

# The development of a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana

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## **DECLARATION**

I, Delly Chatibura declare that the contents of this study represent my own work and that the thesis has not been previously submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore the discussion herein is based on my observations and conclusions, except where due reference is acknowledged.

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

## **ABSTRACT**

The main goal of this study is the development a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana. This goal was achieved in five key objectives. Firstly the study set to review extant literature on tourists' cuisine experiences in general and in Botswana. An understanding of tourists' cuisine experiences is significant in paving the way for increased promotion in cuisine tourism, an alternative form of tourism that has remained relatively neglected in the country's tourism development efforts. Secondly the study sought to identify key Setswana cuisine that could be used for tourism purposes. Thirdly whilst previous studies examining food tourists' behaviour and tourists' experiences of local cuisine mainly investigated tourists' intentions to revisit and their intentions to experience local cuisine, this study sought to assess actual cuisine consumption behaviour of tourists. An understanding of consumption behaviour is important in the development and promotion of cuisine tourism products. The study reviews literature on theories of behaviour in order to identify factors of local cuisine consumption behaviour thus adding theoretical underpinning on theories of tourist experience in addressing the third objective. Fourthly, the study also set to analyse strategic tourism management literature concerning the development and promotion of local cuisine. In consideration of the promotional methods that are being used or could be used to promote cuisine, the study lastly concludes by designing a strategic framework for the tourism promotion of local cuisine and provides varied general recommendations and recommendations for future research as part of Objective Five. The framework that was developed in Chapter Six was therefore a culmination of the five key objectives. The framework is a unique approach in assessing both supply and demand perspectives of cuisine tourism promotion.

A pragmatic approach to research philosophy is adopted because of its inherent advantages of dualism; since pragmatists use mixed methods research. A mixed methods research design is also selected for this study since quantitative and qualitative techniques were used in trying to understand the main goal of the overall study, that of devising a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana. Four key research tools were used: an expert opinion survey, a food and beverage supervisor survey, a tourist (diner) survey and interviews with tourism and hospitality marketing officials in Gaborone. The expert opinion survey,

administered as a semi-structured questionnaire, *inter alia*, used content from extant literature to identify key Setswana cuisine that could be used for tourism promotion. The food and beverage supervisor survey (face to face and interview administered) assessed the extent to which Setswana cuisine was promoted at the establishment and also identified cuisine that diners mostly preferred, amongst other things. The tourist (diner survey), mainly administered through a semi-structured questionnaire, was used to identify the main characteristics of diners within Gaborone's hotel and non-hotel restaurants, also identifying, *inter alia*, the main factors that predict these diners' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. In addition interviews held with tourism and hospitality marketing officials were used to assess promotion efforts nationwide and challenges associated with promoting Setswana cuisine. Some parts of the surveys were analysed qualitatively. In other parts, descriptive statistics, stepwise multiple regression, linear regression, independent *t* tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used.

This study has managed to identify 15 key cuisine types and eight additional cuisine types that have potential for tourism promotion, have association with national identity and are highly preferred by customers. Amongst these, *seswaa* (pound boiled beef) emerged as the number one cuisine attractor for the country. These cuisine types were incorporated in the strategic framework as cuisine that can be promoted at a larger scale to domestic and international tourists. Findings from the study also imply that diners visiting hotel and non-hotel restaurants in Gaborone were mainly day visitors. Their cuisine experiences are mainly secondary since their main motivations for dining were 'fun and relaxation' and 'meeting friends and family'. These two motives are related to the generic travel motives and may not be specific to cuisine related travel. These two motives were also related to the main factors that predicted consumption behaviour, which were 'arousal', 'social others' and an 'open culture' as analysed through stepwise multiple regression. Arousal is an emotional response associated with excitement. It was found to be the main predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. This factor is likely to be more associated with the presence of 'social others' such as friends and family. The three factors could be linked to Batswana's (since they were the majority of diners in the restaurants) style of living which emphasises on socialisation, togetherness and openness.

Several challenges associated with the promotion of local cuisine were also noted. Amongst these, were language barriers, safety, health and hygiene considerations, aesthetic factors,

supply irregularities, lack of market interest and cost considerations. However the study also identified the importance of the national tourism website, the hotel/restaurants websites, television and functions, events or festivals as key promotional tools that could be used in promoting local cuisine especially at domestic level. Additional measures such as increased supplier and tourist education and awareness; establishment of safety, hygiene and health standards; maintenance of consistent and appropriate levels of supply; maintenance of authenticity of Setswana cuisine and identification and introduction of cuisine promotion champions were identified.

This study adds knowledge on cuisine experiences from a developing African country context. From a practical point of view, this study emphasises the promotion of key cuisine based on tourism potential, national identity and customer preference. The study is important in that it also aids awareness of cuisine products in the country that have potential for tourism promotion, based on their gastronomic image and preference by customers. The study is also important in that it presents information on an often neglected aspect of tourism marketing, the importance of the national tourism organisation and hotel/restaurant websites to the international tourist. In the global arena, the use of modern forms of marketing such as the online platform of marketing can never be over-emphasised.

Theoretically the study accentuates the importance of the trio; tourism potential, national identity and customer preference as concepts whose link requires further understanding in influencing selection of key cuisine for promotion by destination marketers. From the study, it also emerged that an understanding of models based on the concurrent use and application of mixed methods forms of research especially in cuisine consumption studies is an area that should be advanced. An understanding of these models is important given the nature of the tourism product whose production and consumption is inseparable. Lastly it materialized from the study that a modified version of the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour can be used to explain prediction in Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. All this information was significantly used in the design of the strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Chapter Six.

**Keywords:**

Setswana cuisine, consumption behaviour, tourism promotion, strategic framework.

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this study to my husband, Evans for his steadfast love, his unwavering support and for being there when I needed a pillar to lean on.

Without your encouragement I could not have made it this far.

Thank you my love.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

- AFDB: African Development Bank
- ANOVA: Analysis of Variance
- BGCSE: Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education
- BFTU: Botswana Federation of Trade Unions
- BTB: Botswana Tourism Board
- BTO: Botswana Tourism Organisation
- CAR: Centre for Applied Research
- HATAB: Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana
- ITRC: International Tourism Research Centre
- IUCN: International Union for Conservation of Nature
- MEWT: Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism
- OECD: Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development
- UNWTO: United Nations World Tourism Organisation
- WTTC: World Travel and Tourism Council

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# **1 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, GOALS AND METHOD OF RESEARCH**

## **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Most African countries are rich in cultural heritage related to their lifestyles in which the consumption of local cuisine amongst society is still practiced. Local cuisine in this study refers to food and beverage ‘that is produced or grown in the local area or local specialty food that has a local identity’ (Enteleca Research & Consultancy Ltd, 2000:11). In Botswana it refers to Setswana foods and beverages that have been prepared using local methods.

Cultural practices including the consumption of local cuisine, especially in the case of Botswana present huge untapped potential which could be used to diversify the economy (Keleboge, 2012:1). In Botswana, a number of indigenous societies such as the San for instance still practice traditional styles of cookery and food preparation. Some of these practices have been transmitted to contemporary tourism and hospitality set ups for enjoyment by local and international tourists alike. Some countries have used their local cuisine to promote tourism. Canada for instance, has identified this niche and has strongly promoted Ontario’s local food in its tourism policy (Shenoy, 2005:3). The Canadian Tourism Commission specifically targeted food based tourism as one of its growth segments in the country’s cultural tourism offerings and has even developed a national tourism development strategy based on cuisine (Shenoy, 2005:3). Other countries such as New Zealand and Singapore have also incorporated local cuisine as an important component of their tourism strategies (Steinmetz, 2010:3).

In Africa however, few countries have used local cuisine for tourism promotion and destination attractiveness. South Africa for instance, took long to recognise this potential (du Rand & Heath, 2006:219). Because local food products can provide significant motivation for travel to a destination (Sims, 2009:325), Southern African countries, especially, can also utilise this potential to widen their tourism product base, that mainly relies on wildlife and nature based tourism. Thus the presentation of local cuisine, in commercial establishments

does not only act to preserve the cuisine based heritage of the country but could also be used as a long term strategy for tourism diversification.

Sims (2009:333) indicates that local food and beverage is a better enhancer of destination image because of its link to traditional landscapes that tourists encounter when on holiday. Sims (2009:329), further highlights that over 60% of tourists deliberately selected food and beverage that they considered 'local' whilst on holiday as they felt this would give them an insight into the nature of the place. Local cuisine can therefore be used to create awareness of local and regional geographies. For Southern Africa, this presents avenues for potential growth especially that emphasis of local people and cultural tourism have been a central point of discussion since the 1990s (ITRC, 2007). In support, Moulin (2000:20) also highlights that recent studies of tourism preferences have moved towards intercultural experiences to which food related experiences are no exception.

Currently cuisine tourism is not the main reason why tourists could visit Botswana; it could be promoted to become one of the reasons why they visit. This is especially important given the fact that, 44% of the American leisure market for instance, now finds trying different types of cuisine, a desirable attribute of a vacation (YBP & R/ Yankelovich cited by Marzella, 2008:3) and that Botswana has realised a 72% increase in American leisure tourism between 2006 and 2008 for instance (Republic of Botswana, n. d:10). In addition, between 2006 and 2010, tourists' expenditure on food and beverage in Botswana also witnessed an annual average growth rate of 10.6 % (Republic of Botswana, n.d). In fact Herrera, Herranz and Arilla (2012:7) in their report state that eating in restaurants, is the number one activity for Americans, when they visit other countries. In fact the demand for gastronomic experiences among tourists is rising (Fields, 2002:36). As such these figures are indicators that warrant an investigation into the potential promotion of local food and beverage at national level.

Globally, there is also a shift of demand for food that has a geographical identification and reflects traditional methods of production (Skuras & Dimara, 2004:801). This could be true for other markets as well. The potential of promoting local cuisine for tourism can only be realised if a full analysis of the suitability of local cuisine is undertaken. This study is therefore undertaken with the view of analysing the potential use of cuisine as a tourism attractor in Botswana. This study was informed mainly by the limited attention awarded to

relationships between tourists and their eating or culinary experiences (Moulin, 2000:21), the lack of presentation and development of local food in Botswana (Leechor & Fabricius, 2004:53; Pansiri & Mahachi, 2015?) and the supply-demand approach of analysing local cuisine attractiveness (Jingjing, 2012:100) and destination attractiveness (Formica, 2000:147). The study also aims to discuss and identify factors that influence tourists' propensity to consume local cuisine in Botswana, that when taken into consideration, could also be used to positively influence tourists' consumption experiences. The main goal of undertaking this study is therefore to develop a strategic framework for the tourism promotion of local cuisine in Botswana.

This chapter therefore provides an introduction to the study. The problem statement, the research objectives, the research questions, research methods and limitations are outlined. The chapter also provides a background to the study by analysing the importance of developing tourism in Botswana and specifically cuisine tourism.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Issues such as the relationship between tourists and their eating or culinary experiences are areas that have received limited attention in literature (Moulin 2000:21). In addition, Frochot (2003:79) argues that most research does not distinguish between necessary and pleasurable food consumption activities, hence restricting the understanding of the relationship between tourists and their cuisine experiences by most promoters. In the case of Botswana, no research exists on tourists' local cuisine experiences. What exists in literature is the economic significance of food and beverage at national level: that is the proportion of food and beverage expenditure to total tourist expenditure, which stood at approximately 8% in 2010 (Republic of Botswana, n.d). Although this contribution depicts an increasing trend, the significance of cuisine experiences cannot be measured by expenditure alone, but by the function it plays in the tourist's overall tourism experience.

There is also a lack of emphasis on the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana (Pansiri & Mahachi, 2015?) regardless of cuisine being linked to tourists' destination choices and to

differentiating destinations (Henderson, 2009:321; Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009:260). According to Leechor and Fabricius (2004:53), local cuisine has not been well presented nor well developed in the country, for tourism purposes. The Botswana Tourism Organisation also has a limited approach in marketing cuisine based attractions through its official website and travel guides. Of the 41 pages of Botswana's Tourist Guide, *Bajanala* (tourists, Setswana) for 2010, for instance, only three sentences were dedicated to food (Pansiri & Mahachi, 2015?). On the other hand, the different districts in the country with their diversity in ethnicity provide opportunities for regional cuisine resources that could enhance the attractiveness of these areas. There exist few afro-centred restaurants (though not purely) that would also depict mainly national cuisine offerings for tourist markets. This summary of the problem statement therefore suggests that there is limited development and promotion of local cuisine in Botswana. From the summary, a goal and five key research objectives were developed to guide the study. Five key research questions and four subsidiary questions were also developed.

