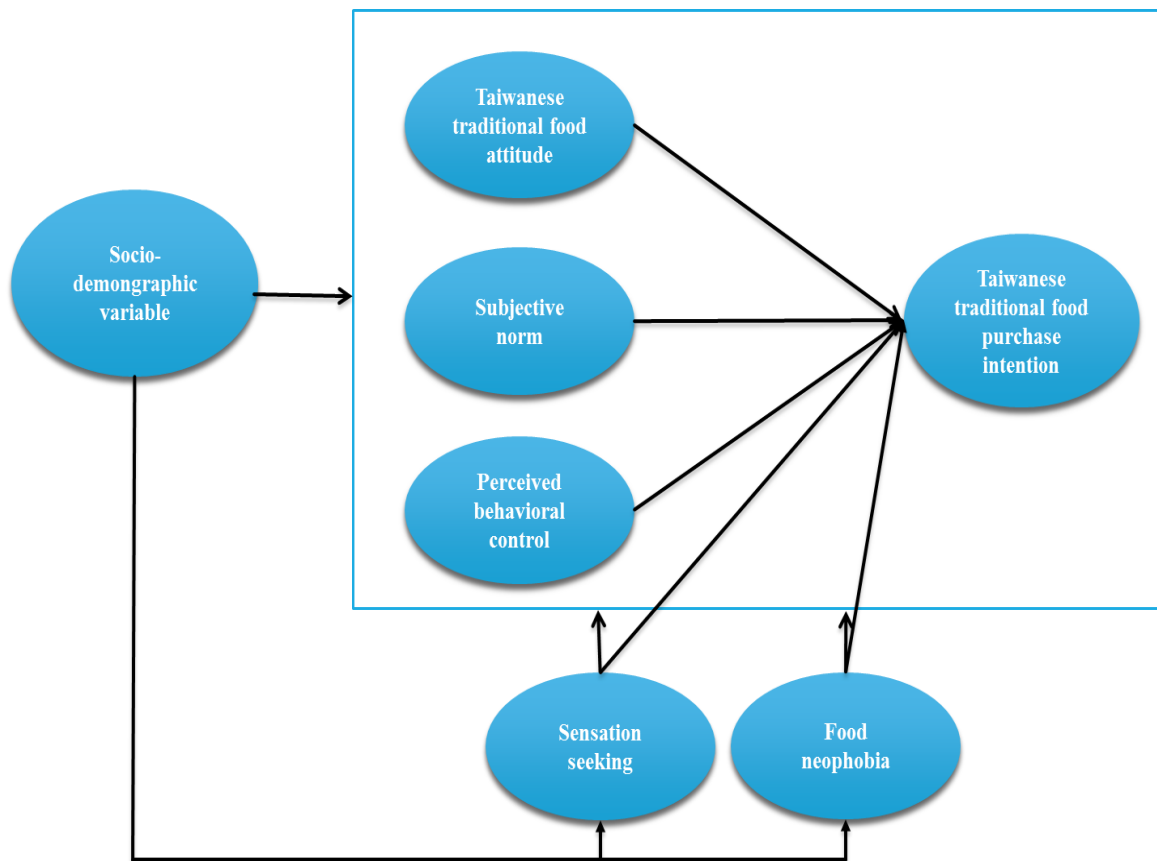
**Source: Adopted from Taiwanese Bureau of Tourism (2010)**

## 2.10 Conceptual framework

This study has used the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) to examine the Western tourist's purchase intention of Taiwanese traditional food during their stay in Taiwan. According to the theory, behavioural intention is the sole predictor of behaviour. Behavioural intention in turn is influenced by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Thus, in this



study, tourists' attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control are said to influence their purchase intention. Further, sensation-seeking and food neophobia personality traits are considered to be influential factors affecting tourists' traditional food purchase intentions. Therefore, these two concepts are likely to affect tourists' purchase intentions and serve as moderating variables as well as predictors. This study also examines the effects of social demographics on the constructs of this study. The conceptual framework can be conceptualized as in Figure 2-6.



**Figure 2-6: Conceptual framework of this study**

**Source: Developed for this study**

In the conceptual framework, there are three independent variables, two moderators and one dependent variable. The independent variables are food neophobia, sensation-seeking, attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control. The dependent variable is the intention to purchase Taiwanese traditional food. Sensation-seeking

includes four dimensions: thrill and adventure, experience seeking, disinhibition, and boredom susceptibility. The socio-demographic variables consist of age, nationality, gender, and education level.

## **2.11 Conclusion**

This chapter has developed a critical review of food tourism, food consumer behaviour, sensation-seeking, and food neophobia personality traits. The use of the theory of planned behaviour in this study has been justified for its ability to explain and predict tourists' traditional food purchase intentions in Taiwan. A total of six key variables have been identified: Taiwanese traditional food attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, sensation-seeking, food neophobia, and traditional food purchase intention. Firstly, the food tourism phenomenon was described through definitions of food tourism, food tourists, and food tourism research. Secondly, the chapter introduced consumer behaviour models in relation to food, and an underpinning model of theory of planned behaviour was identified. Thirdly, two key variables were discussed: sensation-seeking and food neophobia personality traits. To conclude, this chapter presented a conceptual framework with research issues identified, which will subsequently guide the selection of an appropriate methodology which will be discussed in Chapter 3.

## **Chapter 3. Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, the research methodology will be discussed to examine the research questions presented in the previous chapter which have been described and justified. In Section 3.2, the philosophical paradigm of this study is introduced. Section 3.3 discusses the research strategy employed in this study. A detailed description of the research design is discussed in Section 3.4. The sampling procedure and size, sampling method, and data collection has been discussed in Section 3.5. Section 3.6 provides more detailed information about the scales which have been applied in this study. Two of the scales are adopted from well-developed scales while others were integrated from previous research. Section 3.7 discusses the data analysis method, which is divided into two parts: pilot survey and main study. Ethical considerations have been provided in Section 3.8, while Section 3.9 concludes the chapter.

### **3.2 Research Paradigm**

The first step in developing a research methodology is the specification of a paradigm that guides the research. The notion of a paradigm originates from the history of philosophical thought (Corbetta, 2003) and is, “a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry” (Guba, 1990, p. 17). Conscious specification of a paradigm helps to ensure consistency between the approach being adopted for data collection and the subsequent construction of ‘knowledge’ from the data (Jennings, 2010, p. 34). In other words, if scientific research is not conducted on the basis of a paradigm, the problems, methods, and techniques chosen may lack a common orientation (Corbetta, 2003). Corbetta (2003), and Plano Clark and Creswell (2007) identified four basic questions that can be used to select appropriate paradigms for a study. These concern ontology, epistemology, methodology, and axiology. As introduced in Table 3.1, this illustrates the philosophical elements of the four principal paradigms and details what roles and methodology are appropriate for each.

Ontology concerns the question of “what”: What is the nature of reality? Epistemology concerns questioning “the relationship”. What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched? Methodology concerns the question of “how”: How can social reality be studied, or what is the process of the research? Axiology concerns questions around “value”: What is the role of value? Each question is interrelated with the others, so that the specified answer to any one restrains the possible answers available to the others (Lincoln & Denzin, 1994). Based on the answer to these questions, there are four different paradigms that Creswell and Piano Clark have (2007) proposed: post positivism, constructivism, advocacy and participation, and pragmatism.

The research paradigm related for this study is postpositivism. Postpositivism presents the rethinking after positivism and challenges the traditional notion of the absolute truth of knowledge. In other words, when studying human behaviour and action, we cannot be positive about the claim of knowledge (Creswell, 2009). Postpositivists hold a deterministic philosophy, which is concerned about the relationship between cause and outcome. Therefore, postpositivists reflect the need to identify and assess the causes that influence the outcomes. It also involves a set of ideas to test, such as the research questions and research hypotheses which are comprised by the variables. Thus, by using the scientific method, the approach to research by postpositivists is often associated with quantitative methods. That is, a researcher begins with a theory, collects data that either supports or refutes the theory, and then makes the necessary revisions before additional tests are made (Creswell, 2009). The research aim of this study is to provide a deeper understanding of tourists’ traditional food buying behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour has been selected as the fundamental theory for this study, and utilized to predict tourists’ purchase intentions. In order to examine this theory in the traditional food choice context, several different questions have been constructed and hypotheses developed which are followed by the research question. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the most appropriate paradigm is postpositivism since it follows strict scientific methods and standard procedures, involving careful control and manipulation of the variables.

**Table 3-1: Philosophic elements of worldviews/paradigms**

<b>Worldview/ Paradigm Elements</b>	<b>Postpositivism</b>	<b>Constructivism</b>	<b>Advocacy and Participatory</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<b>Ontology</b> (What is the nature of reality?)	Singular reality (e.g., researchers reject or fail to reject hypotheses)	Multiple realities (e.g., researchers provide quotes to illustrate different perspectives)	Political reality (e.g., findings are negotiated with participants)	Singular and multiple realities (e.g., researchers test hypotheses and provide multiple perspectives)
<b>Epistemology</b> (What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?)	Distance and impartiality (e.g., researchers objectively collect data on instruments)	Closeness (e.g., researchers visit participants at their sites to collect data)	Collaboration (e.g., researchers actively involve participants as collaborators)	Practicality (e.g., researchers collect data by “what works” to address research question)
<b>Axiology</b> (What is the role of values?)	Unbiased (e.g., researchers use checks to eliminate bias)	Biased (e.g., researchers actively talk about their biases and interpretations)	Biased and negotiated (e.g., researchers negotiate with participants about interpretations)	Multiple stances (e.g., researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives)
<b>Methodology</b> (What is the process of research?)	Deductive (e.g., researchers test a priori theory)	Inductive (e.g., researchers start with participants’ views and build up to patterns, theories, and generalisations)	Participatory (e.g., researchers involve participants in all stages of the research and engage in cyclical reviews of results)	Combining (e.g., researchers collect both quantitative and qualitative data and mix them)

Source: Creswell (2009, p 24.)

### 3.3 Research strategy

Conducting research requires a choice between applying a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed method approach. “Strategies of inquiry are types of qualitative, quantitative and mixed method designs or models that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design” (Creswell, 2009, p. 11). The terms ‘qualitative’ and ‘quantitative’ are used in this study to differentiate both the data collection techniques and the data analysis procedures (Saunders et al, 2007).

In general, qualitative research involves collecting substantial amounts of information using a few cases. Qualitative research gathers data from people involved in a particular situation and encourages them to describe their feelings and experiences in their own words (Veal, 2006). There are several different inquiry approaches when conducting qualitative research: ethnography, grounded theory, case study, phenomenological research, and narrative research (Creswell, 2009). On the other hand, quantitative research is usually associated with the

gathering of information from individuals by employing a system of formally designed questions in a questionnaire or an interview schedules (Veal, 2006). The intent of quantitative research is to see how data gathered from respondents fits an existing theory (i.e., model or framework). It applies a deductive approach to examine the relationship between theory and research (Bryman, 2001). A third approach called 'mixed method' is applied to address the shortcomings of these two methods (Blaikie, 2009). 'Mixed method' is a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. The basic notion is that qualitative and quantitative methods are used in the same study, and are equally as important (Creswell, 2007). The goal of utilizing a mixed method is not to replace qualitative and quantitative research; rather, it maximizes the strengths and diminishes the weaknesses of the two methods at the same time (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

As indicated above, a quantitative approach will be used in this study and is informed by a postpositivist paradigm. Quantitative research refers to testing objective theories by examining the relationship between variables. Variables are usually measured on a scale which allows for statistical analysis (Creswell, 2009). Such an approach enables the researcher to understand the trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). According to the research questions and research hypotheses, this approach is therefore adopted. A more detailed discussion of the sample size, target group, sample selection, and data analysis is introduced in sections 3.5–3.7.

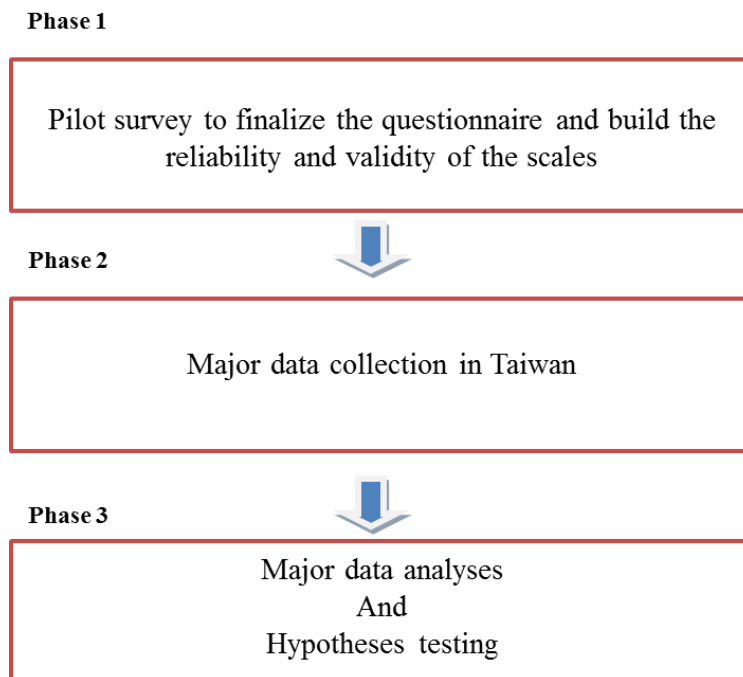
### **3.4 Research design**

The aim of this study is to investigate tourists' purchase intentions of Taiwanese traditional food by applying the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). This study identifies the concepts of sensation-seeking and food neophobia as potential variables that influence tourists' purchase intentions toward traditional food from Taiwan. These two concepts are examined because of their moderating effect on the constructs in the Theory of Planned Behaviour and the relationship with purchase intention. In order to test the research aim and answer the research questions, a quantitative research has been adopted in this study.

The research procedure for this study is divided into three phases. The first is the pilot survey. A pilot survey was conducted to establish the validity and reliability of the questionnaire before

embarking on the main data collection exercise. The questionnaire in this study was adopted and integrated from previous research. Thus, it was necessary to determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaire before the main data was collected. The pilot survey was conducted in Australia and its main targets were Caucasians. The reason of selection the Caucasian as the main target group is discussed in more detail in the next section (section 3.5). After the pilot survey three different statistical techniques (factors analysis, Cronbach's alpha, and item analysis) were applied to examine its validity and reliability.

The second phase was researcher administered surveys. They were conducted to t the conceptual framework and research hypothesis proposed by this study. In this phase, the data collection was conducted in Taiwan for six months and focussed on Caucasian foreign tourists. The third phase included data analysis and interpretation. The research process of this study is presented as Figure 3-1.



**Figure 3-1: Research process of this study**  
**Source: Developed for this study**

## **3.5 Sampling procedure and sample size**

### **3.5.1 Subjects**

Fundamental to this study is to gain a deeper understanding of tourists' traditional consumption behaviour of Taiwanese food. On this basis, the selection of the target group is important so as to ensure their viewpoints reflect the core of this study. Therefore, Caucasians were considered to be the most appropriate sample for the following two reasons.

Firstly, the selection of Caucasians as the main target group enables examination of the concepts of food neophobia and sensation-seeking. Although there are some discrepancies in the food culture among different Asian countries, some of the ingredients, their spicy nature, and the ways of preparation are similar. Thus, even though there are differences in the types of food, Asian people are familiar with the food from other Asian countries. However, the popularity of and people's familiarity with Taiwanese traditional food is still in its early stages in most Western countries. Compared with Asian tourists, Caucasian tourists are much less familiar with Taiwanese traditional food. This issue is also the primary concern of the Taiwanese government. In order to enhance the popularity of Taiwanese traditional food in Western countries, US\$30 million was invested in promoting it in 2010. As Rubin (1995) described, all potential sampling approaches need to be evaluated against one important criterion, which is that respondents represent a range of points of view. Thus, from the perspective of food cultural discrepancy and familiarity, Caucasian respondents can provide more effective measures and reflections on the correlations between food neophobia, sensation-seeking, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention as referred to in research question 2.

Another reason for selecting Caucasians as the main target group is that the number of Caucasian tourists who visit Taiwan has been steadily increasing in recent years (see Table 3-2) (tourism Bureau, Republic of China, 2011). Therefore, their opinions regarding Taiwanese traditional food need to be valued. While Taiwan is proud of its food culture and food diversity, this may not reflect Caucasians' tourists' viewpoints. Apart from the traditional food outlined in the Taiwanese Bureau of Tourism website, there are many other types of traditional dishes favoured by the Taiwanese people. These dishes may be seen as repulsive to tourists. One clear-cut example is Pig's Blood Cake, this dish has been reported as being the most unusual dish in the



world by the UK-based travel website VirtualTourist.com. It has also been described by foreigners as the ‘food from hell’. Nevertheless, Pig’s Blood Cake is one of the most common Taiwanese dishes. Because of the increasing number of Caucasian tourists, it is therefore necessary to gain a greater understanding of their attitudes and purchase intentions toward Taiwanese traditional food. By doing so, marketing strategies and product designs benefit, and may further enhance the popularity of Taiwanese traditional food.

According to the discussion above, this study will only target Caucasians tourists and further classify them into four different groups: America and Canada, England, Australia and New Zealand, and Europe. Such a classification may not precisely demonstrate each national’s viewpoints in terms of the purchase intention to the traditional food but would provide preliminary research results (this issue would also be addressed as the research limitation).

### **3.5.2 Sampling method**

There are two primary sampling methods are: probability (or representative sampling) and non-probability (or judgmental sampling). The major differences between these two sampling methods is that probability sampling requires that the chance of being selected for all the sampling units in a population is equal, while in non-probability sampling each unit in the population being studied does not have an equal chance of being selected (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Approaches to random sampling include simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, and multistage cluster sampling. For non-probability sampling, the approaches can be divided into convenience sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, expert sampling, and quota sampling (Jennings, 2010).

This study uses convenience sampling for the following reasons. This approach allows the researcher to obtain a sample easily, cheaply and quickly. Further, although random sampling is suggested as ideal, it is not always possible in a given research project (Henderson & Bialeschki, 2010). In this study, there was no easily available sampling frame able to ensure the chances of being selected were equal (Creswell, 2009; Neuman, 2011). Thus, considering the timeline and limited budget of this study, convenience sampling was seen as the most appropriate method.

### 3.5.3 Sample Size

In quantitative research, there are many ways to determine an appropriate sample size. One of the most adopted methods is based on the size of the population. A method for determining efficient sample sizes according to the size of the population was developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Another method to determine the sample size is from the perspective of achieving confidence intervals (Veal, 2006). Moreover, other researchers determine their sample size according to the statistical method chosen. For instance, structural equation modelling (SEM) performs best with sample sizes greater than 100 in total. Loehlin (1992) recommends at least 100 cases, preferably 200. Hoyle (1995) also recommends a sample size of at least 100 to 200 when performing SEM.

The method used in this study is a combination of all the suggestions above. From the perspective of an effective sample size to fulfil the requirements of SEM, the ideal size is 200. On the other hand, if the sample size is determined using the calculation by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), it needs to be analysed from data collected from foreign tourists visiting Taiwan (Caucasian). Table 3-3 summarizes the population of foreign tourists (Caucasian only) visiting Taiwan from European, America, Canada, England, Australia, and New Zealand:

**Table 3-2: Number of tourists from western countries to Taiwan**

Year	Population
2006	783.929
2007	820.498
2005	821.131
2009	817.952
2010	887.244
2011	893.998

**Source: Taiwanese Bureau of Tourism (201)**

As can be seen from the table, the Western tourist population between 2005 and 2011 increased from 434,416 to 474,709. Thus, according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), when the sample populations are over 75,000, the sample size needs to be 382 to be representative, which is

rounded to 400. Thus, in this study the sample size was 382 to satisfy the criterion for SEM requirements as well as Krejcie and Morgan's calculation (1970). To achieve a sample of 382 completed questionnaires, the return rate and incomplete questionnaire rate were considered, and as a result 450 questionnaires were distributed.

### **3.6 Questionnaire design**

The questionnaire used in this study incorporates measurement scales for sensation-seeking, food neophobia, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, traditional food attitude, and traditional food purchase intention (see Appendix A). In this section, each scale and measurement is discussed and includes the actual number of items, validity, reliability, and the application of the scale or measurement to previous research. Two measurement scales (sensation-seeking and food neophobia) were adopted from already existing questionnaires, while several (including attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food scale, subjective norm scale, and perceived behavioural control scale) were incorporated use a number of different scales.

#### **3.6.1 Measurement of sensation-seeking**

Previous research in relation to sensation-seeking had been conducted prevalently using quantitative research that indicated that this concept was well developed. Well-constructed instruments were found that measured the personality traits of sensation-seekers. Further, sensation-seeking usually involves several different behaviour patterns and activities, thus, in order to examine the correlation between sensation-seeking and other concepts and behaviour, a large sample was necessary. There have been many attempts to develop a scale for sensation-seeking with a view to measuring this personality trait (Arnett, 1994; Hoyle et al., 2002; A. Worsley, 2002). The first of these was developed by Zuckerman in 1964. Later, this scale was modified several times in order to enhance its reliability and validity. The latest version is VI; however, version V remains the most acceptable version. Apart from Zuckerman, other scholars have developed similar scales, however most were based on Zuckerman's sensation-seeking scale. These different approaches are now reviewed including their reliability, validity, number of items, and use in the tourism context. The choice of the scale used in this study is then justified.

### **3.6.1.1 The original sensation-seeking scale (SSS)**

The first version of the sensation-seeking scale (SSS) was developed in 1964 and it consisted of 50 items. It focused on the general sensation-seeking factor. However, research conducted by Farley (1967) suggested the existence of more than one dimension in this scale. In response to this, Zuckerman (1971) rotated the 50 items utilizing an exploratory factor analysis. Four factors emerged, which were described as follows.

The first factor was “thrill and adventure seeking (TAS). The items in this subscale indicated the desire to engage in physical activities which provided unusual sensations and experiences, such as mountain climbing, skydiving, or scuba diving. Most of these activities were perceived as moderately risky, which deterred lower sensation-seekers from engaging in them. It is the sensation rewards that attract the high sensation-seekers, not the risk. The second factor was experience seeking (ES). This subscale described seeking sensations and new experiences through the mind and a nonconforming general lifestyle with likeminded friends. The third factor was disinhibition (Dis), which referred to seeking sensation through other people, which may include a hedonistic lifestyle, wild parties, sexual activity, and heavy drinking. The fourth factor was boredom susceptibility (BS), which was the weakest one to emerge from the factor analysis and thus was less internally reliable than the other three subscales. BS items represent an aversion to any kind of monotonous condition and restlessness when confined to such conditions. In addition, there is a dislike of people who are not exciting or interesting, even if they are reliable. BS is most highly related to the Dis subscale, and like Dis it is high in psychopathic personalities” (Zuckerman, 1971; 2007, p. 13)

In 1978, in order to develop a shorter scale and resolve the problem of lack of adequate items to measure the subscale of Dis and BS factors, the fifth version (a 40 item sensation-seeking scale) was constructed with the same four dimensions, each of which contained ten items in each scales (Zuckerman et al., 1978).

### **3.6.1.2 Arnett inventory of sensation-seeking**

Along with the sensation-seeking scale developed by Zuckerman et al. (1978), a modified scale based on the SSSV was also developed and constructed in 1994 by Arnett called the “Arnett

inventory of sensation-seeking” (AISS). Arnett argued that the original sensation-seeking scale V had some inadequacies that would limit conclusions drawn from it. The first limitation is that the forced choice format in this scale is inappropriate and insufficient. The second is that some items related to strenuous physical activities (such as skiing and mountain climbing), and ignored the discrepancies between age, physical endurance and strength. Thirdly, some of the descriptions such as ‘queer’ and ‘hippie’ are idioms used in the 1960s. Thus, Arnett (1994) eliminated the shortcomings mentioned above, and developed the Arnett inventory of sensation-seeking scale that measures sensation-seeking. In this scale, there are two major subscales: a novelty and intensity scale.

### **3.6.1.3 Brief sensation-seeking scale (BSSS)**

One further study reviewed previous research related to the sensation-seeking scale and pointed out its shortcomings (Hoyle et al., 2002). For instance, in the SSSV, adolescents may suffer difficulties with the forced-choice format. Further, this scale contained specific items directly referred to problem behaviour such as drug and alcohol use, and some of the words and phrases are also outdated. This study further indicated that existing scales were inadequate, which may have led to measurement problems and inaccuracies (Hoyle et al., 2002). Considering this, Hoyle et al. (2002) developed a new scale in which he eliminated the problems mentioned. This scale called the “brief sensation-seeking scale”, and is based on the SSS-V with eight items equally distributed over four different dimensions, measured by a Likert scale. A special feature of the BSSS is it uses eight items to fully reflect the original SSS-V. Therefore, researchers who used the BSSS as the main instrument in their studies were encouraged to confidently adopt the results or finding from studies that applied the SSS-V.

### **3.6.1.4 Choice of final scale**

After reviewing all the scales measuring the personality of sensation-seekers, the brief sensation-seeking scale was considered to be the most appropriate choice for this study. The first measurement developed by Zuckerman in 1968 undoubtedly provides a great contribution. However, this scale has encountered many shortcomings, as described before. Apart from the aforementioned issues, one of the major concerns is the length of the questionnaire. Its length (i.e., 40 items) would potentially deter subjects from participating in the questionnaire. A shorter

form is necessary to minimise respondent fatigue, and to increase the response rate and to decrease broaden associated with completing the questionnaire (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003). As this study targets foreign tourists in Taiwan, a shorter format would help to diminish the difficulties associated with recruiting participants. Moreover, one study that especially explored the concept of sensation-seeking and its measurement for the purpose of tourism research found that both the SSS-V and BSSS are useful instruments (Litvin, 2008). In light of this, the brief sensation-seeking scale was selected as a measurement of sensation-seeking in this study.

The brief sensation-seeking scale was constructed based on the sensation-seeking V (Zuckerman, 1994), which contained four different subscales and two items in each subscale: thrill and adventure seeking (TAS); experience seeking (ES); disinhibition (Dis); and boredom susceptibility (BS). In this study, those items were rated on a 7-point Likert format ranging from “very strongly disagree” to “very strongly agree”. According to the reliability of the original scale measured by the alpha coefficient, the overall BSSS was 0.76. In this scale, in terms of the total score, the higher the score the participants received this scale, the higher personality trait of sensation-seeking they possessed, and vice versa.

### **3.6.2 Food neophobia scale (FNS)**

A scale to measure the personality trait of food neophobia was used in this study to examine its relationship with the intention to purchase traditional food, and its moderating effect as determined by the Theory of Planned Behaviour. The literature states that the scale measuring the personality of food neophobia is different to the sensation-seeking scale, in that it specifically measures this personality trait. Therefore, in this section, detailed information is provided about the Food Neophobia Scale. This includes the number of items in the food neophobia scale, the reliability and validity of the original scale, and the applications of this scale using previous research.

In 1992, Pliner and Bobden conducted a study with the aim to develop a paper and pencil based scale to measure food neophobia. As a result, a scale was designed to specifically measure the trait. The scale contains ten items, with five positive and five negative worded items. The alpha

coefficient for the original food neophobia scale was 0.88 (Pliner. & Hobden, 1992). This scale has been extensively applied in many other studies, which confirmed its applicability. For example, one study categorized food neophobia into three different types according to the score measured by this scale. People scoring  $>25$  were referred to as ‘neophilic’, those between  $<25$  and  $>45$  were termed ‘neutral’, and  $>45$  as ‘neophobic’ (Olabi et al., 2009). A further study employed the FNS to examine its relationship with the satisfaction and loyalty of attending food events and festivals (Kim et al., 2010). Another study applied this scale to explore consumers’ purchase intentions of Asian food (Hwang & Lin, 2010). This scale was also used to examine the relationship between food neophobia and the purchase of ethnic food (Verbeke & Lopez, 2005).

Evidence was received about its stages of its development, that demonstrated the reliability and validity of this food neophobia scale. Previous research has also shown that it had been applied in studies exploring the relationship of food neophobia with other concepts. Therefore, the food neophobia scale was utilized in this study. In this study, this scale contains 10 items measured by a 7-point Likert Scale (“1 very strongly disagree”, “2 strongly disagree”, “3 disagree”, “4 neutral”, “5 agree”, “6 strongly agree”, and “7 very strongly agree”). The total score is calculated by adding the individual scores for each item, with scoring of five items in this scale reversed before calculation (i.e., items 1, 4, 6, 9, 10). The higher that the participants score, the higher the level of food neophobia they possess, and vice versa.

### **3.6.3 Attitudes toward Taiwanese food**

The method to measure attitudes toward Taiwanese food that this study used items that were used in previous studies that employed the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Han et al., 2010; Hsu & Lam, 2004; Sparks & Pan, 2009) (see Table 3-4). Han et al. (2010) explored the intention to visit a ‘green’ hotel. In this study, attitude valence was measured by seven statements using a 7-point semantic differential scale: “For me, staying at a green hotel when travelling is... extremely bad/extremely good, extremely undesirable/extremely desirable, extremely unpleasant/extremely pleasant, extremely foolish/extremely wise, extremely unfavourable/extremely favourable, extremely unenjoyable/extremely enjoyable, and extremely negative/extremely positive”. Cronbach’s alpha was 0.95 which is very high. Further, Hsu and Lam (2004) examined the intention to travel to Hong Kong measuring attitude by using five

statements with a 7-point semantic differential scale: “All things considered, I think visiting Hong Kong would be...enjoyable/unenjoyable, positive/negative, fun/boring, pleasant/unpleasant, favorable-unfavorable”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.92. In a further study, Sparks and Pan (2009) examined the intention to travel to Australia, measuring attitude using six statements. Each statement uses a semantic differential response scale: “All things considered, taking a holiday to Australia in the next 12 months would be...unenjoyable/enjoyable, bad/good, foolish/fun, unpleasant/pleasant, unfavourable/favourable, and disliked/liked”. The Cronbach’s alpha of this scale was 0.95.

**Table 3-3 : Attitudes scales adopted in this study from previous research**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Questionnaire items</b>	<b>Cronbach’s alpha</b>
<b>Han et al (2010)</b>	“For me, staying at a green hotel when travelling is...extremely bad/extremely good, extremely undesirable/extremely desirable, extremely unpleasant/extremely pleasant, extremely foolish/extremely wise, extremely unfavourable/extremely favourable, extremely unenjoyable/extremely enjoyable, and extremely negative/extremely positive”.	0.95
<b>Lam (2004)</b>	“All things considered, I think visiting Hong Kong would be... enjoyable/unenjoyable, positive/negative, fun/boring, pleasant/unpleasant, and favourable/unfavourable”.	0.92
<b>Sparks and Pan (2009)</b>	“All things considered, taking a holiday to Australia in the next 12 months would be...unenjoyable/enjoyable, bad/good, foolish/fun, unpleasant/pleasant, unfavourable/favourable, and disliked/liked”.	0.95

**Source: Developed for this study**

For the purpose of this study, minor modifications were made to alter the wording of the questions, so they related specifically to traditional food from Taiwan. In this study, attitude was measured by nine statements that used a Likert 7-point semantic differential scale: “For me, sampling the Taiwanese traditional foods when travelling in Taiwan is...extremely bad/extremely good, extremely undesirable/extremely desirable, extremely unpleasant/extremely pleasant, extremely foolish/extremely wise, extremely unfavourable/extremely favourable, extremely unenjoyable/extremely enjoyable, extremely negative/extremely positive, extremely fun/extremely boring”. According to this scale, the higher the scores that participants accrue in the scale, the higher will be their positive attitude with regard to the traditional food from Taiwan that they sampled.



### 3.6.4 Subjective norm scale

The subjective norm scale applied in this study integrated validated items from previous studies employing the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Chen, 2007; Han et al., 2010; Hsu & Lam, 2004; Sparks & Pan, 2009) (see Table 3-5). In Sparks and Pan's (2009) study, subjective norms were measured by four sentences, with friends, family and other people as the major influences (Cronbach's alpha: 0.90). Statements used to measure subjective normative influence were measured on a Likert 7-point scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"). The four items are "Friends and family have recommended I take a holiday to Australia in the next 12 months"; "I would like to visit Australia within the next 12 months because I have heard a lot about this destination from friends and family"; "I would like to take a holiday in Australia within the next 12 months because it is popular among my friends or family"; and "People who are important to me would probably think it would be good to take a holiday in Australia within the next 12 months". The scale of subjective norms applied in Chen's (2007) study includes two statements measured by a Likert 7-point scale, where the major influence was people: "Most people who are important to me think that I should definitely avoid/definitely buy organic food", "Most people who influence what I do think that I should definitely avoid/definitely buy organic food". This scale's Cronbach's alpha was 0.74.

In Han et al.'s (2010) study, the questions utilized to evaluate subjective norm were: "Most people I know would choose Hong Kong as a travel destination", with 7 = "strongly agree" and 1 = "strongly disagree"; "People who are important to me would think I should/should not visit Hong Kong", with 7 = should and 1 = should not; and "People who are important to me would approve/disapprove of my visit to Hong Kong", with 7 = approve and 1 = disapprove. The Cronbach's alpha of this scale is 0.83. Another study conducted by Hsu and Lam (2004) uses three sentences for the measurement of the subjective norms: "Most people who are important to me think I should stay at a green hotel when travelling"; "Most people who are important to me would want me to stay at a green hotel when travelling"; and "People whose opinions I value would prefer that I stay at a green hotel when travelling". This scale was measured using a Likert 7-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". This scale's Cronbach's alpha was 0.91.

**Table 3-4: Subjective norm scales adopted by this study from previous research**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Questionnaire items</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>
<b>Sparks and Pan (2009)</b>	“Friends and family have recommended I take a holiday to Australia in the next 12 months”; “I would like to visit Australia within the next 12 months because I have heard a lot about this destination from friends and family”; “I would like to take a holiday in Australia within the next 12 months because it is popular among my friends or family”, “People who are important to me would probably think it would be good to take a holiday in Australia within the next 12 months”,	0.90
<b>Chen (2007)</b>	“Most people who are important to me think that I should definitely avoid/definitely buy organic food”; “Most people who influence what I do think that I should definitely avoid/definitely buy organic food”.	0.7
<b>Han et al (2010)</b>	“People who are important to me would think I should/should not visit Hong Kong”, with 7 = should and 1 = should not; “People who are important to me would approve/disapprove of my visit to Hong Kong”, with 7 = approve and 1 = disapprove.	0.83
<b>Hsu &amp; Lam (2004)</b>	“Most people who are important to me think I should stay at a green hotel when travelling”; “Most people who are important to me would want me to stay at a green hotel when travelling”; “People whose opinions I value would prefer that I stay at a green hotel when travelling”.	0.91

**Source: Developed for this study**

For the purposes of this study, minor modifications were made to the wording of the questions, so as to relate them specifically to traditional food from Taiwan. In this study the subjective norm was measured by six statements using the 7-point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7): “I would sample the Taiwanese traditional foods when travelling in Taiwan because I have heard a lot about Taiwanese traditional food from friends and family”; “Most people who are important to me would want me to sample Taiwanese traditional food when travelling in Taiwan”; “People whose opinions I value would prefer that I sample Taiwanese traditional food when travelling in Taiwan”; “Friends and family have recommended I sample Taiwanese traditional food when travelling in Taiwan”; “Most people who influence

what I do think that I should sample Taiwanese traditional food”; and “I would like to sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip because it is popular among my friends or family”. According to the scores, the higher the scores, the higher the subjective norm will be with regard to the traditional food from Taiwan that they sampled.

### **3.6.5 Perceived behavioural control scale**

The perceived behavioural control scale that this study used integrated validated items from previous studies and employed the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Chen, 2007; Han et al., 2010; Hsu & Lam, 2004; Sparks & Pan, 2009) (see Table 3-6). In the study by Chen (2007) he explored consumers’ purchase intentions, the perceived behavioural control was measured by three items using a Likert 7-point scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”: “Whether I will eventually buy organic food is entirely up to me”; “If organic food was available in the shops, nothing would prevent me from buying it”; and “How much control do you have over whether you will eventually buy organic food? (absolutely no control/complete control)”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.79. Another study by Han & Kim (2010) explored the intention of staying in a ‘green’ hotel uses three items to measure perceived behavioural control from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”: “Whether or not I stay at a green hotel when travelling is completely up to me”; “I am confident that if I want, I can stay at a green hotel when travelling”; and “I have resources, time, and opportunities to stay at a green hotel when travelling”. The Cronbach’s alpha of this scale was 0.64 (Han et al., 2010).

Spark and Pan (2009) applied three items of the perceived behavioural control scale to examine tourist intentions of travelling to Australia. They used a Likert 7-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly disagree”: “I feel I have enough time to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months”; “I feel I have enough money to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months”; “I feel there is nothing that prevents me from taking a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months if I want to”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.81.

**Table 3-5: PBC scales adopted in this study from previous research**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Questionnaire items</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>
<b>Chen (2007)</b>	“Whether I will eventually buy organic food is entirely up to me”; “If organic food was available in the shops, nothing would prevent me from buying it”; “How much control do you have over whether you will eventually buy organic food? (absolutely no control/complete control)”.	<b>0.79</b>
<b>Han et al (2010).</b>	“Whether or not I stay at a green hotel when travelling is completely up to me”; “I am confident that if I want, I can stay at a green hotel when travelling”, “I have resources, time, and opportunities to stay at a green hotel when travelling”.	<b>0.64</b>
<b>Spark &amp; Pan (2009)</b>	“I feel I have enough time to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months”, “I feel I have enough money to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months”; “I feel there is nothing that prevents me from taking a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months if I want to”.	<b>0.81</b>

**Source: Developed for this study**

For the purpose of this study, minor modifications were made to the wording of the questions to relate them specifically to traditional food from Taiwan. In this study, perceived behavioural control was measured by three statements using a Likert 7-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7): “I feel there is nothing that prevents me from sampling Taiwanese traditional food if I want to”; “Whether I will eventually buy Taiwanese traditional food is entirely up to me”; and “I am confident that if I want, I can buy Taiwanese traditional food when travelling in Taiwan”. The higher the scores, the higher the perceived behavioural control in regard to the traditional food of Taiwan that they sampled.

### **3.6.6 Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention scale**

The intention to purchase traditional food from Taiwan scale, this study used validated items from previous studies that used the theory of planned behaviour (Chen, 2007; Han et al., 2010; Hsu & Lam, 2004; Sparks & Pan, 2009) (see Table 3-7). Han et al. (2010) use three statements to measure tourists’ intentions to stay in a green hotel: “I am willing to stay at a green hotel when

travelling”; “I plan to stay at a green hotel when travelling”; and “I will make an effort to stay at a green hotel when travelling”. This scale uses a Likert 7-point scale, scoring from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale is 0.76. Chen (2007) used one statement: “If organic foods was available in the shops, I would intend to definitely avoid it/definitely buy it”, to measure consumers’ purchase intentions toward organic food. This scale was measured by a Likert 7-point scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.77. The scale which was applied by Sparks and Pan’s (2009) study explored tourists’ intentions to travel to Australia consisted of a question and statement: “How likely would you be to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months?”; and “I intend to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months”. This scale requires responses on a five-point scale (1 = very unlikely and 5 = very likely). The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.76.

**Table 3-6: Intention scales adopted in this study from previous research**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Questionnaire items</b>	<b>Cronbach’s alpha</b>
<b>Han et al. (2010)</b>	“I am willing to stay at a green hotel when travelling”; “I plan to stay at a green hotel when travelling”; “I will make an effort to stay at a green hotel when travelling”.	0.76
<b>Chen (2007)</b>	“If organic food was available in the shops, I would intend to definitely avoid it/definitely buy it”.	0.77
<b>Sparks and Pan (2009)</b>	“How likely would you be to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months?”; “I intend to take a holiday to Australia within the next 12 months”.	0.76.

**Source: Developed for this study**

For the purposes of this study, minor modifications were made to the wording of the questions, so as to relate them specifically to traditional food from Taiwan. In this study, purchase intention regarding Taiwanese traditional food was measured by three statements using a Likert 7-point scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7): “I am willing to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip”; “I plan to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip”; and “I will make an effort to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip”. The higher the scores, the higher their intention to buy traditional Taiwanese food.

### **3.6.7 Open-ended question**

Two open-ended questions were also placed in the study questionnaire. Fundamental to this study is the need to explore tourists' traditional food buying behaviour when travelling in another country. As discussed in section 3.2 and 3.3, the quantitative approach used in this study is informed by a postpositivist paradigm. A postpositivist paradigm is deductive in nature - it concerns testing the hypotheses and the casual relationship between variables (Jennings, 2010). In this case, participant may not be able to express their opinions in detail. Therefore, two open-ended questions were also asked to obtain further information. These questions were 1) "the reasons I would like to try the Taiwanese traditional food are....." and 2) "the reasons I would not like to try Taiwanese traditional food are.....". The answers provided by the participants, help to gain a deeper understanding of respondent's traditional food buying behaviour.

In sum, there were six different measurement scales used in this study (Taiwanese traditional food attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention, sensation-seeking, and food neophobia). All of these were adopted from valid and reliable scales used in previous studies. With a view to achieving the research aim, and answering the research questions, some change to the wording were made. In total, there are 46 questions in the questionnaire, including two open-ended questions and five socio-demographic questions. It was estimated that the questionnaire would take 10-15 minutes to complete.

### **3.7 Method of analysis**

In this study the data analysis procedures were divided into two phases: the pilot survey and the major survey. Each phase involved different statistical techniques. In the pilot survey, item analysis, reliability analysis, and exploratory factor analysis were applied to construct the reliability and validity of scales in this study. In the major survey, descriptive analysis, variance analysis, and inferential analysis were employed to answer the research questions. The complete dataset was coded and analysed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program and AMOS 19.0 (Analysis of Moment Structure) software. SPSS was used to produce the descriptive statistics, analysis of variance and reliability statistics (Cronbach's alpha). The confirmatory factor analysis, correlation analysis, predictive analysis, model modification, and

moderating effect were performed using structural equation modelling (AMOS). The detailed data analysis methods for each part are discussed in the following section.

### **3.7.1 Analysis methods for the pilot survey**

Three statistical techniques were used to determine the reliability and validity of the scale: item analysis, reliability, and exploratory factor analysis. The most common statistical techniques for item analysis are high and low groups (item discrimination) and item correlations (Kiat, 1981; Kriedt & Clark, 1949). High and low groups have been used to examine if the item is significant, which was determined by the critical ratio (CR) (Kiat, 1981). If the item is significant it is considered for retention, otherwise the item may be dropped. This form of item analysis can be performed using independent sample t-tests. To conduct this test, item-responses are first ranked from high to low according to the total score, then the scores forming the top 27% and the bottom 27% were compared (Kelley, 1939). The criterion for elimination of an item is when the item's CR (t-value) was not significant (Kelley, 1939; Kriedt & Clark, 1949). A second form of item analysis used the correlation between each item and the total score of all items, and was performed using the Pearson product-moment correlation. The researcher must consider removing items if the correlation coefficient between the question and the total was less than 0.3, or the correlation between the question and the total did not reach significance.

A second statistical technique used in this study was to determine the reliability. A scale's reliability is usually associated with internal consistency, which measures whether the items from the scale demonstrate the same idea (Pallant, 2007). Although there are many different ways to examine internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha is one of most commonly used reliability coefficients (Ong & Coakes, 2011). According to DeVellis (1991), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of above 0.7 is generally considered to be a 'good' reliability value.

Reliability refers to the consistency of the measurement of a construct (Bryman & Cramer, 2008). Reliability can be divided into external reliability and internal reliability. The test-retest reliability is the most common approach for external reliability, which means the same scale is consistent when tested at different times. On the other hand, for multiple item scales, internal reliability is especially important. Internal reliability refers to the extent to which a measure is

consistent within itself. In other words, it is a measure of the reliability of different survey items which is intended to measure the same characteristic. The Cronbach's alpha method is often used to measure the internal consistency reliability of survey instruments (Pallant, 2007). When the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is above 0.90, it means the scale has a very high reliability (Gay, 1992). When the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is above 0.80, it means the scale has high reliability (Bryman & Cramer, 2008). The minimum level for reliability is 0.70 (DeVellis, 1991; Nunnally, 1978) (see Table 3-8).

**Table 3-7: Accepted rule of thumb for describing internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha**

Cronbach's alpha	Internal Consistency
$\alpha \geq .9$	Excellent
$.9 > \alpha \geq .8$	Good
$.8 > \alpha \geq .7$	Acceptable
$.7 > \alpha \geq .6$	Questionable
$.6 > \alpha \geq .5$	Poor
$.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

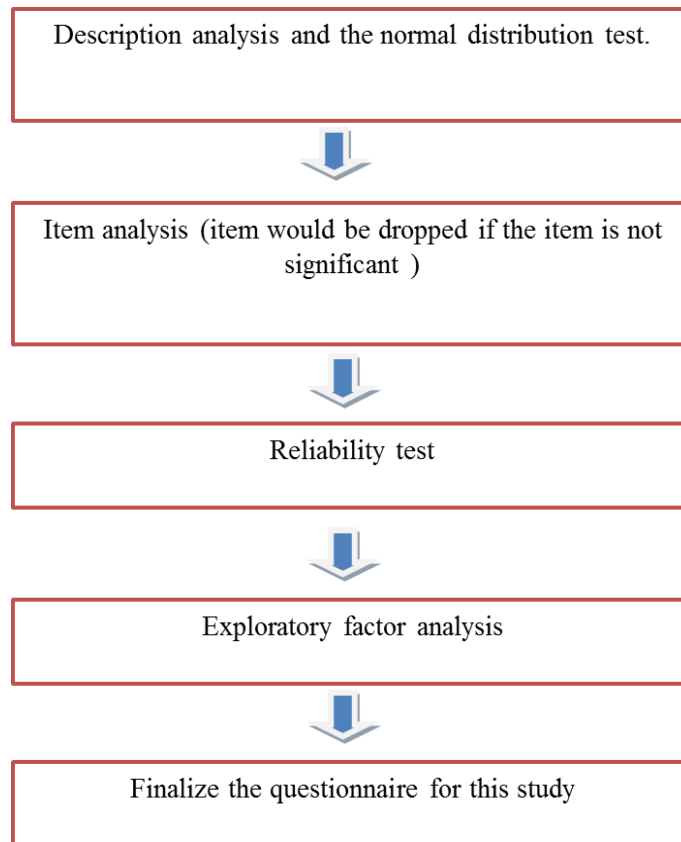
**Source: Adopted from George et al. (2011, p. 231)**

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used when the researcher needs to determine the construct validity of the scales in the research. Data factorability is the first concern in applying EFA. In the SPSS program, two measures can be used to examine the factorability of the data: Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Pallant, 2007). When Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant and the KMO is greater than 0.6, the data is assumed to be assumed factorable (Kaiser & Rice, 1974). The researcher has to consider the method of factor extraction. In SPSS, there are seven methods provided for the purpose; however, the principal component analysis is one of the most commonly used in previous literature (Ong & Coakes, 2011). Further, in order to interpret the factors found in the analysis, one has to decide which is the method of factor rotation. In this study, Varimax rotation was applied, which uses orthogonal rotation and assumes factors are not correlated. Results from this rotation method are



easier to interpret (Pallant, 2007). After the EFA, an item with a factor loading less than 3 is discarded.

In summary, the three different statistical techniques described above were used to assist in the determination of the validity and reliability of the scales prior to major data collection. Figure 3-2 demonstrates the procedure of performing the pilot survey data analysis.



**Figure 3-2: The data analysis procedure of the pilot survey**

### 3.7.2 Major study analysis

In the major study, two primary statistical techniques were applied in order to answer the research questions. Variance analysis was carried out to explore the different effects that socio-demographic data had on the variables in this study. Inferential analysis was carried out to identify the relationship between constructs and their moderating effects. The following provides a detailed introduction of each method employed in this study and its assessment criteria.

### **3.7.2.1 Descriptive analysis**

In descriptive analysis, the frequency distribution, percentages, mean, and standard deviation have been calculated. The frequency distribution was utilized to determine the participants' current socio-demographic information by providing frequency, percentage, valid percentage, and cumulative data. The mean and standard deviations were used to describe the data collected with regard to the participants' level of sensation-seeking, food neophobia, attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and the intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food.

### **3.7.2.2 Variance analysis**

Variance analysis was used in this study to answer research question 1 "Are the tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, attitudes to Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and the intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food was significantly different depending on socio-demographic variables?" In this study, there are three different independent variables (attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control), two moderating variables (sensation seeking and food neophobia), and one dependant variable (purchase intention toward Taiwanese traditional food). All the variables are continuous, and measured on a 7-point Likert scale. In this case, t-tests and one-way analysis of variance (one way ANOVA) were utilized. A t-test was used when the socio-demographic data were categorized into two groups such as gender (male and female), while one-way was used when there were more than two groups such as in nationality (American and Canadian, Australian and New Zealander, British and European). If there were any significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) found in the variance analysis, Scheff's post hoc tests were used to gain more detailed information as to which group's means were significantly different.

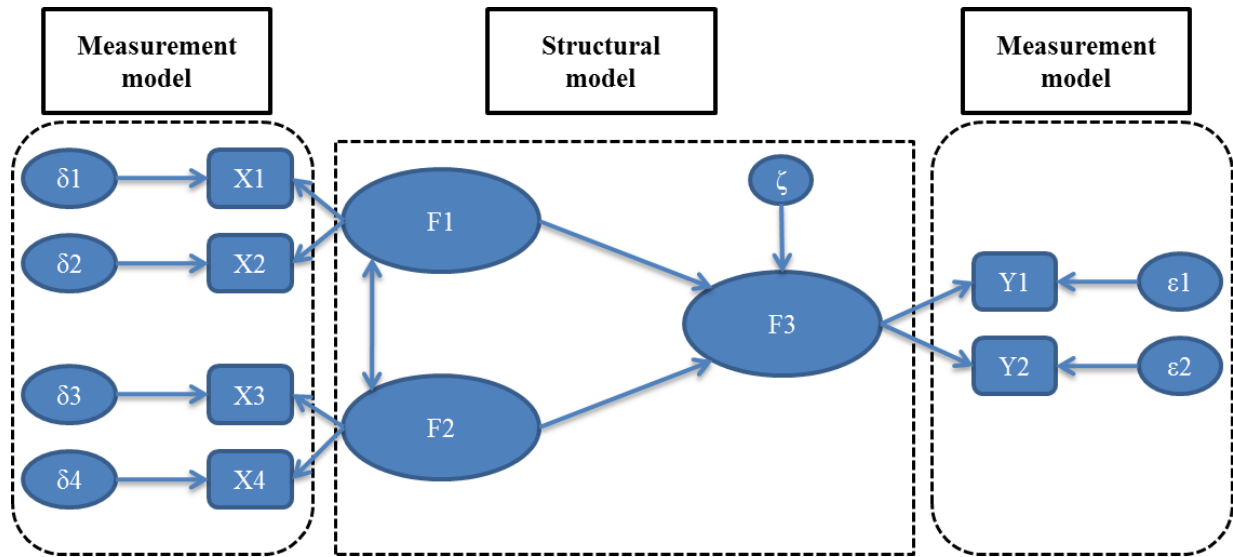
### **3.7.2.3 Inferential analysis**

In order to answer research questions 2 and 3, structural equation modelling (SEM) was applied to examine the relationship between the independent variable and outcome variable and the moderating effect. SEM is also known as the linear structural relationship model, covariance structure analysis, latent variable analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis which is a statistical method for measuring multivariate analysis (Hair, 2010). The most significant difference

between the SEM and other multivariate techniques is that the SEM estimates a series independent, and multiple regression equation simultaneously by specifying a structural model (Hair, 1998). In the past two decades, this powerful statistical technique has gradually become a major tool for theory testing and modelling in many different disciplines (for example, in social, psychological, and behavioural science research). A number of tourism researchers have also applied this technique (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). SEM provides greater flexibility for the interplay between theory and data than when first generation techniques such as principal component analysis, factor analysis, and regression are needed (Chin, 1998).

Structural equation modelling involves three different scenarios in relation to models or parameters: “under-identified”, “just-identified”, and “over-identified”. An “under-identified” model’s number of parameters is more than the number of variances and covariances. In this case, the model cannot be interpreted (Francis, 1988). A “just-identified” model’s number of known parameters equals the number of unknown parameters, having 0 degree of freedom and always fitting perfectly to the data (Kelloway, 1998; Reichardt, 2002). One factor solution with these indicators is the just-identified model, meaning the evaluation of goodness-of-fit cannot be calculated. However, the factor loading can still be evaluated (Brown., 2006). Although this model is not scientifically interesting, as the hypothesized model always fits the sample data, it is still applicable to estimate the values of the coefficients for the paths and hypothesis testing (Mulaik & James, 1995). An “over-identified” model, contrary to the “under-identified” model, has a number of variances and covariances greater than the number of parameters (Francis, 1988).

The advantage of applying SEM is that it allows examination of the correlations between several dependent and independent variables simultaneously, and the determination of the factor structure of different populations (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). The SEM technique is also a powerful tool in assessing and modifying a proposed theoretical model for further theoretical development (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Generally speaking, a complete SEM model contains two parts: a structural model conceptualization, and a measurement model conceptualization. The structural model conceptualization relates latent variables to one another. The measurement model relates measured variables to latent variables (Siguaw & Diamantopoulos, 2000). Figure 3-3 shows the measurement model and structural model.



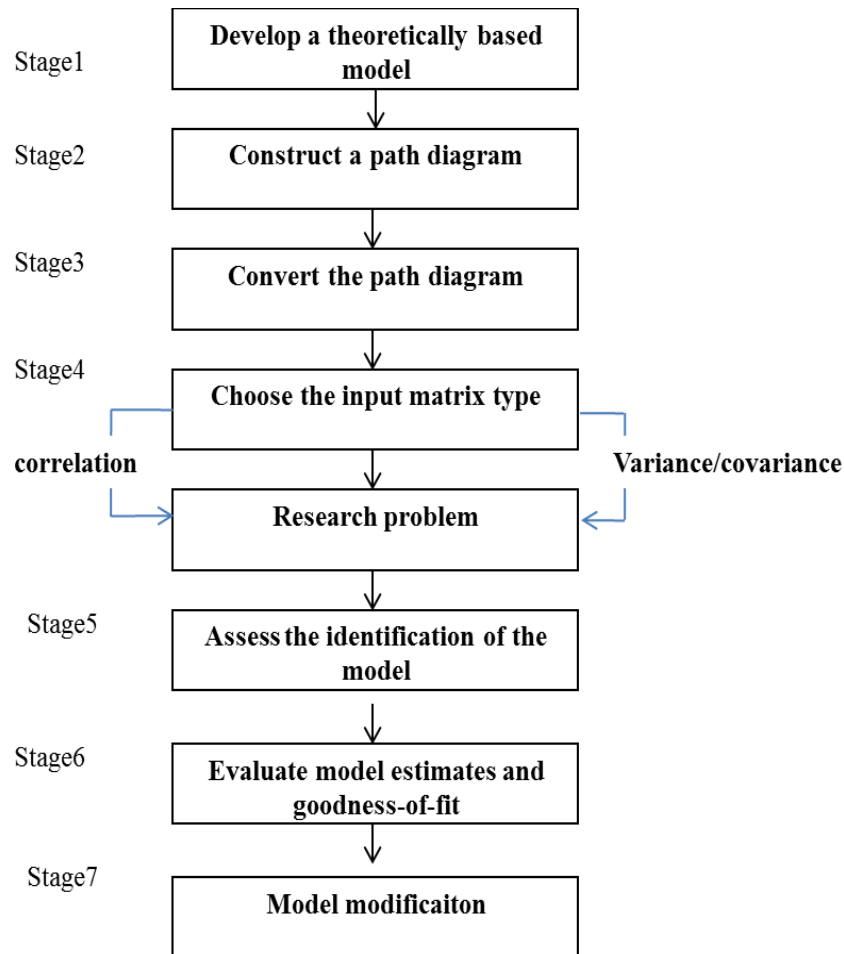
**Figure 3-3: Measurement and structural model**  
**Source: Developed for this study**

### 3.7.2.4 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

In SEM, the measurement model needs to be specified prior to testing the relationship between constructs in the structural model. The procedure of specifying the measurement model is known as a confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The primary function of the CFA is to explore the relationship between the latent variables and the observed variables. In other words, the CFA is applied after the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and used to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with a researcher's understanding of the nature of that construct (or factor). When conducting the EFA, an examination of the loading of the variable on the factors identifies the character of the underlying dimension. The CFA, on the other hand, regards each (latent) variable as an indicator and highlights their correlation with observed variables (Everitt & Dunn, 1991). An appropriate measurement model has to satisfy two criteria. The first is that each of the observed variables can effectively measure the latent variables. Secondly, the structured loading of a single observed variable is not allowed to be significant with other latent variables (Bagozzi & Youjiae, 1988). In other words, the factor loading between the latent variable and observed variable should be between 0.50 and 0.95. The composite reliability (CR) should be at least above 0.60 (Fornell, 1981; Hair, 1998) and the average of the variance extracted (AVE) should also be above 0.5 to ensure the convergent validity of the latent variables (Fornell, 1981).

### 3.7.2.5 The Procedure of applying SEM

In the previous section, the advantages of applying SEM were discussed. In this section, the procedure for conducting SEM are identified. Conducting SEM involves many different procedures. This study follows the seven stages model for the use of SEM developed by Hair (2010), including developing a theoretically based model, constructing a path diagram of the casual relationship, converting the path diagram into a set of structural and measurement models, choosing the input matrix type and estimating the proposed model, evaluating good-of-fit-criteria, and interpreting and modifying the model. An example of the stages in structural equation modelling is demonstrated in Figure 3-4.



**Figure 3-4: Seven-stage processes for structural equation modelling**  
Source: Adopted from Hair (2010, pp. 593,602)

### 3.7.2.6 Evaluation of the structural equation modelling

The evaluation of structural equation models should not only focus on the significance of the casual paths. It should also be examined through the application of many different stages and criteria. According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988), the assessment of structural equation models should come from several different perspectives. This involves the normality of input data, preliminary evaluation criteria, global measure of fit, and assessment of fit of the internal structure of the model.

*Assessment of normality of input data:* A normal distribution is one of the basic assumptions when conducting SEM. Also, it is the first consideration prior to the assessment of any research hypothesis. Considering this, Kline (2011) suggested that there are two indexes: the skew and the kurtosis that can help to examine normality. In the other words, a normal distribution is assumed when the absolute value of the skew index is less than 3, and the absolute value of the kurtosis is less than 20.

*Preliminary evaluation criteria:* In the preliminary evaluation, there is concern if anomalies exist. Anomalies in this case refer to offending estimates involving negative error variances, standardized coefficient exceeding or very close to 1, very large standard errors, and large parameter estimates (Bagozzi & Youjae, 1988; Byrne, 2010; Hair, 2010).

*Global measure of fit: overall goodness-of fit measures for structural equation modelling:* The assessment of the overall-goodness-of fit for SEM is different from other multivariate dependence techniques such as multi-way frequency analyses and logistic regression. SEM highlights the fit between the sample covariance matrix and the estimated population covariance matrix, which is the essential element of a good model. Therefore, a good model cannot be simply estimated by the  $\chi^2$  (chi-square) and there is no single test that best describes the strength of the model's prediction. One of the major problems of using chi-square as fit indices is it is very sensitive to the sample size. Therefore,  $\chi^2 / df$  is suggested to be examined, which is expected to be less than 3 (Kline, 2011). Moreover, SEM requires the combined assessment of a number of different goodness-of-fit measures, for instance, overall fit, comparative fit to base

model, and model parsimony (Hair, 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The modification indices (MI) also provided by AMOS can help the improvement of overall model fit, which involves adding freely estimated parameters to the misspecification model (Byrne, 2010). Adding one parameter (starting from the largest error covariance of the MI) at a time is considered to be most appropriate, as adding one parameter can extensively enhance the MI value (Byrne, 2010). Table 3-9 provides the fit indices for structural equation modelling as suggested by previous studies.

**Table 3-8: Fit indices for structural equation modelling**

Measure	Threshold
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996)
$\chi^2 / \text{d.f. ratio}$	< 3 (Carmines & Mclver, 1981) < 5 (Wheaton, 1987)
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	< 0.05 Good fit ; $0.05 \leq < 0.08$ Reasonable fit ; $0.08 \leq < 0.1$ Mediocre fit ; $0.1 \text{ Poor fit} \geq$ (Browne & Cudeck, 1993)
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	> 0.9 (Bentler, 1990)
SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual)	$0.08 \leq$ (Hu & Bentler, 1995)
GFI (Goodness-of-fit Index)	> 0.9 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996)
AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index)	> 0.9 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996)
NFI (Normed Fit Index)	> 0.9 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980)
NNFI (Non-Normed Fit Index)	> 0.9 (Tucker, 1973)

**Source: Integrated from previous research (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Carmines & Mclver, 1981; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996; Tucker, 1973; Wheaton, 1987)**

*Assessment of the fit of internal structure of model: composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity:*

The internal structure of the model has different concerns to the preliminary criteria and global measure of fit. It focuses on evaluating the nature of the individual parameter in the structural model and providing the information internally. Therefore, one can have a hypothesized model fit the criteria of the global measure of fit, but some of the parameters in relation to the model

might still be insignificant or have a low reliability. Thus, it is essential that the researcher carefully examines the internal structural model of a proposed model along with the preliminary criteria and global measure of fit (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In order to test the internal structural of the model, Bagozzi and Yi (1988) suggested that one should examine the individual item reliability, composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and the significance and direction of the parameters of the hypothesized path. Theory dictates that the absolute value of the standard should be less than 2, modification indices should be less than 3.84, and the discriminant validity should also be examined.

CR can be calculated as Equation 4, which is suggested to be above 0.6, and the AVE is defined as Equation 5, which is expected to be above 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell, 1981). Discriminant Validity refers to “the degree to which measures of distinct concepts differ” (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982, p. 469). There are number of approaches that can be applied to estimate the discriminant validity. In this study, two approaches have been used to confirm the discriminant validity. The first approach is suggested by Bagozzi and Phillips (1982) and involves comparing two models: the original model, and a similar model with correlation among the dimensions constrained to equal 1. Discriminant validity is assumed when the constrained model’s chi-square is different from the original model and the p-value is significant (less than 0.05). Another approach for examining the discriminant validity is to observe confidence intervals of the paired correlations among the latent variable. When value 1 ( $\pm$ two standard errors) is not included between confidence intervals of the paired correlations variables, the discriminant validity is supported (Torkzadeh, Koufteros, & Pflughoeft, 2003).

**Equation 4**

$$CR = \frac{(\lambda_{x11} + \lambda_{x21} + \lambda_{x31})^2}{(\lambda_{x11} + \lambda_{x21} + \lambda_{x31})^2 + (\delta_1 + \delta_2 + \delta_3)}$$

**Equation 5**

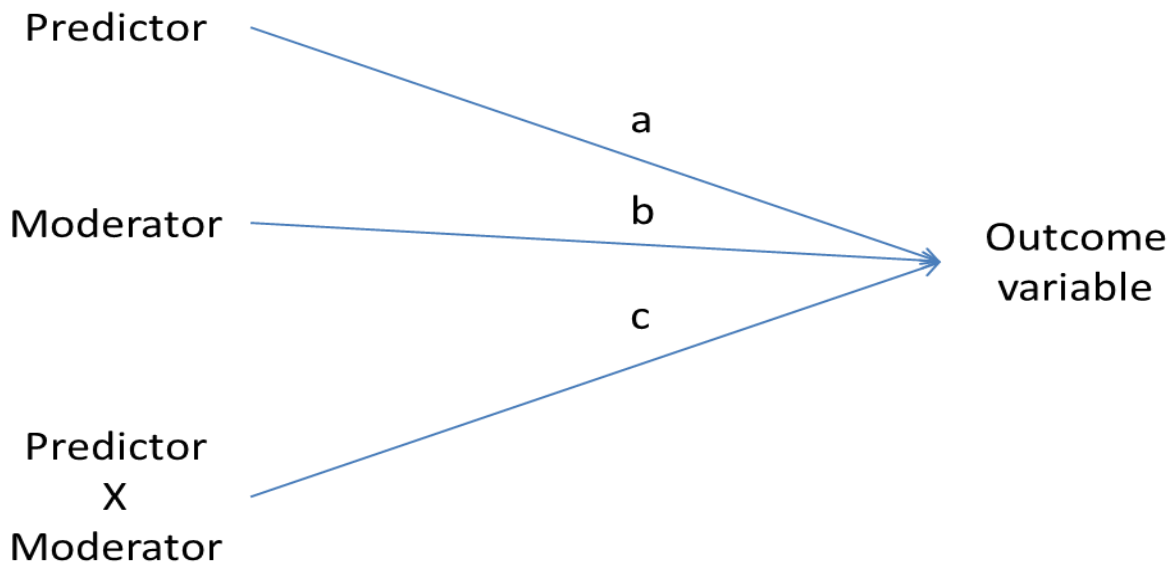
$$AVE = \frac{[(\lambda_{x11})^2 + (\lambda_{x21})^2 + (\lambda_{x31})^2]}{[(\lambda_{x11})^2 + (\lambda_{x21})^2 + (\lambda_{x31})^2] + (\delta_1 + \delta_2 + \delta_3)}$$

### 3.7.2.7 Moderating effect examination

Research question 3 in this study explores the moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia and the relationship between constructs in the Theory of Planned Behaviour. In



examining the moderating effect, one should expect that the moderator interacts with the relationship between predictor and outcome variables. Theoretically, a framework commonly used for explaining the moderating effect is introduced by Baron and Kenny (1986) (see Figure 3-5). In Figure 3-5, there are three casual paths (*a*, *b*, and *c*) between three independent variables and the outcome variable. The statistical significance of path *c* indicates that the moderator has a moderating effect on the predictor and the outcome variables, while the significance of paths *a* and *b* imply a main effect on the outcome variable. The standard ordinary least squares regression equation for the moderating effect is represented as follows:  $Y = b_0 + b_1X + b_2M + b_3XM + e$  (2), where *Y* is the outcome variable, *e* is the assumed error term, *X* is predictor variables, *M* is the moderator, and *XM* is the newly formed multiplicative term.

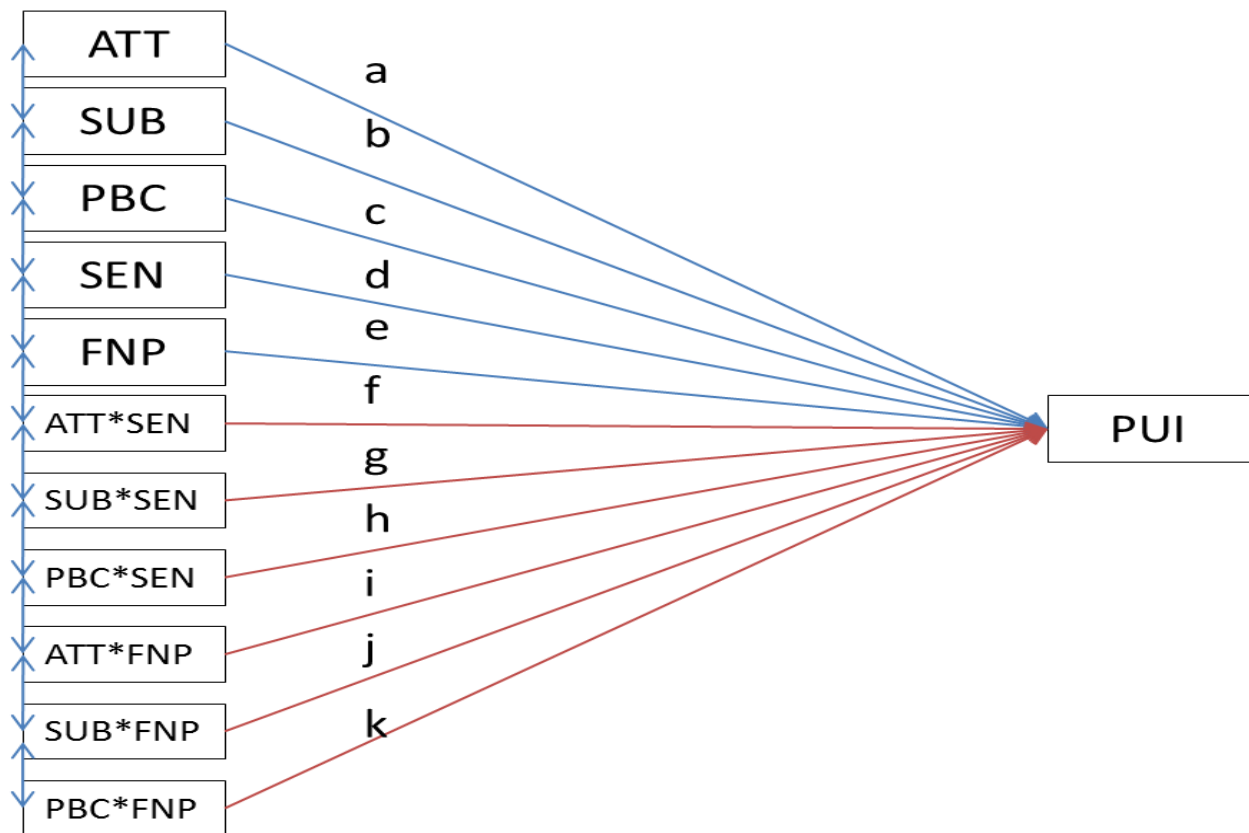


**Figure 3-5: Framework of the moderator effect**  
**Source: Adapted from Baron & Kenny (1986, p. 1174)**

### 3.7.2.9 Moderating effect examination through SEM

From the perspective of the statistical technique, Hopwood (2007) pointed out that an examination of the moderating effect can be executed using structural equation modelling through AMOS software. This study follows Hopwood's (2007) suggestion. In this study, sensation-seeking and food neophobia are assumed to be moderators interacting between three independent variables in the Theory of Planned Behaviour (i.e., attitude, subjective norm, and

perceived behavioural control) and one dependent variable (purchase intention). The framework of the moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia in regard to the Theory of Planned Behaviour is depicted as Figure 3-6. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), when the interaction of paths *f*, *g*, *h*, *i*, *j*, and *k* is significant, a moderating effect is assumed. Moreover, the score should be standardized (mean centre) before a predictor multiplies the moderator (Hopwood, 2007). Therefore, the score for the attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, sensation-seeking, and food neophobia is standardized beforehand. Before testing the moderating effect, this study followed the same procedure as suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988) to estimate the measurement model. In other words, before testing the moderating effect of the assessment of normality of input data, preliminary evaluation criteria, global measure of fit, and fit of internal structure of model was firstly assessed.



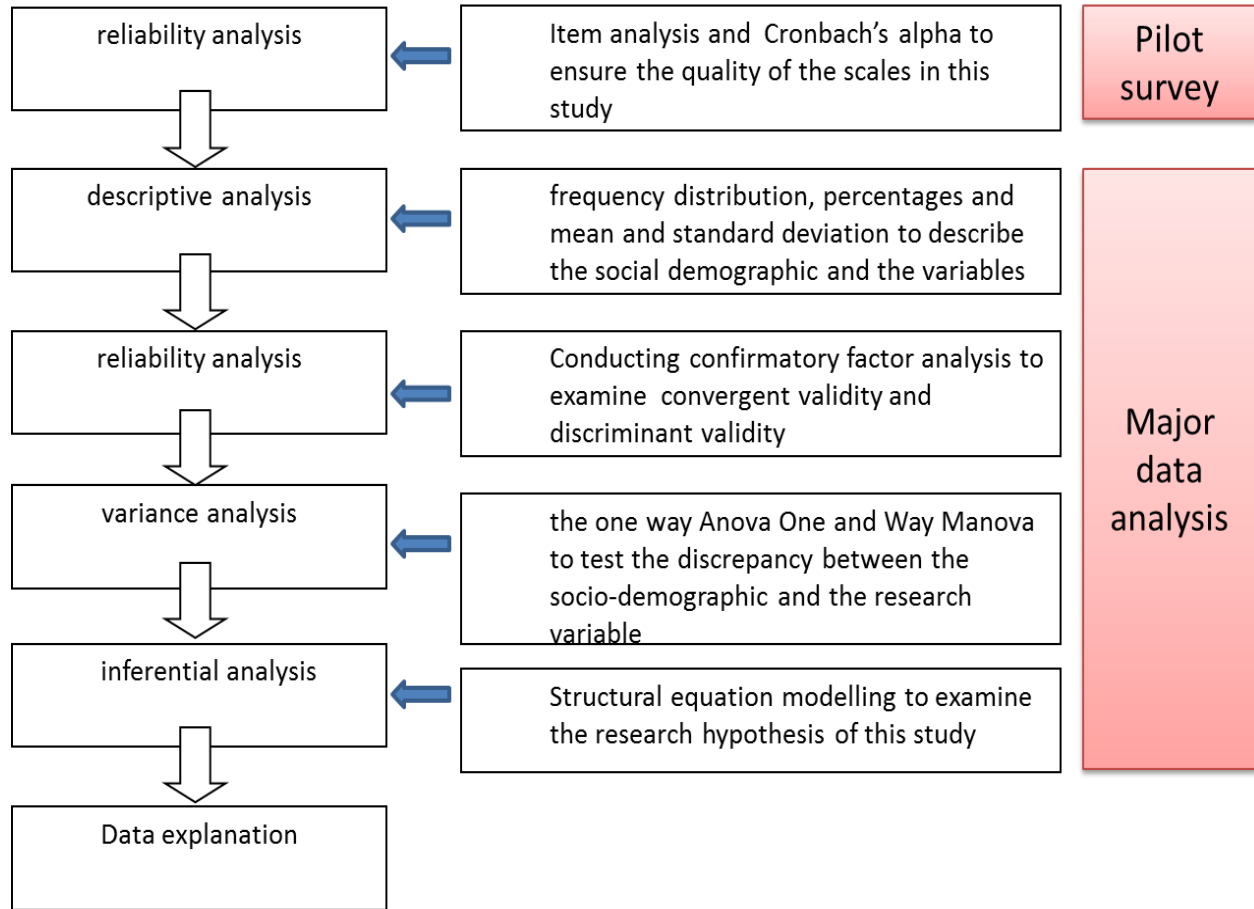
**Figure 3-6: Framework of moderating effects of this study**

*Note: ATT - Attitude; SUB—Subjective Norm; PBC—Perceived Behavioural Control; SEN — Sensation-Seeking. FNP—Food Neophobia; PUI—Purchase Intention.*

### **3.7.3 Analysis method of the open-ended question**

The data from the open-ended questions was analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is widely applied in the qualitative research to analyse large amounts of data. It is a powerful research tool to help the researchers obtain useful and rich information (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This study followed the six phases suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006) to conduct the analysis. These six phases include becoming familiar with the code, generating initial codes, search for the themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report. Therefore, the researcher firstly read through all the open-ended question and coded answers using a brief description. After this, similar answers were grouped into same category. Finally, an emergent theme was named according to the answers in the same category. The software program Excel was used to help categorize the data.

In this section, the statistical techniques applied to both the pilot and major survey were introduced. Chapter 4 extends on these techniques and assessment criteria for SEM to present the results of this study. In summary, the whole data analysis procedure of this study is demonstrated as Figure 3-7.



**Figure 3-7: The data analysis procedure of this study**  
**Source: Developed for this study**

### 3.8 Pilot survey

Conducting a pilot test is viewed as a standard procedure to determine reliability and validity in the research process. For quantitative research, a pilot test contributes to the development of the questionnaire (Bryman & Cramer, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Therefore, through a pilot survey, the validity and reliability of the scales can be determined and the wording of questions can be made more appropriate and understandable (Jennings, 2010). A pilot survey involves a test using a small proportion of the sample population usually around 50 completed responses to establish the robustness of the instrument before it is applied to a wider research population (Babbie, 2008; Jennings, 2010). The responses in the pilot survey should reflect the characteristics of the sample group (Jennings, 2010).

The questionnaire contains six different scales; four of these scales (attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention) come from previous research with some wording changes. In order to examine the reliability and validity of these scales, a pilot survey was conducted at St Lucia campus of The University of Queensland in Australia from the 15<sup>th</sup> March to the 15<sup>th</sup> May, 2012. Considering the aim of this study is to examine the reactions of foreign tourists when facing unfamiliar Taiwanese traditional food, the selection of participants was restricted to Caucasians, regardless of nationality.

The researcher distributed the questionnaire between 11 am and 3 pm Monday to Friday during this two month (from the 15<sup>th</sup> March to the 15<sup>th</sup> May, 2012). Those who agreed to participate in the study were asked to complete an anonymous questionnaire. In order to provide information about Taiwanese traditional food, the participants were presented with examples of 12 different Taiwanese traditional dishes (see chapter 2 and Appendix A). Participants were also asked to imagine that they were tourists in Taiwan. Consequently, a convenience sample of 149 students from The University of Queensland were chosen for the pilot survey.

### **3.8.1 Profile of responses of pilot survey**

Table 3-3 displays the characteristics of the sample from the pilot survey including gender, education level, income level, nationality, and age level. There was a slightly higher female sample with 54.4% then male (45.6%). The majority of the sample was college-educated (57.7%), with only 12.8 % completing a graduate or higher educational degree and 29.5% not achieving a college degree. The reported household income was generally less than \$30,000 (57%) a year, with 13.4% earning between \$30,001~\$50,000 per year. The modal age was in the range of 18 to 30 years with 87.2% falling in this age range. In terms of the nationality, over three quarters were from an Australian and New Zealander nationality which made up 84.6 % of the sample, followed by Americans and Canadians (5.1%).