### **1.3 GOAL OF THE STUDY**

This section presents the main goal and objectives of the study.

#### **1.3.1 Goal**

The main goal of the study is to develop a strategic framework for the tourism promotion of local cuisine in Botswana.

#### **1.3.2 Objectives**

Five research objectives were generated:

1. To analyse literature on tourist experiences and how it relates to cuisine.
2. To identify local cuisine that could be promoted for tourism purposes in Botswana.

3. To identify factors predicting tourists' local cuisine consumption behaviour (henceforth referred to as consumption behaviour) in Botswana.
4. To analyse strategic tourism management literature concerning the development and promotion of local cuisine.
5. To draw conclusions and make recommendations concerning the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana.

## **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Five key research questions were also developed for the study:

1. How does existing literature on tourists cuisine experiences relate to tourism?
2. What type of local cuisine can be used for tourism purposes?
3. What factors influence tourists' cuisine consumption behaviour?
4. What literature exists on strategic tourism management for the promotion of local cuisine?
5. What conclusions and recommendations can be put forward for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana?

### **1.4.1 Subsidiary Questions**

A number of subsidiary questions were also addressed:

1. What characteristics distinguish cuisine tourists from other tourists in Gaborone?
2. What factors influence tourists' cuisine experiences?
3. Do these factors differ amongst different nationals, with different educational levels, with gender or with age?
4. Can these factors be explained by models of social behaviour?

## 1.5 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

The main goal of this study was to develop a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana. This section presents information on how the framework was developed and how various constructs influencing the development of the framework were evaluated.

In order to enhance overall attractiveness of a destination, there is a mix of several attractions that each destination should aim to recognise and promote (Song, Qi, Qi, Wang & Liu, 2010:1). Some of these attractions include the food and beverages. Fields (2002:41) suggests that in order to understand the role of food and beverages (cuisine) in the tourism experience it is necessary to consider food and beverages (cuisine) as a tourism resource. An understanding of local cuisine attractiveness is therefore important in destination attractiveness (Jingjing, 2011:v) and the promotion of cuisine tourism resources (Sparks, Wildman & Bowen, 2002:15).

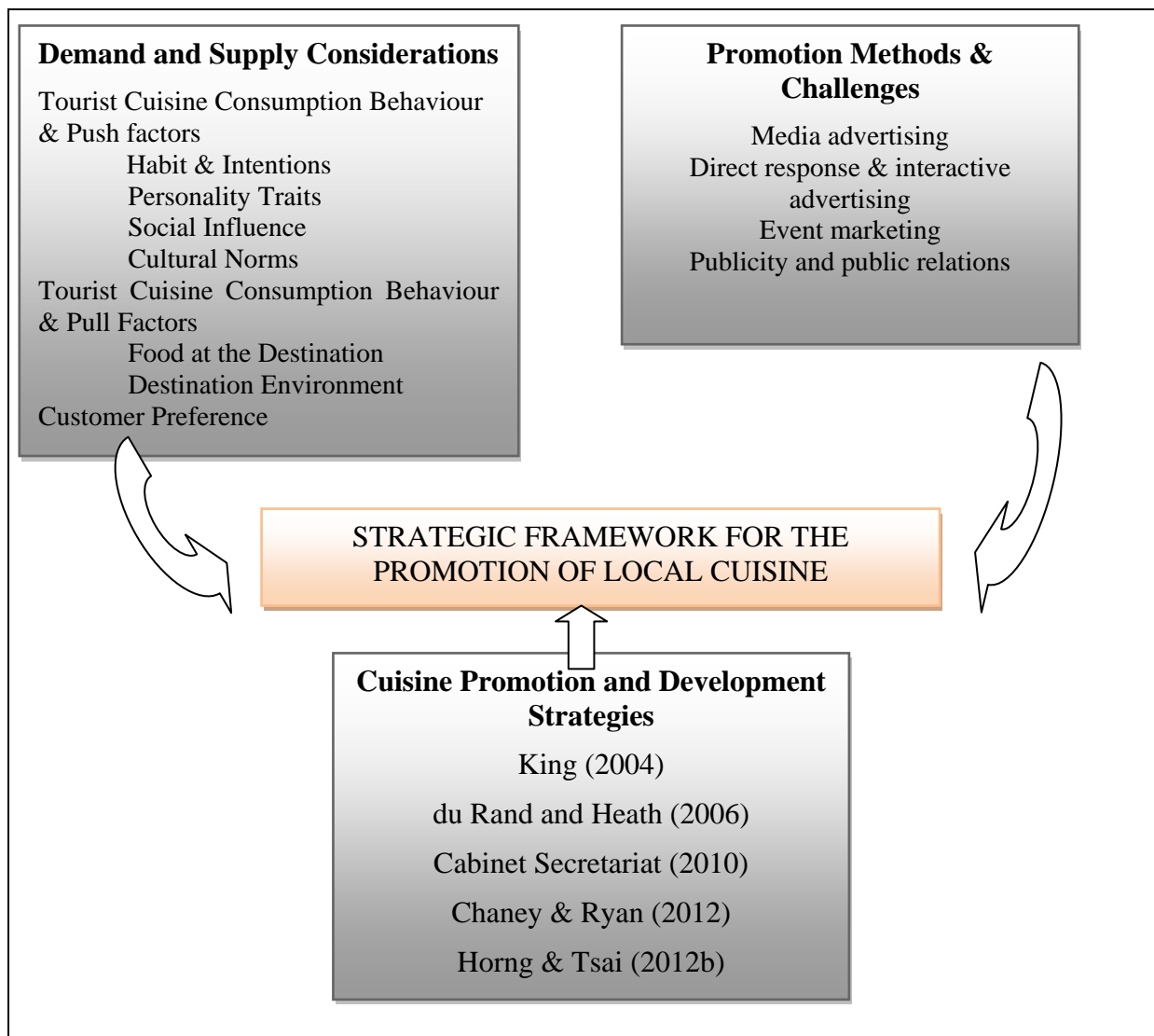
Attractiveness is usually analysed from a supply point of view in cases where a tourism resource, such as food, has not yet been organised nor developed at the destination and only offers basic and simple tourist trades. However, Jingjing (2012:100) argues that an accurate measure of attractiveness is only attainable if the demand side is involved. As such the combination of tourist perceptions (demand) with attributes and supply perspectives (supply) (Formica, 2000:147) was used for analysing cuisine attractiveness in Gaborone.

In analysing the demand and supply perspectives of cuisine attractiveness, the study used the push-pull factors of tourism destinations. Push factors are internal forces that motivate an individual to travel (San Martin & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:266) whilst pull factors are external factors which usually refer to the qualities of destinations that attract tourists (Hamilton, Maddison & Tol, 2005:255). As such the pull-push framework was used to analyse demand and supply perspectives of Setswana cuisine consumption and promotion. Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang (2012:935) support such research on tourists' food consumption behaviour arguing that it helps develop and promote gastronomic products, events and activities.

Having reviewed extant literature on the theories of behaviour such as the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB) and the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour (TIB), the study adopted the use of the TIB in order to identify push and pull factors that predict cuisine consumption behaviour. Understanding consumption behaviour as previously suggested by Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang (2012:935) is important in the promotion of local cuisine. So these theories were analysed from the consumers' point of view through a tourist/diner survey (Survey C).

In addition to analysing tourists/diners' consumption behaviour, this study also reviewed literature on the most common forms of promotion and strategies that have been used to develop local cuisine for tourism purposes. The possibility of using the identified forms of promotion in the case of Gaborone, were also reviewed through use of the tourist survey (Survey C), the Expert Opinion Survey (Survey A), a food and beverage management survey (Survey B) and tourism marketing officials' survey (Survey D) These surveys were discussed in detail in Chapter Three, Four and Five.

The final strategic framework based on demand and supply considerations in the promotion of local cuisine is presented in Chapter Six. However Figure 1.1 illustrates the main concepts that were used in the development of the strategic framework.



**Figure 1.1 Conceptual Structure-Strategic Framework for Promotion of Local Cuisine**

## 1.6 LITERATURE REVIEW

Jefferis (2009:61) acknowledges the contribution of mining on Botswana's economy. Being the world's largest producer of diamonds in value terms (DeBeers, 2009:18), and ranked third in volume terms after the Democratic Republic of Congo and Australia (Newman, 2010:5.1), Botswana is a beacon to reckon with in the diamond mining sector. The country currently holds 22% of the world's diamond reserves (Newman, 2010:5.1). According to the AFDB/OECD/UNDP/UNECA (2012:4), mining and quarrying contributed 34.7% of the country's GDP in 2011. Besides contributing to GDP, Newman (2010:5.4) also notes that the main indirect impacts of the mining sector have come through the provision of infrastructure

and urban development. Jwaneng, Orapa, Letlhakane, and Lerala for instance, are towns that have originated from diamond mining activity (Newman, 2010:5.2).

After mining, tourism has also been recognized as one of the country's largest economic sectors (Republic of Botswana, 2000:22). Economic activity generated by tourist sectors such as hotels, travel agents, airlines, restaurants, leisure and other passenger transportation services (excluding commuter services), directly accounted for 6.6% of the country's Gross Domestic Product [GDP] in 2011 (WTTC, 2011:3). Tourism also remains one of the country's most important paths for achieving its economic diversification goals (AFDB/OECD, 2008:155).

The tourism industry is well known for its wildlife attractions that span most of the Northern parts of the country, especially in Chobe and Kasane. However the emphasis on tourism has been on product and geographical diversification. Product and geographical diversification is likely to make a marked contribution to widening the country's GDP. The diversification of the country's tourism both in geography and in typology will go a long way in reversing the enclave nature of tourism and also open up opportunities for employment of local people in the tourism sector, which has previously been the preserve of foreigners (Mbaiwa, 2005:165). Furthermore it is likely that leakages of income earned from tourism in the country will be reduced as more avenues for local participation are opened up.

Although Botswana's National Tourism Policy contained in the Government Paper No. 2 of 1990 was predominantly focused on the promotion of wildlife attractions, the Botswana Tourism Master Plan adopted in 2000, emphasises the economic and cultural relevance of tourism (Bolaane & Kanduza, 2008:55). As such Botswana has identified song, dance and craft as options of tourism product diversification. However the contribution of these aspects of tourism to the overall tourism product remains minimal (Pansiri & Mahachi, 2015?). The contribution from cultural tourism resources, such as cuisine, for instance should also be identified and promoted.

### **1.6.1 Cuisine and Tourism**

There are many definitions of cuisine (Tapsell, 2007:S108). For instance, cuisine is described as an expression of culinary activity characteristic of a particular community (Cwierka, 2006:12) whilst it is also simply defined as a style or method of cooking (Dictionary.com, n.d.). However the former definition was used in this study. The relationship between food and tourism has for quite some time been neglected in extant literature (Ryu & Jang, 2006:508; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:757). More specifically studies on tourist experiences regarding local cuisine experiences are rare (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). It is only recently that some destinations have embraced the contribution of local cuisine to tourism. For instance local food and beverages have the potential of being used as a differentiation marker (Henderson, 2009:321). Food also plays an important role in marketing destinations because it can be branded nationally, locally or regionally. It enhances local community participation in tourism. It can also extend the length of stay and increase visitor expenditure in destinations (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:236). Sparks *et al.* (2002:iii) also emphasise the key role played by food in deriving destination attractiveness. Destination attractiveness is defined as a pulling force generated by all the attractions of a specific area in a certain period (Kaur cited by Song, *et al.*, 2010:1).

However despite its potentially beneficial status to nations, Frochot (2003:79) purports that amongst all the tourism products, food is a product that is difficult to study because it is provided by a variety of micro-traders who lack coordination towards a national cause in most circumstances. The extent to which food and related activities have been used to market destinations is therefore scarce in research literature, partly because of the late recognition of its potential incorporation as a marketer of destinations in countries such as Turkey (Okumus, Okumus & McKercher, 2007:259). However, because of its varied benefits, food tourism has the potential of raising the attractiveness of some destinations in Botswana and was investigated further in this study.

### **1.6.2 Factors Influencing Tourists' Local Cuisine Consumption Behaviour**

Mak, *et al.* (2012:935) postulate that research on tourists' food consumption behaviour is important in the development and promotion of gastronomic products, events and activities.

This study therefore made use of extant literature on tourist behaviour, general behavioural models and tourism consumption in order to identify factors predicting tourists' local cuisine consumption behaviour. Though food consumption behaviour is complex, involving a number of cultural, social, psychological and physical factors, some theories have been proposed to assist researchers understand tourists' intentions of behaving in particular ways. For instance, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB) and the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour (TIB) have been used extensively in extant literature to understand human behaviour.

The TRA was developed to investigate the relationship between belief, attitude, intention and behaviour (Sarosa, 2009). Though being useful in studying behaviour, the TRA was criticised for neglecting social factors as determinants of individual behaviour (Sarosa, 2009). Ajzen (1991:180) proposed subjective norms (social factors) and behavioural control as additional determinants of behaviour in a new model, the TPB. Perceived behavioural control refers to the perception of how a specific behaviour will be easily performed (Ajzen, 1991:183). Though both the TRA and TPB assume individuals are rational in the actions they make (Sarosa, 2009) the models acknowledge some limitations in predicting behaviour as highlighted by Werner (cited by Sarosa, 2009). Firstly, determinants of behavioural intentions are not limited to attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control as proposed by Ajzen (1991:183). Intentions may also change during the assessment time gap between behavioural intention and actual behaviour and individuals may not always behave as predicted (Werner cited by Sarosa, 2009). However, despite these shortcomings, the TRA and TPB have been applied in tourism settings (e.g Chang, Mak, *et al.*, 2011; Han & Kim, 2010; Kim, Kim & Goh, 2011; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Phetvaroon, 2006; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2010; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Quintal, Lee & Soutar, 2010; Zhang, 2008) to study different behaviours. Studies investigating tourists' experiences of local cuisine (e.g. Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006) and food tourists' behaviour (e.g. Kim, *et al.*, 2011) used the modified TRA and these have been based in developed countries. These studies were mainly investigating tourists' intentions to revisit and their intentions to experience local cuisine and not actual behaviour.

On the other hand, the TIB, also a behavioural model, though having higher predictive power than the TRA and TPB, is considered complex (Robinson, 2010:26), specially because of the inclusion of factors such as habit (Bamberg & Schmidt, 2003:264; Thompson, Higgins &

Howell, 1991:126). The TIB differs from the TPB, because it considers habit and facilitating conditions as intervening between behavioural intention and behaviour. In contrast the TPB emphasises that behaviour is a direct function of intentions. In addition, the TIB considers self-image and interpersonal agreements that are neither considered in the TRA nor in the TPB. Lastly TIB also considers affect as a separate variable whilst the TPB assumes that affect is the sum of the perceived consequences multiplied by the value of these consequences (Triandis, 1977).

Unlike the TRA and TPB, very few studies have employed the TIB in predicting behavioural intentions and behaviour. Kim and Lee (2011) used the model to predict behavioural intentions in hotel employees' knowledge sharing whilst Zhang (2008) also used the model to predict resident-tourist behaviours. In this study, the TIB was used to examine factors influencing tourists' food and beverage experiences thus contributing to the limited use of the TIB, in predicting actual behaviour, in related literature. However, regardless of its complexity, the TIB has been used to gain a broader understanding of what determines behaviour (Robinson, 2010:26). It has been successfully used in information technology adoption and use behaviours (e.g Bergeron, Raymond, Rivard & Gara, 1995; Robinson, 2010; Thompson, *et al.*, 1991) and travel mode decision making (Verplanken, Aarts & Van Knippenberg, 1997).

Having reviewed the theories of behaviour and other extant literature, the study adopted the use of the TIB by Triandis (cited by Egmond & Bruel, 2007:9) in order to identify level three of the model: that which predicts behaviour. A number of factors such as behavioural intentions and habit considered essential in the original model were excluded from the model as they were perceived to be tautological to actual behaviour (Kim & Lee, 2011:7). Thus the modified theoretical model identified nine factors that could mostly predict local cuisine consumption behaviour. The factors were:

1. Gastonomic Image
2. Food neophobia
3. Social others
4. Open culture
5. Dinescape
6. Availability of information on local cuisine

7. Accessibility of information on local cuisine
8. Most important attributes of local cuisine
9. Highly performing attributes of local cuisine

The factors were then tested using stepwise regression analysis for inclusion as predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour conclusions of which are summarised in Chapter Five. The factors were also used in the development of the strategic framework for the tourism promotion of local cuisine in Botswana.

### **1.6.3 Strategy Development and Promotion of Local Cuisine**

Cuisine is part of the local and national culture that tourists consume at a destination and increasingly seek knowledge and experience (Quan & Wang, 2004:299). Studies on tourists' food and beverage experiences and how these could be promoted are however limited in Botswana. When tourists' cuisine experiences are understood and there is information that details the extent of value attached to cuisine experiences at a destination, appropriate marketing promotion tactics could be designed. These could include amongst other forms, web based marketing and paper based marketing approaches.

Web based marketing tactics are especially noteworthy for African countries that rely on developed countries as their source markets for tourism. Botswana is not exempted, because almost a third of all tourist arrivals are from the Americas, Europe and Asia (Republic of Botswana, n. d). Whether it is a national tourism organization's website or a private operator's, a web site helps convey information in the shortest time possible. The inclusion of information such as photographic images of the destination, information about regions and culture and search by keywords and the availability of text or photos changing or moving on the site has also made it more attractive for potential customers to select which places they may visit (Kozak, Bigne & Andreu, 2005:8).

The themes developed in Horng and Tsai's (2010) content analysis of government websites could also be used in other promotional material such as brochures. Lifestyle and travel media, including television networks, such as Food Network are also important in promoting cuisine based tourism. Another promotional effort is the development of food routes,

especially within regions with specialty offerings (du Rand, Heath & Alberts, 2003:216). Food and beverage can also be branded on regional identity. The Food and Wine Route of the Rimini Hills, in Poland for instance, that brings together olive oil producers, wine growers and producers, farms, restaurants, craft workers, public bodies and professional associations, is determined by the Adriatic Sea and by two valleys in the region (Cultural Sites and Tourism Development of European Strategies, n.d).

Although destinations may be willing to develop and promote cuisine in tourism this is not without any challenges. Boyne, Hall and Williams (2003:132), acknowledge the broader challenges associated with developing and marketing food related tourism. One such major challenge is the lack of understanding of the food buying behaviour of tourists (Okumus, *et al.*, 2007:255). However, Okumus *et al.* (2007:255), suggest that tourists' buying behaviour can be influenced into local food consumption through active marketing.

Tourism organisations sometimes also lack funding (du Rand, *et al.*, 2003:107). In other cases governments and private sectors lack wide perceptions of the value of food tourism. In South Africa, for instance, food took long to be recognized as an attraction because stakeholders were unaware of its tourism potential and had insufficient knowledge regarding its promotion (du Rand & Heath, 2006:219). du Rand and Heath (2006:206) further highlight the importance of developing a framework and guidelines that would enable marketers and entrepreneurs to optimise the tourism potential of local foods. du Rand and Heath (2006) developed a framework which is an amalgamation of several frameworks that was tested on the Winelands Region of South Africa. The framework by du Rand and Heath (2006:221) involves a number of steps. Initially, a situational analysis of the current markets and resources available is undertaken as this is an important indication of whether to pursue the promotion of local cuisine or not. If there is tourism potential, then a strategic evaluation of this potential utilising various tools and procedures is undertaken in the next step. Step three entails an identification of marketing and management tasks that could be used to develop and implement in a specific destination.

The model by Horng and Tsai (2012a:797) on the other hand is based on the identification and exploitation of a destination's internal resources and unique capabilities in order to achieve competitive advantage, whilst Chaney and Ryan's model (2012:315) for gastronomic

development proposed a two sided approach in strategy formulation, that incorporates pull and push factors.

The three frameworks form the basis of the strategic framework that was used in this study. The Strategic framework illustrated in Figure 6.1, was based on extant literature and empirical survey. The three frameworks are discussed in detail in Chapter Two.

This study is therefore important in that it allows stakeholders responsible for tourism development, to gain an understanding on tourists' local cuisine experiences, factors that influence these experiences and how such knowledge could assist in identifying, segmenting, developing and promoting the country's local cuisine as a destination attractiveness enhancer.

## **1.7 METHOD OF RESEARCH**

This section discussed a number of techniques that were incorporated to achieve the stated objectives. These include an identification of the study location, clarification of the research design, methods of data collection, sampling and data analysis.

### **1.7.1 The Study Location**

Gaborone was selected as the study location. Gaborone is the capital city of Botswana. The city received national recognition as the capital of Botswana in 1966 (Lekorwe, 1998:70). Its origins lie in the Batlokwa Tribe, whose Chief and leader was named Gaborone (Denbow & Thebe, 2006:15).

Gaborone was selected as the main area of study, because of its varied hotels and restaurants that offer traditional cuisine in the metropolitan area. Gaborone in comparison to Kasane/Chobe also realises higher tourist arrivals for leisure in Botswana (Republic of Botswana, n.d). About 22% of all tourist trips in Botswana were to Gaborone, whilst Kasane/Chobe realised only 17% of all trips in 2010 (Republic of Botswana, n.d). This is partly because of its good road and air connections with other cities in Southern Africa.

Gaborone has also been viewed as the nations' 'focal centre' highly active in investment and trade (Cavric, Mosha, Keiner & Salmeron, 2003:11). The city has also seen transformation in architectural design with the construction of a new central business district and a number of new shopping malls in the metropolitan area.

The city had 3855 residents in 1964 (Lekorwe, 1998:70). By 2004, population pressure resulted in the city's physical expansion and the city has eventually 'swallowed up a significant portion of the land and the cultural and economic makeup of the outlining villages' such as Tlokweng, Mogoditshane and Metsemotlhabe (Maundeni, 2004:23). Gaborone, in terms of spatial discourse is therefore inseparable from its outlining villages. The result is the growth of Greater Gaborone, a conurbation that includes villages within a radius of 50-100 km from Gaborone (Adams, Raditloaneng, Aliber, Stracey, McVey, Kalabamu, White, McAuslan, Kwengwenyane, Sharp & Egner, 2002:28). The City provides these villages with business opportunities, employment, educational and health facilities, roads and fire services. In return the 'adjoining villages provide Gaborone with accommodation for its workers, sand for its construction purposes and firewood' (Maundeni, 2004:23). Today the City is home to an estimated population of 231 592 and covers an estimated area of 169km<sup>2</sup> (Statistics Botswana, 2014:13).

### **1.7.2 Research Design**

The main goal of the study was to develop a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana. In pursuit of this goal, a mixed methods (MMs) research design was employed. A mixed methods design makes use of multiple data collection and analysis techniques. Two types of mixed methods were used. A sequential mixed methods research design and a parallel mixed methods research design. A sequential method makes use of a probability followed by a non-probability type of technique (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:186). In this study the sequential design was used in the form of qual-QUAN (qualitative-QUANTITATIVE) technique where a qualitative analysis preceded the main (hence the use of capital letters) quantitative techniques for data collection.

A parallel mixed methods design on the other hand, allows researchers to triangulate results from separate QUAN (quantitative) analysis with QUAL (qualitative) analysis in order to

complement or corroborate research findings (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:187). Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were used and information was collected in as many ways as possible and from as many sources as possible. This had the advantage of allowing the author to approach the research problem from different angles thus increasing the validity and reliability of the research findings.

### **1.7.3 Research Methods**

This study used both quantitative and qualitative research methods. A qualitative literature study (presented in section 1.6.3.1 below) was used. In addition a quantitative section on the sampling of empirical surveys (section 1.6.3.2) was undertaken with four main groups of respondents; academic and industry experts, domestic and international tourists, food and beverage supervisors, and tourism marketing and promotion officials.

#### **1.7.3.1 Literature Study**

In this study, secondary sources of information, and digital sources of primary data such as e-journal aggregators, online and networked databases to include government papers on tourism development and promotion (e.g. Botswana Tourism Master Plan, Tourism Policy), magazines, brochures, newspapers, Internet sites (local and international) and websites (e.g. [www.botswanaturism.co.bw](http://www.botswanaturism.co.bw); [www.hatab.bw](http://www.hatab.bw)) were analysed in order to assess the relevance of cuisine experiences in tourism. Information was also sought from a number of websites on local cuisine that is normally prepared in Botswana.