**Table 3-9: Demographic of respondent profiles from the pilot survey**

Socio-demographic (N=149)	Type	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Gender</b>	Male	81	54.4
	Female	68	45.6
<b>Education</b>	High school	44	29.5
	University	86	57.7
	Graduate school	15	10.1
	PHD	4	2.7
<b>Nationality</b>	American and Canadians	9	5.1
	Australian and New Zealanders	126	84.6
	British	7	4.7
	European	7	4.7
<b>Family income</b>	Below 30,000\$	85	57.0
	30,001~50,000\$	20	13.4
	50,001~80,000\$	10	6.7
	80,001-110,000\$	16	10.7
	110,001~150,000\$	4	2.7
	Above 150,001\$	14	9.4
<b>Age</b>	18-30	130	87.2
	31-40	6	4.0
	51-60	10	6.7
	61-70	1	0.7
	71 or above	2	1.3

### 3.8.2 Data collection

The main aim of the study was to determine foreign tourists' traditional food purchase behaviour in Taiwan. As a result, the major data collection was undertaken in Taipei, Taiwan from 1<sup>st</sup> of August 2012 to 30<sup>th</sup> of December. In order to obtain the target sample size (450 questionnaires) issues that were considered included: the ability to understand English, foreign tourists' accessibility, and their willingness to participate in this survey. This study attempted to deal with these issues as follows. Firstly, the researcher distributed the questionnaires by himself. By doing so, the researcher was able to effectively answer any questions from the participants.

Secondly, the researcher selected the most popular tourist spots to distribute the questionnaire in order to access the appropriate target group. The Taiwanese Bureau of Tourism provides statistical information on the most popular tourist spots. This study used the top five tourist spots as data collection sites. These included Taipei 101, the National Palace Museum, the National Chiang Kai-shek Memorial Hall, and the night markets (the Shihlin Night Market and the Liaoning Night Market respectively). Data collection was conducted at Taipei 101, the National Palace Museum, and the National Chiang Kai-shek Memorial Hall from 11am to 5pm, and during the evenings the data was collected at the night markets which have trading hours from 7pm until midnight.

In regard to the willingness to participate, the researcher was identified with a label showing name, phone number, and the name of the University. A student card was presented when required. Moreover, when approaching potential participants, the researcher introduced himself and explained the purpose of the study. Their willingness to participate was then ascertained. A small gift was given as an incentive to encourage their participation. The result of pilot survey will be presented in the chapter 4.2.

### **3.9 Ethical issues**

Researchers must follow ethical guidelines when conducting research. “Research ethics refer to rules of morally good conduct for research. The research itself cannot tell us what is morally good research” (Gomm, 2008, p. 298). A research ethic is external to the research and is grounded by moral and political beliefs (Gomm, 2008). Ethical considerations also relate to matters of plagiarism and honesty in reporting the results. Further, there are issues that arise when the research involves human subjects (Veal, 2009). Research needs to be ethical in three different ways: ensuring the rights of the participants, protecting the standing of the scientific community, and ensuring the knowledge is advanced, based on findings that have been ethically determined (Jennings, 2010). The University of Queensland has strict guidelines relating to ethical approval for research conduct, covering such issues as participants’ permission and confidentiality. Therefore, for this research, prior to the implementation of this studies, ethics approval was granted by the Ethics Officer in the School of Tourism at the University of Queensland (see Appendix C).

### **3.10 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the methodology that this study employs. Postpositivism was selected as the underpinning research philosophy for the study, and quantitative research was used as the research strategy. This research commenced with a pilot survey to construct the validity and reliability of the questionnaire employed in this study. The second phase involved the main data collection. In order to examine tourists’ food choice behaviour in relation to traditional food, traditional food from Taiwan was described and selected to test the theory in this study. Details of the sampling method, sample size, instrumental design process, Taiwanese traditional food, the data analysis method, and ethics issues were also discussed in this chapter. In Chapter 4, results of this study have been presented.



## **Chapter 4. Results**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Chapter 3 identified the research methodology of this study and provided a detailed discussion of the instruments used, the sampling techniques, and research site which was selected. This chapter provides an in-depth insight into the findings of the pilot survey and major survey. The research findings for the pilot survey are presented in Section 4.2, while the findings from the main study are displayed in Section 4.3. The pilot survey in this study was conducted for the purpose of constructing validity and reliability measure for the scales used. Therefore, three different statistical techniques were employed involving item analysis, reliability analysis, and exploratory factor analysis. The socio-demographic information for the pilot survey was firstly reported in Section 4.2.1. The findings of reliability and validity of the research scales have been summarized from sections 4.2.3 to 4.2.13.

### **4.2 Result of pilot survey**

#### **4.2.1 Attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food (item analysis and reliability of the scale)**

As discussed in the previous chapter (Section 3.7), the attitude toward traditional food from Taiwan scale was used and based on the previous research, with a total of nine items. Table 4-1 demonstrates the result of item analysis for the attitude scale used in this study. Results found that all the items were significant ( $p < .001$ ) and each item is correlated to the total score of the whole scale. After the item analysis, a reliability test was performed with results shown in the same table. The Cronbach's alpha of attitude scale was .94, demonstrating an excellent internal consistency. Therefore all items in the attitude scale were retained.

**Table 4-1: Attitude scale pilot survey (item analysis)**

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Critical ratio (t-value)	Pearson correlation	Reserved or deleted
Att1	5.3289	1.23459	11.52***	0.77***	reserved
Att2	5.1812	1.33079	12.49***	0.84***	reserved
Att3	4.9597	1.31970	14.82***	0.89***	reserved
Att4	4.6711	1.30199	9.98***	0.74***	reserved
Att5	4.9664	1.35276	15.18***	0.89***	reserved
Att6	5.1745	1.30349	11.75***	0.85***	reserved
Att7	5.1342	1.32878	10.54***	0.85***	reserved
Att8	5.3289	1.38741	10.89***	0.80***	reserved
Att9	5.0000	1.42847	13.76***	0.86***	reserved
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>			<b>Number of items</b>		
<b>.944</b>			<b>9</b>		

\*\*\* $p < .001$

#### 4.2.2 Subjective norm (item analysis and reliability of the scale)

The subjective norm scale as discussed in Section 3.7 contained six items based on previous research. Table 4-2 demonstrates the results of the item analysis for the subjective norm scale this study used. Results found that all the items were significant ( $p < .001$ ), and that all items correlated with the total score for the whole scale. After the item analysis, a reliability test was performed with results shown in the same table. The Cronbach's alpha for the subjective norm scale was .87, demonstrating a good internal consistency. Therefore, all items in the subjective norm scale were retained for use in the major data collection.

**Table 4-2: Subjective norm scale pilot survey (item analysis)**

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Critical ratio (t-value)	Pearson correlation	Reserved or deleted
Sub1	4.5101	1.47326	12.48***	0.76**	reserved
Sub2	4.7114	1.30122	7.94***	0.69**	reserved
Sub3	4.8456	1.22323	11.29***	0.79**	reserved
Sub4	4.4295	1.31650	11.53***	0.86**	reserved
Sub5	4.5570	1.24327	10.433***	0.832**	reserved
Sub6	4.2685	1.27677	9.017***	0.762**	reserved
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>			<b>Number of items</b>		
<b>.870</b>			<b>6</b>		

\*\*\* $p < .001$

#### 4.2.2 Perceived behavioural control (item analysis and reliability of the scale)

The perceived behavioural control scale includes nine items, chosen from previous research as discussed in Section 3.7. Table 4-3 demonstrates the results of the item analysis for the perceived behavioural control scale this study has used. Results show that all the items are significant ( $p < .001$ ), and that each item correlated with the total score for the whole scale. After the item analysis, a reliability test was performed, with results shown in the same table. The Cronbach's alpha for the perceived behavioural control scale was .857, demonstrating a good internal consistency. Therefore, all items in the perceived behavioural control scale were retained for further use.

**Table 4-3: Perceived behavioural control scale pilot survey (item analysis)**

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Critical ratio (t-value)	Pearson correlation	Reserved or deleted
Sub1	5.302	1.344	15.37***	0.61**	reserved
Sub2	5.671	1.105	18.69***	0.67**	reserved
Sub3	5.691	1.019	20.28***	0.89**	reserved
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>			<b>Number of items</b>		
.857			3		

\*\*\* $p < .001$

#### 4.2.3 Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention (item analysis and reliability of the scale)

As discussed in Section 3.7, intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food in this study used three items which were chosen from previous research. Table 4-4 demonstrates the results of the item analysis for the intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food scale this study used. Results found that all the items were significant ( $p < .001$ ), and that each item correlated with the total score for whole scale. The Cronbach's alpha of the Intention Scale was .931, demonstrating an excellent internal consistency. Therefore, all items in the perceived behavioural control scale were retained for further use in the major data collection phase.

**Table 4-4: Purchase intention scale pilot survey (item analysis)**

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Critical ratio (t-value)	Pearson correlation	Reserved or deleted
Sub1	5.382	1.142	13.46***	0.935**	reserved
Sub2	5.315	1.168	17.28***	0.948**	reserved
Sub3	5.261	1.275	16.04***	0.934**	reserved
<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>			<b>Number of items</b>		
<b>.931</b>			<b>3</b>		

\*\*\* $p < .001$

#### 4.2.4 Brief sensation-seeking (item analysis and reliability of the scale)

The brief sensation-seeking scale was used without any changes. Table 4-5 demonstrates the results of the item analysis for the brief sensation-seeking scale used in this study. Results show that all the items were significant ( $p < .001$ ), and that each item was correlated with the total score of the whole scale. The Cronbach's alpha of the sensation-seeking scale was .731, demonstrating an acceptable internal consistency. Therefore, all items in the sensation-seeking scale were retained.

**Table 4-5: Sensation-seeking scale pilot survey (item analysis)**

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Critical ratio (t-value)	Pearson correlation	Reserved or deleted
Sen1	5.5436	1.38273	8.24***	0.55***	reserved
Sen2	4.6980	1.66321	8.92***	0.61***	reserved
Sen3	5.0940	1.47200	6.85***	0.55***	reserved
Sen4	4.7181	1.20853	8.06***	0.57***	reserved
Sen5	4.2886	1.31671	6.93***	0.57***	reserved
Sen6	4.3020	2.07529	8.80***	0.62***	reserved
Sen7	5.0134	1.69652	9.83***	0.60***	reserved
Sen8	4.1409	1.78212	10.83***	0.67***	reserved
<b>Factors</b>		<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>		<b>Number of items</b>	
<b>Factor 1 (Sen 7,4,8)</b>		.681		3	
<b>Factor 2 (Sen 1,2,3 )</b>		.676		3	
<b>Factor 3 (Sen 6,5)</b>		.627		2	
<b>Total scale</b>		.731		8	

\*\*\* $p < .001$

#### 4.2.5 Food neophobia (item analysis and reliability of the scale)

The food neophobia scale used in this study contained ten items, based on previous research. Table 4-6 shown the results of the item analysis for the food neophobia scale used in this study. Results show that all the items were significant ( $p < .001$ ), and that each item correlates with the total score of the whole scale. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was .860, demonstrating a good internal consistency. Therefore, all items in the food neophobia scale were retained for further analysis.

**Table 4-6 : Food neophobia scale pilot survey (item analysis)**

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Critical ratio (t-value)	Pearson correlation	Reserved or deleted
<b>fnp1</b>	3.0604	1.23698	5.28***	0.60***	reserved
<b>fnp2</b>	3.1074	1.30561	13.92***	0.78***	reserved
<b>fnp3</b>	3.5638	1.54361	7.84***	0.66***	reserved
<b>fnp4</b>	2.1074	1.07264	7.52***	0.61***	reserved
<b>fnp5</b>	2.6711	1.32258	10.19***	0.71***	reserved
<b>fnp6</b>	2.4564	1.08106	8.39***	0.58***	reserved
<b>fnp7</b>	3.2282	1.52953	11.63***	0.74***	reserved
<b>fnp8</b>	3.6309	1.64542	9.15***	0.69***	reserved
<b>fnp9</b>	3.4288	1.70128	9.03***	0.68***	reserved
<b>Factor</b>			<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>	<b>Number of items</b>	
<b>Factor 1 (fnp 7,8,3,5,2,9)</b>			.838	5	
<b>Factor 2 (fnp 4,10,6,1)</b>			.774	3	
<b>Total</b>			.860	8	

\*\*\* $p < .001$

#### 4.2.6 Attitude scale (exploratory factor analysis)

Results from an item analysis of the attitude scale found that no items needed to be deleted. Thus, in the attitude scale, a total of nine items were submitted to the EFA using Varimax rotation. The test of factorability indicated that this data is suitable for the EFA (Bartlett's test was significant at 0.001, and the KMO score was 0.926). Of the nine items in the attitude scale, only one factor was extracted with an eigenvalue greater than 1, accounting for 69.4 per cent of the total variance (see Table 4-7). The results of the EFA on the attitude scale indicated unidimensionality. The

factor loading were between 0.73 and 0.89 and because of this no item was dropped at this stage. Through these three different analyses, the final version of the attitude scale was developed and contained nine items. This was used to examine tourists' attitude toward traditional food from Taiwan in the main study.

**Table 4-7: Attitude scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis)**

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Factor1</b>
<b>Attitude towards Taiwanese traditional food</b>	Att1	.77
	Att2	.84
	Att3	.89
	Att4	.73
	Att5	.89
	Att6	.85
	Att7	.85
	Att8	.79
	Att9	.86
<b>Rotation sums of squared loadings</b>	Total	6.25
	% of variance	69.44
	Cumulative %	69.44

#### **4.2.7 Subjective norm (exploratory factor analysis)**

Results from the item analysis for the subjective norm scale conducted that there were no items that needed to be deleted. Therefore, in the subjective norm scale, a total of six items were submitted to exploratory factor analysis (EFA). In the EFA, a principal components analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was performed. The test results of factorability indicated that this data was suitable for the EFA (with the Bartlett test significant at 0.001, and a KMO score of 0.79). Moreover, from the six items in the subjective norm scale only one factor was extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1, accounting for 61.37% of the total variance as shown in Table 4-8. The result of the EFA on the subjective norm scale indicates unidimensionality. The factor loading of each item was between 0.672 and 0.864; therefore no item was deleted. Through these

three different analyses, the final version of the subjective norm scale was developed, containing six items to examine the subjective norm of tourists toward traditional food from Taiwan.

**Table 4-8:** Subjective norm scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis)

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Factor1</b>
<b>Subjective norm</b>	sub1	.74
	sub2	.67
	sub3	.79
	sub4	.87
	sub5	.85
	Sub6	.77
<b>Rotation sums of squared loadings</b>	Total	3.68
	% of variance	61.37
	Cumulative %	61.37

#### **4.2.8 Perceived behavioural control (exploratory factor analysis)**

Results from the item analysis of the perceived behavioural control scale found that no items needed to be deleted. Therefore, in the perceived behavioural control scale, a total of three items were submitted for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) so as to evaluate the structural validity of this measure. The EFA used a principal components analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation. Examination of the test of factorability indicated that this data was suitable for EFA (with Bartlett test results significant at 0.000, and a KMO score of 0.71). The three items in the perceived behavioural scale provided one factor solution with an eigenvalue greater than 1, accounting for 79.41 % of the total variance as demonstrated in Table 4-9. The results of the EFA on the perceived behavioural control scale indicated unidimensionality existed. The factor loading of each item was between 0.85 and 0.93; therefore, there was no need to delete any items at this stage. Through three different analyses, the final version of the perceived behavioural control was developed which contained three items to examine tourists' perceived behavioural control toward traditional food from Taiwan.

Table 4-9: Perceived behavioural control scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis)

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Factor1</b>
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Pbc1	.85
	Pbc2	.90
	Pbc3	.93
<b>Rotation sums of squared loadings</b>	Total	2.38
	% of variance	79.41
	Cumulative %	79.41

#### 4.2.9 Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention (exploratory factor analysis)

Based on the results from the item analysis for purchase intention, no items were deleted. Therefore, all three items in the purchase intention scale were submitted for EFA. In the EFA, a principal components analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was performed. Examination of the factorability indicated that this data were suitable for the EFA (with Bartlett test results significant at 0.00, and a KMO score of 0.76). The three items in the attitude scale provided a one factor solution with an eigenvalue greater than one, accounting for 88.2 % of the total variance, as demonstrated in Table 4-10. The factor loading of each item was between 0.93 and 0.95, therefore, no item was deleted. Thus through the three different analyses, the final version of the purchase intention scale was developed, containing three items used to measure tourists' purchase intention toward traditional food from Taiwan.

Table 4-10: Purchase intention scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis)

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Factor1</b>
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Pui1	.939
	Pui2	.950
	Pui3	.928
<b>Rotation sums of squared loadings</b>	Total	2.645
	% of variance	88.160
	Cumulative %	88.160



#### **4.2.10 Sensation-seeking (exploratory factor analysis)**

Based on the results from the item analysis for sensation-seeking, all the items were retained. Therefore, a total of eight items were submitted for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to evaluate the structural validity of this measure. In the EFA, a principal components analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was performed. Examining the factorability indicated that this data was suitable for the EFA (with Bartlett test results significant at 0.00, and a KMO score of 0.67). As for the factor solution, of the eight items in the Sensation-Seeking Scale, 3 factors had eigenvalues greater than 1, accounting for 66.92 % of the total variance, as demonstrated in Table 4-11.

Component 1 contained items 7, 4, and 8. Component 2 included items 1, 2, and 3; while item 6 and 5 were loaded onto component 3. Factor loadings on component 1 varied from .62 to .88, factor loading on component 2 varied between 0.62 and 0.84, and factor loading of component 3 between 0.82 and 0.83. Therefore, no item was deleted. Thus through these three analyses, the final version of the sensation-seeking scale containing eight items was used to examine the tourist personality trait of sensation-seeking.

As is evident from the Varimax rotated matrix, items 7 (“I like wild parties”), 4 (“I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable”), and 8 (“I would like to have new exciting experiences, even if they are illegal”) were loaded onto component 1. These items referred to people inclined to seek excitement in their life; therefore, this component was referred to as “excitement seeking”. Items 1 (“I would like to explore strange places”), 2 (“I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables”), and 3 (“I get restless when I spend too much time at home”) were loaded onto component 2. These items described an interest in adventure, which can be characterized as “adventure seeking”. Component 3 is associated with items 5 (“I like to do frightening things”) and 6 (“I would like to try bungee jumping”). Hence, these items were characterized as “thrill seeking”.

**Table 4-11: Sensation-seeking scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis)**

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Factor1</b>	<b>Factor2</b>	<b>Factor3</b>
	Sen7	.88		
	Sen4	.73		
	Sen8	.61		
	Sen1		.84	
	Sen2		.79	
	Sen3		.62	
	Sen6			.83
	Sen5			.82
<b>Rotation sums of squared loadings</b>	Total	1.92	1.79	1.65
	% of variance	23.94	22.42	20.56
	Cumulative %	23.94	46.36	66.92

**4.2.11 Food neophobia (exploratory factor analysis)**

According to the results from the item analysis for food neophobia, all items were retained. Therefore, a total of ten items were submitted for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to evaluate the structural validity of this measure. In the EFA, a principal components analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was performed. Examination of factorability indicated that this data was suitable for the EFA (with Bartlett test results significant at 0.001, and a KMO score of 0.86). Similar to the factor solution, of the ten items in the food neophobia scale, two factors had eigenvalues greater than 1, accounting for 58.25 % of the total variance, as demonstrated in Table 4-12.

Component 1 contained six items (items 7, 8, 3, 5, 2, and 9). Component 2 includes four items (4, 10, 6, and 1). The factor loading of component 1 is from 0.511 to 0.824, and the factor loading of component 2 is between 0.524 and 0.826. Therefore, no item was deleted in this stage. Therefore, throughout the three different analyses, the final version of the food neophobia scale contained 10 items which were applied to examine the personality trait of food neophobia.

As is evident from the Varimax rotated matrix, six items were loaded onto component 1. These items were all related people’s unwillingness to try new food, which is referred to as “fear of new food”. Component 2 was associated with the items “trying new food”, “appreciating food from different countries”, and “enjoying another food culture”. Therefore, it was described as “active enjoyment of new food”.

**Table 4-12: Food neophobia scale pilot survey (exploratory factor analysis)**

Factor	Items	Factor1	Factor2
	Fnp7	.82	
	Fnp8	.77	
	Fnp3	.75	
	Fnp5	.68	
	Fnp2	.63	
	Fnp9	.51	
	Fnp4		.83
	fnp10		.80
	fnp6		.72
	Fnp1		.52
<b>Rotation sums of squared loadings</b>	Total	3.15	2.68
	% of variance	31.5	26.76
	Cumulative %	31.5	58.25

#### 4.2.12 Pilot test conclusion

This section reported on how the pilot survey was conducted, and how each scale’s validity and reliability was evaluated. The pilot survey used a sample size of 149, and was used to establish and finalize the questionnaire for the major data survey in Taiwan. After completion of three statistical processes, the final questionnaire was narrowed down to 46 items. This included two open-ended questions which stated “The reason I would like to try Taiwanese traditional food is” and “The reason I would not like to try Taiwanese traditional food.” The next section presents the results of the major data collection and hypothesis testing.

## **4.3 Main study**

### **4.3.1 Study sample demographics**

This research data were collected in famous tourist spots in Taiwan between July, 2012 and January, 2013. A total of 450 questionnaires were distributed to Caucasian tourists during the major data collection phase. By deleting incomplete questionnaires, 389 were found to be useable with a response rate of approximately 86%, satisfying the sample size (385) which was discussed in Chapter 3. Table 4-13 displayed the characteristics of the sample group including: gender, education level, income level, nationality, and age level. The sample had slightly more female, with 53.7% females and 46.3% males. The majority of the sample (57.1%) was college-educated, with 24.5% having graduated or reached a higher educational level, and only 18.5% did not have a college degree. The reported household income was generally less than \$30,000 (44%) a year, with 24.7% earning between \$50,000~\$80,000. The modal age of tourists ranged between 18 and 30 years, accounting for 80.2%. Americans and Canadian nationals made up 33.2 % of the sample group, which was the largest group, followed by Europeans (32.9%).

**Table 4-13: Demographic of respondent profiles**

<b>Socio-demographic (N=369)</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Gender</b>	Male	209	46.3
	Female	179	53.7
<b>Education</b>	High school	72	18.5
	University	222	57.1
	Graduate school	78	20.1
	PHD	17	4.4
<b>Nationality</b>	American and Canadian	129	33.2
	Australian and New Zealander	45	11.6
	British	87	22.4
	European	128	32.9
<b>Family income</b>	Below \$30,000	171	44
	\$30,001~50,000	96	24.7
	\$50,001~80,000	54	13.9
	\$80,001-110,000	30	7.7
	\$110,001~150,000	9	2.3
	Above \$150,001	29	7.5
<b>Age</b>	18-30	312	80.2
	31-40	46	11.8
	51-60	21	5.4
	61-70	6	1.5
	71 or above	4	1

**4.3.2 Descriptive analysis of each measure**

A descriptive analysis using SPSS 19.0 provided the mean scores for the sensation-seeking scale and each of its sub scale factors. As presented in Table 4-14, mean responses to the sensation-seeking items ranged from 3.95 to 5.80. The mean of the whole scale was 4.69 (between neutral to agree), indicating a moderately high sensation-seeking personality trait for participants in this study. The mean for the higher adventure-seeking trait was 5.37, while for the excitement-seeking trait was 4.49, and for the thrill-seeking trait was 4.20.

**Table 4-14: Descriptive analysis of sensation-seeking**

<b>Dimension/Items</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Mean of factor</b>
Factor1 (excitement seeking)	13.48	3.49	
7. "I like wild parties"	4.82	1.68	4.49
4. "I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable"	4.69	1.14	
8. "I would like to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal"	3.96	1.67	
Factor2 (adventure seeking)	16.12	3.18	
1. "I would like to explore strange places"	5.80	1.22	5.37
2. "I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables"	5.15	1.54	
3. "I get restless when I spend too much time at home"	5.17	1.43	
Factor3 (thrill seeking)	8.41	2.87	4.21
6. "I would like to try bungee jumping"	4.21	1.96	
5. "I like to do frightening things"	4.21	1.29	
Total	38.01	6.80	4.69

Table 4-15 provides information regarding the descriptive analysis for the food neophobia scale. Items 1, 4, 6, 6, 9, and 10 were reserved before calculating the mean and SD. Results found that mean responses to food neophobia items ranged from 1.93 to 3.38. The mean score for the overall scale was 2.75 (from strongly disagree to disagree), indicating a low food neophobia trait for participants in this study. Participants had a higher mean score of 3.08 for Factor 1 ("fear of new food") than Factor 2 ("active enjoyment of the new food") with a mean score of 2.37.

**Table 4-15: descriptive analysis of food neophobia**

Dimension/Items	Mean	SD	Mean of factor
Factor1	18.465	6.734	
7. I am afraid to eat things I have never had before.	2.861	1.480	
8. I am very particular about the foods I will eat.	3.380	1.575	
3. If I don't know what is in a food, I won't try.	3.308	1.527	3.077
5. Ethnic food looks too weird to eat.	2.686	1.333	
2. I don't trust new food.	2.840	1.354	
9. I will eat almost anything.	3.388	1.700	
Factor2	9.493	3.572	
4. I like foods from different countries.	1.925	1.003	
10. I like to try new ethnic restaurant.	2.431	1.161	2.373
6. At dinner parties, I will try a new food.	2.318	1.048	
1. I am constantly sampling new food.	2.817	1.700	
Total	27.958	1.270	2.725

The mean score of attitudes towards traditional food from Taiwan is presented in Table 4-16. Mean responses to the attitude items ranged from 4.99 to 5.58. The mean score for the overall scale was 5.37, demonstrating that participants held a positive attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food.

**Table 4-16: Descriptive analysis of attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food**

Items	Mean	SD	Mean of factor
1. Extremely bad to extremely good	5.58	1.19	
2. Extremely undesirable to extremely desirable	5.39	1.29	
3. Extremely unpleasant to extremely pleasant	5.23	1.26	
4. Extremely foolish to extremely wise	4.99	1.32	
5. Extremely unfavourable to extremely favourable	5.28	1.28	
6. Extremely unenjoyable to extremely enjoyable	5.42	1.24	
7. Extremely negative to extremely positive	5.42	1.22	
8. Extremely boring to extremely fun	5.54	1.34	
9. Extremely disliked to extremely liked	5.35	1.29	
Total	48.31	9.53	5.37

The mean score of subjective norm toward traditional food from Taiwan is presented in Table 4-17. Mean responses to the subjective norm items ranged from 4.15 to 4.96 (between neutral to agree). The mean score for the whole scale is 4.62. In this study, the subjective norm refers to participants perceiving social pressure from their family, friends, or significant others. Therefore, the mean score demonstrates that the opinions of people valued by participants can influence them to sample traditional food from Taiwan.

**Table 4-17: Descriptive analysis of the subjective norm**

Items	Mean	SD	Mean of factor
1. "I will sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip because I have heard a lot about Taiwanese traditional food from friends and family"	4.55	1.45	
2. "Most people who are important to me would want me to sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	4.87	1.31	
3. "People whose opinions I value would prefer that I sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	4.96	1.22	
4. "Friends and family have recommended I sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	4.62	1.35	
5. "Most people who influence what I do think that I should sample the Taiwanese traditional food"	4.57	1.27	
6. "I would like to sample traditional food during this trip because it is popular among my friends or family"	4.15	1.36	
Total	27.72	6.12	4.62

The mean score of the perceived behavioural control of buying or sampling traditional food from Taiwan is presented in Table 4-18. Mean responses to the perceived behavioural control items ranged from 5.40 to 5.85 (between "agree" and "strongly agree"). The mean score for the whole scale was 5.66 (between "agree" and "strongly agree"). In this study, perceived behavioural control indicates tourists' perceptions of the level of difficulty in trying Taiwanese traditional food. It was concluded that participants in this study felt that it was less difficult to try or buy traditional food from Taiwan.



**Table 4-18: Descriptive analysis of perceived behavioural control**

Items	Mean	SD	Mean of factor
1. "I feel there is nothing that prevents me from sampling Taiwanese traditional food if I want to"	5.403	1.21	
2. "Whether I will eventually buy Taiwanese traditional food is entirely up to me"	5.727	1.104	
3. "I am confident that if I want, I can buy Taiwanese traditional food when travelling in Taiwan"	5.848	1.015	
Total	16.984	2.939	5.661

The mean score of the Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention is presented in Table 4-19. Mean responses for the purchase intention items ranged from 5.41 to 5.74 (between "agree" and "strongly agree"). The mean score for the whole scale was 5.60, demonstrating participants had a high willingness to purchase traditional food from Taiwan.

**Table 4-19: Descriptive analysis of purchase intention toward Taiwanese traditional food**

Items	Mean	SD	Mean of factor
1. "I am willing to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	5.740	1.051	
2. "I plan to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	5.676	1.134	
3. "I will make an effort to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	5.470	1.236	
Total	16.870	3.142	5.602

### 4.3.3 Hypotheses testing

**Hypothesis 1: Tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intentions are significantly different due to gender.**

A T-test was used to test for differences in sensation-seeking, food neophobia, attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control between genders. Results in Table 4-20 indicate that only tourists' sensation-seeking ( $p = .000$ ) and attitude ( $p = .038$ ) differed significantly between males and females. The male sensation-seeking mean of 29.18 was higher than for the females (26.96). In other words, in males possess a higher

personality trait of sensation-seeking than for females. With regard to attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, the male mean was 47.92 compared to the female mean of 49.26. Therefore, it can be concluded that female tourists held a more positive attitude than male tourists in regard to traditional food from Taiwan.

**Table 4-20: Variations in sensation-Seeking, food neophobia, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention of males and females**

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. division	T- value	$\eta^2$
Sensation-seeking	female	180	26.96	5.69	-3.86***	0.037
	male	209	29.18	5.59		
Food neophobia	female	180	28.26	9.20	0.67	
	male	209	27.61	9.65		
Attitude	female	180	49.26	9.13	2.07*	0.011
	male	209	47.29	9.47		
Subjective norm	female	180	28.35	5.53	1.86	
	male	209	27.19	6.54		
Perceived behaviour control	female	180	17.07	3.01	0.61	
	male	209	16.89	2.87		
Purchase intention	female	180	16.81	3.05	-0.41	
	male	209	16.94	3.22		

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$

**Hypothesis 2: Tourists’ sensation seeking, food neophobia, attitudes towards Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to nationality (only the results of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and nationality shown in this section).**

A One-way ANOVA was calculated to test for attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention differences among the four categories of nationalities. These four categories included American/Canadian, British, Australian/New Zealander, and European. Results found that there was no difference in results

concerning the four variables among participants of different nationalities (see table 4-21). In other words, foreign tourists in Taiwan demonstrated no significant difference in their attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention based on their nationality.

**Table 4-21: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention among different nationalities**

<b>Variables</b>		<b>SS</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>Attitude</b>	Between groups	568.904	3	151.969	1.744 n.s.
	Within groups	34706.078	385	87.149	
	Total	35274.982	388		
<b>Subjective norm</b>	Between groups	89.290	3	30.651	.818 n.s.
	Within groups	14451.604	385	37.463	
	Total	14540.895	388		
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Between groups	21.694	3	7.517	.870 n.s.
	Within groups	3330.214	385	8.635	
	Total	3351.907	388		
<b>Purchase intention</b>	Between groups	74.522	3	24.425	2.505 n.s.
	Within groups	3756.305	385	9.750	
	Total	3830.828	388		

*n.s.  $p > .05$*

**Hypothesis 3: Tourists’ attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to education (only the results of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and nationality shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for the differences in attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention among participants from different levels of education. These educational levels include: high school, college, graduate school and Phd. Table 4-22 indicates that only tourists’ attitudes and purchase intentions differed significantly due to their level of education, ( $F = 3.732, p = .011$ , and  $F = 3.638, p = .013$ ) respectively. Through Scheffe post-hoc shown in Table 4-23, it can be seen that tourists at graduate school level ( $M = 50.74$ ) have more positive attitudes toward traditional food

from Taiwan than tourists at high school level (M=45.73). Results in Table 4-22 regarding the Scheffe post-hoc for purchase intention found that tourists at graduate school level (M=17.78, see Table 4-23) had a higher intention to purchase Taiwanese traditional food than tourists at the High school level (M=15.42, see Table 4-24). Based on these results, Hypothesis 3 is partially supported.

**Table 4-22: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention among different educational groups**

Variables		SS	Df	MS	F	Post- Hot
<b>Attitude</b>	Between groups	961.729	3	320.352	3.732*	Graduate school >high school
	Within groups	34313.254	385	88.302		
	Total	352.74.982	388			
<b>Subjective norm</b>	Between groups	208.690	3	74.754	1.869 n.s.	
	Within groups	14332.205	385	37.119		
	Total	14540.895	388			
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Between groups	47.919	3	20.873	1.861 n.s.	
	Within groups	3303.989	385	8.533		
	Total	3351.907	388			
<b>Purchase intention</b>	Between groups	96.052	3	35.161	3.683*	Graduate school >high school
	Within groups	3734.775	385	9.666		
	Total	3830.828	388			

\*  $p < .05$

**Table 4-23: Mean score in the attitude and purchase intention scale among different educational groups**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Group</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>Attitude</b>	High school	72	45.6944	9.56905
	University	222	48.2432	9.50086
	Graduate	78	50.7308	8.72178
	PHD	17	49.1176	11.19644
	Total	389	48.3058	9.53493
<b>Purchase Intention</b>	High school	72	16.12	2.99
	University	222	16.81	3.15
	Graduate	78	17.78	1.41
	PHD	17	16.394	5.22
	Total	389	16.88	3.14

**Hypothesis 4: Tourists’ attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to family income (only the results of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and nationality shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention among different levels of family income. These family income levels included those below \$3,000, \$3,001~\$50,000, \$50,001~\$80,000, \$80,001~\$110,000, \$110,001~\$150,000, and above \$150,000. Table 4-24 indicated that tourists’ attitudes differed significantly across the six different levels of family income,  $F = 2.520$ ,  $p = 0.029$ . The Scheff’s post-hoc, however, found that there was no difference between groups. Scheff’s is the most conservative post-hoc procedure. Therefore, significant statistics would sometimes appear in the variance test, but not in Scheff’s post-hoc. In this case, this means the significance in the variance test is close to 0.05 ( $p = 0.029$ ). Nevertheless, it can still be concluded that groups who were defined by family income had significantly different attitudes toward traditional food from Taiwan. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is partially supported.

**Table 4-24: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, purchase intention among different income groups**

Variables		SS	Df	MS	F	Post- Hot
<b>Attitude</b>	Between groups	961.729	3	216.611	2.520*	
	Within groups	34313.254	385	85.966		
	Total	352.74.982	388			
<b>Subjective norm</b>	Between groups	208.690	3	10.625	0.281 n.s.	
	Within groups	14332.205	385	37.760		
	Total	14540.895	388			
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Between groups	47.919	3	11.014	1.281 n.s.	
	Within groups	3303.989	385	8.597		
	Total	3351.907	388			
<b>Purchase intention</b>	Between groups	96.052	3	19.903	2.045 n.s.	
	Within groups	3734.775	385	9.732		
	Total	3830.828	388			

\*  $P < .05$

**Hypothesis 5: Tourists' attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to age (only the results of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and nationality shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for attitudes toward traditional food from Taiwan, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention differences among six categories of age. These six categories of age groups included 18-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, 61-70, and 71 or above. Results showed (see Table 4-25) that there was no difference with respect to the four variables between age groups. In other words, this study indicates that foreign tourists in Taiwan do not appear to have any difference in their attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention based on their age.

**Table 4-25: Variations in attitude, subjective norm, perceived behaviour control, and purchase intention among different age groups**

<b>Variables</b>		<b>SS</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Post- Hot</b>
<b>Attitude</b>	Between groups	112.871	5	222.574	0.284 n.s.	
	Within groups	34162.111	383	89.196		
	Total	35274.982	388			
<b>Subjective norm</b>	Between groups	52.681	5	10.536	1.715 n.s.	
	Within groups	14488.213	383	37.828		
	Total	14540.895	388			
<b>Perceived behavioural control</b>	Between groups	55.959	5	11.192	0.612 n.s.	
	Within groups	3295.948	383	8.606		
	Total	3351.907	388			
<b>Purchase intention</b>	Between groups	97.005	5	19.401	0.820 n.s.	
	Within groups	3733.823	383	9.749		
	Total	3830.828	388			

*n.s.  $p > .05$*

**Hypothesis 2: Tourists’ sensation seeking, food neophobia, attitudes towards Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to nationality (only the results of sensation seeking shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in sensation-seeking and the three sub-dimensions (excitement-seeking, adventure-seeking, and thrill-seeking) among the four categories of nationality. These categories included American/Canadian, Australian/New Zealander, British, and European. Table 4-26 indicates that excitement-seeking ( $F = 2.520$ ,  $p = 0.045$ .) and thrill-seeking ( $F = 3.773$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ) differed significantly between the four different categories. Scheff’s post-hoc shows that there is no difference between any groups in term of excitement-seeking. Scheff’s is the most conservative post-hoc procedure. However, statistical significance sometimes appears in the variance test but not in the Scheff’s post-hoc. In this case, it means the significance in the variance test is close to 0.05 (in this case,  $p = 0.045$ ). Turning now to Scheff’s post-hoc for thrill-seeking, results found that there was a significant difference between Australian/New Zealander and European ( $p = 0.024$ ) categories. A comparison of the

means for Europeans (M= 11.476) and Australia/New Zealanders (M=10.222) shows that Europeans have a higher tendency toward thrill-seeking than Australian/New Zealanders.

**Table 4-26: Variations in sensation-seeking among different groups of nationalities**

<b>Variables</b>		<b>SS</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Post- Hot</b>
<b>Sensation-seeking</b>	Between groups	49.546	3	16.515	0.499 n.s.	
	Within groups	12749.888	385	33.117		
	Total	12799.434	388			
<b>Excitement-seeking (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	69.011	3	23.004	2.715*	
	Within groups	3261.976	385	8.437		
	Total	3330.987	388			
<b>Adventure-seeking (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	18.492	3	6.164	0.748 n.s.	
	Within groups	3173.333	385	8.242		
	Total	31913825	388			
<b>Thrill-seeking (factor 3)</b>	Between groups	62.343	3	20.781	3.773*	European
	Within groups	2120.346	385	5.507		>
	Total	2182.689	388			Australian/ New Zealander

\* $P < .05$

**Hypothesis 3: Tourists’ attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to education (only the results of sensation seeking shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in sensation-seeking and the three sub-dimensions (excitement-seeking, adventure-seeking, and thrill-seeking) between the four categories of education. These four categories included high school, college, graduate school, and PHD. Results found (see Table 4- 27) that there was no differences regarding the four variables between different educational groups. In other words, this study indicates that foreign tourists in Taiwan do not appear to have any difference in their sensation-seeking personality trait, or in the three sub-dimensions based on their educational level.



**Table 4-27: Variations in sensation-seeking among different educational groups**

<b>Variables</b>		<b>SS</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>Sensation-seeking</b>	Between groups	156.454	3	52.151	1.588 n.s.
	Within groups	12642.980	385	32.839	
	Total	12799.434	385		
<b>Excitement-seeking (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	40.483	3	13.494	1.579 n.s.
	Within groups	3290.504	385	8.547	
	Total	3330.987	388		
<b>Adventure-seeking (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	60.333	3	20.111	2.437 n.s.
	Within groups	3131.492	385	8.134	
	Total	3191.825	388		
<b>Thrill-seeking (factor 3)</b>	Between groups	30.539	3	10.180	1.821 n.s.
	Within groups	2152.150	385	5.590	
	Total	2182.689	388		

*n.s. p>.05*

**Hypothesis 4: Tourists’ attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention were significantly different due to income (only the results of sensation seeking are shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in sensation-seeking and the three sub-dimensions (excitement-seeking, adventure-seeking, and thrill-seeking) among different categories of family income. These categories included: below \$3,000, \$3,001~\$50,000, \$50,001~\$80,000, \$80,001~\$110,000, \$110,001~\$150,000, and above \$150,000. Results (see Table 4-28) show that there is no difference in the four variables between different family income levels. In other words, this study indicates that foreign tourists in Taiwan do not demonstrate any difference in the sensation-seeking trait, or in the three sub-dimensions in terms of their level of family income.

**Table 4-28: Variations in sensation-seeking among different groups of family income**

Variables		SS	Df	MS	F
<b>Sensation-seeking</b>	Between groups	178.154	5	35.631	1.081 n.s.
	Within groups	12621.281	383	32.954	
	Total	12799.424	388		
<b>Excitement-seeking (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	59.202	5	11.840	1.396 n.s.
	Within groups	3271.785	383	8.546	
	Total	3330.987	388		
<b>Adventure-seeking (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	30.664	5	6.133	0.743 n.s.
	Within groups	3161.161	383	8.254	
	Total	3191.825	388		
<b>Thrill-seeking (factor 3)</b>	Between groups	6.412	5	1.282	0.226 n.s.
	Within groups	2176.277	383	5.682	
	Total	2182.696	388		

*n.s. p>.05*

**Hypothesis 5: Tourists’ attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention were significantly different due to age (only the results of sensation seeking shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control differences among the six categories of age. These six categories included 18-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, 61-70, and 71 or above. Results (see Table 4-39) show that sensation-seeking ( $F = 3.282, p = 0.012$ ), excitement-seeking ( $F = 4.684, p = 0.001$ ), and adventure-seeking ( $F = 4.666, p = 0.001$ .) differed significantly across the six categories. Scheff’s post-hoc reveals a significant difference between the category 18-30 years and 41-50 years ( $p=0.036$ ) respectively in sensation-seeking, 18-30 and 41-50 ( $p=0.007$ ) respectively in excitement-seeking, and 18-30 years and 41-50 years ( $p=0.018$ ) respectively in excitement-seeking. This indicates that the major differences happen between groups 18-30 and 41-50. A comparison of the mean shows that the 18-30 ( $M= 28.458$ ) category is higher than the 41-50 ( $M=24.333$ ) category in sensation-seeking, the 18-30 ( $M=9.038$ ) category is higher than the 41-50 ( $M=6.571$ ) category in excitement-seeking, and the 18-30 ( $M=8.541$ ) category is higher than the 41-50 ( $M=6.333$ ) category in adventure-seeking. Therefore, it can be concluded that foreign

tourists in Taiwan aged between 18-30 years possess higher sensation-seeking, excitement-seeking, and adventure-seeking traits than those aged between 41-50 years.

**Table 4-29: Variations in sensation-seeking among different age groups**

Variables		SS	Df	MS	F	Post- Hot
<b>Sensation-seeking</b>	Between groups	423.081	4	105.770	3.282 *	18-30 > 41-50
	Within groups	12376.353	384	32.230		
	Total	12799.434	388			
<b>Excitement-seeking (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	153.817	4	38.454	4.648*	18-30 > 41-50
	Within groups	3177.170	384	8.274		
	Total	3330.987	388			
<b>Adventure-seeking (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	147.932	4	36.983	4.666*	18-30 > 41-50
	Within groups	3043.893	384	7.927		
	Total	3191.825	388			
<b>Thrill-seeking (factor 3)</b>	Between groups	25.232	4	6.308	1.123 n.s.	
	Within groups	2157.457	384	5.618		
	Total	2182.689	388			

\* $P < .05$

**Hypothesis 2: Tourists' attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to nationality (only the results of food neophobia shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in food neophobia and two sub-dimensions (fear of new food and active enjoyment of new food) among four categories of nationality. These categories include American/Canadian, Australian/New Zealander, British, and European. Table 4-30 indicates that food neophobia ( $F = 5.069$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ), fear of new food ( $F = 3.690$ ,  $p = 0.012$ ), and active enjoyment of new food ( $F = 6.128$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) differed significantly across the categories.

Scheff's post-hoc shows two significant differences between Americans/Canadians and Australians/New Zealanders ( $p = 0.002$ ), and Australian/New Zealanders and Europeans ( $p = 0.005$ ) in terms of food neophobia. A comparison of the mean shows that Americans/Canadians

(27.178) are lower than Australians/New Zealanders ( $M=32.266$ ), and Europeans ( $M=26.406$ ) are lower than Australians/New Zealanders ( $M=32.266$ ). In other words, Australians/New Zealanders have higher food neophobia than Americans/Canadians and Europeans.

A significant difference also existed in the fear of new food sub-dimension between Australians/New Zealanders and Europeans ( $p= 0.015$ ). Mean calculations indicate that Europeans ( $M= 17.460$ ) are lower than Australian/New Zealanders ( $M= 21.222$ ). More specifically, Australian/New Zealanders hold more negative attitudes toward new food than Europeans. With regard to the sub-dimension of active enjoyment of new food, significant differences existed between Americans/Canadians and Australians/ New Zealanders ( $p=0.008$ ), and Australia/ New Zealanders and Europeans ( $p=0.007$ ) respectively. A comparison of the means reveals that America/Canadians ( $M=8.969$ ) are lower than Australia/ New Zealanders ( $11.044$ ), and Australia/ New Zealanders ( $M=11.044$ ) were higher than Europeans ( $M= 8.945$ ). In this sub-dimension, items 1, 4, 6, and 10, have reversed polarity in the food neophobia scale (i.e., when participant scores are lower, it means they are more willing to try new food). Therefore, tourists visiting Taiwan from America/Canada and Europe are more willing to try new food than Australians/New Zealanders. These findings suggest that, food neophobia differs significantly according to a particular nationality.

**Table 4-30: Variations in food neophobia among different groups of nationalities**

Variables		SS	Df	MS	F	Post- Hot
<b>Food neophobia</b>	Between groups	1313.805	3	437.935	5.069**	Australian and New Zealander > American and Canadian; Australian and New Zealander > European
	Within groups	33259.563	385	86.388		
	Total	34573.368	388			
<b>Fear of new food (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	490.927	3	163.642	3.690*	Australian and New Zealander > European
	Within groups	17073.345	385	44.346		
	Total	17564.272	388			
<b>Active enjoyment of new food (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	220.697	3	73.566	6.128***	Australian and New Zealander > American and Canadian; Australian and New Zealander > European
	Within groups	4622.151	385	12.006		
	Total	4842.848	388			

\* $P < .05$

**Hypothesis 3: Tourists’ attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to education (only the results of food neophobia shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in food neophobia and two sub-dimensions (fear of new food and active enjoyment of new food) among the four categories of education. These categories included high school, college, graduate school, and PHD. Results (see Table 4-31) show a significant difference in the dimension of active enjoyment of new food. Scheff’s post-hoc reveals that major differences exist in the categories of high school, college/university, and graduate school. A comparison of the means found that high school level ( $M=10.5$ ) to be higher than college ( $M=9.527$ ) and graduate level ( $M=8.089$ ). In other words, this study indicates that foreign tourists in high school in Taiwan are more willing to try new food than those at college and graduate school level.

**Table 4-31: Variations in food neophobia among different educational groups**

Variables		SS	Df	MS	F	Post- Hot
<b>Food neophobia</b>	Between groups	577.088	3	192.363	2.178 n.s.	
	Within groups	33996.279	385	88.302		
	Total	34573.368	388			
<b>Fear of new food (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	77.123	3	25.708	0.566 n.s.	
	Within groups	17487.150	385	45.421		
	Total	17564.272	388			
<b>Active enjoyment of new food (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	233.189	3	77.730	6.492 ***	High school
	Within groups	4609.660	385	11.973		> college>
	Total	4842.848	388			graduate school

*n.s. p>.05; \*\*\* p<.001*

**Hypothesis 4: Tourists’ attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to income (only the results of food neophobia shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in food neophobia and the two sub-dimensions (fear of new food and active enjoyment of new food) among different categories of family income. These family income levels included below \$3,000, \$3,001~\$50,000, \$50,001~\$80,000, \$80,001~\$110,000, \$110,001~\$150,000, and above \$150,000. Results (see Table 4-32) found that there was no difference between the three variables among different family income groups. In other words, this study indicates that foreign tourists in Taiwan demonstrated no differences in their food neophobia, nor in the two sub-dimensions, based on their level of family income.

**Table 4-32: Variations in food neophobia among different groups of family income.**

Variables		SS	Df	MS	F
<b>Food neophobia</b>	Between groups	203.846	5	40.749	0.454 n.s.
	Within groups	34369.521	383	89.738	
	Total	34573.368	388		
<b>Fear of new food (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	103.478	5	20.696	0.454 n.s.
	Within groups	17460.795	383	45.590	
	Total	17564.272	388		
<b>Active enjoyment of new food (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	26.448	5	5.290	0.421 n.s.
	Within groups	4816.400	383	12.575	
	Total	4842.848	388		

*n.s. p>.05*

**Hypothesis 5: Tourists’ attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention are significantly different due to age (only the results of food neophobia shown in this section).**

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in food neophobia and two sub-dimensions (fear of new food and active enjoyment of new food) between different age groups. These age groups included 18-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, 61-70, and 71 years or above. Results (see Table 4-33) showed that there was no significant difference in the three the variables between different age groupings. In other words, this study indicated there were no significant differences between foreign tourists related to their food neophobia based on their age.

**Table 4-33: Variations in food neophobia among different age groups.**

<b>Variables</b>		<b>SS</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>MS</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>Food neophobia</b>	Between groups	218.786	4	54.696	0.611 n.s.
	Within groups	34354.582	384	89.465	
	Total	34573.368	388		
<b>Fear of new food (factor 1)</b>	Between groups	156.804	4	39.201	0.865 n.s.
	Within groups	17407.468	384	45.332	
	Total	17564.272	388		
<b>Active enjoyment of new food (factor 2)</b>	Between groups	42.639	4	10.660	0.853 n.s.
	Within groups	4800.210	384	12.501	
	Total	4842.848	388		

*n.s. p>.05*

#### **4.3.4 Correlation between the constructs (hypotheses 6, 7, and 8)**

##### **4.3.4.1 Confirmatory factor analysis for attitude regarding traditional Taiwanese food**

One of the primary aims of this study was to explore tourists' consumer behaviour toward traditional food by applying the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, in this section the proposed model was examined. More specifically, the relationship between the three exogenous variables (attitude toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and one outcome variable (intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food) was examined using structural equation modelling. Before analysing the structural model, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to determine the adequacy of the measurement model for all variables. Firstly, the measurement model toward attitude toward traditional Taiwanese food was examined. A scale using nine items was therefore subjected to a CFA.

Factor loadings for each of the observed variables was from 0.69 to 0.83 (see table 3-34). According to the rule of thumb for factor loading that Tabachnick and Fidell determined (2007), factor loading for the attitude scale was from fair to excellent. A number of goodness-of-fit indices indicated that the initial hypothesized model did not fit the data well, (See Table 4-35). However, improvements in the measurement model were made by applying a modification



indices (MI). A large MI of 79.501 was between e1 and e2, which suggested adding a covariance between these two error terms to build Model 2. The goodness-of-fit statistic that related to Model 2 indicated an improvement (see Table 4-35); nevertheless, this model still did not fit well. Moreover, on examination of the MI for Model 2, a large error covariance that was between e5 and 6 remained a strongly underspecified parameter in the model. A correlation was added between e5 and 6 to build Model 3. This study repeated the same procedure to modify models in order to reach a better model fit. The final model is Model 5. The model fit was better than the previous model, and satisfied all the criteria. The final version of the attitude model retained the original one-factor structure with the addition of four error covariances between error terms for items 1 and 2, items 2 and 3, items 4 and 5, and items 5 and 6.

Constructing the final model involved adding four freely estimated parameters to the attitude model. In this scale, the adjectives were used for participants to describe their attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food. These adjectives to a certain extent were interchangeable. Therefore, it logically made sense to allow correlations between attitude scale items. The factor loadings and goodness- of- fit summaries for both the initial and improved models have been presented in Tables 4-34 and 4-35.

**Table 4-34: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for attitude (N=389)**

Construct items	Initial standardized loadings	Re-specified model	
		Final standardized loading	CR(t)
1. Extremely bad to extremely good	.827	0.756	17.202***
2. Extremely undesirable to extremely desirable	.739	0.769	17.625***
3. Extremely unpleasant to extremely pleasant	.820	0.814	19.403***
4. Extremely unpleasant to extremely pleasant	.824	0.672	14.667***
5. Extremely unfavourable to extremely favourable	.833	0.803	19.045***
6. Extremely unenjoyable to extremely enjoyable	.691	0.810	19.404***
7. Extremely negative to extremely positive	.817	0.838	20.298***
8. Extremely boring to extremely fun	.804	0.753	17.352***
9. Extremely disliked	.782	0.843	-

*CR that are not given are not estimated by Amos, due to regression weight being fixed to one.*

**Table 4-35: Goodness-of-fit measures for the measurement model for attitude (N=389)**

Measure	Criteria	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model4	Model5
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better	219.175	133.029	102.249	75.252	63.935
$\chi^2 /d.f.$	< 3 or < 5	8.118	5.117	4.090	3.135	2.780
RMSEA	< 0.05 or <0.08	0.135	0.103	0.089	0.074	0.068
CFI	> 0.9	0.927	0.959	0.970	0.980	0.984
SRMR	<0.05	.0402	0.0314	0.0204	0.0236	0.0213
GFI	> 0.9	0.889	0.932	0.948	0.962	0.967
AGFI	> 0.9	0.815	0.882	0.906	0.928	0.936
NFI	> 0.9	0.917	0.950	0.961	0.972	0.976
IFI	> 0.9	0.927	0.959	0.971	0.980	0.948
TLI	> 0.9	0.902	0.943	0.957	0.971	0.976
CFI	> 0.9	.927	.988			
HOELTER	> 200	84	300			

Note:  $\chi^2$  - chi-square; **RMSEA**—root-mean-square error of approximation; **TLI**—Tucker–Lewis index; **CFI**—comparative fit index. **GFI**—goodness-of-fit index; **AGFI**—adjusted goodness-of-fit index; **NFI**—normal fit index; **SRMR**—standardized root mean square residual; **IFI**—incremental fit index.

#### 4.3.4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis for subjective norm

In the previous section, the measurement model of attitude toward traditional Taiwanese food was examined. A confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted on the exogenous variable subjective norm for the adequacy of the measurement model. This scale with six items was subjected to a CFA.

The factor loading of each of the observed variables was from 0.61 to 0.82. According to the rule of thumb for factor loading that Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) determined, the factor loading for the subjective norm scale was from fair to excellent. A number of goodness-of-fit indices indicated a poor fit of the initial hypothesized model to the data, (see Table4-36). In order to make a better model to present the sample data, an improvement in the measurement model was made by applying the MI. A large MI of 78.515 is between e3 and e2, which suggested adding a covariance between these two error terms to build Model 2. While the goodness-of-fit statistic relating to Model 2 revealed an improvement (see Table 4-36), this model still indicated a poor fit. Moreover, examination of the MI for Model 2 also showed error covariance between e1 and

e6, which remains a strongly unspecified parameter in the model. Following the suggestion for the MI of Model 2, a correlation was added between e1 and e6 to build Model 3. This study repeated the same procedure to modify the models in order to reach a better model fit. The final model is Model 5. The model fitted better than the previous model, and satisfied all the criteria. The final version of the subjective norm model retains the original one-factor structure, and adds four error covariances between error terms for items 1 and 2, items 2 and 3, items 4 and 5, and items 5 and 6.

The final model involved added the four freely estimated parameters to the subjective norm model. By adding the covariance between these item means, these items were correlated. The major purpose of the subjective norm scale was to explore the importance of opinions from participants' friends or families. Therefore, it logically makes sense these items needed to be correlated. The factor loadings and goodness-of-fit summaries for both the initial and improved models have been presented in tables 4-36 and 4-37.

**Table 4-36: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for subjective norm (N=389)**

Construct items	Initial standardized loadings	Re-specified model	
		Final standardized loading	CR(t)
1. "I would sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip because I have heard a lot about Taiwanese traditional food from friends and family"	.611	0.588	10.904***
2. "Most people who are important to me would want me to sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	.688	0.619	9.483***
3. "People whose opinions I value would prefer that I sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	.690	0.603	9.103***
4. "Friends and family have recommended I sample Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	.820	0.878	10.945***
5. "Most people who influence what I do think that I should sample Taiwanese traditional food"	.822	0.808	12.212***
6. "I would like to sample traditional food during this trip because it is popular among my friends or family"	.648	0.578	-

*CR that are not given are not estimated by Amos, due to regression weight being fixed to one*

**Table 4-37: Goodness-of-fit measures for the measurement model for subjective norm**

Measure	Criteria	Model1	Model2	Model3	Model4	Model5
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better	145.825	58.535	28.867	18.639	9.693
$\chi^2 /d.f.$	< 3 or < 5	16.206	7.317	4.124	3.107	1.939
RMSEA	< 0.05 or <0.08	.198	0.128	0.090	0.074	0.049
SRMR	<0.05	.0680	0.0419	0.0252	0.0234	0.0203
GFI	> 0.9	.894	0.954	0.976	0.984	0.992
AGFI	> 0.9	.752	0.878	0.929	0.944	0.966
NFI	> 0.9	.866	0.946	0.973	0.983	0.991
IFI	> 0.9	.873	0.953	0.980	0.988	0.996
TLI	> 0.9	.787	0.912	0.956	0.971	0.987
CFI	> 0.9	.872	0.953	0.980	0.988	0.996
HOELTER(CN)	> 200	11	134	249	350	604

Note:  $\chi^2$  - chi-square; **RMSEA**—root-mean-square error of approximation; **TLI**—Tucker–Lewis index; **CFI**—comparative fit index. **GFI**—goodness-of-fit index; **AGFI**—adjusted goodness-of-fit index; **NFI**—normal fit index; **SRMR**—standardized root mean square residual; **IFI**—incremental fit index.

#### 4.3.4.3 Confirmatory factor analysis for perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control is another predictor in the Theory of Planned Behaviour. In order to evaluate the adequacy of the measurement model for this scale, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. Nevertheless, the goodness-of-fit did not apply, as this scale contained only three items. In this case, it was called “just-identified”. Therefore, in this section only the factor loading is demonstrated, as shown in Table 4-38. Factor loading of each of the observed variables in the perceived behavioural control was from 0.72, 0.82, and 0.81.

**Table 4-38: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for perceived behavioural control (N=389)**

Construct items	standardized loadings	CR(t)
1. "I feel there is nothing that prevents me from sampling Taiwanese traditional food if I want to"	0.719	14.961
2. "Whether I will eventually buy Taiwanese traditional food is entirely up to me"	0.824	17.481
3. "I am confident that if I want, I can buy the Taiwanese traditional food when travelling in Taiwan"	0.809	17.106

#### 4.3.4.4 Purchase intention of traditional Taiwanese food

Evaluating the measurement model for the purchase intention model suffers the same problem as the perceived behavioural control model, as this model is also a one-factor solution with three indicators. As previously described, the goodness-of-fit did not apply in this just-identified model. Therefore, only factor loading was demonstrated in this section. Factor loading of each of the observed variables in the purchase intention was between 0.763 and 0.914 (Table 4-39).

**Table 4-39: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model for perceived behavioural control (N=389)**

Construct items	standardized loadings	CR(t)
1. "I am willing to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	0.763	18.498***
2. "I plan to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"		
3. "I will make an effort to buy Taiwanese traditional food during this trip"	0.914	24.268***
	0.637	21.042***

#### **4.3.4.5 Structural equation modelling of the Theory of Planned Behaviour**

This study aims to gain an understanding of tourists' consumer behaviour toward traditional Taiwanese food by applying the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Structural equation modelling was applied for theory testing. In the previous section, the measurement model of attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food was confirmed as adequate. In this section, the structural model was examined to reveal the relationship between these constructs. In this study, the structural equation path contains three exogenous variables (attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control) and one outcome variable (purchase intention). In order to test the underlying hypothesis of this study, the relationship between the three exogenous and one outcome variable was subjected to examination. The structural equation model was examined using the maximum likelihood estimation in AMOS 19 to see if the hypothesized model fitted the collected data.

The evaluation of structural equation models must not only focus on the significance of casual paths. As discussed in Chapter 3, the procedure and criteria for evaluation of the hypothesised model must be from different perspectives. Therefore, assessment of the structural model involved the normality of input data, preliminary evaluation criteria, global measure of fit, and the assessment of fit of the internal structure of the model. Results of the evaluation have been demonstrated in the following section.

#### **4.3.4.6 Evaluation of the structural model: normality of input data**

A normal distribution is one of the basic assumptions when conducting SEM. It also is the first consideration prior to the assessment of any research hypothesis. As discussed in Chapter 3, skew and kurtosis are the two indices that help to examine normality. In other words, normal distribution is assumed when the absolute value of the skew index is less than 3, and the absolute value of the kurtosis is less than 20. According to these criteria, the data of this study was normally distributed as demonstrated in Table 4-40.

**Table 4-40: Examination of the normality of input data**

Variables	Min	Max	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Attitude	9	63	48.208	9.362	-.774	1.069
Subjective norm	6	42	27.727	6.116	-.330	1.051
Perceived behavioural control	6	21	16.979	2.937	-.367	-.260
Purchase intention	6	21	16.979	3.140	-.862	2.036

**4.3.4.7 Evaluation of the structural model: preliminary evaluation criteria**

An examination of the preliminary evaluation criteria for the hypothesis model of this study found that no error variance is negative, and no correlation was greater than one or close to one ( $0.140 < R < 0.485$ ). Factor loading was between 0.575 and 0.923. Finally, there was no evidence of a large standard error ( $0.043 < S.E < 1.133$ ). As a result, the hypothesized model presented a result fitting the preliminary criteria, indicating the non-existence of any major anomalies in the model. Therefore, the data is assumed to be suitable for the intended analysis.

**4.3.4.8 Evaluation of the structural model: global measure of fit**

After the basic assumption was confirmed, the global measure of fit was examined to see if the hypothesized model fitted the data. An evaluation of the goodness-of-fit indices revealed that the hypothesized model fitted the data well, with all the hypothesized paths being significant. Although the  $\chi^2$  rejected the model with  $p$  less than 0.05, as related in Chapter 3, a major concern of applying the  $\chi^2$ - test to evaluate the model fit is its sensitivity to the sample size. Therefore, an index of  $\chi^2 / df$  is the alternative to help evaluate the structural model, which is expected to be less than 3 ( $\chi^2 / df$  is 2.464 in this study). Apart from that, the results of other fit indices were: GFI = 0.91, SRMR = .045, RMSEA = 0.06, AGFI = .88, NFI = 0.93, CFI = .95, IFI = .95, and TLI = 0.94. With other indices, only the AGFI is slightly less than 0.9; therefore it was concluded that this proposed model was acceptable and fits the data well.

According to the modification indices, there are some changes that could be made to enhance the overall model fit. Nevertheless, applying the modification indices should logically make sense in regard to the theory. For example, a large MIS of 16 was found between the subjective norm

scale item 6 and perceived behavioural control item 1. Calculating a correlation between these two items is meaningless, since these two items are from different scales and describe different concepts. Therefore, from a theoretical perspective, no modification indices were applied in this model. The results of the global measure of fit are demonstrated in Table 4-41. In this section, the global measure of fit is introduced. The fit of the internal structure of the model is presented in the next section.

Measure	Criteria	Result
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better	431.164
$\chi^2 / \text{d.f.}$	< 3 or < 5	2.464
RMSEA	< 0.05 or <0.08	0.061
CFI	> 0.9	0.954
SRMR	<0.05	0.0448
GFI	> 0.9	0.907
AGFI	> 0.9	0.878
NFI	> 0.9	0.925
IFI	> 0.9	0.954
TLI	> 0.9	0.944
HOELTER(CN)	> 200	200

**Table 4-41: Goodness-of-fit indices for the structural model (N=389)**

#### **4.3.4.9 Fit of internal structure of the model: composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity**

This section examines the internal structural model for this study. Firstly, individual reliability was demonstrated as squared multiple correlation (see Table 4-42). All the individual reliabilities were above 0.3, indicating a reasonable reliability. The results of the CR, AVE, and Cronbach’s alphas for the four measures are presented in Table 4-43. All the composite reliabilities are in the acceptable range from 0.83 to 0.93, indicating a good internal consistency of the scale. Cronbach’s alphas also demonstrated a good reliability, with all above 0.8. Turning now to the average variance extracted, most of the measures’ AVE were above 0.5, with only the AVE for subjective norm slightly below the criteria. However, although there were some existing criteria for statistical and nonstatistical guidelines, “any particular application will typically result in



some acceptances and some rejections of a model based on the standards” (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988, p. 81). Therefore, it was concluded that these measures were both reliable and valid.

After confirming individual reliability, composite reliability and the average variance extracted, the parameter estimates were examined. As demonstrated in figure (4-1), all the proposed casual paths were statistically significant and in the direction dictated by the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Another indication of the internal structural model is to see the absolute value of the standardized residuals, which was expected to be less than 2.58. In this study, the absolute values of the standardized residuals were all within acceptable range from 0.03 to 2.10. Finally, some of the modification indices were larger than 3.84. Although modifying these fixed parameters to be free parameters may enhance the overall model fit, there were no modification indices added at this stage. For one thing, adding modification indices should not only be considered from a statistical perspective, it should also logically make sense from a theoretical point of view. For example, adding a modification index (MIs=16.5) between the e15 and e16 means allowed these two items to be correlated. Nevertheless, e15 presents one of the items in the subjective norm scale, while e16 is one of the items in the perceived behavioural control scale. Thus, it is meaningless to make correlations between these two items. Further, the overall model fit is already acceptable. Therefore, it is not necessary for the researcher to make the model have a better model fit. In summary, this study has followed the recommendations Bagozzi and Yi (1988) who suggested an examination of the internal structural model. As a result, most of the tests were satisfactory. Therefore, it was concluded that the proposed model of this study has good internal structural model fit.

In this section, the hypothesized model of this study was evaluated using various criteria. Results revealed the appropriateness of both the structural model and measurement model used in this study. Therefore, the next stage is to examine the hypotheses underlying the study, which is presented in the next section.

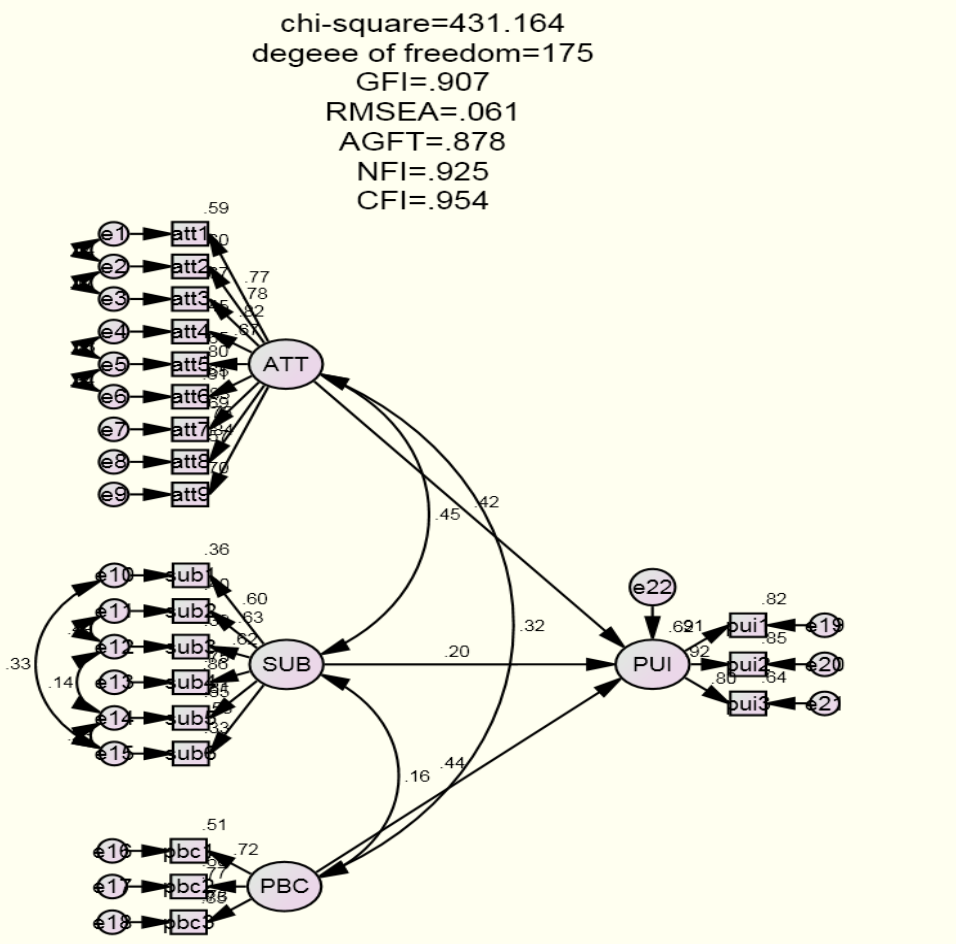
**Table 4-42: Results of the internal fit of measurement**

Measures (Cronbach's alpha)	Completely standardized estimates	Squared multiple correlation coefficient(R)	CR	AVE
Att1	.770	.592		
Att2	.776	.603		
Att3	.816	.665		
Att4	.672	.451		
Att5	.804	.649		
Att6	.807	.651		
Att7	.833	.694		
Att8	.752	.566		
Att9	.838	.702		
<b>Attitude (.938)</b>			<b>0.934</b>	<b>0.612</b>
sub1	.598	.357		
sub2	.634	.402		
sub3	.621	.387		
sub4	.864	.747		
sub5	.808	.653		
sub6	.575	.331		
<b>subjective norm (.860)</b>			<b>0.840</b>	<b>0.480</b>
Pbc1	.854	.512		
Pbc2	.775	.600		
Pbc3	.715	.729		
<b>Perceived behavioural control (.819)</b>			<b>0.825</b>	<b>.614</b>
Pui1	.907	.822		
Pui2	.923	.853		
Pui3	.798	.637		
<b>Purchase intention (.904)</b>			<b>0.909</b>	<b>.771</b>

**4.3.4.10 Assessment of the hypothesized relationship (hypothesis 6, 7, 8)**

This study applied the Theory of Planned Behaviour to explain consumer behaviour of foreign tourists towards traditional Taiwanese food. Thus, in this section the hypothesized relationships among four constructs have been examined. AMOS 19.0 software was applied to test the hypothesized relationships between factors related to the theory of planned behaviour. A structural equation model was constructed using the maximum likelihood estimation method (ML). Figure 4-1 shows the significant paths and their standardised estimates.

Results found that all the hypothesized paths were significant and positive, which is consistent with the expected signs on the significant level of 0.05. Therefore, hypotheses 14, 15, and 16 of this study are supported. In other words, ‘attitudes to traditional Taiwanese food’ is directly, positively, and significantly related to ‘purchase intention of traditional Taiwanese food’ ( $\beta=0.366$ ,  $t=8.434$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). ‘Subjective norm’ is directly, positively, and significantly related to ‘purchase intention of traditional Taiwanese food’ ( $\beta=0.242$ ,  $t=4.114$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). ‘Perceived behaviour control’ is significantly, positively and directly related to ‘purchase intention of traditional Taiwanese food’ ( $\beta=0.480$ ,  $t=9.327$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The theory of planned behaviour is applicable to explain tourists’ behaviour toward traditional food. In the next section, this study explores whether the tourist personality trait of sensation-seeking and food neophobia function as moderators that influences traditional Taiwanese food consumption and its relationship to purchase intention.



**Figure 4-1: Standardized estimates of theory of planned behaviour model**

### **4.3.5 Moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia to the theory of planned behaviour and the relationship with purchase intention of Taiwanese traditional food (hypotheses 9 to 16)**

#### **4.3.5.1 Confirmatory factor analysis for measurement model of sensation-seeking and food neophobia**

In the previous section, the theory of planned behaviour was confirmed as being able to explain foreign tourists' consumer behaviour towards traditional Taiwanese food. This section focuses on the moderating effects of sensation-seeking and food neophobia on the theory of planned behaviour and its relationship with purchase intention. The moderating effects of sensation-seeking and food neophobia are examined by structural equation modelling with the maximum likelihood estimation in AMOS 19.

Before analysing the structural model, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to construct the adequacy of the measurement model for all variables. Firstly, the measurement model of sensation-seeking was examined. This scale with eight items was therefore subjected to CFA. Missing data and normality were the two major concerns before a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. Therefore, missing data were examined beforehand. Results showed that all respondents provided valid responses regarding the sensation-seeking scale. Evaluating the normality of the gathered data was the next step. As discussed in the previous chapter, a normal distribution can be examined using the skew and kurtosis index. Normality is assumed when absolute values for the skew are less than 3 and absolute values for the kurtosis are less than 10. In this scale, the absolute value of the skew is from 0.012 to 1.001 and kurtosis was from 0.235 to 1.237, suggesting the data is normally distributed.

Having examined the missing data and normality, the sensation-seeking scale with eight items was subjected to a CFA. Figure 4-2 shows the standardised estimates of the first order CFA of sensation-seeking. The correlation between three latent variables (excitement-seeking and adventure-seeking was 0.26, adventure-seeking and thrill-seeking was 0.32, and excitement- and thrill-seeking was 0.52) suggesting a moderate relationship; therefore there might exist a higher order common factor. Factor loading of each of the observed variables to latent variables

was from 0.44 to 0.724 (excitement-seeking and three latent variables), 0.460 to 0.77 (adventure-seeking and three latent variables) and 0.631 to 0.844 (thrill-seeking to two latent variables). Factor loading was expected to be greater than 0.32 to be interpreted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, according to the factor loading of the sensation-seeking scale, it ranged from 0.44 to 0.77, and as a result all the items are retained.

Evaluation of a number of goodness of fit indices indicated the initial hypothesized model did not fit the data well, with the  $\chi^2 = 52.824$ ,  $df = 17$ ,  $p$  less than 0.001,  $\chi^2 / df = 3.107$ , SRMR = 0.051, and TLI = 0.899. Therefore, re-specification of the hypothesized model of sensation-seeking was found to be necessary. A large MI of 8.331 was found between item 3 and item 4, suggesting a covariance should be added between error 3 and error 6 to allow for a relationship between them. Item 3 asks participants about the feeling of boredom they experience when they spend too much time at home, while item 4 enquires what kind of friend they prefer. It is reasonable to add a covariance between these two items, since these two items describe a person who tends to have more excitement in their life. Therefore, in order to build model 2, a covariance was added between items 3 and 4 (error 3 and error 6).

As a result, model fit (the  $\chi^2$  from 52.82 to 44.05,  $df$  from 17 to 16,  $p$  less than 0.001,  $\chi^2 / df = 2.75$ , SRMR from 0.05 to 0.43 (less than 0.05) was significantly improved, as was the TLI from 0.90 to 0.92 (greater than 0.9)). Although the  $\chi^2$  was still significant ( $p$  less than 0.001), the alternative criteria  $\chi^2 / df$  is less than 3, with the other indices all fitting the criteria. Therefore, it is concluded that the re-specified Model 2 fit the data well. In this case, the final version of the sensation-seeking model is Model 2, retaining the original three-factor structure and adding one error covariance between error terms for items 3 and 4. Results of factor loading and the goodness-of-fit index for model 1 and model 2 are presented in tables 4-43 and 4-44.

chi-square=44.047  
 degeee of freedom=16  
 GFI=.974  
 RMSEA=.067  
 AGFT=.942  
 NFI=.928  
 CFI=.952

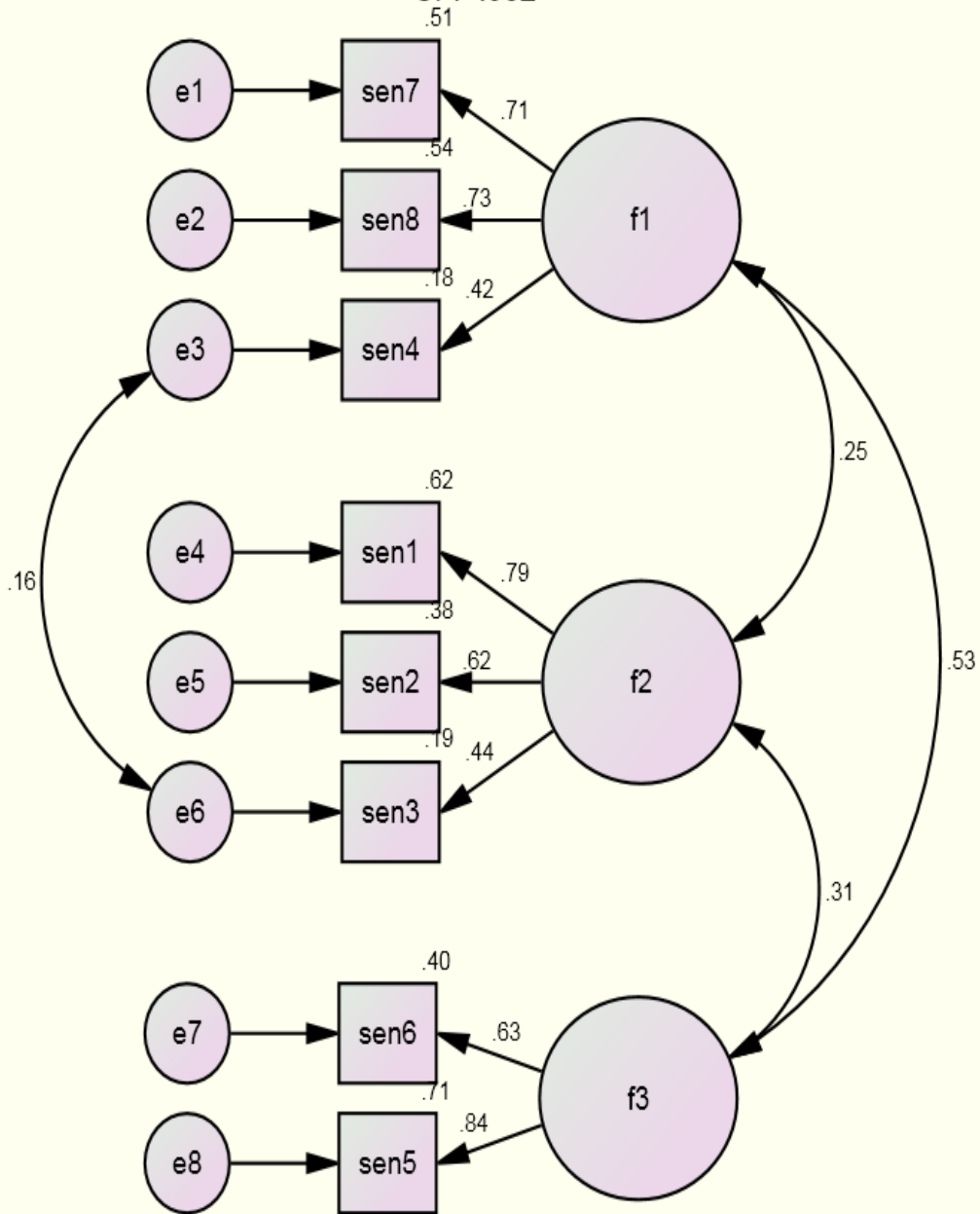


Figure 4-2: Standardized estimates of first order CFA of sensation-seeking

**Table 4-43: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389)**

Construct items	Initial standardized loadings (model 1)	Re-specified model (model 2)	
		Final standardized loading	CR(t)
<b>Factor 1 (excitement seeking)</b>			
1. "I like wild parties"	.724	0.713	6.769***
2. "I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable"	.437	0.422	-
3. "I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal"	.723	0.435	6.054***
<b>Factor 2 (adventure seeking)</b>			
4. "I would like to explore strange places"	.771	0.788	5.986***
5. "I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables"	.632	0.845	6.538***
6. "I get restless when I spend too much time at home"	.460	0.439	-
<b>Factor 3 (thrill seeking)</b>			
7. "I like to do frightening things"	.844	0.845	-
8. "I would like to try bungee jumping"	.631	0.631	6.784***

CR that are not given are not estimated by Amos, due to regression weight being fixed to one  
 \*\*\* p<.001

**Table 4-44: Goodness-of-fit measures of first order of CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389)**

Measure	Criteria	Model1	Model2
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better	52.824	44.047
$\chi^2 /d.f.$	< 3 or < 5	3.107	2.753
RMSEA	< 0.05 or <0.08	0.74	0.67
CFI	> 0.9	0.939	0.952
SRMR	<0.05	0.511	0.433
GFI	> 0.9	0.968	0.974
AGFI	> 0.9	0.933	0.942
NFI	> 0.9	0.914	0.928
IFI	> 0.9	0.859	0.953
TLI	> 0.9	0.899	0.916
HOELTER(CN)	>200	246	282

Note:  $\chi^2$  - chi-square; RMSEA—root-mean-square error of approximation; TLI—Tucker–Lewis index; CFI—comparative fit index. GFI—goodness-of-fit index; AGFI—adjusted goodness-of-fit index; NFI—normal fit index; SRMR—standardized root mean square residual; IFI—incremental fit index.