#### **1.7.3.2 Sampling**

Four main groups of respondents were approached;

- a) Academic and industry experts,
- b) Domestic and international tourists,
- c) Food and beverage managers and
- d) Tourism marketing and promotion officials.

Sampling techniques for each group are highlighted in the pursuing paragraphs.

### *Expert Opinion Survey*

A list that was used to isolate cuisine that is normally served to tourists was generated from ten websites (Table 1.1); that were considered to be travel related sites and from von Rudloff’s (2007) collection of favourite Botswana cuisine recipes. There was limited print literature that specifically indicated cuisine that could be offered to tourists in Botswana.

**Table 1.1: Websites Used For Extraction of Setswana Cuisine Types**

<b>Title of Article</b>	<b>Website</b>
Cultural Issues-Food of Botswana	<a href="http://www.botswana.co.za/Cultural_Issues-travel/food-of-botswana.html">http://www.botswana.co.za/Cultural_Issues-travel/food-of-botswana.html</a>
Our Africa, Food and Daily Life.	<a href="http://www.our-africa.org/botswana/food-and-daily-life">http://www.our-africa.org/botswana/food-and-daily-life</a>
Best of Botswana Food, Restaurants and Accommodation	<a href="http://www.knowbotswana.com/botswana-food-restaurants-and-accommodation.html">http://www.knowbotswana.com/botswana-food-restaurants-and-accommodation.html</a>
Botswana Culture Guide	<a href="http://www.safaris-in-botswana.com/botswana-culture.html">http://www.safaris-in-botswana.com/botswana-culture.html</a>
Botswana Cuisine	<a href="http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Botswana_cuisine">http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Botswana_cuisine</a>
Food and Selected Dishes	<a href="http://www.botswanaembassy.or.jp/culture/index5.html">http://www.botswanaembassy.or.jp/culture/index5.html</a>
Botswana Food and Drink	<a href="http://www.worldtravelguide.net/botswana/food-and-drink">http://www.worldtravelguide.net/botswana/food-and-drink</a>
Traditional Foods for Healthy Living	<a href="http://www.hfb.org.bw/index.php/mn-hearty-recipes/112-botsfood">http://www.hfb.org.bw/index.php/mn-hearty-recipes/112-botsfood</a> <a href="http://www.hfb.org.bw/index.php/mn-hearty-recipes/112-botsfood">http://www.hfb.org.bw/index.php/mn-hearty-recipes/112-botsfood</a>
Botswana Culture and Society	<a href="http://www.mapsofworld.com/botswana/culture-and-society.html">http://www.mapsofworld.com/botswana/culture-and-society.html</a>
Traditional Cuisines in Botswana	<a href="http://tcuisines.blogspot.com/2012/02/v-behaviorurldefaultvmlo.html">http://tcuisines.blogspot.com/2012/02/v-behaviorurldefaultvmlo.html</a>

Only ten websites were used, as additional websites failed to yield any new information. The list compiled from cuisine identified in the websites and by von Rudloff (2007) was presented to experts in industry and in the academic arena, through use of a semi-structured questionnaire survey.

The final questionnaire had five main sections. The first section requested respondents to state their demographic information. The second section which had a list of selected Setswana cuisine, solicited for experts’ opinions on the extent to which they perceived the local cuisine could be promoted for tourism purposes. The third section asked respondents the

extent to which they associated local cuisine with national identity. Section four addressed the main methods that could be used to promote local cuisine. Lastly section five was mainly used to assess the destination tourism potential and life cycle stage of Gaborone.

The study population for the expert opinion survey was mainly comprised of food and beverage supervisors at hotel and non-hotel restaurants (in this study non-hotel restaurants are defined as restaurants that were independently run and mostly owner managed and/or operated) in Gaborone, some lecturers from the University of Botswana's Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, the Family and Consumer Sciences Department and lecturers from Botho University and Botswana Accountancy College. Experts from Botswana Tourism Organisation and travel agencies were also selected purposively. Purposive sampling is a form of non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is where the probability to include each element of the population cannot be determined (Kothari, 2004:15). A purposive sample 'includes subjects who are selected on the basis of specific characteristics or qualities and eliminates those who fail to meet these criteria' (Tayie, 2005:34). Purposive sampling has the advantage of enabling access to the best available knowledge from sample subjects (Sharma, 1997:124). In all there were 62 experts who participated in the survey. These respondents were selected mainly because they were considered to be informants who had 'richer' knowledge of local cuisine than other hotel managers or other lecturers from other departments, for instance. Respondents in this survey were approached through an internet questionnaire survey, which was considered fast and cheaper as opposed to face to face administration, postal or telephone surveys (Denscombe, 2007:9). However follow up questionnaires to some respondents were self-administered. An expert opinion survey was also adopted for this part of the study because expert opinions are based on experienced observations of what is happening in the industry. Experts have a solid knowledge of the entire portfolio of cuisine that could potentially be used for tourism purposes. A detailed sampling strategy for experts is presented in Chapter Three.

A pilot test on five lecturers in the Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management at the University of Botswana was undertaken in April 2014, before final administration of the questionnaire to other experts between April and May 2014.

### ***The Tourist Survey***

The study also sought to classify cuisine tourists and outline the main factors that influence tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour in Botswana. These objectives were achieved through use of a tourist questionnaire survey.

The author exercised caution in making sure that the population under study was mainly domestic and international tourists through filter questions during the survey. Use of a questionnaire was deemed necessary since respondents would be in large numbers and are most likely to be in many locations (Denscombe, 2007:154). The questionnaire was based on literature reviewed in line with tourists' local cuisine experiences. The questionnaire had seven main sections:

- Travel and demographic profile of diners.
- Interest in local Setswana cuisine.
- Pleasure Scale
- Arousal Section
- Promotion of Local Cuisine
- Local Cuisine Consumption Behaviour
- Factors that Influence Local Cuisine Consumption Behaviour

The tourist questionnaires were first piloted on the 28<sup>th</sup> of June 2014 on a group of eight Senegalese tourists visiting Botswana for two weeks. The final questionnaire was administered between May and July 2014 by the author and a research assistant. Two hundred and forty nine questionnaires were received.

### ***Food and Beverage Supervisors' Survey***

Food and beverage supervisors and management at 13 hotels and 34 non-hotel restaurants in Gaborone were sampled. One key supervisor from each restaurant was approached. These facilities were considered to present a much more common interactive platform between tourists and service providers in Botswana. In the end, 44 supervisors/managers, representing 94% of the initial sampling frame (of 47 respondents) formed part of the survey.

A semi-structured questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire was meant to solicit for information on the extent to which Setswana cuisine is promoted on these establishments' menus and the extent and methods used to inform tourists of these offerings.

Questionnaires were administered by telephone and face to face. In some of the cases, telephone administration was deemed necessary as it tended to be cheaper and faster than face to face administration (Denscombe, 2007:11). Every food and beverage supervisor or manager was the target. In cases where this post was not available, personnel responsible for food and beverage such as restaurant managers or chefs were surveyed.

### ***Tourism marketing and promotion officials' survey***

Semi-structured formal interviews were administered with officials, responsible for marketing tourism in the public and private sectors in August 2014. After considerable effort, three organisations were approached: Botswana Craft Marketing, Botswana Tourism Organisation, Gaborone Sun Hotel, Casino and Conference Centre (a member of the Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana). One key informant from each of these organisations was approached.

The interviews were mainly used for soliciting information on the extent to which local cuisine could be used for tourism promotional purposes, challenges facing the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana and how these could be addressed.

## **1.8 THEMATIC AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Analysis of primary data was mainly through qualitative means and quantitative means, particularly through the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 22. Data analysis began with reporting the number of responses in each survey. Exclusion of cases pairwise was used. This technique excluded the case only if they were missing the data required for the specific analysis (Pallant, 2007:57).

### **1.8.1 Analysis of the Expert Opinion Survey (Survey A)**

The expert opinion survey had both quantitative and qualitative questions. The quantitative questions were analysed through use of descriptive statistics. The main form of qualitative analysis used was thematic analysis where words, or phrases from within sentences were compositely used to create themes which were then discussed. This method was explained further in Chapter Three. Thematic analysis was mainly used for constructing the list of cuisine that was used and for analysing open ended sections of questions in the expert opinion survey.

### **1.8.2 Analysis of the Tourist Survey (Survey C)**

Frequency analysis was used to present and analyse tourists' demographic information, tourist typology and some aspects of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. Factors that predict Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour were analysed for correlation using Pearson's correlation coefficient. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to identify the strength of the relationship between the variables. The correlation co-efficient ranges from 0 (no linear association) to 1 (perfect linear association) (Crawford, 2006:2083).

Factors that predict Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour were further analysed using inferential statistics. The factors were also assessed for predictor influence on Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour using stepwise multiple regression analysis. According to Gujarati (2006:133), regression analysis studies the relationship between one dependent and one or more other independent variables. The dependent variable was consumption behaviour whilst determinants (such as food neophobia) were considered as independent variables.

### **1.8.3 Analysis of Food and Beverage Supervisors' Survey (Survey B) and the Tourism Marketing and Promotion Officials' Survey (Survey D)**

Qualitative and quantitative analyses were used for both surveys. Qualitative analysis was mainly thematic through content analysis. Content analysis is a technique for gathering and analysing the content of text (Neumann cited by Okumus, *et al.*, 2007:255). In addition, quantitative analysis of the survey was mainly through descriptive analysis especially frequencies. A detailed description of the analysis is presented in Chapter Three.

## **1.9 ETHICAL ISSUES**

Ethical issues regarding confidentiality and anonymity were highlighted to respondents before the survey commenced. Anyone who requested for anonymity was granted. It was also made known to the respondent that participation in surveys was voluntary and that respondents were allowed to discontinue participation at any time without any penalties attached.

## **1.10 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

The following concepts that were used extensively in the study are defined as follows:

### **1.10.1 Local Cuisine**

Cuisine is described as an expression of culinary activity characteristic of a particular community (Cwierka, 2006:12). It is expressed through food, beverage, styles of food and beverage preparation and service. However because of a lack of differentiated cuisine in most African states (Goody, 1982:1), local cuisine in this study referred to food and beverage 'that is produced or grown in the local area or local specialty food that has a local identity'

(Enteleca Research & Consultancy Ltd, 2000:11). In the context of Botswana local cuisine was synonymously referred to as Setswana cuisine.

### **1.10.2 Cuisine tourism**

Used interchangeably with gastronomic tourism, food tourism or culinary tourism, the definition for cuisine tourism refers to ‘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) represent a significant motivation or activity’ (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:238). Santich (2004:10) also defined food tourism as ‘tourism or travel, motivated at least in part by an interest in food and drink, eating and drinking’. Cuisine tourism is therefore more than just a dining experience (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:236); it is a myriad of activities related to both the consumption and production of regional cuisine products. This study is more inclined on the consumption experiences (and the purchase of local cuisine in order to consume), as such the latter definition by Santich which is more suited to the consumption of local food and beverages was used.

### **1.10.3 Promotion**

Promotion is an important aspect of marketing. Marketing has traditionally been defined as a social and managerial process by which individuals and organisations obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging value with others (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011). Promotion is one of the components of the traditional marketing mix that involves developing communication channels with customers and other stakeholders, in order to increase awareness and persuade them to make a purchase or act in a certain way (Buhalis, 2000:112). Promotion entails engaging in activities that communicate the merits or benefits of a product or service and persuading customers to buy those (Armstrong & Strong, 2011). These days marketing and hence promotion should be understood in the sense of satisfying customer needs (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011).

### **1.10.4 Strategic Framework**

According to Lessard (2003:2) strategic frameworks assist in ‘assessing the desirability of an industry or business and a firm’s capabilities that give it a competitive advantage’. At industry level a strategic framework is a comprehensive picture of the industry’s strategies (Clearpath, n.d). It is a clarification of how strategies, plans and procedures can be connected to achieve the best desired outcome. It also includes a sequence of activities that help focus on the key efforts that implement the identified strategies and procedures (Clearpath, n.d).

### **1.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study is limited in various aspects:

- This study is limited geographically to Gaborone, though there are other destinations in Botswana such as Kasane/Chobe that also realise high tourist arrival numbers which might have been considered. Gaborone is the capital city of Botswana and is the most likely point of entry for international tourists via the Sir Seretse Khama International Airport.
- By using a case study approach of Gaborone to develop the strategic framework, findings from Gaborone may not necessarily represent other districts or cities in Botswana. As such generalizability and corroboration of findings in this study should be used with caution.
- The study is also limited because of the purposive sampling techniques that were used. This limitation was unavoidable as,
  - By its nature the study sought to survey diners during meal experiences in hotel and non-hotel restaurants.