#### 4.3.5.2 Second order confirmatory factor analysis for the sensation-seeking scale

The results of the first order factor analysis indicated a moderate correlation among the three latent variables, revealing the possibility of a higher order structure. In response to this, a second order confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. The standardised estimates of the second order CFA are presented in Figure 4-3. The second order model hypothesizes that no error covariance or cross-loading existed. In addition, the three first-order factors (excitement-seeking, adventure-seeking, and thrill-seeking) are fully explained by the second order factor (sensation-seeking) (Byrne, 2010).

The goodness-of-fit for the second-order hypothesized model demonstrated that the hypothesized model did not fit the data well, with the  $\chi^2 = 52.824$ ,  $p$  less than 0.001,  $\chi^2 / df = 3.107$ , and the TLI = 0.899. However, a large MI of 8.331 was found relating to the error covariance 3 and 6. Therefore, model fit was expected to be substantially improved if this parameter was specified as free. As argued in the first order CFA, it is logical to add a covariance between these two items since these two items describe a person who tends to have more excitement in their life. Therefore, in order to build Model 2, a covariance was added between items 3 and 4 (error 3 and error 6).

Model 2 involves the specification of an error covariance between items 3 and 4. As a result, the goodness-of-fit revealed a better model fit, with the  $\chi^2 = 44.047$ ,  $df = 17$ ,  $p$  less than 0.001,  $\chi^2 / df = 2.753$ , and the TLI = 0.916 (see Table 4-38). In comparison with the hypothesized Model 1 with no error covariance specified, model 2 demonstrated a more reasonable fit to the data. Although the  $\chi^2$  is still significant ( $p$  less than 0.001), the alternative fit index  $\chi^2 / df$  is less than 3. One should notice that it is unwise to modify a model to fit better when it already fits well (Byrne, 2010). Moreover, after an evaluation of the factor loading, all the factor loadings were found to be substantively reasonable and statistically significant (see Table 4-36). Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesized model fit the data well and the concept of sensation-seeking contains three factors (excitement-seeking, adventure-seeking, and thrill-seeking). Results of factor loading and the goodness-of-fit index for Model 1 and Model 2 are presented in Tables 4-45 and 4-46.



**Table 4-45: Factor loading of second order of CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389)**

Construct items	Initial standardized loadings (model 1)	Re-specified model (model 2)	
		Final standardized loading	CR(t)
<b>Factor 1 to sensation-seeking</b>	0.654	0.648	4.501***
<b>Factor 2 to sensation-seeking</b>	0.398	0.387	3.897***
<b>Factor 3 to sensation-seeking</b>	0.798	0.813	6.174***
<b>Factor 1 (excitement-seeking)</b>			
1. “I like wild parties”	0.724	0.713	6.769***
2. “I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable”	0.723	0.735	6.057***
3. “I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal”	0.437	0.422	-
<b>Factor 2 (adventure-seeking)</b>			
4. “I would like to explore strange places”	0.771	0.788	5.986***
5. “I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetable”.	0.632	0.620	6.538***
6. “I get restless when I spend too much time at home”	0.460	0.439	-
<b>Factor 3 (thrill-seeking)</b>			
7. “I like to do frightening things”	0.631	0.631	6.784***
8. “I would like to try bungee jumping”	0.844	0.845	-

*CR that are not given are not estimated by Amos, due to regression weight being fixed to one*

**Table 4-46: Goodness-of-fit measures of second order CFA for the measurement model of sensation-seeking (N=389)**

Measure	Criteria	Model1	Model2
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better	52.824	44.047
$\chi^2 /d.f.$	< 3 or < 5	3.107	2.753
RMSEA	< 0.05 or <0.08	0.074	0.067
CFI	> 0.9	0.939	0.952
SRMR	<0.05	0.051	0.0433
GFI	> 0.9	0.968	0.974
AGFI	> 0.9	0.933	0.942
NFI	> 0.9	0.914	0.928
IFI	> 0.9	0.940	0.953
TLI	> 0.9	0.899	0.916
HOELTER(CN)	> 200	246	282

*Note:  $\chi^2$  - chi-square; RMSEA—root-mean-square error of approximation; TLI—Tucker–Lewis index; CFI—comparative fit index. GFI—goodness-of-fit index; AGFI—adjusted goodness-of-fit index; NFI—normal fit index; SRMR—standardized root mean square residual; IFI—incremental fit index.*

chi-square=44.047  
 degree of freedom=16  
 GFI=.974  
 RMSEA=.067  
 AGFT=.942  
 NFI=.928  
 CFI=.952

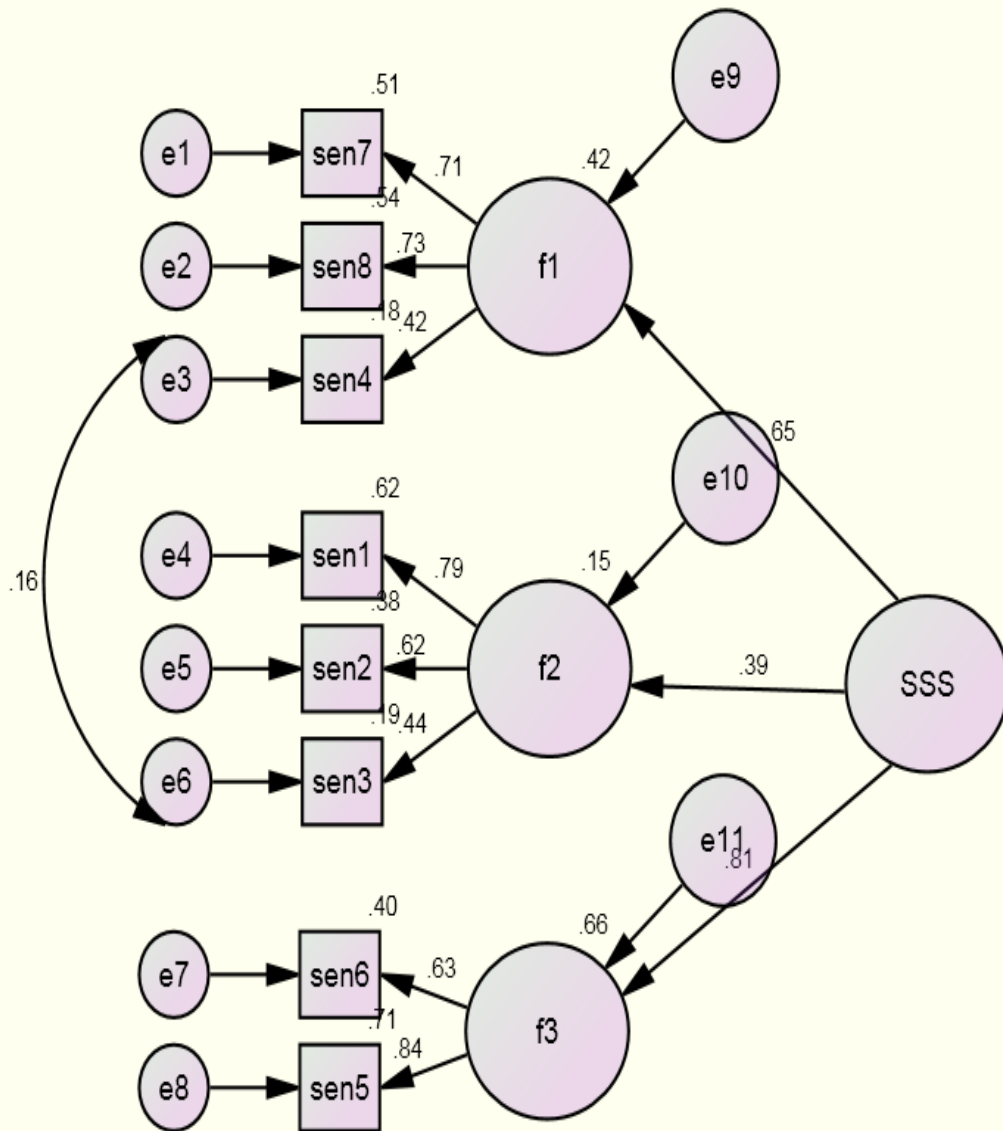


Figure 4-3: Standardized estimates of Second order CFA model for sensation-seeking

#### 4.3.5.3 First order confirmatory factor analysis for the food neophobia scale

Sensation-seeking and food neophobia were assumed to be two moderators in this study. The previous section showed a measurement model for the sensation-seeking scale. The confirmatory factor analysis was also applied to another moderator, food neophobia, to establish the measurement model. Prior to the confirmatory factor analysis, the missing data and the normality were first examined. Results show that all respondents provided valid responses for the food neophobia scale. The normality examined by the skew and kurtosis (from 0.28 to 1.49 and from 0.07 to 4.33) suggests that the data was normally distributed.

Having examined missing data and the normality, the food neophobia scale with eight items was subjected to a CFA, the results of which have been presented in Table 4-48. The correlation between two latent variables, fear of new food and active enjoyment of new food, was 0.79, suggesting the existence of a higher order common factor. Therefore, a second order confirmatory factor analysis was performed. The factor loading of each of the observed variables to latent variables is from 0.59 to 0.79 (fear of new food) and 0.65 to 0.75 (active enjoyment of new food). Factor loading is expected to be greater than 0.32 to be interpreted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, according to the factor loading in the food neophobia scale, ranging from 0.59 to 0.75, all the items were retained. Figure 4-4 shows the standardised estimates of the first order CFA of food neophobia.

An evaluation of a number of goodness of fit indices indicated that the initial hypothesized model does not fit the data well, with the  $\chi^2 = 134.704$ ,  $df = 17$ ,  $p$  less than 0.001,  $\chi^2 / df = 3.962$ , AGFI = 0.898, and RMSEA = 0.087. The MI for item 9 was found to be involved in most of them. Ritchey et al. (2003) suggested that item 9 is too general, and should be dropped. Pliner and Hobden (1992) also suggested that item 9 has the lowest item-whole correlation with 0.38. The results of the exploratory factor analysis in this study revealed item 9 had the lowest factor loading, with 0.59 compared to other items. Therefore, re-specification of the hypothesized model was made by dropping item 9.

Building model 2 involved deleting item 9. The modified model made a significant improvement of the model fit (the  $\chi^2$  from 134.70 to 60.93,  $df$  from 34 to 26,  $p$  less than 0.001,  $\chi^2 / df$  from

3.96 to 2.23, AGFI from 0.90 to 0.941, and RMSEA from 0.08 to 0.06). Model 2 revealed a good model fit, with all the criteria satisfied. Although the  $\chi^2$  is still significant ( $p$  less than 0.001), the alternative index  $\chi^2 / df$  was less than 3. Therefore, the final version of the food neophobia model retained the original two-factor structure but dropped item 9 without adding any error covariance. Results of factor loading and goodness-of-fit for Model 1 and Model 2 are presented in the Tables 4-47 and 4-48.

**Table 4-47: Factor loading of first order of CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389)**

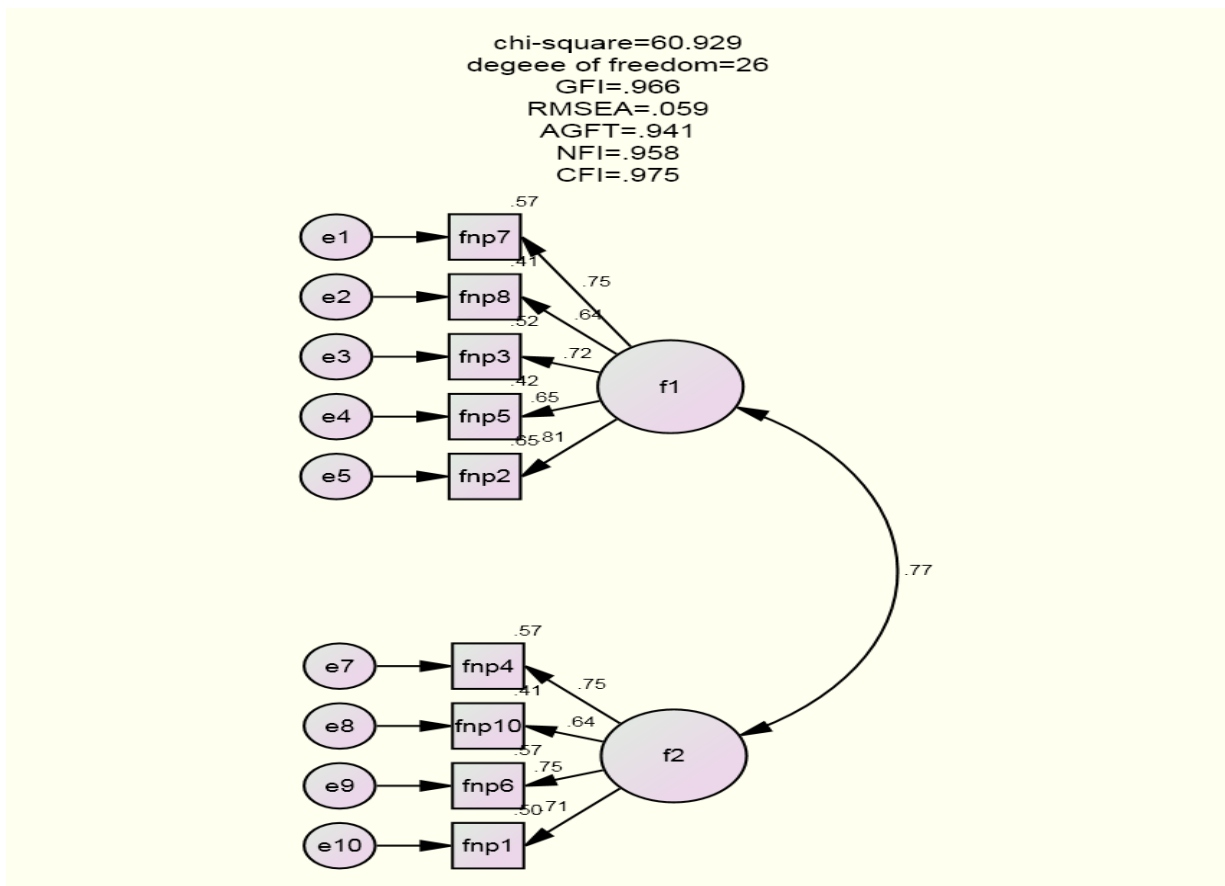
Construct items	Initial standardized loadings	Re-specified model	
		Final standardized loading	CR(t)
<b>Factor1- fear of new food</b>			
1. "I am afraid to eat things I have never had before"	.741	0.755	15.043***
2. "I am very particular about the foods I will eat"	.657	0.640	12.267***
3. "If I don't know what is in food, I won't try it"	.725	0.722	14.543***
4. "Ethnic food looks too weird to eat"	.642	0.648	12.878***
5. "I don't trust new food"	.794	0.807	-
6. "I will eat almost anything"	.594	Deleted	Deleted
<b>Factor2- active enjoyment of new food</b>			
1. "I like food from different countries"	.744	0.754	12.589
2. "I like to try new ethnic restaurants"	.649	0.642	11.455
3. "At dinner parties, I will try new food"	.749	0.753	12.592
4. "I am constantly sampling new and different food"	.718	0.710	-

*CR that are not given are not estimated by Amos, due to regression weight being fixed to one*

**Table 4-48: Goodness-of-fit measures of first order CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389)**

Measure	Criteria	Model1	Model2
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better	134.704	60.929
$\chi^2 / \text{d.f.}$	< 3 or < 5	3.962	2.343
RMSEA	< 0.05 or < 0.08	0.087	0.059
CFI	> 0.9	0.938	0.975
SRMR	< 0.05	0.048	0.0321
GFI	> 0.9	0.937	0.966
AGFI	> 0.9	0.898	0.941
NFI	> 0.9	0.919	0.958
IFI	> 0.9	0.938	0.975
TLI	> 0.9	0.917	0.966
CFI	> 0.9	0.938	0.975
HOELTER(CN)	> 200	162	291

Note:  $\chi^2$  - chi-square; **RMSEA**—root-mean-square error of approximation; **TLI**—Tucker–Lewis index; **CFI** — comparative fit index. **GFI**—goodness-of-fit index; **AGFI**—adjusted goodness-of-fit index; **NFI**—normal fit index; **SRMR**—standardized root mean square residual; **IFI** —incremental fit index.



**Figure 4-4: Standardized estimates of first order CFA model for food neophobia**

#### 4.3.5.4 Second order confirmatory factor analysis for the food neophobia scale

Results of the first order factor analysis indicated a high correlation between the two latent variables, revealing the possibility of a higher order structure. Thus, in order to respond to this, a second order confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. The standardized estimates model of the second order CFA is presented as Figure 4-5. The second order model hypothesized that no error covariance and cross-loading existed. The two first-order factors (fear of new food and active enjoyment of new food) were also fully explained by the second order factor (food neophobia) (Byrne, 2010).

The goodness-of-fit for the second-order hypothesized model revealed that the hypothesized model fits the data well, with the  $\chi^2 = 61.665$ ,  $p$  less than 0.001,  $\chi^2 / df = 2.056$ , and all other indices satisfied. Moreover, all factor loadings were substantively reasonable and statistically significant. Therefore, it was concluded that the hypothesized model fits the data well, and the concept of food neophobia contained two factors (fear of new food and active enjoyment of new food). The factor loading and goodness-of-fit for the second order of CFA are presented in tables 4-49 and 4-50.

**Table 4-49: Factor loading of second order of CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389)**

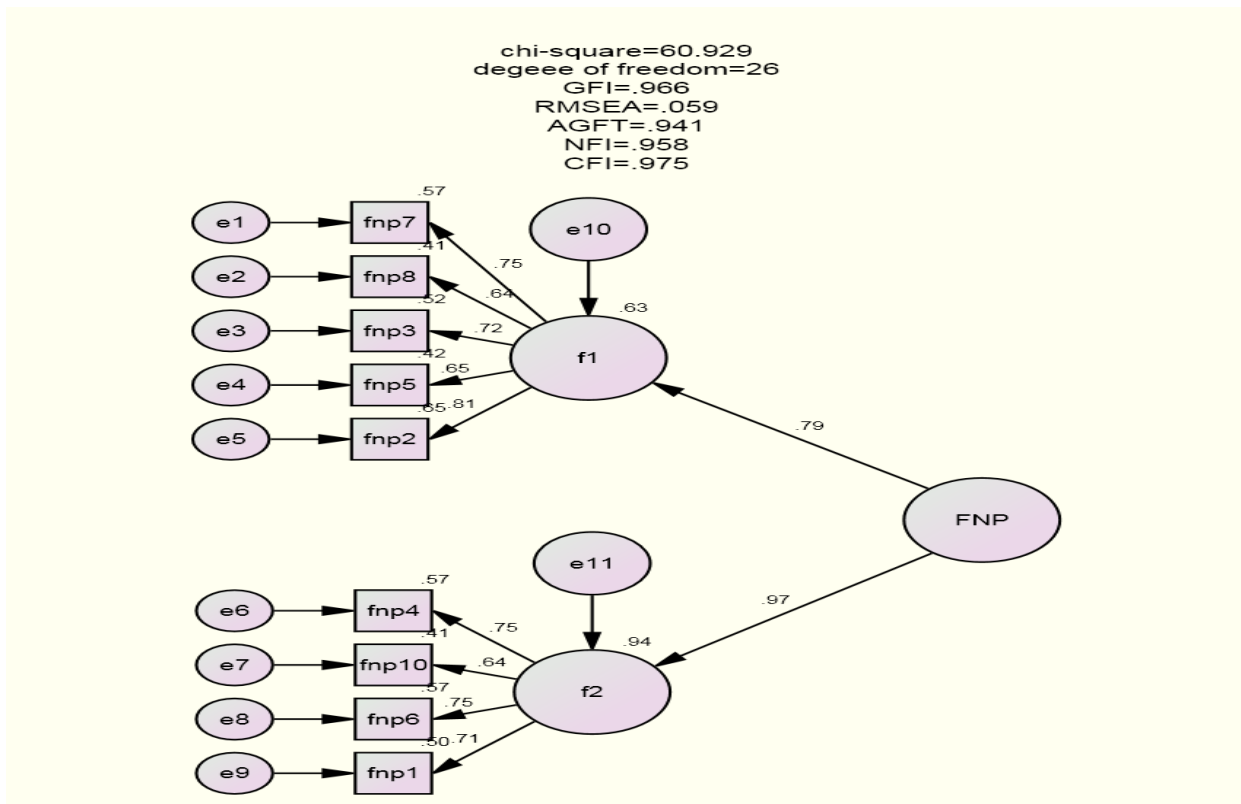
Construct items	standardized loadings	CR(t)
<b>Factor1 to food neophobia</b>	0.795	-
<b>Factor2 to food neophobia</b>	0.968	-
<b>Factor1-</b>		
1. "I am afraid to eat things I have never had before"	0.755	15.043***
2. "I am very particular about the food I will eat"	0.640	12.267***
3. "If I don't know what is in food, I won't try it"	0.722	14.543***
4. "Ethnic food looks too weird to eat"	0.648	12.878***
5. "I don't trust new food"	0.807	-
<b>Factor2-</b>		
1. "I like food from different countries"	0.754	12.589***
2. "I like to try new ethnic restaurants"	0.642	11.455***
3. "At dinner parties, I will try new food"	0.753	12.596***
4. "I am constantly sampling new and different food"	0.710	-

*CR that are not given are not estimated by Amos, due to regression weight being fixed to one*

**Table 4-50: Goodness-of-fit measures of second order CFA for the measurement model of food neophobia (N=389)**

Measure	Criteria	Result of second order
$\chi^2$	The smaller the better	61.66
$\chi^2 / \text{d.f.}$	< 3 or < 5	2.05
RMSEA	< 0.05 or <0.08	0.052
CFI	> 0.9	0.980
SRMR	<0.05	0.030
GFI	> 0.9	0.969
AGFI	> 0.9	0.944
NFI	> 0.9	0.963
IFI	> 0.9	0.981
TLI	> 0.9	0.971
CFI	> 0.9	0.980
HOELTER(CN)	> 200	0.321

Note:  $\chi^2$  - chi-square; **RMSEA**—root-mean-square error of approximation; **TLI**—Tucker–Lewis index; **CFI**—comparative fit index. **GFI**—goodness-of-fit index; **AGFI**—adjusted goodness-of-fit index; **NFI**—normal fit index; **SRMR**—standardized root mean square residual; **IFI**—incremental fit index.



**Figure 4-5: Standardized estimates of second order CFA model for food neophobia**

#### 4.3.5.5 Structural model for the moderating effect of sensation seeking and food neophobia

One of the aims of this study was to explore the moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia on the Theory of Planned Behaviour. In the previous section, the adequacy of the measurement models of sensation seeking and food neophobia were confirmed. In this section, the moderating effects of these two constructs on the theory of planned behaviour were examined. The structural equation model was examined using the maximum likelihood estimation in AMOS 19 to see if the hypothesized model fit the collected data. Moreover, this study followed the procedure to evaluate the structural equation model as suggested in Chapter 3. The normality of input data, preliminary evaluation criteria, global measure of fit, and fit of the internal structure of the model were assessed. Results of the evaluation are provided in the following section.

#### 4.3.5.6 On the evaluation of the structural model: Normality of input data

First of all, this study evaluated the normality of the input data for sensation-seeking and food neophobia. Skew and kurtosis were the two indices that helped to examine the normality. When the absolute value of the skew index was less than 3 and the absolute value of kurtosis was less than 20, normal distribution is assumed. According to these criteria, the data of this study is distributed as demonstrated in Table 4-51.

**Table 4-51: Examination of the normality of input data (N=389)**

Variables	Min	Max	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Sensation-seeking	10	42	28.156	5.743	-.076	-.326
Food neophobia	10	70	27.917	9.439	.379	.596

#### 4.3.5.7 Evaluation of the structural model: preliminary evaluation criteria

As described above, the preliminary evaluation criteria concerned the assessment of: no negative error variance, standardized coefficient exceeding or very close to 1, factor loading between 0.5 and 0.95, and no large stand error. Examination of the preliminary evaluation criteria for the hypothesis model of the moderating effect revealed no error variance as negative, and no correlation greater than 1 or too close to 1. Factor loading for attitude, subjective norm,



perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention was introduced in the previous section, and was between 0.58 and 0.92. Factor loading for sensation-seeking and food neophobia was from 0.422 to 0.85, and 0.64 to 0.81. Factor loading of the two items (items 3 and 4) on the sensation-seeking scale was slightly below 0.5. However, according to Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) rules of thumb, factor loading was expected to be greater than 0.32 to be interpreted. Thus, the factor loading in the sensation-seeking scale was acceptable. Finally, there was no evidence of large standard errors. As a result, the hypothesized model presented a result fitting the preliminary criteria, indicating the non-existence of any major anomalies in the model. Therefore, the data is assumed to be suitable for the intended analysis.

#### **4.3.5.8 Evaluation of the structural model: Global measure of fit**

After the basic assumption was confirmed, the global measure of fit was examined to see if the hypothesised model fitted the data. Evaluation of the goodness-of-fit indices revealed the degree of freedom to be 0, which meant that the number of distinct sample moments was 78, and the number of distinct parameters estimated was 78 (the degree of freedom is distinct sample moment minus distinct parameter). In this case, this hypothesized moderating model is a just-identified model. As introduced before, the just-identified model has 0 degrees of freedom, and always fits perfectly to the data. Therefore, the goodness-of-fit indices for the hypothesized model was not presented in this section. Following this, the fit of internal structure of the moderating model was examined, and is presented in the next section.

#### **4.3.5.9 Fit of internal structure of the model: composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity**

This section involves the examination of the internal structural of the hypothesized moderating model. Therefore, individual item reliability, composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), significance and direction of the parameters of the hypothesized path dictated by theory, absolute value of the standardized residuals along with the modification indices were tested. Results of the examination of the internal structural of the hypothesized moderating model were as follows. As attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention were confirmed for the internal structure in the previous section, only the results of sensation-seeking and food neophobia were presented in this section.

Firstly, the results of the internal structure of sensation-seeking is presented (see Table 4-52). Results showed that most of the individual reliabilities in the sensation-seeking scale were above 0.3, which is within the reasonable range, with only two exceptions in the sensation-seeking scale. The composite reliabilities for sensation-seeking was from 0.664 to 0.710, indicating a good internal consistency for the scale. Cronbach’s alphas also demonstrated a good reliability, with all above 0.6. Regarding the average variance extracted, only factor 3 (thrill-seeking) was above 0.5, while the others were slightly below the criteria. However, although there were some existing criteria for statistical and nonstatistical guidelines, “any particular application will typically result in some acceptances and some rejections of a model based on the standards” (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988, p. 81). Therefore, the internal structure of the sensation-seeking scale was regarded as appropriate in this study.

**Table 4-52: Results of the internal fit of measurement (sensation-seeking)**

Measure (Cronbach’s alpha)	Completely standardized estimates	Squared multiple correlation coefficient(R)	CR	AVE
<b>Factor1 (.698)</b>	0.648	0.420	0.664	0.409
sen7	0.713	0.509		
sen4	0.422	0.178		
sen8	0.735	0.540		
<b>Factor2 (.644)</b>	0.387	0.150	0.654	0.399
sen1	0.788	0.621		
sen2	0.620	0.385		
sen3	0.439	0.193		
<b>Factor3 (.659)</b>	0.813	0.660	0.710	0.556
sen5	0.845	0.714		
sen6	0.631	0.398		
<b>Sensation-seeking (.657)</b>			0.658	0.410

Turning now to an assessment of the internal structure for the food neophobia scale, the results from the internal structure of the food neophobia scale are presented in Table 4-53. Results showed that most of the individual reliabilities in the food neophobia scale are above 0.3. The composite reliabilities were 0.84 and 0.81, indicating a good internal consistency for the scale.

Cronbach's alphas also demonstrated a good reliability, with all above 0.8. As for the average variance extracted, all factors were above 0.5. In summary, it is concluded that the food neophobia scale was both a reliable and valid measure.

**Table 4-53: Results of the internal fit of measurement (food neophobia)**

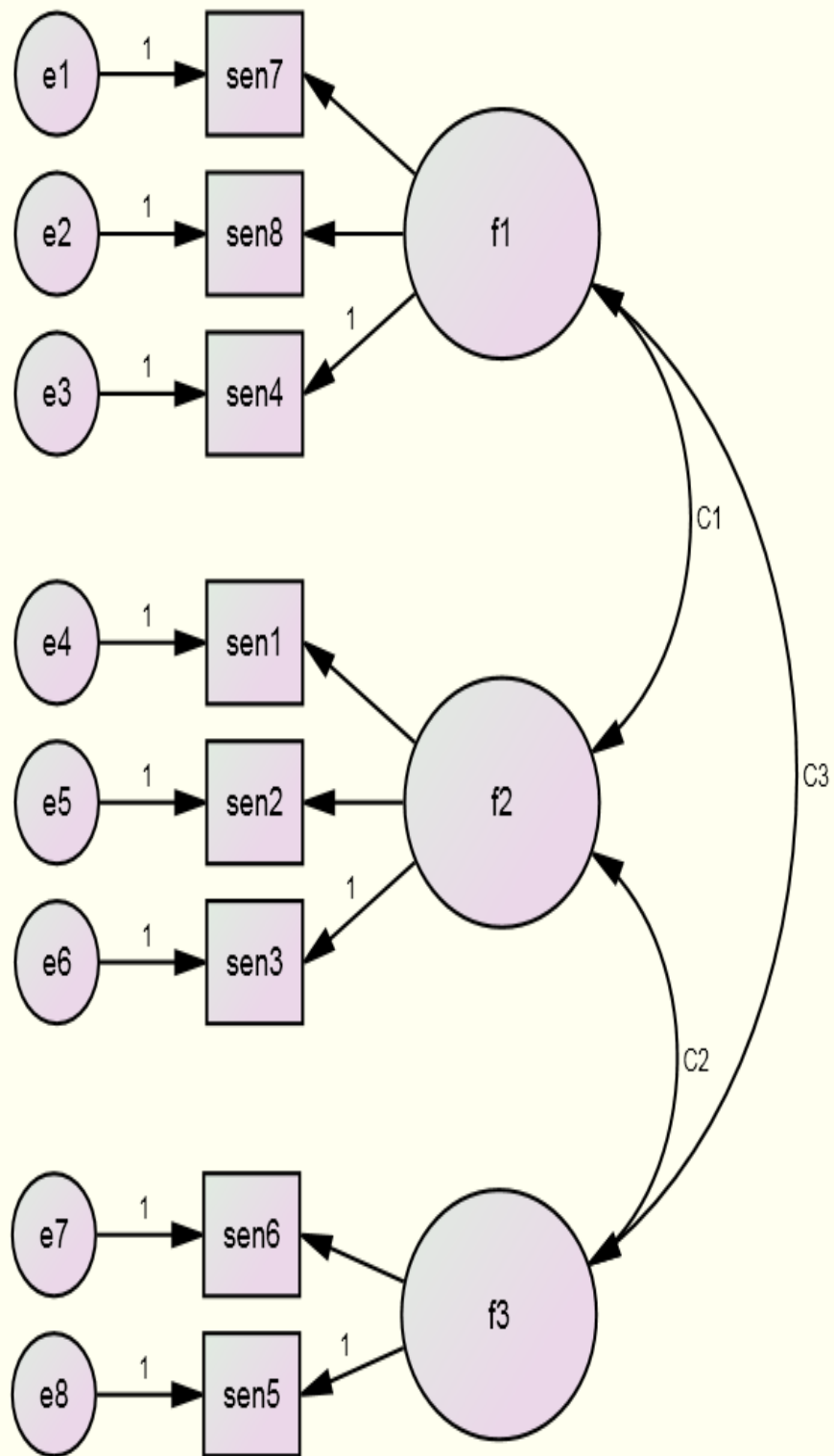
Measure (Cronbach's alpha)	Completely standardized estimates	Squared multiple correlation coefficient(R)	CR	AVE
<b>Factor1 (.843)</b>	.795	.765	0.841	0.514
<b>Fnp7</b>	.755	.499		
<b>Fnp8</b>	.640	.364		
<b>Fnp3</b>	.722	.525		
<b>Fnp5</b>	.648	.417		
<b>Fnp2</b>	.807	.669		
<b>Factor2 (.801)</b>	.968	.828	0.807	0.512
<b>Fnp1</b>	.710	.499		
<b>Fnp6</b>	.753	.553		
<b>Fnp10</b>	.642	.403		
<b>Fnp4</b>	.754	.567		
<b>Food neophobia (.881)</b>			0.878	0.784

After confirming individual reliability, composite reliability and the average variance extracted, the convergent validity was examined. Convergent validity is assessed with factor loading and the AVE. It is expected that the factor loading should be above 0.32, and the AVE greater than 0.5. As introduced before, factor loadings for the sensation-seeking and food neophobia scales were all greater than 0.3. Only the sensation-seeking scale has an AVE slightly less than 0.5. Although the AVE examination for the sensation-seeking scale was less than 0.5, it is still greater than 0.4, and the factor loadings are all above 0.3. Therefore, with the majority of tests satisfied, it was concluded that the sensation-seeking and food neophobia scales were both valid and reliable.

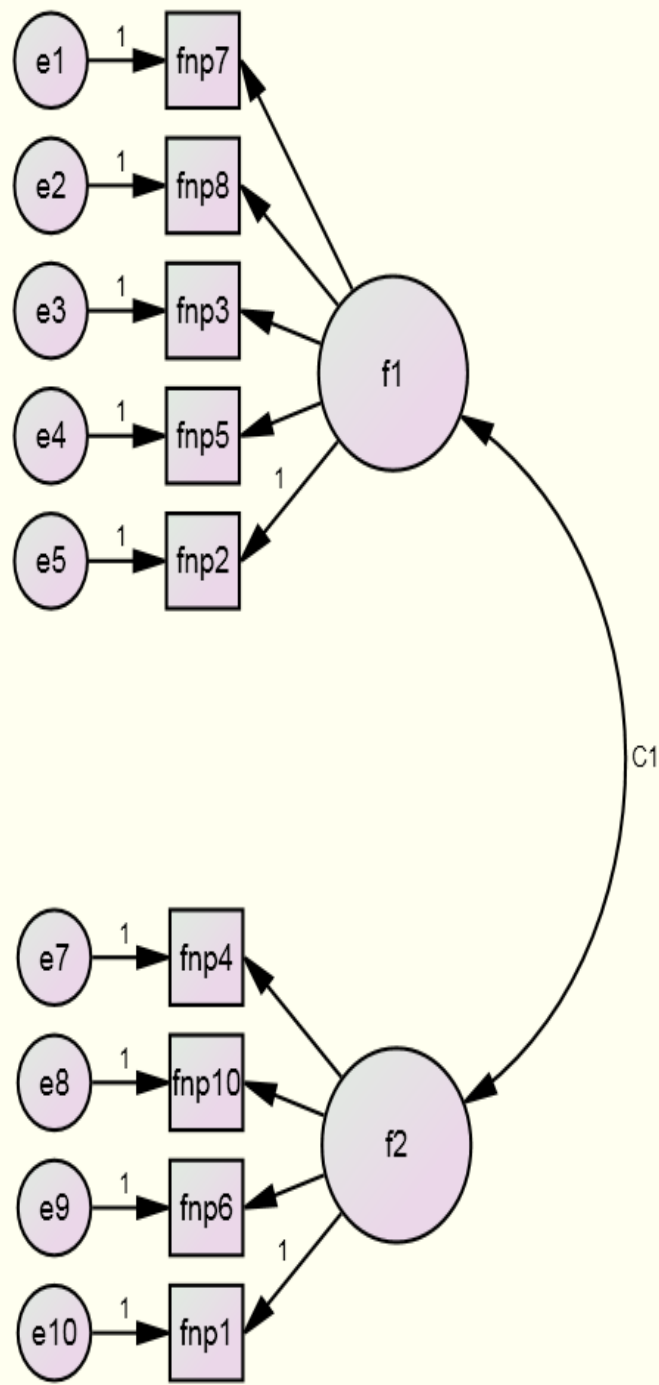
The final concern for the internal structure is the discriminant validity of the sensation-seeking and food neophobia scales. First of all, the discriminant validity of the sensation-seeking scale

was examined. Multi-group analysis was performed with a view to comparing the chi-square and examining the p-value. As Figure 4-6 depicts, there were three correlations among three dimensions (C1, C2, and C3). This study constrained one correlation to equal 1 each time, starting from C1 and repeating the same procedure three times. The results supported that f1, f2, and f3 were unique dimensions, as the chi-square for constrained model 1 (C3,  $\chi^2=108.987$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), constrained model 2 (C2,  $\chi^2=110.089$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), and constrained model 3 (C1,  $\chi^2=168.980$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) were different from the original model ( $\chi^2=44.047$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The p-values were also significant. Subsequently, the confidence intervals were also applied to examine the discriminant validity, which could then be generated through the bootstrap (McLachlan, 1992). Results showed that there was no value 1 between the confidence intervals of the paired correlation variables e.g. f1 to f2 (0.77; 0.409), f2 to f3 (0.315; 0.171), and f1 to f3 (0.526; 0.347). According with these results, it is concluded that the sensation-seeking scale has confirmed discriminant validity.