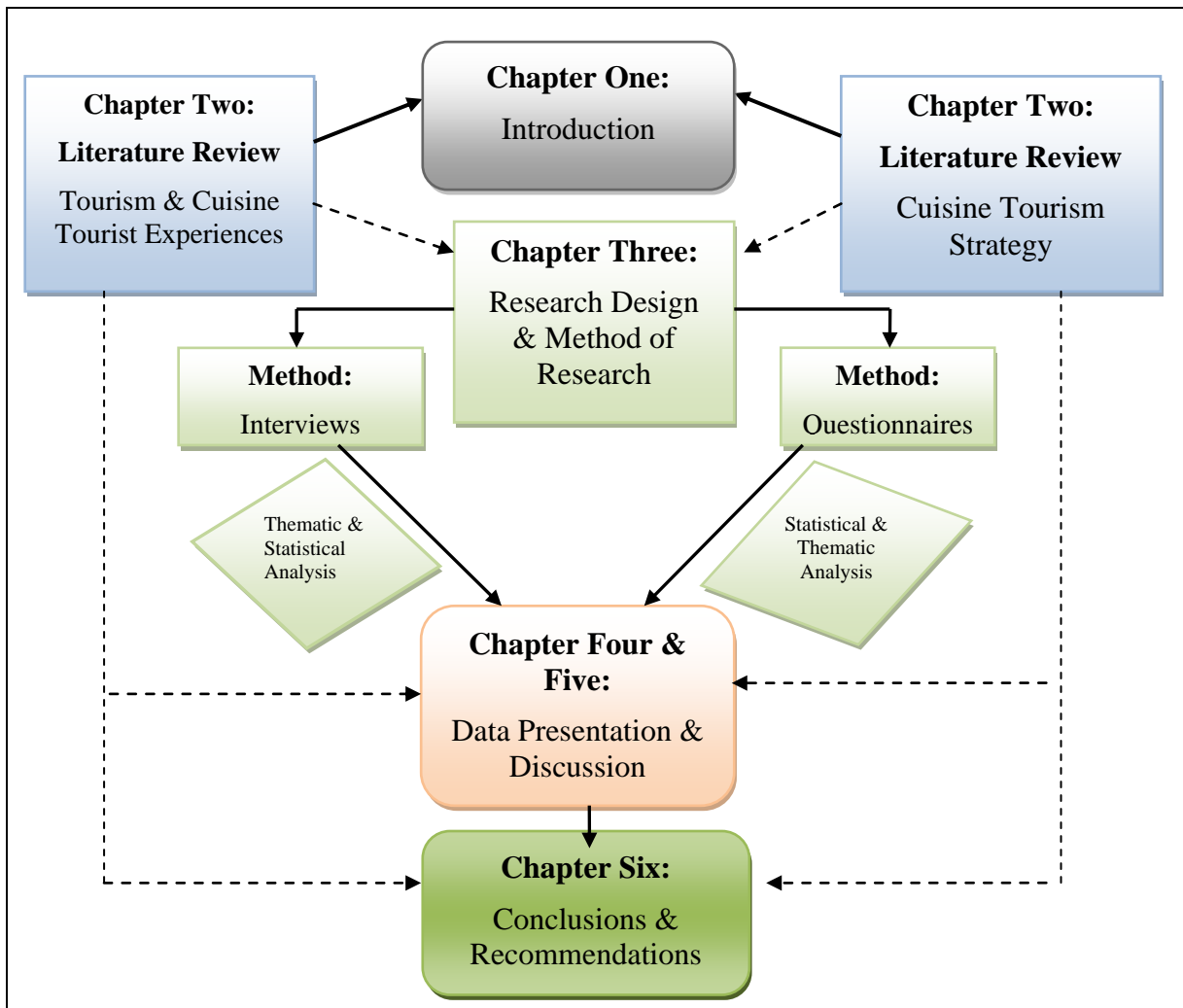
- In some establishments, access to survey management was granted whilst that for diners was denied as it was deemed ‘an intrusion on diners’ quality time’ by some of the Human Resources Managers approached.
- Not all food and beverage managers or supervisors in the original sampling frame acceded to the survey request.

Because of purposive sampling, some of the results from this study should be used with caution and as such may not be generalizable to wider populations (Chen, 2013:169).

- Behaviour in the original Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour referred to future behaviour that requires a longitudinal survey (Zhang 2008:14). This would mean repeating the observation of the same sample over a longer period of time. The study is therefore limited in this aspect because it considered actual behaviour and not future research.
- It is also imperative to note that though this study highlighted the importance of aligning strategies to the stage of Gaborone in its destination life cycle, it is still important to exercise such with caution, as the life cycle model has received some criticism in literature. In addition, the strategic framework presented was for the involvement stage, meaning there is need for a new framework as Gaborone reaches the development, consolidation or decline phases of its life as a tourism destination.

## **1.12 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS**

The study has six chapters. This Chapter, which is the first, briefly outlines the focus of the study, as it provides an introduction to the study. It also highlights the background to the study by analysing the importance of developing cuisine tourism in Botswana. In addition, the problem statement, the objectives, research methods and limitations were outlined. Figure 1.2 shows the organisation of the study from Chapter One to Chapter Six.



**Figure 1.2: Organisation of Chapters**

Chapter Two reviews extant literature on the importance of tourism to Botswana’s economy, the relationship between food and tourism and the importance of local cuisine in enhancing a destination’s attractiveness. The chapter evaluates the role of tourists’ cuisine experiences as behaviours that could assist in understanding the importance of cuisine tourism in Botswana. It also identifies factors that explain such behaviour by reviewing the Theories of Reasoned Action, Planned Behaviour and Interpersonal Behaviour. The chapter also discusses the significance of marketing and promoting local cuisine and strategies that have been used elsewhere.

Chapter Three discusses the choice of pragmatism as the guiding research philosophy for the study. The main research methods that were used are also presented. The sampling techniques and data collection methods for the questionnaire surveys and the interview survey are presented including the form of analysis that was conducted.

Chapter Four, presents and discusses the results of the expert opinion survey and the food and beverage supervisor survey. Findings on the most typical cuisine types that can be promoted for tourism are presented and discussed as well as promotional methods that can be used.

Chapter Five presents and discusses the results of the tourists' survey and the interviews held with tourism and hospitality marketing officials in Gaborone. Findings on the main characteristics the spell the majority of tourists who frequent restaurant facilities are presented and discussed. The main methods of promotion as perceived by diners and marketing officials are outlined. Findings on typical challenges experienced by marketing officials are also discussed.

Lastly, Chapter Six discusses the study by summarizing the main findings, emphasising on the main contribution of this study to extant literature and practice. Finally, the Chapter also offers general recommendations and recommendations for further research.

## **2 CHAPTER TWO: ANALYSIS OF CUISINE TOURISM**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This study focuses on the general literature associated with the promotion of local cuisine for tourism purposes. The chapter begins with a discussion of the background of tourism in Botswana, the economic significance of tourism in terms of foreign exchange earnings, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) generation and employment creation and the importance of tourism in diversifying Botswana's economy that is mainly reliant on diamond mining. The chapter also reviews literature that discusses the importance of product and geographical diversification in tourism strategy, also emphasising the importance of cuisine tourism as a diversification option. An examination of tourist experiences and typology of cuisine tourists is also undertaken. In order to assess tourist behaviour towards the consumption of local cuisine, three models of behaviour are reviewed. Lastly the Chapter reviews literature that assesses the role of destination management organisations in marketing local cuisine. In particular the importance of promoting local cuisine in Botswana is discussed and so are strategies that encourage the development of local cuisine.

### **2.2 BACKGROUND OF TOURISM IN BOTSWANA**

For over four decades now Botswana has mainly relied on diamond mineral revenues for its economic sustenance. In these decades, the country has assumed a mono economic structure (BFTU, 2006:19), that has to the contrary produced distorted development, through limited economic spin-off in terms of employment, a large public sector workforce, and an under developed private sector (Holm, 2007:1), to mention a few. This situation has also provided impediment to the emergence of economic development in other sectors of the economy (Holm, 2007:1).

Diamond mining remains the country's number one export earner and as such the economy is heavily reliant on mineral wealth. Regardless of such a type of development, efforts of diversifying the economy have been at the forefront of the national agenda. The theme of sustainable economic diversification has dominated Botswana's Vision 2016, the country's development roadmap (Republic of Botswana, 2000:25), because mineral wealth is 'clearly not a sufficient condition for successful economic development. Nor is it even a necessary one' (2002:173). As such, Botswana has identified and prioritized tourism, with other economic sectors such as financial, business services, manufacturing and non-diamond mining as options for economic diversification (Jefferis, 2008:10).

Tourism has for long been predominantly considered a catalyst for the socio economic development of most African countries. Because of these potential benefits, many Third World countries have selected tourism as a strategy for broadening their economic base (Mbaiwa, 2005:167) and of alleviating dependency on mineral based economies (IIED, 2002:173). Botswana is not exempt from the trend. The sector has been identified as one with considerable potential of contributing towards economic diversification efforts (Republic of Botswana, 2000:63). Economic activity directly and indirectly generated by tourist sectors such as hotels, travel agents, airlines, restaurants, leisure and other passenger transportation services (excluding commuter services), accounted for an expected 6.6% of the country's GDP in 2011 (WTTC, 2011:3) and 7.7% of GDP in 2012 (WTTC, 2013b:1). These figures are expected to rise to 8.9% of GDP by 2023 (WTTC, 2013b:3). In addition, tourism generated 31 500 jobs directly in 2012 (4.7% of total employment (WTTC, 2013b:4). This contribution to total employment is expected to increase by 2.6% per annum over the next ten years to 2023 (WTTC, 2013b:4). This increased contribution from travel and tourism is also evident globally. In 2012, travel and tourism's combined direct, indirect and induced impact was US\$ 6.6 trillion, representing 9% of total economy GDP globally (WTTC, 2013a:1). In addition, tourism generated 1 in every 11 jobs, 5% of total economy investment and 5% of world exports (WTTC, 2013a:1). Its contribution to GDP is set to grow by 4.4% on average per year to 2023, also translating to a total contribution of GDP by 10% and accounting for 1 in every 10 jobs (WTTC, 2013a:3).

Although often viewed as a panacea of mono-economic woes and as an option for economic diversification, Henderson (2009:322) stresses that tourism, is extremely competitive, and fierce as described by Christie and Crompton (2001:6). So whilst developing countries

increasingly focus on the development of nature based tourism, this has created competition that requires effective marketing and promotion strategies (Stevens & Jansen, 2002:32). Botswana's competitors are defined as those countries 'that offer a similar tourism product and compete for tourists from the same set of origin markets' (WTTC, 2013b:7). These according to WTTC (2013b:7), 'tend to be, but are not exclusively, geographical neighbours'. Amongst the countries listed by WTTC (2013b:7-10) as Botswana's competitors in line with this criteria, are Egypt, South Africa, Tanzania, Madagascar, Kenya, Senegal, Malawi, Angola and Namibia. These countries offer a similar nature based product with Botswana and some are geographical neighbours to Botswana. However, in terms of percentage growth of total GDP in 2013, Botswana was ranked 3<sup>rd</sup> after Namibia (1<sup>st</sup>) and Angola (2<sup>nd</sup>) (WTTC, 2013b:9). There is also promising long term tourism activity to 2023, in Botswana's total contribution to GDP and employment (WTTC, 2013b:10). In terms of percentage growth per annum, in relation to competitors, the country is ranked 4<sup>th</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> respectively (WTTC, 2013b:10). Such growth indicates and implies continued growth of the significance of travel and tourism to Botswana's economy, amidst the competition.

Competition in tourism is driven by a number of factors including pricing, volume, innovation, technology and entrepreneurial management (Christie & Crompton, 2001:7). Above all, value of the tourism product is a critical element in averting competition as it distinguishes one destination over the other and influences destination choice (Christie & Crompton, 2001:10). The value of Botswana's tourism industry is mainly centred on natural resources and specifically wildlife. This value dates back to the 1960s where a strong link between wildlife and tourism was forged (Borge, Nelson, Leitch & Leistriz, 1990:3). Mendelsohn and El Obeid (2004:120) describe this relationship between tourism, plants and animals as 'close and mutually beneficial'. The Republic of Botswana (2000:18) also acknowledges the variety and uniqueness of Botswana's wildlife amongst other attractors in the country. In support of this, 37.5% of the country's land area is designated as national parks and game reserves (17%), and wildlife management areas, (20%) (Republic of Botswana, 2000:4). In the North, the Okavango Delta prominently stands as Botswana's pristine attraction. The Okavango Delta often referred to as the 'Jewel of the Kalahari' is situated within the Kalahari Basin (BTB, 2008:8). It is an internationally acclaimed wetland, granted official status as a World Heritage Site as of 22 June 2014 (BTO, 2014b), and also recognised as a Ramsar Site under the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (Mendelsohn & El Obeid, 2004: Preface). The Okavango is arguably the finest

wildlife sanctuary in Africa protected and preserved for the benefit of both tourism and the people of Botswana. Wildlife in the Delta receives protection in the form of the Moremi Game Reserve (BTB, 2008:9). Figure 2.1 illustrates the physical location of these wilderness areas, including the Moremi Game Reserve and the study location, Gaborone, discussed further in Chapter Three.

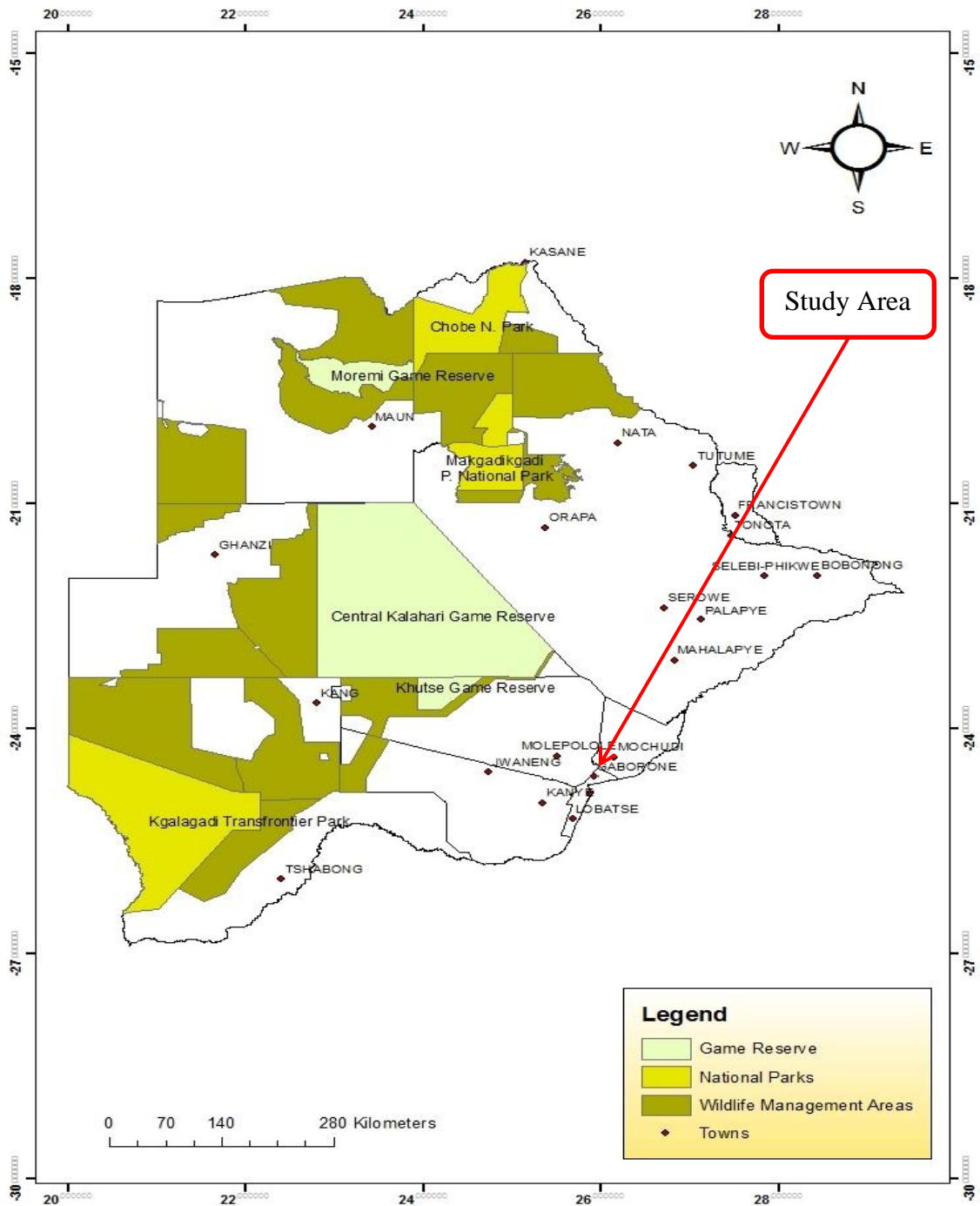


Figure 2.1: Map of Botswana

In the far north, near the border town of Kasane, the Chobe River is a popular tourism centre for game viewing by either boat or car. The Chobe River is the Chobe National Parks' northern border. The Park has four distinct geographical regions: Savute, Ngwezumba Pans, Linyanti and the Chobe River Front (BTB, 2008:12).

Savute is located 180km north of Maun in the western section of Chobe, covers 5000km<sup>2</sup> and is well known for its large population of lion, cheetah and hyena (BTB, 2008:21). The Ngwezumba Pans situated north of the Chobe River, is a group of clay pans useful for animal water supply during the dry season, whilst Linyanti, north of Savute, is also a nature-wooded area with river frontage of the swamps (BTB, 2008:21). The Chobe River front is well known for its large herds of elephants and Cape buffalo. Many natural observing points overlooking the river provide photographic and bird watching opportunities.

The Kgalagadi, the largest continuous area of sand on earth traversing nine African countries (BTB, 2009:7) is well recognised for tourism purposes. Within Botswana, the Kgalagadi is significant for five prominent game reserves: the Central Kalahari Game Reserve, Khutse Game reserve, Makgadikgadi Pans Game Reserve, Nxai Pan National Park and the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (BTB, 2009:7).

Wildlife Management Areas in addition to national parks, as part of the wildlife conservation system, were introduced through the Wildlife Conservation Policy of 1986 (later extended to the Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act No. 28 of 1992 (Keitumetse, 2009:228)). These were to function as 'migratory passageways for wildlife between national parks and game reserves' (Athlopheng & Mulale, 2009:136). These areas were further sub-divided into 163 Controlled Hunting Areas (CHAs) in the northern and western parts of the country by the Department of National Parks and the Division of Land Use Planning (Athlopheng & Mulale, 2009:139). Controlled Hunting Areas are the 'cornerstone' of Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) programmes in Botswana. Communities have increasingly benefited both financially and socially through such programmes. For instance, about 35% of the financial proceeds from wildlife are used by community trusts to cover operational costs and profit (Keitumetse, 2009:229). However in the context of Botswana, the CBRNM, though a noble concept for the conservation of resources, has exclusively concentrated on natural resources (Athlopheng & Mulale, 2009: Keitumetse, 2009:227) negating the importance of cultural resources (Keitumetse, 2011:53). The Botswana Tourism

Board Act of 1992 identified the need to incorporate ‘cultural, heritage, ecotourism, entertainment, recreational and leisure tourism supported by an effective marketing strategy’, in order to diversify the tourism product (Athlopheng & Mulale, 2009:141).

Government is not only committed to the growth of tourism through the development of the tourism product but also through the creation of legislation to govern such development (Athlopheng & Mulale, 2009:135). The establishment of ministerial representative institutions and the enactment of policies are examples. The Departments of Tourism and of Wildlife Management in the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism in Botswana were established to foster the management of natural resources in the country (Kaynak & Marandu, 2006:229). These legislative institutions are important for the coordinated management of tourism resources. Mbaiwa (2005:168) however argues that the institutional framework in Botswana, for the development of tourism is not sturdy as it is not organised to meet the present needs of the industry. For instance, Leechor and Fabricius (2004:7) reiterate that the government has not given the industry the priority and resources it needs to successfully reach its full potential in economic diversification, amongst other priorities.

Insufficient communication and coordination between the government and private sectors with regard to how less and undeveloped areas of the country should be marketed are constraints that have also marred development of the tourism product (Stevens and Jansen, 2002:35). It is only recently that efforts of rationalising the development of tourism in the country have borne accord. For instance, the Botswana Tourism Master Plan of 2000 identified other forms of tourism that could be developed as complementary attractions or as special interest tours (Republic of Botswana, 2000:4,8). The Plan clearly highlights that if tourism is to expand its narrow base, the development and promotion of historic, archaeological and cultural resources such as music, dance, song and cuisine is significant. Moswete, Thapa and Lacey (2009:205) also argue that whilst the safari product, based on wildlife is lucrative, it is not sustainable. They advocate for the development and promotion of non-consumptive natural and cultural forms of tourism.

Cultural tourism entails a number of aspects that denote a society’s way of life. Tourists’ participation and consumption of culinary resources in the form of cuisine tourism is an important aspect of cultural tourism that is receiving wider attention in literature (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:237). Christie and Crompton (2001:11) argue and emphasise the importance of

cultural elements and the local populace as some of the principal elements that create value in a tourist product. Presently, such alternative forms of tourism, especially cuisine, are not well developed nor presented in Botswana (Leechor & Fabricius, 2004:53). In addition the present strategy approach of ‘low volume, high value’ has resulted in the country predominantly relying on a foreign based tourist market that favours high end spending at the neglect of other forms of tourism that could appeal to the other market segments such as the domestic market (Saarinen, 2010:74). As such the Master Plan proposes a ‘modified high volume, high value’ marketing strategy. The proposition is an inclusive broader tourism strategy that does not only encourage the management and development of parks and reserves but other forms of tourism such as special interest travel and urban tourism (Leechor & Fabricius, 2004:85). The proposed strategy in the new policy has likelihood of maximising the product and geographical diversification of tourism (Leechor & Fabricius, 2004:85) and could possibly lead to full acknowledgement of the significance of cultural tourism by products (Saarinen, 2010:74) such as cuisine in Botswana’s tourism attractiveness in Africa.

### **2.2.1 Cuisine Tourism**

National cuisine is complex to define especially in African countries because of a lack of ‘differentiated’ cuisine (Goody, 1982:38). In some cases the use of national cuisine to denote a country’s cuisine is somehow limiting and misleading, because, national cuisine is ‘the result of negotiation between local (social groups and communities that occupy nation state territory) and foreign elements (traders, immigrants and aggressors)’ (Cwiertka, 2006:178). Thus Canada for instance, safely adopts the use of ‘cuisine of Canada’ than ‘Canadian cuisine’ and emphasises the breadth, diversity, quality, value, freshness and presentation of cuisine in its marketing and promotional efforts (MacDonald & Deneault, 2001:16).

Cuisine is an element of the cultural tourism experience (Au & Law, 2002:828; Santich, 2004:15). ‘Within cultural tourism, with its emphasis on ‘participating in’ and ‘relating to’ a culture and environment that is different to the ‘home’ culture and environment’ (Santich, 2004:20), experiencing cuisine forms an important activity for tourists as they emerge in the culture and social context of a host destination. According to Carlton (cited by Mossberg, 2007:60), an **experience** is a ‘constant flow of thoughts and feelings that occur during moments of consciousness’. Perkins and Thorns (2001:187) use the metaphor of tourism

performance to conceptualise the diverse nature of the tourism experience. Because different tourists interact in different activities at different times, each tourist at least participates in a 'performance that comprises aspects of the gaze accompanied by physical, intellectual and cognitive activity and bodily sensation' (Perkins & Thorns, 2001:187). Experiences therefore involve the emotional, social, physical, spiritual and intellectual well-being of an individual (Andersson, 2007:52; Mossberg, 2007:61). They are created within individuals depending on their reaction with internal and external stimuli.

Although tourists' experience studies have dominated academic research since the 1970s, very few studies (e.g Ryu & Jang, 2006:508; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:756-757) have been devoted to linking the significance of a destination's food resources to the development of tourism. The Centre for Applied Research (CAR) (2009:26) acknowledges that the inclusion of heritage and cultural tourism based on traditional villages and foods, for instance, in the overall tourism portfolio, can enrich tourist experiences. Because studies are anecdotal, cuisine tourist experiences have therefore been emphasised with corroboration from general tourist experiences in this study.