Subsequently, examination of the discriminant validity of the food neophobia scale was conducted using the same procedures. Figure 4-7 demonstrated the discriminant validity model for food neophobia, where it can be seen that there is only one correlation (C1) between the two dimensions. Therefore, C1 was constrained to equal 1. Results showed that when the model constrained C1 to equal 1, the  $\chi^2 = 67.259$ ,  $p< 0.001$ , which is different from the original model (the  $\chi^2 = 60.929$ ,  $p< 0.001$ ). This provides evidence of discriminant validity. Further evidence of discriminant validity was also provided from the bootstrap confidence intervals of the paired correlations among the latent variables, as the value 1 was not included (f1 to f2; 0.557 to 0.940). Through the two different approaches, two measurements of sensation-seeking and food neophobia in this study have confirmed discriminant validity. In this section, the hypothesized model was evaluated using various criteria. Results reveal an appropriateness of the structural and measurement model used in this study. The next stage examines the hypothesis underlying this study, and is presented in the next section.



**Figure 4-6: Discriminant validity model for the sensation-seeking scale**

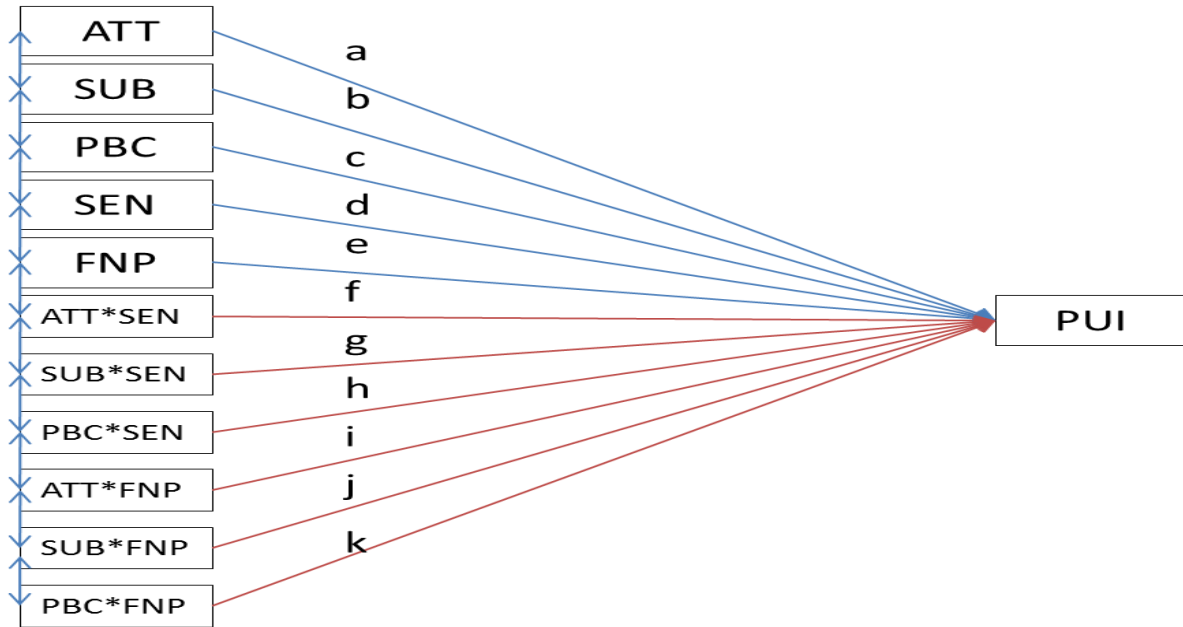


**Figure 4-7: Discriminant validity model for the food neophobia scale**

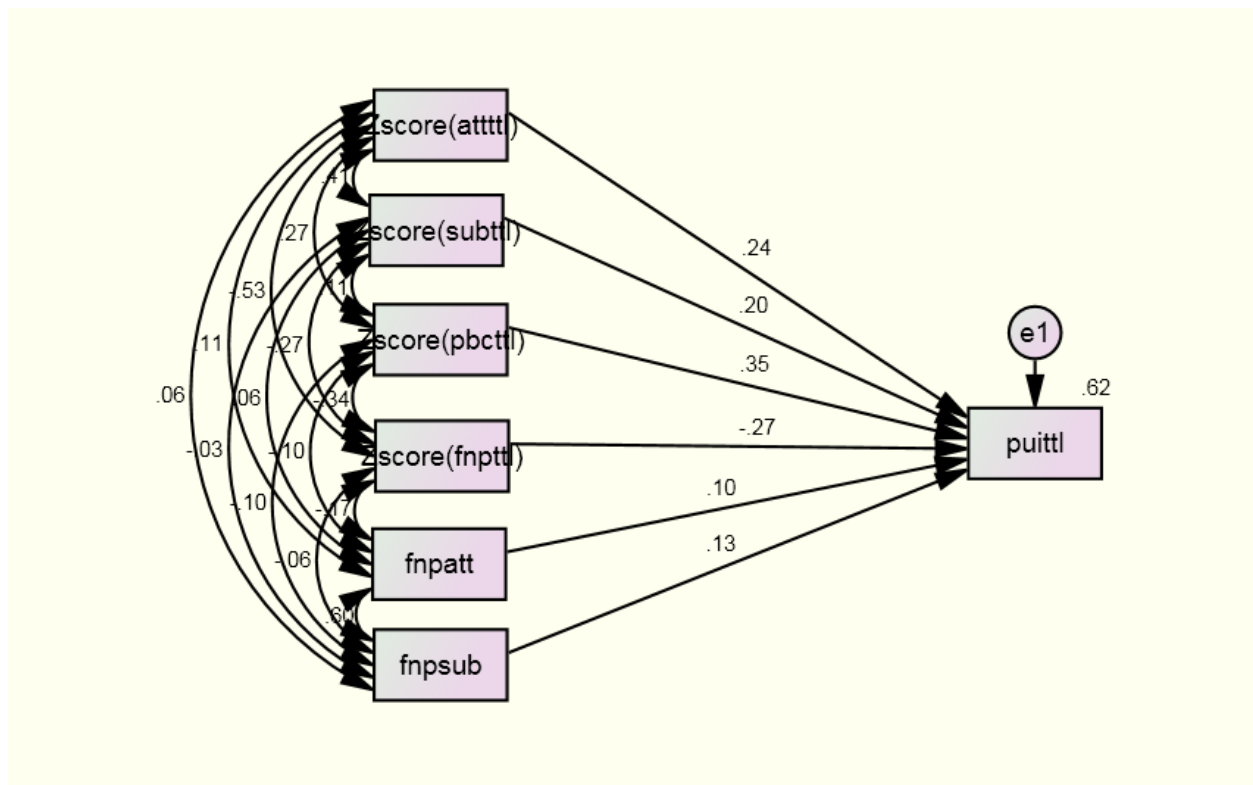
#### **4.3.5.10 Assessment of the moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia and their relationship with purchase intention**

In this section, the moderating effects of sensation-seeking and food neophobia is applied to the Theory of Planned Behaviour and its relationship with intention to purchase are assessed, that is, how sensation-seeking and food neophobia affect the relationship between the three independent variables (attitude toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) and one outcome variable (purchase intention of traditional Taiwanese food). The framework of the moderating effect sensation-seeking and food neophobia has on the theory of planned behaviour is depicted as Figure 4-8. As introduced before, when paths f, h, i, j, k are significant, a moderating effect is assumed. Before conducting the analysis, the score for attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural, sensation-seeking, and food neophobia are standardized (mean centre) as Hopwood (2007) suggested. Results show that path f ( $\beta = 0.242$ ,  $CR = .585$ ,  $p > .05$ ), g ( $\beta = 0.242$ ,  $CR = .114$ ,  $p > .05$ ), h ( $\beta = 0.242$ ,  $CR = .803$ ,  $p > .05$ ), and k ( $\beta = 0.242$ ,  $CR = -1.546$ ,  $p > .05$ ) were not significant. This study deleted one insignificant path each time from the largest CR until all the paths were significant. The final model was demonstrated in Figure 4-9. In the hypothesized model, only the interaction effect of path i ( $\beta = 0.095$ ,  $CR = 2.385$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and j ( $\beta = 0.133$ ,  $CR = 3.374$ ,  $p < .001$ ) were significant. Therefore, it can be inferred that food neophobia moderates the relationship between attitude and purchase intention for traditional Taiwanese food, and the relationship between subjective norm and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention.

The critical ratios of the other paths (a, b, c, e) were also significant, indicating that as well as the interaction effect attitude ( $\beta = 0.24$ ,  $CR = 6.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ); subjective norm ( $\beta = 0.202$ ,  $CR = 5.849$ ,  $p < .001$ ), perceived behavioural control ( $\beta = 0.352$ ,  $CR = 10.337$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and food neophobia ( $\beta = -0.275$ ,  $CR = -7.066$ ,  $p < .001$ ) strongly affected intention to purchase. Moreover, the structural path coefficients indicated that there was a positive relationship between attitude and purchase intention; subjective norm and purchase intention; and perceived behavioural control and purchase intention. Further, it indicates that there was a negative relationship between tourists' food neophobia and intention to purchase.



**Figure 4-8: Framework of the moderating effect of sensation-seeking and food neophobia**  
 Note: ATT—attitude; SUB—subjective norm; PBC—perceived behavioural control; SEN—sensation-seeking; FNP—food neophobia; PUI—purchase intention.



**Figure 4-9: Standardized estimates of moderating effect model**



#### **4.3.6 Results of the open-ended questions of this study**

In the previous section, the statistical results of the research hypotheses were provided. In this section, the results of the two open-ended questions have been discussed. In this study, two open-ended questions: “Why would you like to try Taiwanese traditional food?” and “Why would you not like to try Taiwanese traditional food?” were listed at the end of the questionnaire, aiming to obtain the motivations tourists have for trying or not trying traditional Taiwanese food. The responses were subsequently categorized into different themes. The Major reason for why they would, or would not like to try Taiwanese food are detailed below.

When asked why they would like to try traditional Taiwanese food, different responses were provided by participants. One of the most popular was associated with gaining new experience. Comments were made such as “I enjoy a new experience” or “I don’t have much experience with Taiwanese food and like to try new things”. Furthermore, the good reputation of Taiwanese food was another common reason for wanting to try it, which was indicated in the following responses: “because Taiwanese cuisine is well-known” or “my sister told me it is good”. Moreover, other reasons such as “affordable price”, “diverse choice”, “fresh and healthy”, “cultural experience”, “interesting experience”, “different from their own food”, and “exciting activities” were also frequently stated by participants. Apart from these, the “appealing look of the food” was another popular motivation. Some respondents also stated that they had tried Taiwanese food because they liked Asian food in general. This study generalized the reasons given to form a collection of answers related to trying Taiwanese food. The reasons that participants had previously tried traditional Taiwanese food included “new food experience”, “good reputation”, “affordable price”, “diverse choice”, “fresh and healthy”, “cultural experience”, “interesting and exciting”, “exotic”, “appealing appearance”, and “general Asian food lover”.

On the other hand, this study was also concerned about the reasons that deterred tourists from trying Taiwanese food. Respondents offered the following: “unknown ingredients” amongst the most common reasons. Comments included “you don’t really know what you are eating or what is inside”, and “sometimes you don’t know what you get”. Following this, tourists were also worried about getting sick from consuming the food, for example, “perhaps if [it’s] street food, there is a possible chance of food poisoning”, or “too much plastic is used [when heating food]”.

Furthermore, “unsanitary environment” was another concern, for some of the respondents stated: “the areas in which some of the best food is sold are often unclean, and there is limited sanitation”, or “the safety procedures aren’t the same as my country so I may be sick/I was sick”. This study categorizes these answers into different themes, including: “unfamiliarity”, “unsanitary”, “health concerns”, “language barrier”, “food preparation”, “unattractive smell and look”, “strange ingredients”, “moral issues” (e.g. inhumane production), and “too spicy”.

#### **4.3.7 Summary of the findings**

In this chapter, several different statistical techniques were used to test the hypotheses underlying this study. Fundamentally, this study aimed to provide an explanation for the consumer behaviour of foreign tourists toward traditional Taiwanese food when travelling in Taiwan. Results found that the Theory of Planned Behaviour is useful in explaining tourists’ purchase intentions toward traditional food.

Further, central to the objectives of this study was an examination of the moderating effects of personality traits, sensation-seeking and food neophobia to the theory behaviour. The results indicated that the sensation-seeking personality trait did not work as a moderator as expected, while food neophobia was not only a predictor but also a moderator. Therefore, tourist purchase intentions were influenced by the food neophobia trait. In order to investigate the differences between the various variables of interest to this study according to the socio-demographic data, ANOVA and independent group t-tests were used. Results found that variables in this study differed significantly across the socio-demographic data.

Results of the open-ended questions provided in-depth information associated with the reasons of trying or not trying traditional Taiwanese food. Several themes emerged from the data and helped to explain and interpret the initial findings from the first phase quantitative study. Some of the themes were common reasons when people are at new travel destination, while others were more significant and important for traditional Taiwanese food. The following chapter will present a detailed discussion of these findings in relation to existing theories and practical implications that they present.

## **Chapter 5.**

### **DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

#### **Introduction**

The main aim of this study was to apply the Theory of Planned Behaviour to explore Caucasian tourists' consumer behaviour toward traditional food when travelling in Taiwan. As part of this process, the purchase intention of Caucasian visitors regarding traditional Taiwanese food as well as the role that personality traits played in the purchase of such local food were explored. Specifically, the research objectives of this study were (1) to better understand tourist's purchase intentions concerning Taiwanese traditional food by applying the theory of planned behaviour, (2) to explore the key factors that influence tourists' purchase intentions concerning traditional food, including three predictors (attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls), as well as personality traits factors (sensation-seeking and food neophobia), (3) to identify the moderating effect of personality traits (sensation-seeking and food neophobia) on the relationships between three predictors (attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) and an outcome variable (purchase intention). In this chapter, the significance of research findings have been discussed in terms of these objectives, as well as their implications for food tourism theory and marketing practitioners. Recommendations for further research were provided, the limitations of the study are outlined, and final concluding comments were made.

#### **5.1 Discussion of the findings for research question 1: demographic influences**

Research question 1 asks if the tourists' sensation-seeking, food neophobia, attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intentions differ significantly with social-demographic variables. This section discusses the results of hypotheses 1 to 5.

##### **5.1.1 Variables different regarding on gender**

Results from hypothesis 1 have shown that tourists' attitudes and sensation seeking personality trait were significantly different in regard to gender. Results show that males held more positive attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food than females. Previous researchers have found various relations between gender and food preferences. Some have found that that gender has a

significant relationship with attitude to genetically modified food (Cook et al., 2002). Another study investigating consumers' attitude to functional food (i.e. meat products with added fibre, energy drinks, or low-fat cheese) has revealed that gender is related to significant differences in attitude to these foods (Urala & Lähteenmäki, 2004). Males and females have also been found to show significant differences in their attitude toward chocolate, sweets, chips, and healthy eating behaviour (Dennison & Shepherd, 1995). One study has shown that educational level also has a significant influence on food choice behaviour (Maria et al., 2001).

One possible reason for males to have a more positive attitude toward traditional Taiwanese food may be because females perceive greater social pressure to control their weight than their male counterparts (Dennison & Shepherd, 1995). Most traditional Taiwanese foods are high-calorie and sodium-rich foods. For example 3 out of 12 Taiwanese traditional foods introduced in this study were deep fried food (Stinky Tofu, Coffin Sandwich, and Taiwanese Meatballs). This may be one of possible explanations for why females hold more negative attitudes than males in terms of traditional Taiwanese food.

Moreover, males report a higher propensity for sensation-seeking personality trait than females. Such results corresponded with previous research that found males had higher level sensation-seeking personality traits than females (Gilchrist et al., 1995; Lepp & Gibson, 2007; Litvin, 2008; Weisskirch & Murphy, 2004a). The concept of sensation seeking personality trait is usually related to behaviour which might be dangerous and risky. Therefore, it is not surprising that males would have higher traits for sensation seeking than females.

#### 5.1.2 Variables different regarding nationality

Results regarding hypothesis 2 found that tourists' sensation seeking and food neophobia personality traits had significant differences in terms of nationality. More specifically, in this study, Europeans were reported more interested in excitement and thrill-seeking than Australians and New Zealanders. Such a result support Zuckerman, Eysenck, and Eysenck's (1978) early research, which found that American females and English females differ significantly in terms of sensation-seeking.

Australians and New Zealanders were also found to be more food neophobic on average than Americans, Canadians and Europeans supporting previous research that has found nationality is linked to differences in food-related behaviour (Riddell, Ang, Keast, & Hunter, 2011). Another study indicated that East Asians and Europeans have significant differences in their food neophobia scores (Johns et al., 2011). American college students have also been found to be less neophobic than Lebanese college students (Olabi et al., 2009). Sensation seeking and food neophobia are psychological traits, and such traits can be influenced by many different factors, including cultural influence. Therefore, it is speculated that nationality difference in sensation seeking and food neophobia may be ascribed to different cultures and living environments.

### 5.1.3 Variables' different on education

Results from hypothesis 3 revealed that tourists' attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food, purchase intention and food neophobia are significantly different based on educational level. More specifically, respondents who have completed a graduate school degree hold more positive attitudes than those who have completed a high school degree. In terms of purchase intention, results showed that respondents who hold a graduate school degree state they are more willing to purchase Taiwanese traditional food than those who have completed a high school degree. Also, respondents with a high school education have a higher degree of food neophobia compared to those who have completed college or a graduate school degree.

This result is consistent with previous research that found people's attitude to food, food choice behaviour and food neophobia are related to their educational level (Maria et al., 2001; Tuorila et al., 2001; Verbeke & Lopez, 2005). It is speculated the reasons that education level would influence people's food choice behaviour, attitude and food neophobia is because people with high education levels have a higher likelihood of assessing various stimuli, which therefore obviates a food neophobia trait and in turns to influence their attitude and purchase intention to the unfamiliar food in a positive way (Tuorila et al., 2001).

#### 5.1.4 Variables' differences on income

Results from the hypothesis 4 indicate that there is a significant difference in the attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food based on respondent income while there is no any significant differences in the respondents' age, gender, educational level, and nationality. This result is similar to that from previous research indicating that consumers' income level would influence their food choice behaviour (Gordon et al., 2011; Teratanavat & Hooker, 2006). This finding can be explained by the relationship between income and educational level. More specifically, income level is usually positively related to education. In other words, higher income people tend to hold higher educational level. Therefore, customers who hold higher educational status may have more opportunity to exposure to different food, ingredients, and flavours. This in turns would leads to their different attitudes to the novel food and food choice (Worsley, Blasche, Ball, & Crawford, 2003).

#### 5.1.5 Variables' difference on age

Results from hypothesis 5 indicate sensation-seeking differed significantly with respondents' age. In other words, respondents 18-30 years old have a higher propensity for sensation-seeking then those aged 41-50. Such a result is consistent with most previous studies. For example, Zuckerman et al's early work (1978) indicating that sensation seeking would gradually decrease as age increases. Other research has concluded that sensation seeking declines after age 15. Finding of this study therefore supports previous research findings that younger people are more likely to higher in trait sensation- seeking than their older counterparts (Eachus, 2004).

#### 5.1.7 Overall conclusions

This section has discussed results from examining the influence of socio-demographic on the variables in this study. While some of the socio-demographic factors have significant differences on this variables, others show no differences. The influence of socio-demographics on the variables vary from study to study as each study has different target group and focus. As a result, it is reasonable that individual studies might deliver different results in terms of the influence of the socio-demographic data. However, the results of this study have helped to identify effect of demographics on tourists' attitudes toward Taiwanese traditional food.

## **5.2 Discussion of research question 2: predictor - outcome relationships**

The research question 2 is associated to the examination of the relationships between the variables in this study. This study applied the Theory of Planned Behaviour to explain the consumer behaviour of foreign tourists toward traditional Taiwanese food when travelling in Taiwan. Therefore, three factors (attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) based on the theory of planned behaviour was assumed to affect tourist's purchase intentions regarding Taiwanese traditional food. In addition, personality traits (food neophobia and sensation seeking) were also identified as predictors in this study.

The results indicated that there was a significant and positive relationship between attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to traditional Taiwanese food. This suggests that the theory of planned behaviour has been beneficial in explaining tourist's buying behaviour when it comes to traditional Taiwanese food. On the other hand, food neophobia was found to be a significant and negative predictor of intention to purchase, while sensation-seeking personality trait did not have a significant influence. The more detailed discussions of the findings in this study are present below.

The significant "attitude-intention" relationship indicates that when tourists hold more positive attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food, the intention to buy is strengthened, while negative attitudes weaken intention to buy. This result is logical and consistent with the previous research which has demonstrated a positive relationship between attitudes and behavioural intention. For example, a positive relationship was found between attitudes towards a green hotel and visiting intention (Han & Kim, 2010). Similarly, attitude is a significant positive predictor of tourists' intention to visit Australia (Quintal et al., 2010). In the food choice context, research has found that a positive attitude to genetically modified food was positively correlated to the intention to buy (Cook et al., 2002), and that positive attitudes contributed to the intention to buy organic food (Chen, 2007). In general, attitude plays an essential role in people's intention, and there is no exception when it comes to food. Therefore, it can be concluded that foreign tourists' attitudes toward traditional Taiwanese food is an essential factor in their willingness to buy it.

The findings also support a significant positive relationship between subjective norms and intention to purchase. This suggests that tourist's intention to purchasing traditional Taiwanese food is influenced by their reference group. The major reference group in this study is the respondents' friends or family members. In other words, suggestions or recommendations from friends or family are influential factors in trying different and novel food. This supports the work of Cook et al. (2002), which claims that there is a positive correlation between subjective norms and the willingness to try genetically modified food. A similar finding was that subjective norms can predict intention to purchase health food choice (Astrom & Rise, 2001).

Perceived behavioural control was also found to be an important factor that affected respondents' purchase intentions. The relationship between them is positive, which means that when tourists perceive less barriers and difficulties in buying traditional Taiwanese food, they are more likely to purchase this type of food. This result supports the studies of Alam and Sayuti (2011), who found a positive correlation between perceived behavioural control and intention to purchase Halal food. Perceived behavioural control is also positively correlated with intention to purchase organic food (Joris, Wim, Koen, & Guido Van, 2009).

This study also found a strong and negative relationship between food neophobia and intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food. More specifically, people with the personality trait of food neophobia were less likely to buy traditional Taiwanese food. This result is consistent with other research. For example, Verbeke and Lopez (2005) concluded that intention to buy ethnic food is negatively correlated to food neophobia for Belgian consumers. Moreover, people with high neophobia were also found to eat a reduced variety of food (Tuorila et al., 2001). One previous study found a moderate relationship between food neophobia and willingness to try unfamiliar food (Flight et al., 2003). Food neophobia is also associated with untried foods, and the dislike of more food types (Choe & Cho, 2011; Hwang & Lin, 2010; Russell & Worsley, 2008; Tuorila et al., 2001).

In summary, food neophobia literally means "fear of new food" which is negatively related to the willingness of tourists to buy unfamiliar food. Traditional Taiwanese food for most foreign tourists is a new and unusual experience and may be far beyond a tourist's usual food choice



behaviour. Thus, food neophobia provides a reasonable explanation for the reluctance of foreign tourists to try traditional Taiwanese food.

Sensation-seeking personality trait, on the other hand was found to have no effect on the purchase intention for Taiwanese traditional food. This finding contradicts findings from previous research. Sensation-seeking has been found to relate to various tourists' behaviours, activities, and some specific food flavours (Galloway, 2002; Galloway & Lopez, 1999; Galloway et al., 2007; G. Galloway, 2002; Lepp & Gibson, 2007; Mattes, 1994; Pizam et al., 2002). However, in this study sensation-seeking personality trait was not significantly correlated with intention to purchase traditional Taiwanese food. Possible reasons for this have been analysed below from two different perspectives.

Firstly, sampling Taiwanese traditional food may not reflect the core concept of sensation-seeking personality trait. In other words, sampling and trying traditional Taiwanese food may not be seen as "thrilling, exciting, and adventurous" by respondents. The concept of sensation-seeking is linked to a personality trait related to needing more external, intense stimuli and willingness to take risks (Zuckerman, 1979, 1994). Therefore, it is usually linked to drug use, extreme sport, and challenging activities as discussed in the literature review (See section 2.5.4). However, while traditional food in Taiwan may be exotic and unfamiliar, it is not necessarily risky and exciting for foreign tourists. An example of sensation seeking food may be the Norwegian Smalahove (sheep's head), which has been proved to be an attraction for thrill-seeking tourists (Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009). Compared to food like this, traditional Taiwanese food is plain and contains normal ingredients. Therefore, one possible explanation for the results in this study may be that purchasing traditional Taiwanese food is considered to less arousing or stimulating for foreign tourists.

Secondly, traditional food consumption by tourists in Taiwan is more likely to be related to new cultural and historical experiences, rather than pursuing a thrilling or adventurous sensation-seeking activity. It therefore involves remembrance of the past, and to additionally be conscious of this remembrance (Nora, 1993). Food is considered to be a meaningful component of many traditional cultures and local customs. By sharing in local food, host countries may also share

their culture. Likewise, tourists can be involved in a traditional culture by sampling their food (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000). Responses from the open-ended questions in this study also indicated that “to try something new”, “have new experiences”, and “learning about local culture from food” are among the most popular reasons to experience Taiwanese traditional food. No statements (for example “exciting”, “thrilling” or “adventurous”) were related to sensation-seeking being mentioned by respondents. Based on the evidence, it seems likely that tourist motivations to try traditional Taiwanese food were more culturally orientated. From this perspective, one possible reason for failing to explain the impact of sensation-seeking personality trait on intention to purchase traditional food might be that trying food at a destination is regarded as a meaningful and important activity that is linked with becoming more deeply involved in the local culture.

In summary, the lack of a significant relationship between sensation seeking and Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention fails to support the research hypothesis 9 in this study. However, this study also provided two possible reasons for such result and in turns suggests possible future research (see section 5.5).

### **5.3 Discussion of research question 3: moderating effect of food neophobia and sensation seeking**

The personality traits of sensation-seeking and food neophobia were examined as moderators influencing the relationship between three predictors (attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control) and an outcome variable (Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention). Results demonstrate that sensation-seeking is neither a predictor nor moderator, while food neophobia is both a predictor and moderator of the relationship between attitude and purchase intention, and subjective norm and purchase intention.

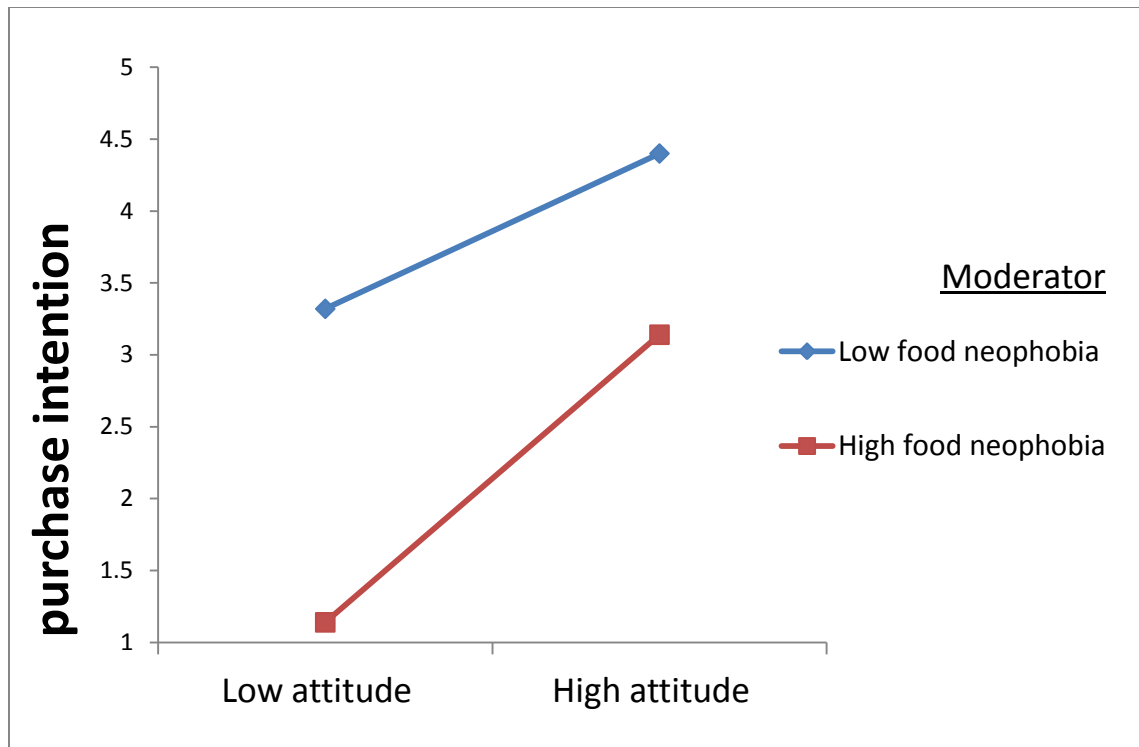
#### **5.3.1 Moderating effect of food neophobia**

Results indicate food neophobia is an important moderator for the Taiwanese traditional food purchase intention. More specifically, food neophobia has a positive effect on the relationship between attitude and purchase intention as shown in figure 5-1. According to this result, when a low food-neophobia tourist has a more positive attitude to the Taiwanese traditional food, their

purchase intention for the Taiwanese traditional food is stronger than tourists with high food-neophobia. Finding of this study support research hypothesis 14 in accordance with the previous research (Choe & Cho, 2011; Hwang & Lin, 2010; Olabi et al., 2009; Tuorila et al., 2001). Low food-neophobia tourists tend to be more willing to try unfamiliar food. Therefore, when this kind of tourist holds a positive attitude to Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intentions are stronger than otherwise would be the case.

One the other hand, this study also found when a high food-neophobia tourists has a positive attitude to Taiwanese traditional food, purchase intention is increased. Such findings indicate that positive attitude plays an important role in purchase intention. One possible explanation for this phenomenon is tourists with a higher level of food neophobia do not like to try “unfamiliar” food. However, the concept of unfamiliarity is somewhat contrary to the concept of positive attitude. When one holds a positive attitude toward something, it means one is not unfamiliar with it. More specifically, positive attitude towards something is accumulated by previous positive experiences. The more positive experience one gains, the more positive ones attitudes.

This point of view is supported by previous research. One study has concluded that when people accumulate more sensory information about unfamiliar food, their negative attitude towards it is ameliorated (Raudenbush & Frank, 1999). Likewise, information about the taste of novel food has been found to increase people’s willingness to try it (Pelchat & Pliner, 1995). Also, customers’ food neophobia may influence their familiarity with Asian cuisine, attitude toward Asian menus, and purchase intention (Hwang & Lin, 2010). Therefore, when a tourist holds a positive attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, it may be because they have heard positive word-of-mouth or has prior positive experiences. In this case, the positive attitude would reduce the food neophobic tourists’ unfamiliarity. Thus, in accordance with the theory of planned behaviour, when a food neophobic tourists has a higher more positive attitude toward Taiwanese traditional food, their intention to buy would also be higher.



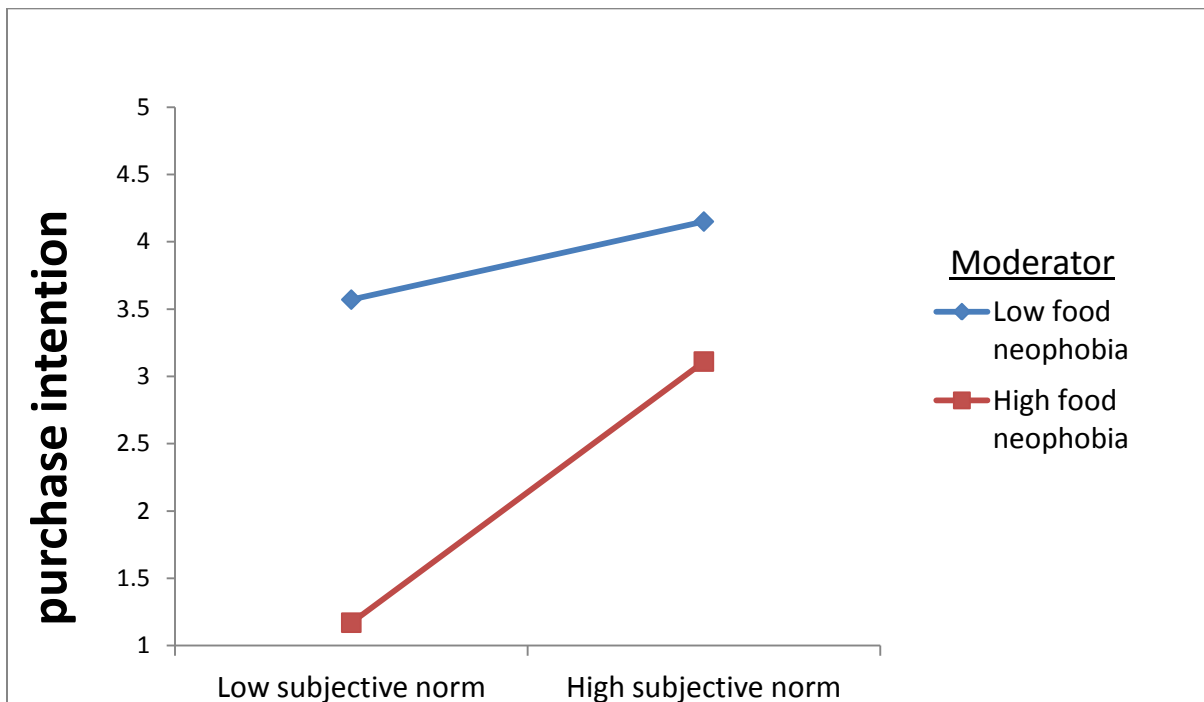
**Figure 5-1: Moderating effect of food neophobia on the “Attitude-Purchase” intention relationship**

This study also examines moderating effect of food neophobia on the subjective norm–intention relationship. Results demonstrate that food neophobia strengthens the positive relationship between subjective norm and purchase intention. More specifically, food neophobia has a positive effect on the relationship between subjective norms and purchase intention as shown in figure 5-2. According to this result, when a low food-neophobia tourist perceives more peer pressure to try Taiwanese traditional food, their purchase intention is than high food-neophobia tourists. These findings support research hypothesis 15. Since tourists with low food neophobia are more positive toward unfamiliar food, when these tourists receive more encouragement to try Taiwanese traditional food from their friends and family, their purchase intention is enhanced, and therefore higher than tourists with high food neophobia.

One the other hand, this study also found a positive effect on the subjective norms-purchase intention relationship. This indicates that the opinions of other people have a considerable and positive influence on tourists with high food neophobia and their purchase intention toward Taiwanese traditional food. As described above, tourists with low food neophobia are more

positive to trying unfamiliar food. Therefore, other people’s opinions are less important. Conversely, perceived peer pressure increases the purchase intention of tourists with high food neophobia.

Such results are consistent with previous research that finds that the influence of others is always an important factor in diminishing the effect of the food neophobia trait. One study, for example, found that children are more willing to try novel food when other people are eating it (Addessi et al., 2005). Other research indicated that teenagers’ food choice behaviour is influenced by social factors such as peer pressure (Nu, MacLeod, & Barthelemy, 1996). Reviewing the research regarding food choice, Pollard, Kirk et al (2002) concluded that social factors influence people’s food consumption behaviour.



**Figure 5-2: Moderating effect of food neophobia on the “subjective norm-purchase intention” relationship**

### 5.3.2 Moderating effect of sensation seeking

No significant moderating effect of sensation seeking on the relationship among the constructs in the theory of planned behaviour was found in this study. Sensation seeking was tested as both a

predictor and moderator variable, however, the results of this study have failed to support the related hypotheses. Such results reflect a need to re-examine the relationship between sensation seeking and the meaning of buying local food for tourists. As mentioned in section 5.1, the possible reasons for a lack of a significant relationship between sensation seeking and traditional food purchase intention may be that firstly buying and trying Taiwanese traditional food may not truly reflect the concept of sensation seeking and secondly sampling Taiwanese traditional food is regarded as a cultural activity. Reviewing the previous research, the concept of sensation seeking is closely related to activities involving risk, adventure and danger such as body piercing, smoking, risky driving, alcohol consumption and unsafe sexual behaviour (Charnigo et al., 2013; Jonah, Thiessen, & Au-Yeung, 2001; Kraft & Rise, 1994; Stirn, Hinz, & Braehler, 2006). These behaviours or activities all involve potential physical harm at the same time as experiencing excitement. Therefore, the failure to support the hypotheses may be because sampling Taiwanese traditional food lacks these characteristics. Instead, trying local food may be more culturally oriented rather than sensation orientated behaviour as food has been recognized as a part of cultural expression (Horng & Tsai, 2010; Rand et al., 2003). Therefore, the results suggest a possible avenue for the future research to explore the risk involved in trying local food by tourists.

## **5.4 Implications**

### **5.4.1 Implications for theory**

Food tourism has emerged as one of the noticeable travel style or travel phenomena in the past two decades. This phenomenon has aroused scholars' attention. Within their publications, important issues surrounding the food tourism are explored, for example the motivational factors for sampling local food and beverages (Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009; Kim et al., 2009; Prescott et al., 2002), intention (Ryu & Jang, 2006; Sparks, 2006), the meaning of food tourism, the classification of food tourists (Au & Law, 2002; Ignatov & Smith, 2006), the benefit to destination marketing (Cohen & Avieli, 2004) and the motivation for trying the local food (Kivela & Crotts, 2005). Nevertheless, few of the studies have discussed the behavioural mechanism regarding the local food buying behaviour. In this case, the first theoretical implication of this study is to provide an explanation specific to tourists' traditional food consumption behaviour when travel overseas.