The consumption of food and beverages at a destination is an emotional and physical experience expressed through the sensory perceptions of taste and smell since food is incorporated into the body through eating (Gibson, 2007:5). These activities are often viewed from a production or consumption point of view, with the former gaining more prominence in tourism literature (Santich, 2004:21). The consumption of local food and beverages is often embedded in studies of cuisine tourism. **Cuisine tourism** can alternatively be coined as tasting tourism, culinary tourism, gourmet tourism, food tourism or gastronomic tourism (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:237; Okumus, *et al.*, 2007:254; Santich, 2004:10). Because the terms can be used synonymously, the definition by Santich (2004:10) for gastronomic tourism or food tourism has been used in this study to define cuisine tourism. Cuisine tourism therefore refers to 'tourism or travel, motivated at least in part by an interest in food and drink, eating and drinking' (Santich, 2004:10).

Cuisine tourism makes use of a number of resources as attractions. Smith and Xiao (2008:290), provide a framework (Figure 2.2) for the classification of culinary tourism resources. The framework classifies culinary resources into four: facilities, activities, events and organisations.

<b>Facilities</b>	<b>Activities</b>	<b>Events</b>	<b>Organisations</b>
<u>Building/structures</u> Food processing facilities Wineries Breweries Farmers markets Food stores Food related museums Restaurants	<u>Consumption</u> Dining at restaurants Picnics utilising locally grown produce Purchasing retail food and beverages Pick your own operations	<u>Consumer shows</u> Food and wine shows Cooking equipment, kitchen shows Product launches	Restaurant classification or certification systems (Michelin) food./wine classification systems Associations (Cuisine Canada)
<u>Land uses</u> Farms Orchards Vineyards Urban restaurant districts	<u>Touring</u> Wine regions Agricultural regions City food districts	<u>Festivals</u> Food festivals Wine festivals Harvest festivals	
<u>Routes</u> Wine routes Food routes Gourmet trails	<u>Education/Observation</u> Cooking schools Wine tasting/ education Visiting wineries Observing chef competitions Reading food, beverage magazines and books		

**Figure 2.2: Classification of Culinary Tourism Resources**  
(Source: Smith & Xiao, 2008:290)

Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012) indicate that Smith and Xiao's (2008) model offers an integrated approach to defining and understanding culinary tourism as one can learn about, appreciate or consume local culinary resources.

With reference to Figure 2.2, **facilities** are buildings and land uses associated with food production, preparation, distribution, processing and consumption. This category is comprised of buildings that are often physical structures that are open to the public for educational and food consumption purposes (Smith & Xiao, 2008:290). The category also has land uses that can be considered as geographical landscapes which tourists may tour (Sims (2009:333). Land usually used for food based tourism is agricultural land, in the form of farms, orchards or vineyards (Smith & Xiao, 2008:290). In addition to buildings, and land uses, the model also incorporated routes under the facilities category. Tourist routes,

especially wine routes and trails are commonly gaining cognisance in food tourism literature (du Rand & Heath, 2006:216).

Whilst facilities refer to the physical landscape or land uses for tourism purposes, **activities** refer to personal involvement by visitors. These could be mainly through consumption, touring, education or observation (Smith & Xiao, 2008:290). The activity of consuming food at the destination, which is the main aim of the study, and one of the key components of tourist activity according to the model, usually involves dining at restaurants, picnicking using local food and beverages, the purchase of retail food and beverages and 'pick your own' operations.

**Events** as the third category of culinary tourism resources include consumer shows that highlight food and cooking equipment and product launches for instance. The category also includes festivals that can either be based on food, wine or agricultural harvests. Du rand & Heath (2006:213) acknowledged the prominence of festival and event initiatives from destination management organisations in creating competitiveness in culinary tourism.

The last classification of culinary tourism resources as proposed by Smith and Xiao (2008:290) is based on **organisations** that serve the interests of tourists and support the development of the culinary tourism market. For instance, in Europe, the *Guide Rouge*, previously known as the Michelin Guide, established in 1900, is a well-respected institution amongst chefs, restaurateurs, culinary experts, and the dining public (Johnson, Surlemont, Nicod & Revaz, 2005:172). Many of such institutions and organisations that support training, education and expertise in the culinary art discipline are continuously being developed and refined.

As highlighted by Smith and Xiao (2008:290) in Figure 2.2, culinary tourism is broad and encompasses a number of activities and resources that any country has. In summary, the activities of consuming local food and beverages can take place as part of an organised trip or as part of the tourists' private travel arrangements. Thus the context within which local food and beverages are consumed in a way makes it impossible not to integrate some of the other aspects highlighted by Smith and Xiao (2008), other than consumption. Operationally, activities and events for instance are inseparable, as consumption of food can take place at a festival. It is therefore important to understand that an event is a platform within which

tourists can also consume local food and beverages and as such the two may not be necessarily mutually exclusive.

Jingjing (2012:44) also summarised food attractions into six: primary or secondary food producers, food sellers, festivals/special events, museums/exhibits, food trails/routes and locally and regionally produced food products. This classification was based on the fact that food attractions are a broader concept than just food in tourism (Jingjing, 2012:44).

However, in this study, the classification by Smith and Xiao (2008:290) was used, as it provides a much broader classification of cuisine based attractions. In addition the model also identifies the importance of consumption, which is the central tenet of this study, as one of the culinary tourism activities. The consumption of cuisine and hence classification of cuisine tourists has been studied from a number of perspectives. The following section highlights the main approaches used in extant literature.

### **2.2.2 Cuisine Tourists**

Quan and Wang (2004:298), posit that there are two main approaches used to study tourist experiences: **the social science approach** and **the marketing approach**. The marketing/management approach considers tourists as ordinary consumers because of their involvement in a number of 'commercial exchange relationships' (Mossberg, 2007:63). In this regard, according to Mossberg (2007:63), the tourists' **peak** or **supporting** experiences do not necessarily matter as tourists experience or consume something all the time when they travel. Thus the tourist experience in this case falls within the realm of general consumer experience studies (Williams & Soutar, 2000:1416).

The social science approach on the other hand highlights the importance of the peak tourist experience, wherein tourists like to experience something different from their daily life (Mossberg, 2007:63). This peak experience to some extent is the *raison d'être* for cuisine related travel. Other activities in the tourism amalgam such as accommodation, food and transport are often ignored and are not important as they are only an extension of the daily experience (Quan & Wang, 2004:300) and hence may be supporting experiences.

This study used both approaches in analysing the consumption of local food and beverage experiences. This is mainly because of two main reasons. Firstly, the consumption of local food and beverages is of marketing value because of its foundations in consumer theory hence the marketing/management approach. Secondly local food and beverage experiences have often been associated with novelty-seeking, which is the quest for unique experiences, hence the use of the social science approach. This combined approach was also used by Quan and Wang (2004:299) in developing a conceptual framework of tourists' food experiences.

The social science approach and the marketing approaches can be used to understand the typology of cuisine tourists commonly used in extant literature since a number of studies are based on tourists' inclination to seek familiar or unfamiliar cuisine settings. In classifying cuisine tourists, this study was mainly based on McKercher *et al* (2008) model. McKercher *et al.* (2008:141) typology is based on tourists' response to the question: 'I would consider myself to be a culinary tourist, someone who travels to different places to try different foods.' This allows tourists to be classified into five segments over a continuum, from the 'non' culinary tourist to the 'definite' culinary tourist', supporting the notion by Ignatov and Smith (2006:236) that cuisine tourists are not a homogenous market. The 'non' culinary tourist do not in any case travel to a destination to sample its food, as food and beverages do not play any role in their decision making processes (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:235). In McKercher *et al.* (2008:142) the 'non' culinary tourists were found to consist of predominantly first time visitors, were older and were from long haul destinations. The 'definite' culinary tourist on the other end is one who specifically travels to a destination to sample its food and drink. This group, from McKercher *et al.* (2008:142) study, was made up of repeat visitors, who were younger and came from proximate source markets which had culturally similar backgrounds to the host destination. The 'definites', had a higher likelihood of dining in restaurants and eating different kinds of foods.

## 2.3 TOURISM DESTINATIONS

The word **destination** in this study takes Buhalis (2000:98) definition: as ‘a geographical region which is understood by its visitors as a unique entity with a political and legislative framework for tourism marketing and planning’. Botswana as a country can be viewed as a destination, whilst its different regions and districts considered as destinations as well, depending on the context. What makes a destination a unique entity is that it is self-sustaining. It is in actual fact a combination of all the products, services and experiences (Buhalis, 2000:98) synonymously referred to as the **destination amalgam** (Cooper, 1992:61), or the destination mix (Weeks & Adams, 2012:179), that work together to produce memorable tourist experiences.

The destination amalgam is a concept that was coined by Cooper (1992:61) and used to describe the range of services available to the tourist and in tourism. The traditional amalgam had four As; attractions (that include artificial features, natural features, and events), amenities (accommodations, food, beverage, retailing, and other services), ancillary services (related marketing efforts of tourism organizations and others), and access (transportation, car rental, and local transport) (Pan, MacLaurin & Crotts, 2007:39). With time the amalgam was modified. For instance, Buhalis (2000:98) adopted the six As Framework in defining the key components of a tourism destination. As illustrated in Table 2.1, the framework by Buhalis (2000) comprised of attractions, accessibility, amenities, available packages, activities and ancillary services.

**Table 2.1: Six A’s Framework for the Analysis of Tourism Destinations**

<b>Attractions</b> (natural, man-made, artificial, purpose built, heritage, special events)
<b>Accessibility</b> (entire transportation system comprising of routes, terminals and vehicles)
<b>Amenities</b> (accommodation and catering facilities, retailing, other tourist services)
<b>Available packages</b> (pre-arranged packages by intermediaries and principals)
<b>Activities</b> (activities at the destination and what consumers will do during their visit)
<b>Ancillary services</b> (services used by tourists such as banks, telecommunications, post, hospitals, etc.).

(Source: Buhalis, 2000:98).

The traditional destination amalgam differs with Buhalis (2000) model, in two aspects. Firstly, the latter model has tried to incorporate visitor participation. Whilst the traditional model is reliant on the inherent features of a destination for instance, the new approach acknowledged the importance of the tourist and what they 'do' at the destination. Secondly, the traditional model failed to capture the role of a destination in the value chain, especially the role played by intermediaries. However, even with such criticism, the traditional destination amalgam is a concept that has widely been used to study components of destinations and other destination related issues such as destination attractiveness and marketing as shall be used in this study.

The Egyptian Tourism Authority (2012:30) acknowledges that the fact that 'locally produced food is a fundamental component of a destination's attribute'. Food can be an attraction on its own. In fact as posited by Vengesayi (2003:638), the 'more a destination is able to meet the needs of the tourists, the more it is perceived to be attractive and the more the destination is likely to be chosen'. As such the ability of a destination to draw visitors depends on its attractiveness. Destination attractiveness is defined as a pulling force generated by all the attractions of a specific area in a certain period (Kaur cited by Song, *et al.*, 2010:1). In another way, attractiveness reflects the feelings and opinions of visitors on a destination's perceived ability to satisfy their needs (Vengesayi, 2003:638). Other authors, (e.g. Gartner, 1996:351) have referred to attractiveness, as the pull factors of tourism supply. In a way, these factors would lure visitors to one destination and not to the other, thus making a destination achieve competitive advantage in the process. So within the concept of destination attractiveness, there is a mix of several attractions that each destination should aim to recognise and promote, in order to enhance overall attractiveness and meet the needs of the tourism market or of a tourist attraction group (Song, *et al.*, 2010:1). This discussion raises two important aspects for this study. Firstly, because local food and beverages are an attraction, they can be incorporated as one of the destination's prominent attractiveness attributes. Secondly, as suggested by Sparks, *et al.* (2002:15), the marketing of an area's food and beverages can enhance a destination's overall attractiveness. This has several implications for Botswana and in particular Gaborone as a destination. Gaborone needs to identify its local food and beverage attractiveness potential first, and then can use this potential to enhance the attractiveness of the city as a destination. There is however limited emphasis in extant literature of the importance of studying the attractiveness of local cuisine.

Very few studies (e.g Jingjing, 2012), have investigated the attractiveness of local cuisine and its role in the development of tourism elsewhere. Jingjing (2012:v), for instance found out that the contribution of local cuisine to a destination is very important and critical, as tourists' satisfaction with trips made were closely related to local cuisine attractiveness. However, when identified and promoted, the attractiveness of local cuisine could be then used to enhance the attractiveness of Gaborone. The city's attractiveness could then lie *inter alia*, in the value created by its cuisine identity and brand.