The second theoretical implication of this study is support for using the TPB in a new context, in order to explain tourist's local food buying behaviour. Food choice behaviour involves various factors and influences. With a view to explain it, many theories and disciplines have developed to discuss this behaviour from different perspectives. However, most of the theories are used to explain food choice in our daily life, while it may not be suitable to be applied in the travel situations. In order to address this shortcoming, the current study has adopted the TPB to the food tourism industry. Consequently, tourists' local food choices can be more comprehensively explained. This study therefore adds to the existing body of knowledge within food tourism.

Thirdly, this study also makes a contribution by examining the effect of personality traits (sensation-seeking and food neophobia) on consumer behaviour in relation to purchasing traditional food. Previous research has argued that personality plays an essential factor in influencing people's food choice behaviour (Chen, 2007; Eertmans et al., 2005; Furst et al., 1996). Nevertheless, even though personality traits help researchers to understand consumption preferences and patterns, few studies have discussed their significance and relationship to local food choice behaviour (Chen, 2007; Montgomery, 2008). This study addressed this research gap and provided greater insightful understanding of how tourist's personalities influence tourist choice behaviour of local food as well as examining their moderating effect and the relationship with purchase intention.

This study also offers methodological contributions to the investigation of tourists' consumer behaviour of traditional food by empirically examining tourist's behaviour from a quantitative research approach. Although food tourism has been extensively discussed in the last two decades, the majority of food tourism studies have applied qualitative approaches to explore issues, such as the feasibility of developing food tourism, the way it is promoted, the strength with which it is developed, and the reason for trying local food (Boyne et al., 2003; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Green & Dougherty, 2008; Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2010; Horng & Tsai, 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Lee, Lee, & Lin, 2008). This study contrasts with most of the previous food tourism research, as it has used empirical testing and quantitative data.

To sum up, this study firstly applied theory from socio-psychology to discuss the tourist's traditional food buying behaviour as well as explore the influence of personality traits. Results demonstrated the effective of this theory and effect of personalities. With the preliminary success, this study opens the door for the discovering of tourists' consumption behaviour to the traditional food. Therefore, the theoretical implications of this study are not only limited by these mentioned before, it also encourages the use of other potential factors or variables to better explain this behaviour.

#### **5.4.2 Implications for food tourism practice/ practitioners and marketing**

The findings of this study offer several practical suggestions for destination or stakeholders and marketers in countries keen to develop food tourism or promote their traditional food cuisine. Fundamental to this study is the exploration of the question "why do foreign tourists buy or try local food during their trip". In contrast with previous research, this study was more focussed on traditional food consumption behaviour rather than specific motivations. As a result, the theory of planned behaviour was useful in providing a feasible explanation for such behaviour. Therefore, tourist's attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control play essential role in their process. Findings of this study indicate that the positive attitudes of tourists toward food provided by host countries, increases their purchase intention. Thus, the Taiwanese government or destination marketer should initially aim to improve tourist's attitudes toward traditional food. Swanson (1972) proposed that knowledge of an event would change a person's attitude and eventually influence a person's behaviour. Based on this, the Taiwanese government should educate tourists about traditional Taiwanese food, or more specifically, about the benefits of consuming traditional Taiwanese food. Highlighting nutritional or the health benefits would be a good beginning, as has proved to be beneficial in relation to food consumption (Wardle, Parmenter, & Waller, 2000; A. Worsley, 2002). This could be achieved through brochures or advertisements. Accordingly, food properties or sensory perceptions are also important factors that influence consumers' attitudes toward choice of food. Therefore, it is suggested that images of traditional Taiwanese food on brochures or advertisements could be presented in a more sophisticated way.



Furthermore, subjective norms also proved to be a crucial factor in influencing tourists' purchase intentions. Subjective norms in this study are tourists' perceived social pressure to purchase or not to purchase traditional Taiwanese food. Social pressure mainly comes from the tourist's friends, family, or someone important to them. Although we cannot alter the opinions of tourists' friends or families, we can take advantage of the influence that well-known public figures have on tourists. In other words, the Taiwanese government could harness the influence of famous public figures, such as the famous Hollywood star Rob Schneider who visited Taiwan and tried its traditional food. With Schneider's permission, this could have been filmed and edited into traditional Taiwanese food advertisements to encourage foreign tourists to try this type of food. Accordingly, famous figures' photos could be presented at the night markets, restaurants, food stands and so forth to improve the tourists' willingness to purchase traditional Taiwanese food.

This study also proved that perceived behavioural control was an influential factor in terms of purchase intention. In this study, perceived behavioural control referred to tourists' perceived difficulty in purchasing traditional Taiwanese food. The traditional food of Taiwan can be found in every night market of each city or town at an affordable price. Therefore, for foreign tourists, purchasing food is an easy task. However, one of the major obstacles prohibiting them from fulfilling their intention may be the language barrier. According to the open-ended question in this study, one of the reasons why respondents do not want to buy the food was due to their ability to speak the language. For example, comments were made such as, "I cannot order in a restaurant because I can't read Chinese characters."

As a result, even if foreign tourists would like to purchase traditional food, they might fail to do so because of language problems. In other words, promoting Taiwanese traditional food should appear more approachable through the use of the English language. Unfortunately, most traditional restaurants and food stands in Taiwanese night markets are run by non-English speaking families. In this case, the Taiwanese government should encourage a language support system to assist these vendors or restaurants. Such a support system can help them create English menus and a friendlier English environment. By doing so, both stakeholders and tourists would benefit.

This study found a strong negative relationship between food neophobia and purchase intention. Such a result indicates that this personality trait is a problem for host countries in promoting their traditional foods. One of the important elements in relation to food neophobia is familiarity. Unfamiliarity or novelty could easily trigger food neophobia (Pliner. & Hobden, 1992). Therefore, a valuable recommendation for countries wanting to promote food tourism is to increase the tourists' familiarity with local food. Marketers should focus on advertisement and promotion to enhance familiarity. This could be done through different channels ranging from promotion websites, brochures at the airport, or food-related activities. Also, government could promote its food by TV dramas. For example, Korea has successfully promoted its food culture to the world through the well-known TV drama series "Daejanggeum" a story based on Korean food (S. Kim, Kim, Agrusa, & Lee, 2012). Such food-themed TV drama could greatly enhance foreigners' familiarity and knowledge of a country's food culture. Another approach to increase the tourists' familiarity would be to provide nutrition information to tourists. Nutrition information could influence the selection behaviour of tourists when they face unfamiliar Asian cuisine (Hwang & Lin, 2010). In other words, if restaurants had nutritional information on their menus, customers' fears might be eliminated and, their purchase intentions might increase. This approach could also be applied at night market food stands, with a brief English introduction to nutritional information aimed at encouraging tourists to try unfamiliar types of traditional Taiwanese food.

To sum up, the use of traditional food as an attraction is important for both government and stakeholders. As discussed above, there are many different ways to affect tourist's attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and the food neophobia traits. Therefore, government could apply the marketing strategies mention above while destination stakeholders could provide more English friendly information.

## **5.5 Recommendations for future research**

This study has contributed to the food tourism literature through its empirical examination of consumer behaviour toward traditional food. The findings have indicated that the TPB provides an explanation of tourists' traditional food consumption behaviour. Food neophobia is also confirmed as a predictor and moderator of the intention to purchase traditional food purchase

intention. On the other hand, sensation-seeking, has not been found to have a discernible effect on intention to purchase.

The concept of sensation-seeking has been extensively applied in tourism research and used to explain tourists' behaviour. As a result, high and low sensation-seekers have been found to favour different tourist activities. Generally speaking, traditional food from host countries is new to foreign tourists. There, it is reasonable to assume that high sensation-seekers would have a higher purchase intention regarding to the Taiwanese traditional food than their counterparts. Nevertheless, its failure to explain the consumption of traditional food might suggest that the role of selecting traditional food at travel destinations be reconsidered from a tourist's perspective. More specifically, sampling traditional food may not be regarded as a sensation-seeking pursuit. As this study found, this behaviour is more likely to be an activity related to cultural exchange and experience. Therefore, exploring the meaning of sampling local food and the role that local food plays in tourist trip might help to gain greater understanding of the buying behaviour of local food buy tourist.

Moreover, this study explored consumer behaviour as it relates to traditional food in general rather than toward a certain type of food. It is worthy of note is that while each country has food that is easily accepted by tourists, some traditional dishes may be less acceptable. Examples from the study of traditional Taiwanese food include pig blood cake, stinky tofu, and thousand year old eggs. Tourists may be deterred from trying these dishes because of their ingredients, smell, appearance or name. Traditional food, however, plays multiple roles. It could be attractive while simultaneously frightening (Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009). Therefore, another recommendation for future research is to explore whether the consumption behaviour of tourists toward traditional food would be any different if connected to only certain types of traditional food.

For host countries, the promotion of local food undoubtedly helps to boost the economy by serving as a tourist attraction and, to this end, there is much more that can be learnt about food tourism using different approaches. This study applies a quantitative approach to empirically examine tourists' behaviour toward traditional food. This approach clearly explains the relationship between variables, and concludes that tourists' attitudes, subjective norms, perceived

behavioural control, and food neophobia have either positive or negative relationships in regard to purchase intentions toward traditional Taiwanese food. Based on this, a more in-depth exploration of how a tourists' future investigation as it applies to the tourism field, and further application of the construct in tourism research will help to better understand the importance of this interesting psychographic variable. It is hoped that this research will result in such further studies and a broadening of our understanding.

## **5.6 Limitations of this study**

A first limitation is one of scope. This study sought to better understand tourists' traditional food choice behaviour in a travel situation. To this end, this study applied the theory of planned behaviour to explain tourists' traditional food purchase intention as well as to examine the influence of personality traits. However, as mentioned in previous research, food choice behaviour is a complex process involving many different factors. According to the food choice models introduced in the literature review, the characteristics of the food (e.g. appearance, seasoning, and combination) and environmental factors (season, culture, and economics) are all important factors in influencing customer's food choice behaviour. As this study is the first attempt to explore tourists' behaviour regarding traditional food and considering the time constraints and limited resources, the influence of environmental factors and characteristics of the food were not test in this study. Therefore a limitation of this study is it cannot provide well-rounded explanation of tourists' behaviour to traditional food from different perspectives.

A second limitation is that this study was conducted in Taiwan and targeted Caucasian tourists only. Therefore, these findings are limited to that context and caution is needed in generalising the findings of this study. Tourists' traditional food purchase intentions may vary from country to country as each has its own traditional food and food culture. The finding are derived from the Caucasian respondents' viewpoints and may not reflect that of other groups.

A third limitation is that due to limited lack of time and monetary resources, as well as the inability to accurately enumerate the population, a non-probability sampling approach was adopted in this study. Such convenience sampling means of the sample may not be representative

of all Caucasian visitors to Taiwan as a large proportion of the sample is from the 18-30 age group (80.2%). Thus, the findings and conclusions may not be generalizable to other age groups.

A fourth limitation is this study only grouping the Caucasians into four classifications. As mentioned before, this study applied convenience sampling, therefore it did not control the nationality of the interviewees. In this case, some of the nationalities may provide a relatively low proportion, which in turn would influence the statistical analysis. Therefore, considering this issue, the results of this study may only provide a preliminary knowledge in terms of the purchase intention to the traditional food from the Caucasians' viewpoints.

### **5.7 Final concluding comments**

Food tourism has been discussed as a factor in local development, economic impacts, and tourists' experience. This study differs from previous food tourism research and is focused on tourists' local food choice behaviour when travelling in the foreign country. It provides an empirical study to explain tourists' local food choice behaviour based on attitude-behaviour theory.

Overall, findings from this study have shown that the theory of planned behaviour is helpful to gain better understanding of such behaviour. Tourists' attitude to local food, opinions formed from important others, and the level of difficulty in buying Taiwanese traditional food are all important factors in terms of the traditional food purchase intention in Taiwan. This study provides evidence that personality traits (food neophobia) exert negative influence when it comes to the local food buying behaviour. In sum, the findings of this study are expected to help the hosting countries, practitioners, and marketing managers making more effective policy, food tourism products to cater food tourists' needs and wants.

## References

- Addressi, E., Galloway, A. T., Visalberghi, E., & Birch, L. L. (2005). Specific social influences on the acceptance of novel foods in 2-5-year-old children. *Appetite*, 45(3), 264-271.
- Ajzen. (1985). From intentions to actions: A Theory of Planned Behaviour. In J. Kuhi & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control* (pp. 11-39). Berlin: Springer-Verlag.
- Ajzen. (1988). *Attitudes, Personality, and Behavior*. Chicago, Ill: Dorsey Press.
- Ajzen. (1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- Ajzen. (2005). *Attitudes, Personality and Behavior*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Ajzen, & Driver, B. L. (1992). Application of the Theory of Planned Behavior to Leisure Choice. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 24(3), 207.
- Ajzen, & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84(5), 888-918.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall.
- Alam, S. S., & Sayuti, N. M. (2011). Applying the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) in halal food purchasing. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 21(1), 8-20.
- Altisent, R., Jaeger, S. R., Johnston, J. W., & Harker, F. R. (2013). Injection of flavor essences into fruit Pieces: A new approach for exploring consumer preferences for novel flavors of apple fruit. *Journal of Sensory Studies*, 28(5), 405-413.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423.
- Ares, G., & Gámbaro, A. (2007). Influence of gender, age and motives underlying food choice on perceived healthiness and willingness to try functional foods. *Appetite*, 49(1), 148-158.
- Ariffin, A. A. M. (2008). Understanding novelty-seeking behavior in meeting tourism: A measurement development approach. *Event Management* 11(4), 179-190.
- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001a). Efficacy of the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *The British Journal of Social Psychology / The British Psychological Society*, 40(Pt 4), 471-499.
- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001b). Efficacy of the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *The British Journal of Social Psychology / The British Psychological Society*, 40(Pt 4), 471.
- Arnett, J. (1994). Sensation seeking: A new conceptualization and a new scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 16(2), 289-296.
- Arnold, H. J. (1982). Moderator variables: A clarification of conceptual, analytic, and psychometric issues. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 29(2), 143-174.
- Arvola, A., Lahteenmaki, L., & Tuorila, H. (1999). Predicting the intent to purchase unfamiliar and familiar cheeses: The effects of attitudes, expected liking and food neophobia. *Appetite*, 32(1), 113-113.
- Astrom, A. N., & Rise, J. (2001). Young adults' intention to eat healthy food: Extending the theory of planned behaviour. *Psychology & Health*, 16(2), 223-237.
- Au, N., & Law, R. (2002). Categorical classification of tourism dining. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 819-833.
- Bélisle, F. J. (1983). Tourism and food production in the Caribbean. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 10(4), 497-513.

- Bélisle, F. J. (1984). Tourism and food imports: The case of Jamaica. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 32(4), 819-842.
- Babbie, E. R. (2008). *The Basics of Social Research*. Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Phillips, L. W. (1982). Representing and testing organizational theories: A holistic construal. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 27(3), 459-489.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Wong, N., Abe, S., & Bergami, M. (2000). Cultural and situational contingencies and the theory of reasoned action: Application to fast food restaurant consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9(2), 97-106.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of Structural Equation Models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 16(1), 74-94.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Youjae, Y. (1988). On the Evaluation of Structural Equation Models. *Academy of Marketing Science. Journal*, 16(1), 74.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit Indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 238-246.
- Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significant tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88, 588-606.
- Birch. (1980). Effects of peer models' food choices and eating behaviors on preschoolers' food preferences. *Child Development*, 51(2), 489-496.
- Birch. (1999). Development of food preference. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 19(1), 41-62.
- Birch, Francis, L. A., & Hofer, S. M. (2001). Predictors of maternal child-feeding style: Maternal and child characteristics. *Appetite*, 37(3), 231-231.
- Blaikie, N. W. H. (2009). *Designing Social Research: The Logic of Anticipation*. Malden, MA: Polity.
- Boyne, S., Hall, D., & Williams, F. (2003). Policy, support and promotion for food-related tourism initiatives: A marketing approach to regional development. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(3/4), 131-154.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Brinberg, D., & Durand, J. (1983). Eating at fast-food restaurants: An analysis using two behavioral intention models. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 13(6), 459-472.
- Brinol, P., & Petty, R. E. (2012). A history of attitudes and persuasion research. In A. W. Kruglanski, W. Stroebe & Ebscohost (Eds.), *Handbook of the history of social psychology*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Brown. (2006). *Social Psychology*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Brown. (2006). *Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Applied Research*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models* (pp. 136-162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Bryman, A. (2001). *Social Research Methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A., & Cramer, D. (2008). *Quantitative Data Analysis With SPSS 14, 15 and 16: A Guide for Social Scientists*. Hove, East Sussex: Routledge.
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*. New York: Routledge.

- Byrnes, N. K., & Hayes, J. E. (2013). Personality factors predict spicy food liking and intake. *Food Quality and Preference* 28(1), 213-221.
- Camarena, D. M., Sanjuán, A. I., & Philippidis, G. (2011). Influence of ethnocentrism and neophobia on ethnic food consumption in Spain. *Appetite*, 57(1), 121-130.
- Carmines, E., & McIver, J. (1981). Analyzing models with unobserved variables: Analysis of covariance structures. In G. W. Bohrnstedt & E. F. Borgatta (Eds.), *Social measurement: Current issues* (pp. 65-115). Beverly Hills Sage Publications, Inc.
- Charnigo, R., Noar, S. M., Garnett, C., Crosby, R., Palmgreen, P., & Zimmerman, R. S. (2013). Sensation seeking and impulsivity: Combined associations with risky sexual behavior in a large sample of young adults. *Journal of Sex Research*, 50(5), 480-488.
- Chen. (2007). Consumer attitudes and purchase intentions in relation to organic foods in Taiwan: Moderating effects of food-related personality traits. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18(7), 1008-1021.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). Commentary: Issues and opinion on Structural Equation Modeling. *MIS Quarterly*, 22(1), vii-xvi.
- Cho, M. H., & Jang, S. (2008). Information value structure for vacation travel. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(1), 72-83.
- Choe, J. Y., & Cho, M. S. (2011). Food neophobia and willingness to try non-traditional foods for Koreans. *Food Quality and Preference*, 22(7), 671-677.
- Chung, L., Kim, H. R., Chung, S. J., Kim, J. Y., Kim, K. O., O'Mahony, M., . . . Baures, K. (2012). Comparing the liking for Korean style salad dressings and beverages between US and Korean consumers: Effects of sensory and non-sensory factors. *Food Quality and Preference* 26(1), 105-118.
- Cohen, E. (1972). Toward a sociology of international tourism. *Social Research*, 39(1), 164.
- Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 755-778.
- Conner, M., & Armitage, C. J. (1998). Extending the theory of planned behavior: A review and avenues for further research. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(15), 1429-1464.
- Contento, I. R., Williams, S. S., Michela, J. L., & Franklin, A. B. (2006). Understanding the food choice process of adolescents in the context of family and friends. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 38(5), 575-582.
- Cook, A. J., Kerr, G. N., & Moore, K. (2002). Attitudes and intentions towards purchasing GM food. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 23(5), 557-572.
- Cooke, L. J., Haworth, C. M. A., & Wardle, J. (2007). Genetic and environmental influences on children's food neophobia. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 86(2), 428-433.
- Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social Research: Theory, Methods and Techniques*. London: Sage.
- Correia, Moital, Costa, & Peres. (2008). The determinants of gastronomic tourists' satisfaction: A second-order factor analysis. *Journal of Foodservice*, 19(3), 164-176.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Crotts, & Kivela. (2009). Understanding travelers' experiences of gastronomy through etymology and narration. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(2), 161-192.
- Dahlen, E. R., Martin, R. C., Ragan, K., & Kuhlman, M. M. (2005). Driving anger, sensation seeking, impulsiveness, and boredom proneness in the prediction of unsafe driving. *Accident; Analysis and Prevention*, 37(2), 341-348.



- de la Barre, S., Brouder, P., Fakulteten för, h., Mittuniversitetet, & Avdelningen för turismvetenskap och, g. (2013). Consuming Stories: Placing Food in the Arctic Tourism Experience. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 8(2-3), 213.
- Deandrea, D. C., Carpenter, C., Shulman, H., & Levine, T. R. (2009). The relationship between cheating behavior and sensation-seeking. *Personality and Individual Differences* 47(8), 944-947.
- Delormier, T., Frohlich, K. L., & Potvin, L. (2009). Food and eating as social practice-- understanding eating patterns as social phenomena and implications for public health. *Sociology of Health & Illness*, 31(2), 215-228.
- Dennison, C. M., & Shepherd, R. (1995). Adolescent food choice: An application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *Journal of Human Nutrition and Dietetics*, 8(1), 9-23.
- Desrichard, O., & Denarie, V. (2005). Sensation seeking and negative affectivity as predictors of risky behaviors: A distinction between occasional versus frequent risk-taking. *Addictive Behaviors*, 30(7), 1449-1453.
- DeVellis, R. F. (1991). *Scale Development: Theory and Applications*. Newbury Park, Calif. ; London: Sage Publications.
- Dickinson, A., Gilchrist, H., & Povey, R. (1995). The sensation seeking scale: Its use in a study of the characteristics of people choosing adventure holidays. *Personality and Individual Difference*, 19(4), 513-516.
- Doll, J., & Ajzen, I. (1992). Accessibility and stability of predictors in the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(5), 754-765.
- Donnenwerth, G. V., & Kish, G. B. (1972). Sex differences in the correlates of stimulus seeking. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 38(1), 42-49.
- Dovey, T. M., Staples, P. A., Gibson, E. L., & Halford, J. C. G. (2008). Food neophobia and 'picky/fussy' eating in children: A review. *Appetite*, 50(2), 181-193.
- Dovey, T. M., Taylor, L., Stow, R., Boyland, E. J., & Halford, J. C. G. (2011). Responsiveness to healthy television (TV) food advertisements/commercials is only evident in children under the age of seven with low food neophobia. *Appetite*, 56(2), 440-446.
- du Rand, G. E., & Heath, E. (2006). Toward a framework for food tourism as an element of destination marketing. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9(3), 206-234.
- Eachus, P. (2004). Using the brief sensation seeking scale (BSSS) to predict holiday preferences. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(1), 141-153.
- Edwards, J. S. A., Hartwell, H. L., & Brown, L. (2010). Changes in food neophobia and dietary habits of international students. *Journal of Human Nutrition and Dietetics : The Official Journal of the British Dietetic Association*, 23(3), 301-311.
- Eertmans, A., Victoir, A., Vansant, G., & Van den Bergh, O. (2005). Food-related personality traits, food choice motives and food intake: Mediator and moderator relationships. *Food Quality and Preference* 16(8), 714-726.
- Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D., & Miniard, P. W. (2006). *Consumer Behavior*. Mason, OH: Thomson Business and Economics.
- Everett, S., & Aitchison, C. (2008). The role of food tourism in sustaining regional identity: A case study of Cornwall, South West England. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(2), 150.
- Everitt, B. S., & Dunn, G. (1991). *Applied multivariate data analysis*. London ; Melbourne: Edward Arnold.

- Falciglia, G. A., Troyer, A. G., & Couch, S. C. (2004). Dietary variety increases as a function of time and influences diet quality in children. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, 36(2), 77-83.
- Flight, I., Leppard, P., & Cox, D. N. (2003). Food neophobia and associations with cultural diversity and socio-economic status amongst rural and urban Australian adolescents. *Appetite*, 41(1), 51-59.
- Fornell, C. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Foxall, G. R. (1974). Sociology and the study of consumer behavior. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 33(2), 127-135.
- Francis, D. J. (1988). An introduction to structural equation models. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology*, 10(5), 623-639.
- Franzoi, S. L. (2007). History of Social Psychology In Baumeister & Vohs (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of social psychology* (pp. 432-440). Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications Inc.
- Furst, T., Connors, M., Bisogni, C. A., Sobal, J., & Falk, L. W. (1996). Food choice: A conceptual model of the process. *Appetite*, 26(3), 247-265.
- Galloway. (2002). Psychographic segmentation of park visitor markets: Evidence for the utility of sensation seeking. *Tourism Management*, 23(6), 581-596.
- Galloway, & Lopez. (1999). Sensation seeking and attitudes to aspects of national parks: A preliminary empirical investigation. *Tourism Management*, 20(6), 665-671.
- Galloway, Mitchell, R., Getz, D., Crouch, G., & Ong, B. (2007). Sensation seeking and the prediction of attitudes and behaviours of wine tourists. *Tourism Management*, 29(5), 950-966.
- Galloway, G. (2002). Psychographic segmentation of park visitor markets: Evidence for the utility of sensation seeking. *Tourism Management*, 23(6), 581-596.
- Gay, L. R. (1992). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application*. New York: Merrill.
- Gergen, K. J. (1909). The social dimension of social psychology: A historical analysis In W. McDougall (Ed.), *An introduction to social psychology*. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.
- Gianfranco, W., Heiner, E., & Maren, W. (2008). Identification and analysis of moderator variables. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(9/10), 977-1004.
- Gilchrist, H., Povey, R., Povey, R., & Dickinson, A. (1995). The sensation seeking scale: Its use in a study of the characteristics of people choosing 'Adventure holidays'. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 19(4), 513-516.
- Gomm, R. (2008). *Social research methodology: A critical introduction*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gordon, C., Purciel-Hill, M., Ghai, N. R., Kaufman, L., Graham, R., & Van Wye, G. (2011). Measuring food deserts in New York City's low-income neighborhoods. *Health & Place*, 17(2), 696-700.
- Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Swann, W. B. (2003). A very brief measure of the Big-Five personality domains. *Journal of Research in Personality* 37(6), 504-528.
- Green, G. P., & Dougherty, M. L. (2008). Localizing linkages for food and tourism: Culinary tourism as a community development strategy. *Community Development*, 39(3), 148-158.
- Grinblatt, M., & Keloharju, M. (2009). Sensation seeking, overconfidence, and trading activity. *Journal of Finance*, 64(2), 549-578.

- Grogan, S. C., Bell, R., & Conner, M. (1997). Eating sweet snacks: Gender differences in attitudes and behaviour. *Appetite*, 28(1), 19-31.
- Guba, E. G. (1990). *The Paradigm Dialog*. Newbury Park, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Gullette, D. L., & Lyons, M. A. (2006). Sensation seeking, self-esteem, and unprotected sex in college students. *The Journal of the Association of Nurses in AIDS Care : JANAC*, 17(5), 23-31.
- Gyimothy, S., & Mykletun, R. J. (2009). Scary food: Commodifying culinary heritage as meal adventures in tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 15(3), 259-273.
- Hair, J. F. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Prentice-Hall International.
- Hair, J. F. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hall, & Mitchell, R. (2006). Gastronomy, food and wine tourism. In D. Buhalis & C. Costa (Eds.), *Tourism Business Frontiers: Consumers, produces and industry* (pp. 137-147). Amsterdam: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Han, Hsu, L. T., & Sheu, C. (2010). Application of the Theory of Planned Behavior to green hotel choice: Testing the effect of environmental friendly activities. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 325-334.
- Han, & Kim, Y. (2010). An investigation of green hotel customers' decision formation: Developing an extended model of the theory of planned behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 659-668.
- Harrington, R. J., & Ottenbacher, M. C. (2010). Culinary tourism—A case study of the gastronomic capital. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 8(1), 14-32.
- Hegarty, & Barry, O. m. (2001). Gastronomy: A phenomenon of cultural expressionism and an aesthetic for living. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20(1), 3-13.
- Henderson. (2009). Food tourism reviewed. *British Food Journal*, 111(4), 317-326.
- Henderson, & Bialeschki, M. D. (2010). *Evaluating leisure services: Making enlightened decisions*. State College, PA: Venture Publishing.
- Hjalager, A. M., & Corigliano, M. A. (2000). Food for tourists?determinants of an image. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(4), 281-293.
- Hjalager, A. M., & Richards, G. (2002). *Tourism and Gastronomy*. London: Routledge.
- Hobson, J. S. P., & Dietrich, U. C. (1995). Tourism, health and quality of life: Challenging the responsibility of using the traditional tenets of sun, sea, sand, and sex in tourism marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 3(4), 21-38.
- Hopwood, C. J. (2007). Moderation and mediation in structural equation modeling: Applications for early intervention research. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 29(3), 262-272.
- Horner, S., & Swarbrooke, J. (2007). *Consumer Behaviour in Tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Hong, J. S., & Tsai, C. T. (2010). Government websites for promoting East Asian culinary tourism: A cross-national analysis. *Tourism Management*, 31(1), 74-85.
- Howard, J. A., & Sheth, J. N. (1969). *The Theory of Buyer Behavior*. New York: Wiley.
- Hoyle, Stephenson, M. T., Palmgreen, P., Lorch, E. P., & Donohew, R. L. (2002). Reliability and validity of a brief measure of sensation seeking. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 32(3), 401-414.
- Hsu, C. H. C., & Lam, T. (2004). Theory of planned behavior: Potential travelers from China. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 28(4), 463-482.

- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Evaluating model fit. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concept, issue, and applications* (pp. 76-99). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hwang, & Lin, T. N. (2010). Effects of food neophobia, familiarity, and nutrition information on consumer acceptance of Asian menu items. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 19*(2), 171-187.
- Hwang, L.-J. J., Chen, H.-H., & Westering, J. v. (2005). Exploration of the linkages between the gastronomy and heritage of Tainan city, Taiwan. *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure 1*, 223-235.
- Ignatov, E., & Smith, S. (2006). Segmenting Canadian culinary tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism, 9*(3), 235-255.
- Jafari, J. (1981). Toward a framework for tourism education pblems and prospects. *Annals of Tourism Research, 8*(1), 13-34.
- Jang, S., & Feng, R. (2006). Temporal destination revisit intention: The effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism Management, 28*(2), 580-590.
- Jennings, G. (2010). *Tourism Research*. Milton, Qld: John Wiley & Sons.
- Johns, N., Edwards, J. S. A., & Hartwell, H. (2011). Food neophobia and the adoption of new food products. *Nutrition & Food Science, 41*(3), 201-209.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher, 33*(7), 14-26.
- Jonah, B. A., Thiessen, R., & Au-Yeung, E. (2001). Sensation seeking, risky driving and behavioral adaptation. *Accident Analysis and Prevention, 33*(5), 679-684.
- Jordana, J. (2000). Traditional foods: Challenges facing the European food industry. *Food Research International, 33*(3-4), 147-152.
- Joreskog, K. G., & Sorbom, D. (1996). *LISREL 8 user's reference guide*. Chicago, IL: Scientific Software International.
- Joris, A., Wim, V., Koen, M., & Guido Van, H. (2009). Personal determinants of organic food consumption: A review. *British Food Journal, 111*(10), 1140-1167.
- Köster, E. P. (2009). Diversity in the determinants of food choice: A psychological perspective. *Food Quality and Preference, 20*(2), 70-82.
- Kaiser, H. F., & Rice, J. (1974). Little Jiffy, Mark Iv. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 34*(1), 111-117.
- Kanuk, L. L., & Schiffman, L. G. (2004). *Consumer Behavior*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Karim, S. A., & Chi, C. G. Q. (2010). Culinary tourism as a destination attraction: An empirical examination of destinations' food image. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 19*(6), 531-555.
- Kelley, T. L. (1939). The selection of upper and lower groups for the validation of test items. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 30*(1), 17-24.
- Kelloway, E. K. (1998). *Using LISREL for Structural Equation Modeling: A Researcher's Guide*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Kiat, T. W. (1981). Test-Item Analysis. *Singapore Journal of Education, 4*(1), 39-43.
- Kim, Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. *Internaitonal Journal of Hospitality Management, 28*(3), 423-431.

- Kim, Kim, M., & Goh, B. (2011). An examination of food tourist's behavior: Using the modified theory of reasoned action. *Tourism Management*, 32(5), 1159-1165.
- Kim, Suh, & Eves. (2010). The relationships between food-related personality traits, satisfaction, and loyalty among visitors attending food events and festivals. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(2), 216-226.
- Kim, S., Kim, M., Agrusa, J., & Lee, A. (2012). Does a food-themed TV drama affect perceptions of national image and intention to visit a country?: An empirical study of Korea TV drama. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 29(3/4), 313-326.
- Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2005). Gastronomy tourism: A meaningful travel market segment. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 4(2-3), 39-55.
- Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(3), 354-377.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Knaapila, A., Tuorila, H., Silventoinen, K., Keskitalo, K., Kallela, M., Wessman, M., . . . Perola, M. (2007). Food neophobia shows heritable variation in humans. *Physiology & Behavior*, 91(5), 573-578.
- Kornelis, M., Herpen, E. v., Lans, I. v. d., & Aramyan, L. (2010). Using non-food information to identify food-choice segment membership. *Food Quality and Preference*, 21(5), 512-520.
- Kotler, P. (2008). *Principles of Marketing*. Frenchs Forest, N.S.W: Pearson Education Australia.
- Kraft, P., & Rise, J. (1994). The relationship between sensation seeking and smoking, alcohol consumption and sexual behavior among Norwegian adolescents. *Health Education Research*, 9(2), 193-200. doi: 10.1093/her/9.2.193
- Kriedt, P. H., & Clark, K. E. (1949). Item analysis" versus "scale analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 33(2), 114-121.
- Lacy, J. A., & Douglass, W. (2002). Beyond authenticity: The meanings and uses of cultural tourism. *Tourist Studies*, 2(1), 5-21.
- Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2006). Predicting behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 589-599.
- Lan, Wu, & Lee. (2012). Promoting food tourism with Kansei cuisine design. *Social and Behaviroul Sciences*, 40, 609-615.
- Lee, & Back. (2008). Association meeting participation: A test of competing models. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(3), 300-310.
- Lee, & Crompton. (1992). Measuring novelty seeking in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(4), 732-751.
- Lee, Lee, T. J., & Lin, C. J. (2008). Channel strategy of food tourism industry. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, 5(3), 247-256.
- Lepp, A., & Gibson, H. (2007). Sensation seeking and tourism: Tourist role, perception of risk and destination choice. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 740-750.
- Lien, C. Y., Hsiao, S. H., & Huang, C. W. (2010). *Developing a consumer experienceconceptual model for the Taiwanese fine food culture in the restaurant industry*. Paper presented at the 2010 IEEE International Conference on Industrial Engineering and Management (IEEM), Macao.
- Lin, S. S. J., & Tsai, C. C. (2002). Sensation seeking and internet dependence of Taiwanese high school adolescents. *Computer in Human Behavior*, 18(4), 411-426.

- Lin, Y. C., Pearson, T. E., & Cai, L. A. (2011). Food as a form of destination identity: A tourism destination brand perspective. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 11(1), 30-48.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Denzin, N. K. (1994). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Lindeman, M., & Väänänen, M. (2000). Measurement of ethical food choice motives. *Appetite*, 34(1), 55-55.
- Litvin, S. W. (2008). Sensation seeking and its measurement for tourism research. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(4), 440-445.
- Lobb, A. E., Mazzocchi, M., & Traill, W. B. (2007). Modelling risk perception and trust in food safety information within the theory of planned behaviour. *Food Quality and Preference* 18(2), 384-395.
- Long, L. M. (2004). *Culinary Tourism*. Lexington: University Press of Kentucky.
- Lopez-Bonilla, J. M., & Lopez-Bonilla, L. M. (2008). Sensation seeking and e-shoppers. *Electronic Commerce Research*, 8(3), 143-154.
- Madden, T. J., Ellen, P. S., & Ajzen, I. (1992). A comparison of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Theory of Reasoned Action. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 18(1), 3-9.
- Mak, A. H. N., Lumbers, M., Eves, A., & Chang, R. C. Y. (2012). Factors influencing tourist food consumption. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 928-936.
- Manstead, A., & Parker, D. (1995). Evaluating and extending the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 6(Journal Article), 69-95.
- Maria, K. M., Anne, A., Ulla-Kaisa Koivisto, H., Lars, Å., & Per-Olow, S. (2001). Attitudes towards organic foods among Swedish consumers. *British Food Journal*, 103(3), 209-227.
- Marsh, H. W., Hau, K. T., Balla, J. R., & Grayson, D. (1998). Is more ever too much? The number of indicators per factor in confirmatory factor analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 33(2), 181-220.
- Martin, C. A., Kelly, T. H., Rayens, M. K., Brogli, B. R., Brenzel, A., Smith, W. J., & Omar, H. A. (2002). Sensation seeking, puberty, and nicotine, alcohol, and marijuana use in adolescence. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 41(12), 1495-1502.
- Martins, Y., & Pliner, P. (2005). Human food choices: An examination of the factors underlying acceptance/rejection of novel and familiar animal and nonanimal foods. *Appetite*, 45(3), 214-224.
- Masalu, J. R., & Astrøm, A. N. (2001). Predicting intended and self-perceived sugar restriction among Tanzanian students using the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Health Psychology*, 6(4), 435-445.
- Mattes, R. D. (1994). Influences on acceptance of bitter foods and beverages. *Physiology & Behavior*, 56(6), 1229-1236.
- McCarthy, M., de Boer, M., O'Reilly, S., & Cotter, L. (2003). Factors influencing intention to purchase beef in the Irish market. *Meat Science*, 65(3), 1071-1083.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1995). Trait explanations in personality psychology. *European Journal of Personality*, 9(4), 231-252.
- McKercher, B., Okumus, F., & Okumus, B. (2008). Food tourism as a viable market segment: It's all how you cook the numbers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 25(2), 137.
- McLachlan, G. J. (1992). *Discriminant analysis and statistical pattern recognition*. New York ; Brisbane: Wiley.

- Meiselman, H. L., King, S. C., & Gillette, M. (2010). The demographics of neophobia in a large commercial US sample. *Food Quality and Preference* 21(7), 893-897.
- Meler, M., & Cerovic, Z. (2003). Food marketing in the function of tourist product development. *British Food Journal*, 105(3), 175-192.
- Meulenberg, M., & Viaene, J. (1998). Changing food marketing systems in western countries. In W. M. F. Jongen & M. Meulenberg (Eds.), *Innovation of food production systems: product quality and consumer acceptance* (pp. 5-36). Wageningen: Wageningen Pers.
- Mitchell, R., & Hall, C. M. (2003). Consuming tourists: food tourism consumer behaviour. In Hall (Ed.), *Food Tourism Around the World: Development, Management, and Markets* (pp. 60-80). Oxford: Taylor & Francis Ltd.
- Montgomery, J. (2008). The role that personality and motivation play in the consumer behaviour: A case study on HSBC. *Business Intelligence Journal*, 1(1), 128-134.
- Montmany, N., Reichel, A., Pizam, A., van Boemmel, H., Lusson, J. M., Steynberg, L., . . . Jeong, G.-H. (2004). The relationship between risk-taking, sensation-seeking, and the tourist behavior of young adults: A cross-cultural study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(3), 251-260.
- Mulaik, S. A., & James, L. R. (1995). Objectivity and reasoning in science and structural equation modeling. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural Equation Modeling: concepts, issues, and applications* (pp. 118-137). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Mustonen, S., & Tuorila, H. (2010). Sensory education decreases food neophobia score and encourages trying unfamiliar foods in 8-12-year-old children. *Food Quality and Preference* 21(4), 353-360.
- Nestle, M., Wing, R., Birch, L., DiSogra, L., Drewnowski, A., Middleton, S., . . . Economos, C. (1998). Behavioral and social influences on food choice. *Nutrition Reviews*, 56(5 Pt 2), S50-64.
- Nestle, M., Wing, R., Birch, L., DiSogra, L., Drewnowski, A., Middleton, S., . . . Economos, C. (2009). Behavioral and social influences on food choice. *Nutrition Reviews*, 56(5), 50-64.
- Neuman, W. L. (2011). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Boston, [Mass.]: Pearson.
- Nu, C. T., MacLeod, P., & Barthelemy, J. (1996). Effects of age and gender on adolescents' food habits and preferences. *Food Quality and Preference*, 7(3), 251-262.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oh, H., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2001). Volitional degrees of gambling behaviors. *Annals of Tourism Research* 28(3), 618-637.
- Okumus, B., Okumus, F., & Mckercher, B. (2007). Incorporate local and international cuisine in the marketing of tourism destinations: The cases of Hong Kong and Turkey *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 253-261.
- Olabi, A., Najm, N. E. O., Baghdadi, O. K., & Morton, J. M. (2009). Food neophobia levels of Lebanese and American college students. *Food Quality and Preference* 20(5), 353-362.
- Ong, C., & Coakes, S. J. (2011). *SPSS: Analysis Without Anguish : Version 18.0 for Windows*. Milton, Qld: John Wiley & Sons.
- Otis, L. P. (1984). Factors influencing the willingness to taste unusual foods. *Psychological Report*, 54, 739-745.
- Ottenbacher, M., & Harrington, R. (2010). Culinary tourism-A case study of the gastronomic capital. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 8(1), 14-32.

- Ouellette, J. A., & Wood, W. (1998). Habit and Intention in Everyday Life: The Multiple Processes by Which Past Behavior Predicts Future Behavior. *Psychological bulletin*, 124(1), 54-74.
- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS for Windows*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Pelchat, M. L., & Pliner, P. (1995). "Try it. You'll like it." Effects of information on willingness to try novel foods. *Appetite*, 24(2), 153-165.
- Petrick, J. F. (2002). An examination of golf vacationers' novelty. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 384-400.
- Pizam, A., Reichel, A., & Uriely, N. (2002). Sensation seeking and tourist behaviour. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 9(3-4), 17-33.
- Plano Clark, V. L., & Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE Publications.
- Pliner, & Melo, N. (1997). Food neophobia in humans: Effects of manipulated arousal and individual differences in sensation seeking. *Physiology & Behavior*, 61(2), 331-335.
- Pliner, P., & Mann, N. (2004). Influence of social norms and palatability on amount consumed and food choice. *Appetite*, 42(2), 227-237.
- Pliner, P., Pelchat, M., & Grabski, M. (1993). Reduction of neophobia in humans by exposure to novel foods. *Appetite*, 20(2), 111-123.
- Pliner, & Hobden, K. (1992). Development of a scale to measure the trait of food neophobia in humans. *Appetite*, 19(2), 105-120.
- Pollard, J., Kirk, S. F. L., & Cade, J. E. (2002). Factors affecting food choice in relation to fruit and vegetable intake: a review. *Nutrition Research Reviews*, 15(2), 373-387.
- Prescott, J., Young, O., O'Neill, L., Yau, N. J. N., & Stevens, R. (2002). Motives for food choice: A comparison of consumers from Japan, Taiwan, Malaysia and New Zealand. *Food Quality and Preference*, 13(7-8), 489-495.
- Quan, & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 25(3), 297-305.
- Queener, E. L. (1951). *Introduction to social psychology*. New York: William Sloane Assoc.
- Quintal, V. A., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2010). Risk, uncertainty and the theory of planned behavior: A tourism example. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 797-805.
- Rand, G. D., Heath, E., & Alberts, N. (2003). The role of local and regional food in destination marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(3), 97-112.
- Randall, E., & Sanjur, D. (1981). Food preferences: Their conceptualization and relationship to consumption. *Ecology of Food and Nutrition*, 11(3), 151-161.
- Raudenbush, B., & Frank, R. A. (1999). Assessing Food Neophobia: The Role of Stimulus Familiarity. *Appetite*, 32(2), 261-271.
- Reichardt, C. S. (2002). The priority of just-identified, recursive models. *Psychological Methods*, 7(3), 307-315.
- Reisinger, Y., & Mavondo, F. (2007). Structural Equation Modeling. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 21(4), 41-71.
- Reynolds, P. (1993). Food and tourism: Towards an understanding of sustainable culture. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1(1), 48-54.
- Richard, R., Pligt, v. d. J., & Vries, d. N. K. (1996). Anticipated affect and behavioral choice. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 18(2), 111-129.



- Riddell, L. J., Ang, B., Keast, R. S. J., & Hunter, W. (2011). Impact of living arrangements and nationality on food habits and nutrient intakes in young adults. *Appetite*, *56*(3), 726-731.
- Ritchey, P. N., Frank, R. A., Hursti, U. K., & Tuorila, H. (2003). Validation and cross-national comparison of the food neophobia scale (FNS) using confirmatory factor analysis. *Appetite*, *40*(2), 163-173.
- Rozin, P., Fallon, A., & Mandell, R. (1984). Family resemblance in attitudes to foods. *Developmental Psychology*, *20*(2), 309-314.
- Rubin, I. S., & Rubin, H. J. (1995). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Russell, C. G., & Worsley, A. (2008). A population-based study of preschoolers' food neophobia and its associations with food preferences. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, *40*(1), 11-19.
- Ryu, K., & Han, H. (2010). Influence of the quality of food, service, and physical environment on customer satisfaction and behavioral intention in quick-casual restaurants: Moderating role of perceived price. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *34*(3), 310-329.
- Ryu, K., & Jang, S. (2006). Intention to experience local cuisine in a travel destination: The modified theory of reasoned action. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *30*(4), 507-516.
- Sanchez-Canizares, S. M., & Lopez-Guzman, T. (2012). Gastronomy as a tourism resource: Profile of the culinary tourist. *Current Issue in Tourism*, *15*(3), 229-245.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students*. New York: FT/Prentice Hall.
- Sharma, S., Durand, R. M., & Gur Arie, O. (1981). Identification and analysis of moderator variables. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(3), 291-300.
- Shepherd, R. (1999). Social determinants of food choice. *The Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, *58*(4), 807-812.
- Sheppard, B. H., Hartwick, J., & Warshaw, P. R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *15*(3), 325-343.
- Siegrist, M., Hartmann, C., & Keller, C. (2013). Antecedents of food neophobia and its association with eating behavior and food choices. *Food Quality and Preference* *30*(2), 293-298. doi: 10.1016/j.foodqual.2013.06.013
- Siguaw, J. A., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2000). *Introducing Lisrel: A guide for the uninitiated*. London: SAGE.
- Sims, R. (2009). Food, place and authenticity: Local food and the sustainable tourism experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *17*(3), 321-336.
- Slater, M. D. (2003). Alienation, aggression, and sensation seeking as predictors of adolescent use of violent film, computer, and website content. *Journal of Communication* *53*(1), 105-121.
- Smith, S., & Costello, C. (2009). Culinary tourism: Satisfaction with a culinary event utilizing importance-performance grid analysis. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *15*(2), 99-110.
- Snepenger, D. J. (1987). Segmenting the vacation market by novelty-seeking role. *Journal of Travel Research*, *26*(2), 8-14.
- Sobal, J., & Bisogni, C. A. (2009). Constructing food choice decision. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine* *38*(supplement 1), 37-46.

- Son, A., & Xu, H. (2013). Religious food as a tourism attraction: The roles of Buddhist temple food in Western tourist experience. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 8(2-3), 248-258.
- Sparks. (2006). Planning a wine tourism vacation? Factors that help to predict tourist behavioural intentions. *Tourism Management*, 28(5), 1180-1192.
- Sparks, Bowen, J., & Klag, S. (2003). Restaurants and the tourist market. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(1), 6-13.
- Sparks, & Pan, G. W. (2009). Chinese outbound tourists: Understanding their attitudes, constraints and use of information sources. *Tourism Management*, 30(4), 483-494.
- Spitalnick, J. S., DiClemente, R. J., Wingood, G. M., Crosby, R. A., Milhausen, R. R., Sales, J. M., . . . Younge, S. N. (2006). Brief report: Sexual sensation seeking and its relationship to risky sexual behaviour among African-American adolescent females. *Journal of Adolescence*, 30(1), 165-173.
- Stainton Rogers, W. (2011). *Social Psychology*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Steptoe, A., Pollard, T. M., & Wardle, J. (1995). Development of a measure of the motives underlying the selection of food: the Food Choice Questionnaire. *Appetite*, 25(3), 267-267.
- Stewart, J. W., Bramble, L., & Ziraldo, D. (2008). Key challenges in wine and culinary tourism with practical recommendations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(3), 303-312.
- Stirn, A., Hinz, A., & Braehler, E. (2006). Prevalence of tattooing and body piercing in Germany and perception of health, mental disorders, and sensation seeking among tattooed and body-pierced individuals. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 60(5), 531-534.
- Stones, R. (2005). *Structuration theory*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Swanson, J. C. (1972). Second thoughts on knowledge and attitude effects upon behavior. *The Journal of School Health*, 42(6), 363.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Taylor, J. P., Evers, S., & McKenna, M. (2005). Determinants of Healthy Eating in Children and Youth. *Canadian Journal of Public Health / Revue Canadienne de Sante'e Publique*, 96(Journal Article), S20-S26.
- Telfer, D. J. (1996). Linkages between tourism and food production. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(3), 635-653.
- Teo, T. S. H., & Yeong, Y. D. (2003). Assessing the consumer decision process in the digital marketplace. *The International Journal of Management Science*, 31(5), 349-363.
- Terasaki, M., & Imada, S. (1988). Sensation seeking and food preferences. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 9(1), 87-93.
- Teratanavat, R., & Hooker, N. H. (2006). Consumer valuations and preference heterogeneity for a novel functional food. *Journal of Food Science*, 71(7), S533-S541.
- Thompson, M., & Prideaux, B. (2009). Developing a food and wine segmentation and classifying destinations on the basis of their food and wine sectors. *Advance in Hospitality and Liesure*, 5(163-183).
- Tikkanen, I. (2007). Maslow's hierarchy and food tourism in Finland: Five cases. *British Food Journal*, 109(9), 721-734.

- Torkzadeh, G., Koufteros, X., & Pflughoeft, K. (2003). Confirmatory analysis of computer self-efficacy. *Structural Equation Modeling* 10(2), 263-275.
- Torres, R. (2002). Toward a better understanding of tourism and agriculture linkages in the Yucatan: Tourist food consumption and preferences. *Tourism Geographies*, 4(3), 282-306.
- Triandis, H. C. (1977). *Interpersonal behavior*. Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.
- Tu, C. C., & Liou, D. Y. (2008). *Japanese tourists' perceptions of shopping at Taiwan night markets*. Paper presented at the Industrial Engineering and Engineering Management, Singapore.
- Tucker, J. B. (1973). The reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 38, 1-10.
- Tuorila, Lahteenmaki, L., Pohjalainen, L., & Lotti, L. (2001). Food neophobia among the Finns and related responses to familiar and unfamiliar foods. *Food Quality and Preference* 12(1), 29-37.
- Tuorila, Meiselman, H. L., Bell, R., Cardello, A. V., & Johnson, W. (1994). Role of sensory and cognitive information in the enhancement of certainty and liking for novel and familiar foods. *Appetite*, 23(3), 231-246.
- Tuu, H. H., Olsen, S. O., Thao, D. T., & Anh, N. T. K. (2008). The role of norms in explaining attitudes, intention and consumption of a common food (fish) in Vietnam. *Appetite*, 51(3), 546-551.
- Urala, N., & Lähteenmäki, L. (2004). Attitudes behind consumers' willingness to use functional foods. *Food Quality and Preference*, 15(7), 793-803.
- Veal, A. J. (2006). *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism: A Practical Guide*. Harlow, Essex, England: Prentice Hall.
- Verbeke, W., & Lopez, G. P. (2005). Ethnic food attitudes and behaviour among Belgians and Hispanics living in Belgium. *British Food Journal*, 107(10/11), 823.
- Verbeke, W., & Vackier, I. (2005). Individual determinants of fish consumption: Application of the theory of planned behaviour. *Appetite*, 44(1), 67-82.
- Verdurme, A., & Viaene, J. (2003). Consumer beliefs and attitude towards genetically modified food: Basis for segmentation and implications for communication. *Agribusiness*, 19(1), 91-113.
- Wang, C. (1999). *The study on the planning of Taipei tourist night markets*. Taipei: Taipei City Government.
- Wardle, Haase, A. M., Steptoe, A., Nillapun, M., Jonwutiwes, K., & Bellisle, F. (2004). Gender differences in food choice: The contribution of health beliefs and dieting. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine : A Publication of the Society of Behavioral Medicine*, 27(2), 107-116.
- Wardle, Parmenter, K., & Waller, J. (2000). Nutrition knowledge and food intake. *Appetite*, 34(3), 269-269.
- Weisskirch, R. S., & Murphy, L. C. (2004a). Friends, porn, and punk: Sensation seeking in personal relationships, internet activities and music preference among college students. *Adolescence*, 39(154), 189.
- Weisskirch, R. S., & Murphy, L. C. (2004b). Friends, porn, and punk: sensation seeking in personal relationships, internet activities, and music preference among college students. *Adolescence*, 39(154), 189-201.

- Wheaton, B. (1987). Assessment of fit in overidentified models with latent variables. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 16(1), 118-154.
- Wicker, A. W. (1969). Attitudes versus actions: The relationship of verbal and overt behavioral responses to attitude objects. *Journal of Social Issues*, 25(4), 41-78.
- Worsley, Blasche, R., Ball, K., & Crawford, D. (2003). Income differences in food consumption in the 1995 Australian National Nutrition Survey. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 57(10), 1198-1211.
- Worsley, A. (2002). Nutrition knowledge and food consumption: Can nutrition knowledge change food behaviour? *Asia Pacific journal of clinical nutrition*, 11 Suppl 3(Journal Article), S579-S585.
- Wymer, W. W., & Self, D. R. (2010). Sensation seekers as a target market for volunteer tourism. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 31(3), 348-362.
- Xiao, & Smith. (2008). Culinary tourism supply chains: A preliminary examination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(3), 289-299.
- Zuckerman, M. (1971). Dimensions of sensation seeking. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 36(1), 45-52.
- Zuckerman, M. (1979). *Sensation Seeking: Beyond the Optimal Level of Arousal*. Hillsdale, N.J: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Zuckerman, M. (1994). *Behavioral Expressions and Biosocial Bases of Sensation Seeking*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Zuckerman, M. (2007). *Sensation Seeking and Risky Behavior*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Zuckerman, M., Bone, R. N., Neary, R., Mangelsdorff, D., & Brustman, B. (1972). What is the sensation seeker? Personality trait and experience correlates of the Sensation-Seeking Scales. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 39(2), 308-321.
- Zuckerman, M., Eysenck, S., & Eysenck, H. J. (1978). Sensation seeking in England and America: Cross-cultural, age, and sex comparisons. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 46(1), 139-149.

## **APPENDICES**

## Appendix A. Taiwanese Traditional Food Images

**Danzai  
Noodles**



**Stinky  
Tofu**





**Oyster  
Omelet**



**Coffin  
Sandwich**



**Oyster  
Vermicelli**



**Taiwanese  
Meatballs**





**Steamed  
Sandwich**



**Braised  
pork rice**



**Thousand  
years egg**



**Meat Rice  
Tamales**



**Pig's  
blood  
cake**



## Appendix B. Questionnaire



**The School of Tourism**  
**University of Queensland**  
**Australia**

Dear participant:

I am conducting my PhD research on tourists' purchase intention in relation to Taiwanese traditional food, with a view to understand the underlying influential factor in tourists' choice behaviour.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would be willing to spend some time to answer the following questions. Most of the questions will involve ticking on a rating scale and none of the questions are particularly personal. The questionnaire collected will remain completely confidential and will not be distributed to a third party. Participation of this survey is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at anytime without prejudice.

Your input would be highly appreciated to help with my PhD research.

Fu C. Hsu

PHD Candidate

The University of Queensland

TEL: 0420355228

Email: fuchieh.hsu@uqconnect.edu.au

### Section A

**Please read the following statements carefully and indicate the degree to which you agree/disagree with each statement by ticking the box  which best corresponds to your answer.**

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1. I would like to explore strange places.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I get restless when I spend too much time at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very	Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly	Very

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree				Agree	Strongly Agree
4. I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I like to do frightening things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I would like to try bungee jumping.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I like wild parties.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Section B

Please read the following statements and indicate the degree to which you agree/disagree with each statement by ticking the box  which best corresponds to your answer.

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1. I am constantly sampling new and different foods.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I don't trust new foods.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. If I don't know what is in food, I won't try it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I like foods from different countries.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Ethnic food looks too weird to eat.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. At dinner parties, I will try a new food.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I am afraid to eat things I have never had before.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I am very particular about the foods I will eat.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I will eat almost anything.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I like to try new ethnic restaurants.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



### Section C

Please read the following statements and indicate the degree to which you agree/disagree with each statement by circling the number which best corresponds to your answer.

**For me, sampling the Taiwanese traditional foods when travelling in Taiwan is**

1. extremely bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely good
2. extremely undesirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely desirable
3. extremely unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely pleasant
4. extremely foolish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely wise
5. extremely unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely favorable
6. extremely unenjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely enjoyable
7. extremely negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	extremely positive
8. extremely boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely fun
9. extremely disliked	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely liked

### Section D

Please read the following statements and indicate the degree to which you agree/disagree with each statement by ticking the box  which best corresponds to your answer.

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1. I would sample the Taiwanese traditional food during this trip because I have heard a lot about Taiwanese traditional foods from friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Most people who are important to me would want me to sample the Taiwanese traditional foods during this trip	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. People whose opinions I value would prefer that I sample the Taiwanese traditional foods during this trip	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
4. Friends and family have recommended I sample the Taiwanese traditional foods during this trip.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Most people who influence what I do think that I should sample the Taiwanese traditional novel food	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I would like to sample the Taiwanese traditional food during this trip because it is popular among my friends or family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Section E

Please read the following statements and indicate the degree to which you agree/disagree with each statement by ticking the box  which best corresponds to your answer.

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1. I feel there is nothing that prevents me from sampling the Taiwanese traditional foods if I want to	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Whether I will eventually buy Taiwanese traditional foods is entirely up to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I am confident that if I want, I can buy the Taiwanese traditional food when travelling in Taiwan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Section F

Please read the following statements and indicate the degree to which you agree/disagree with each statement by ticking the box  which best corresponds to your answer.

	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1. I am willing to buy the Taiwanese traditional food during this trip	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I plan to buy the Taiwanese traditional food during this trip	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Disagree	Disagree				Agree	Agree
3. I will make an effort to buy the Taiwanese traditional food during this trip	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Section G

The following information will help to analyse the previous information and only be used to calculate group averages. Please tick or write-in an answer for each question.

- Your Gender**       Female                       Male
  
- Education:** what is the **highest** level of education you have achieved?
 

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Primary School	High School	College/University	Graduate School
  
- Nationality:** what is your nationality?
 

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
American/ Canadian	Australian/ New Zealander	English	European
  
- Family Income:** What is your own annual income?
 

<input type="checkbox"/> below USD 30,000	<input type="checkbox"/> USD 30,000~50,000	<input type="checkbox"/> USD 50,001~80,000
<input type="checkbox"/> USD 80,001~110,000	<input type="checkbox"/> USD 110,001~150,000	<input type="checkbox"/> above USD 150,000
  
- Your Age**

<input type="checkbox"/> 18-30	<input type="checkbox"/> 31-40	<input type="checkbox"/> 41-50	<input type="checkbox"/> 51-60	<input type="checkbox"/> 61-70	<input type="checkbox"/> 71 or above
--------------------------------	--------------------------------	--------------------------------	--------------------------------	--------------------------------	--------------------------------------

### Section F

Following is the open-ended questions. Please provide the reasons of why you would like to try the Taiwanese traditional food and why you would not like to try.

- The reasons I would like to try the Taiwanese traditional food is.....

---



---

- The reasons I would not like to try the Taiwanese traditional food is.....

---



---



## Appendix C. Ethical Clearance approval letter

19th June, 2012

Fu-Chieh (Jay) Hsu

s42470676

[fuchieh.hsu0929@uqconnect.edu.au](mailto:fuchieh.hsu0929@uqconnect.edu.au)

Dear Jay,

I have examined your Application Form for Ethical Clearance for your study entitled: 'Food tourism: Consumer behaviour in relation to the traditional food'. In regard to your application form,

1. You will approach tourists visiting Taiwan from western countries at locations which are the most popular tourism spots for Western visitors in Taipei, and ask them to complete a survey questionnaire. Sample size is approximately 400.
2. You need to ensure that all interviewees are 18 years and over and this needs to be stated on your **information sheet**.
3. I am pleased that you have emphasised on the **information sheet** that the interviewee's participation is completely voluntary and that their responses will be kept confidential and that no names will be required.
4. You have also emphasised on the **information sheet** that interviewees have the right to refuse to answer any questions asked and may withdraw from the process altogether at any time without penalty if they so choose.
5. You **do not need a consent form** to be signed by the participant to complete a questionnaire, only for a face to face interview. Can you delete the consent form from your files. However, make sure that your respondents read the **information sheet** before beginning to fill in the questionnaire\*
6. You also need to state that this study has been approved by the School of Tourism and its Ethics Officer Associate Professor Ian Patterson can be contacted at [ian.patterson@uq.edu.au](mailto:ian.patterson@uq.edu.au) rather than the human research ethics committee at UQ so that any respondent will contact me as required if they have any further questions rather than the University Ethics Committee. \*
7. I have also examined the questions that you intend to ask respondents and I have approved them as suitable.

After you have changed \*5 and \*6 and checked by your principal supervisor, I am pleased to inform you that there are no other ethical considerations that warrant further attention and I give you permission to proceed to collect your data. Good luck!



Associate Professor,  
School of Tourism  
The University of Queensland  
St Lucia, Queensland 4072

## Appendix D. Research Project Information Sheet



### Research project information sheet

**Project Title:** Food tourism: Consumer behaviour in relation to the traditional food

**Investigator:** Mr. FuChieh Hsu (PhD Candidate)

**Supervisors:** A/Prof. Noel Scott, Dr. Richard Robinson

Dear participant:

My name is Fu Chieh (Jay) Hsu, a doctoral researcher at the University of Queensland. I am undertaking a study to understand tourists' attitudes and purchase intention to the traditional food during their travelling in Taiwan. Your participation in this research will assist authorities in better understanding the needs of tourists, and your valuable opinions are believed to greatly improve the overall quality of local food tourism. By doing so, we anticipate to provide a more appropriate food tourism environment for overseas travellers in Taiwan.

This project is conducted by a questionnaire, which will take no longer than 10 minutes. The questionnaire is anonymous, in other words, the inside questions apart from the socio-demographic items will not probe into any personal information. Your involvement in this study is voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time without providing any reasons and no pressure will put on you with a view to change your mind. Even though you have filled in the questionnaire, you still have the right of pulling out of the study. All the information you give me will be confidential and only used for academic purposes. In short, this study is not compulsory, your anonymity is assured and all information will remain confidential to the researcher and her supervisors.

As the researcher, I sincerely appreciate your energy involved in as well as the contributions you devote to food tourism in Taiwan. Following is the information of your rights:

- I understand the nature of the research and my role in it.
- I understand that participation in this study is voluntary, and I am free to withdraw from the study at any time without supplying a reason.
- I understand the information I provide will remain confidential to the researcher and his supervisors, and will be used mainly to be part of the researcher's doctoral thesis.
- I agree that any information gathered may be published in journals and magazines.
- My questions about this study have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

Think about the information provided above, and ask me if there is any uncertainty in your mind. If you want any more information about this study, please feel free to contact the researcher (Mr. FuChieh Hsu, +61 4 2035 5228, email: [fuchieh.hsu@uqconnect.edu.au](mailto:fuchieh.hsu@uqconnect.edu.au) ). This study adheres to the Guidelines of the ethical review process of The University of Queensland and has been approved by the School of Tourism and its Ethics Officer Associate Professor Ian Patterson. If you would like to speak to an officer of the University not involved in the project, you may contact the Ethics Officer at [ian.patterson@uq.edu.au](mailto:ian.patterson@uq.edu.au).

## Appendix E. Sensation-seeking research

Author/year	Key concept and theory	Methodology	Result	Future research
Lepp and Gibson (2007)	Sensation-seeking, Tourist behaviour, Destination choice	Questionnaire: 290 American young adult	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Gender was not a significant predictor of tourist roles and international travel experience.</li> <li>2. Sensation-seeking was related to the tourist role.</li> <li>3. High sensation-seekers tend to travel the regions of the world rated riskier.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Future study should adopt a multivariate approach to increase their ability to both explain and predict tourists' preferences.</li> <li>2. Future study could examine the influence of social, race, and stage in the life course in a tourist's preference.</li> </ol>
Abraham Pizam (2002)	Risk-taking, sensation-seeking, travel behaviour, Cross culture	Questionnaire: 1429 Students from 11 different universities located in the country of Gabon.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. People who had a high score in combined Risk-taking and sensation-seeking had a significant difference in travel behaviour, mode of destination choice, preferred tourist activities and demographics</li> <li>2. Nationalities had a significant difference in the RSS scale.</li> </ol>	1. No information.
Galloway (2002)	Sensation-seeking, Psychographic National park	Questionnaire: 9454 Visitors to the national park	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Sensation-seeking can work as a variable to segment the park visitors.</li> <li>2. High sensation-seekers tend to camp more, engage in more activities,.</li> </ol>	Future research can examine the relationship between the sensation-seeking with other variables
Dickinson, Gilchrist, and Povey (1995)	Sensation-seeking	Questionnaires: 47 People who had an overland adventure holiday And 46 control group	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. There are significant differences between the adventure traveler and the control group in the sensation-seeking scale.</li> <li>2. Gender has significant difference in the sensation-seeking scale.</li> </ol>	No information
Galloway et al. (2007)	Sensation-seeking, Consumer behavior, Attitudes and behaviors.	Questionnaire: 222 Visitors visiting the six wineries in Australia.	1. Sensation-seeking is a useful concept to predict the behavior and attitudes of the wine tourists.	

Author/year	Key concept and theory	Methodology	Result	Future research
Eachus (2004)	Sensation-seeking , Brief sensation-seeking scale, Holiday preferences.	Questionnaire: 111 Staff and students in the University of Salford	1. There is significant correlation between the BSSS and holiday preference. 2. Using the BSSS as the measurement found sensation-seeking can effectively predict the holiday preference.	1. Future research has to investigate how the sensation- seeking might interact with different sources of motivation.
Galloway and Lopez (1999)	Sensation-seeking, park	Questionnaires: 100 Students in La Trobe University	1. High sensation-seekers tend to engage more in activities: seeking wild life and challenging activities.	1. Future research should examine the individual difference on the sensation-seeking.
Litvin (2008)	Sensation-seeking, SSS-V, BSSS	Questionnaires: 199 undergraduate students from two U.S. universities.	1. Both SSS-V and BSSS were found to be stronger measures of overall sensation- seeking than measures of their component parts. 2. If sensation-seeking sub-traits, particularly ES and BS, are significant research variables, then it should use the full 10-items SSS_V subscale for weaker-2 item BSSS approach.	1. Sensation-seeking scale should be applied in the non- U.S. sample to validate this scale 2. Applying this scale in the tourism context should not only focus on the students' sample.
Cho and Jang (2008)	Vocational information value, value structure, Sensation-seeking.	Questionnaire: 221 vacationers who already booked the one of the three resorts in Florida.	1. This research confirms sensation-seeking is one of the information values sought by people before trips.	1. Future research should include the eventual purchase choice to help shed future light on the impact of information value on all acts of consumptions.
Dahlen, Martin, Ragan, and Kuhlman (2005)	Risk driving, Trait driving anger	Questionnaire: 224 undergraduate volunteers from the psychology and social and rehabilitation services classes at the university of southern Mississippi. Arnett inventory of sensation- seeking(AISS)	1. Sensation-seeking is one of the most accurate predictors in predicting the unsafe driving.	No information

Author/year	Key concept and theory	Methodology	Result	Future research
Weisskirch and Murphy (2004a)	Sensation-seeking, Music preferences	Questionnaires: 138 college students Arnett's (1994) Inventory of sensation-seeking	1. There are moderate relationship between the high sensation-seeker and the need for more friends. 2. High sensation-seekers were related to getting sex-oriented material, downloading or playing music, playing games, and chatting, instant messaging with friends on the internet.	No information
Lopez-Bonilla and Lopez-Bonilla (2008)	Sensation-seeking, Internet, E-commerce	Questionnaires: 393 students from the University of Seville	1. Significant differences exist between e-shoppers and non-e shoppers of leisure products with respect to the subscale of thrill and adventure seeking.	No information
Deandrea, Carpenter, Shulman, & Levine (2009)	Sensation-seeking, cheating	Questionnaires: 104 undergraduate students from the Midwestern university.	1. This study has found a significant relationship between cheating and the high sensation-seeker.	1. Future research should explore the link between personality traits and cheating.
Lin and Tsai (2002)	Sensation-seeking, internet dependence, internet abuse.	Questionnaire: 753 of high school students in Taiwan	1. There is significant difference between the internet dependent adolescent and internet non-dependants in the sensation-seeking scale. 2. The sensation-seeking subscale of disinhibition can effectively predict internet dependence.	1. Further research should focus on content analysis or interview to identify whether internet dependents and ordinary users visit different sites or if they browse for messages with various degrees of stimulation.
Martin et al (2002)	Sensation-seeking, nicotine use, alcohol use	Questionnaires: 208 early and mid-adolescents	1. High sensation-seekers have significant correlation with the cigarette use and alcohol use in both gender and marijuana use in male.	No information
Gullette and Lyons (2006)	Sensation-seeking, Condom usage, unprotected sex.	Questionnaire: 159 of university students in the united states.	1. Men's score is higher in the sensation-seeking scale 2. There are significant relationship between the high sensation-seekers and the alcohol use	No information

Author/year	Key concept and theory	Methodology	Result	Future research
Spitalnick et al. (2006)	Sexual sensation-seeking, risky sex, Adolescence	Questionnaire: 715 African-American adolescent females	1. Study found that African-American adolescent females who endorsed high levels of sexual sensation-seeking attitudes and behaviours also reported high levels of sexual risk-taking behaviours such as frequency of vaginal intercourse, number of sexual partners, and inconsistent condom use.	1. Future research should include methodology that permits statistical analyses yielding clinical relevant results.
Stirn, Hinz, and Brahler (2006)	sensation-seeking, Body modification, tattoo, body piercing	Questionnaire: 2043 German population Tattoo: 130 Piercing: 119 Sensation-seeking was assessed with the Arnett Inventory of sensation-seeking scale.	1. Tattoo and piercing have significant correlation with Sensation-seeking behaviour.	No information.
Slater (2003)	Sensation-seeking, Violent film.	Questionnaires: 3127 Students from the 20 schools around the U.S.	1. Sensation-seeking can predict the use of violent media content, controlling for gender.	No information.
Desrichard and Denarie (2005)	Sensation-seeking, substance use, Reckless driving Sexual risk-behaviour, Deviant behaviour.	Questionnaires: 201 high school students.	1. Sensation-seeking scale can effectively predict the both occasional risk-taking and frequent risk-taking behaviour. 2. Sensation-seeking was a significant predictor of substance use and deviance.	No information

**Source: Developed by this study**

## Appendix F. Food neophobia study

Author/year	Key concept	Objective	Methodology	Result
Nick, John, and Heather (2011)	Food neophobia	Post graduate students	Questionnaires: 226	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Gender and age have no significant difference in the food neophobia scale.</li> <li>2. People from East Asian and Europe have significant differences in the food neophobia scale.</li> <li>3. The scale of food neophobia is uni-dimensional</li> </ol>
Kim et al. (2010)	Food neophobia, food involvement	Food event and festival visitors	Questionnaires: 335	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Food neophobia had a negative effect on satisfaction and loyalty</li> </ol>
Cooke, Haworth, and Wardle (2007)	Food neophobia Gene	Parents of twins	Questionnaires: 5390 pairs	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The neophobia is heritable.</li> <li>2. Food neophobia can be explained by the non-shared environmental factors.</li> </ol>
Flight, Leppard, and Cox (2003)	Food neophobia, Cultural diversity	High school students	Questionnaire: Rural: 243 City: 696	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students in city have lower food neophobia</li> <li>2. The correlation between FNS and familiarity with foods, willingness to try the unfamiliar foods, and exposure to cultural diversity, were only weak or moderate for both city and rural students.</li> </ol>
Russell and Worsley (2008)	Food neophobia, food preferences	Children aged 2-5	Questionnaire: 371	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Food neophobia plays an important role in children's everyday food preferences.</li> <li>2. Food neophobia was more strongly related to some food groups (vegetables) than other foods.</li> <li>3. Food neophobia was associated with linking numbers of untried food, with disliking more food types.</li> <li>4. There is no significant relationship found between the food neophobia and child's age, sex, or history of breast-feeding.</li> </ol>



Author/year	Key concept	Objective	Methodology	Result
Knaapila et al. (2007)	Food neophobia, genetic, heritability	Finnish adults, British adult twins.	Questionnaires: 1091	1. Research suggests strong genetic influences in food neophobia.
Mustonen and Tuorila (2010)	Food neophobia, Sensory education	Primary school students	Questionnaire: 164	1. After the sensory education, children are found to try more unfamiliar food, and decrease in the food neophobia scale.
Dovey, Taylor, Stow, Boyland, and Halford (2011)	Food neophobia	Children aged 5-7	Questionnaire: 66	1. Food advertisements for either healthy or unhealthy food items increase the food intake of high food neophobic children by 47 kcal%, 63% kcal for low food neophobic children. 2. Presenting the health food item doesn't alter children's food preferences.
Olabi, Najm, Baghdadi, and Morton (2009)	Food neophobia Food preferences Cross-culture	American and Lebanese students	Questionnaire: 1122	1. American college students have a lower food neophobia score. 2. The number of trips taken outside the country, frequency of eating ethnic foods and a history of sickness after eating a new food have a significant influence on the food neophobia score.
Martins and Pliner (2005)	Food neophobia Food choice Food acceptance	Collage students	Experiment and questionnaire Study1: 78 Study2: 69	1. The perception of the disgusting attributes of the novel can effectively predict the willingness to try the novel food (account for 55%).
Pliner, Pelchat, and Grabski (1993)	Food neophobia	Undergraduate students	Questionnaire and experiment Study1: 40 Study2:	1. The fear of dangerous and potential unpleasant sensory experience can effectively predict the unwillingness to try novel food.
Addessi, Galloway, Visalberghi, and Birch (2005)	Food neophobia Social influences Social learning	Children aged 2-5	Questionnaire: 27	1. The social influence and the repeat experience with novelty can reduce children's food neophobia.

Author/year	Key concept	Objective	Methodology	Result
Tuorila, Lahteenmaki, Pohjalainen, and Lotti (2001)	Food neophobia familiarity	Finns adults	Questionnaires: 1083	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Women have a lower food neophobia score than man</li> <li>2. High educational level predicts low food neophobia</li> <li>3. Two factors were extracted from the factor analysis form the food neophobia scale.</li> <li>4. People living in urban areas demonstrate a lower food neophobia score.</li> <li>5. Less food neophobic subjects tend to eat and try the unfamiliar food.</li> </ol>
Pelchat and Pliner (1995)	Food neophobia	Young children, and junior high school students	Questionnaires and experiment Study 1: 41 Study 2: 600	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The information of taste would influence subjects' willingness to try the unusual food.</li> </ol>
Edwards, Hartwell, and Brown (2010)	Food neophobia Dietary habits	International post-graduate students	Questionnaires: 228	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Both the Asian and European students demonstrate an increase in the food neophobia score after three months, however only the European students have the significant differences.</li> <li>2. No significant change in their eating habit.</li> </ol>
Falciglia, Troyer, and Couch (2004)	Food neophobia	students on grade 5 and 6	Questionnaire: 33	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Parent-child FNS scores were significantly correlated.</li> <li>2. Findings suggest that parental food choice would influence their children's response to the new food.</li> </ol>
Choe and Cho (2011)	Food neophobia Willingness to try Non-traditional food	adults	Questionnaires:416	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The mean of the food neophobia score is 33.5.</li> <li>2. There are significant negative correlations between the FNS and familiarity and willingness to try the non-traditional food.</li> <li>3. Neophilics tend to try more non-traditional food restaurant than do neophobics.</li> </ol>

Author/year	Key concept	Objective	Methodology	Result
Eertmans et al (2005)	Food neophobia, Food involvement, Motives,	Undergraduate students	Questionnaire: 324	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Sensory appeal and health serve as mediators to affect food involvement on intake of specific food categories.</li> <li>2. The consumption of spicy food is negatively associated with food neophobia.</li> <li>3. Food neophobia moderates the relationship between the motive and both food intake and dietary healthfulness.</li> </ol>
Hwang and Lin (2010)	Familiarity Food neophobia, Ethnic cuisine, Nutrition information	American adult.	Questionnaires: 80	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Food neophobia would significantly influence the consumers' familiarity with Asian cuisine, the attitudes towards Asian menus, and the intention to purchase Asian food.</li> <li>2. If the newly-developed menu items can add the familiar flavours, appearance, presentation, and preparation methods, the consumer's familiarity would improve.</li> <li>3. The nutrition information can moderate the familiarity.</li> </ol>
Arvola, Lahteenmaki, and Tuorila (1999)	Attitude Food neophobia, The theory of reasoned action.	Adult	Questionnaires, interview, tasting: 92 women	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Neophobics would expect that the actual taste of novel food would be unpleasant.</li> <li>2. Food neophobia indicates a tendency not only to avoid novel food but also dislike it.</li> <li>3. Taste and the food experience play important role in food choice.</li> </ol>
Wim and Gisela Poquiviqui (2005)	Food products Attitudes	Belgians and Hispanics living in Belgium	Questionnaire: 246 119 Belgians 127 Hispanics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. There is no significant relationship between the socio-demographic and food neophobia.</li> <li>2. Belgians were more food neophobic than the Hispanics.</li> <li>3. Taste and appearance were the key attributes that determined Belgians' preferences for food.</li> </ol>

**Source: Developed by this study**