The concept of local cuisine attractiveness is often used to evaluate the appeal of local cuisine (Jingjing, 2012:94). In cases where a tourism resource has not yet been organised nor developed at the destination and only offers basic and simple tourist trades, attractiveness is analysed from a supply side. However, arguments arise as to the fact that accurate measures of attractiveness are only attainable if the demand side is involved (Jingjing, 2012:100). In order to measure local cuisine attractiveness, local cuisine attributes need to be identified and then evaluated by tourists, thus studying attractiveness from a demand point of view (Jingjing, 2012:95). The combination of tourist perceptions (demand) with attributes and supply perspectives (supply) is the only effective way of evaluating attractiveness (Formica, 2000:147). This is the approach that was taken in this study. Both demand and supply perspectives were analysed and used in the development of the strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine. In analysing the demand and supply perspectives, the study used the push-pull framework of tourism destinations.

### **2.3.1 The Push-Pull Framework**

The 'Push–Pull' framework has been used by several authors to assess the range of attributes that either motivates the desire to go on vacation and the destination choice (Hamilton, Maddison & Tol, 2005:255; Klenosky, 2002:385). Push factors are internal forces that are psycho-social or psychological in nature that motivate an individual to travel (San Martin & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008:266). Alternatively pull factors are external, destination related and usually refer to the qualities of destinations that attract tourists such as infrastructure or cultural attractions (Hamilton, *et al.*, 2005:255). Although the push factors often precede the

pull factors, they should not be viewed as two separate factors operating independently of each other (Klenosky, 2002:385). With reference to this study and for discussion purposes, push and pull factors affecting local cuisine consumption behaviour are reviewed separately. The push-pull factors in this study have been contextualised using theories of behaviour. Mak *et al.* (2012:935) support such research on tourists' food consumption behaviour arguing that it is appropriate to the hospitality and tourism industry in that it helps develop and promote gastronomic products, events and activities.

### **2.3.1.1 Theories of Behaviour**

Though consumer behaviour is complex, involving cultural, social, psychological and physical factors, a number of theories have been proposed to assist researchers understand tourists' intentions of behaving in particular ways. Of importance to note have been the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB), and the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour (TIB). This chapter discusses these theories in studying local cuisine consumption behaviour of tourists in Botswana. As indicated earlier, Mak *et al.* (2012:935) support such research on tourists' food consumption behaviour arguing that it is appropriate to the hospitality and tourism industry in that it helps develop and promote gastronomic products, events and activities. Such research is also important in developing dining experiences that lead to tourist satisfaction (Mak, *et al.*, 2012:935). As such an understanding of tourists' food and beverage consumption behaviour in Botswana undertaken in this chapter is important if the country is to develop and present its cuisine products for consumption by the tourist. The following sections pursued the three main theories of consumer behaviour in order to isolate the main variables determining consumer behaviour in consuming local cuisine; hence isolate push and pull variables for the strategic framework.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which has its origins in social psychology, has been applied in numerous settings including information technology (Bergeron, *et al.*, 1995), culture and service quality (Liu, Furrer & Sudharshan, 2001) and fast food consumption (Dunn, Mohr, Wilson & Wittert, 2011) to include a few. Quite recently, the two models have been applied in tourism (Chang, Mak, *et al.*, 2011; Han, Hsu & Sheu, 2010; Han & Kim, 2010; Kim, *et al.*, 2011; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Phetvaroon, 2006;

Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2010; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Quintal, *et al.*, 2010; Zhang, 2008) to mention a few.

The TRA was developed to investigate the relationship between belief, attitude, intention and behaviour (Sarosa, 2009). Beliefs, according to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:131), refer to a 'person's subjective probability of a relation between the object of belief and some other object, value, concept or attribute'. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:218), indicate that beliefs lead to attitudes, attitudes lead to intentions and intentions lead to behaviour. A new cycle of new beliefs is only formed by performing some behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975:132).

Though attitude is difficult to define (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975:4), it refers to an individual's perception toward some specific behaviour according to Werner (cited by Sarosa, 2009). It also represents a person's general feeling of favourableness or unfavourableness towards some stimulus object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975:216). These attitudes are determined by a person's salient set of beliefs about the object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975:218). On the other hand, intentions are viewed as a special case of beliefs in which the object is the person himself (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975:218). The TRA identifies attitudes and subjective norms (a person's beliefs about whether significant others think he or she should engage in the behaviour) as two main determinants of intentions (Conner & Armitage, 1998:1431). According to Werner (cited by Sarosa, 2009), the TRA was however criticized for neglecting social factors as determinants of individual behaviour. Mak *et al.* (2012:931) support the importance of social factors (or subjective norms) in influencing tourists' food preferences. In order to account for the shortcomings of the TRA, Ajzen (1991:183) proposed the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) as an alternate model.

To overcome the TRA's weakness Ajzen (1991:183) proposed 'perceived behavioural control' as an additional determinant of behaviour, in the TPB. Thus the inclusion of perceived behavioural control is what differentiates the TPB from the TRA (Ajzen, 1991:183). Perceived behavioural control refers to the perception of how a specific behaviour will be easily performed (Ajzen, 1991:183). According to Ajzen (1991:184) perceived behavioural control and behavioural intentions can directly influence behavioural achievement. Perceived behavioural control might also indirectly influence behaviour (Sarosa, 2009). However when examining the direct influence it is important to note that 'intentions and perceptions of control must be assessed in relation to the particular behaviour

of interest, and the specified context must be the same as that in which the behaviour is to occur' (Ajzen, 1991:185). For instance, Ajzen (1991:185) posits that

*if the behaviour to be predicted is donating money to the Red Cross, then we must assess intentions to donate money to the Red Cross (not intentions to donate money in general nor intentions to help the Red Cross.), as well as perceived control over donating money to the Red cross.*

Though perceived behavioural control is an important determinant of behaviour, it is affected by such factors like having very little knowledge of the behaviour, changes in the available resources to execute the behaviour and the entry of new or unfamiliar elements (Ajzen, 1991:185). Meaning that, every effort should be made possible at holding these factors constant in the assessment and observation of behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:185).

Both the TRA and TPB assume individuals are rational in the actions they make (Egmond & Bruel, 2007:5; Sarosa, 2009) and provide explanations of informational and motivational influences on behaviour (Conner & Armitage, 1998:1430). However the models have some limitations in predicting behaviour as highlighted by Werner (cited by Sarosa, 2009). Firstly, determinants of behavioural intentions are not limited to attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991:204; Edmund & Bruel, 2007:5). Intentions may also change during the assessment time gap between behavioural intention and actual behaviour and individuals may not always behave as predicted and indicated by Werner (cited by Sarosa, 2009). Because of such shortcomings, another model, the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour was proposed.

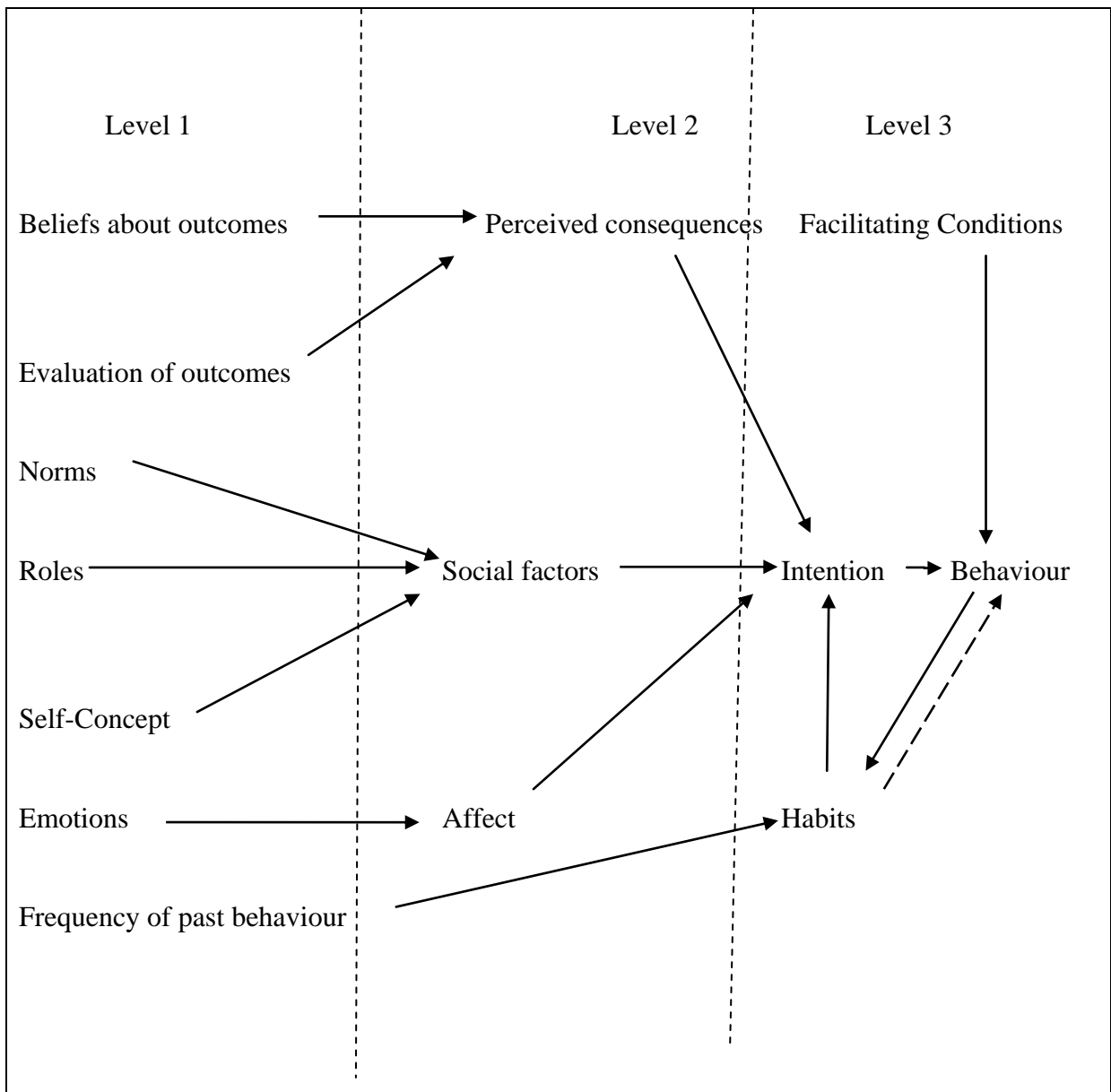
The TIB, as a behavioural model has higher predictive power than the TRA and TPB, especially through inclusion of factors such as habit (Bamberg & Schmidt, 2003:264; Thompson, *et al.*, 1991:126). The TIB's complexity (Robinson, 2010:26) has resulted in its lesser popularity, however, in comparison to the TRA and the TPB. Though quite similar, the TIB and TPB are distinguished by three main differences (Robinson, 2010:13). Firstly, the TIB considers habit and facilitating conditions as intervening between intention and behaviour, whilst the TPB emphasises that behaviour is a direct function of intentions. Secondly, the TIB considers self-image and interpersonal agreements that are neither considered in the TRA nor in the TPB. Lastly TIB considers affect as a separate variable

whilst the TPB assumes that affect is the sum of the perceived consequences multiplied by the value of these consequences (Triandis, 1977).

Very few studies (for instance, Zhang, 2008; Kim & Lee, 2011) have employed TIB in predicting behavioural intentions and behaviour in hotel employees, respectively. In addition, studies investigating tourists' experiences of local cuisine (e.g. Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006) and food tourists' behaviour (e.g. Kim, *et al.*, 2011) only used modified versions of the TRA and these have been based in developed countries. These studies were mainly investigating tourists' intentions to revisit and their intentions to experience local cuisine. This study used a modified TIB, instead, to examine factors influencing tourists' food and beverage experiences thus contributing to the limited use of the TIB in predicting actual behaviour, in related literature. Although the TIB is gaining foothold in behavioural studies, because of its higher predictive power over other models, the lack of popularity in use of this model is attributed to its complexity (Robinson, 2010:26).

However, regardless of its complexity, the TIB, developed by Triandis (1977), has been used to gain a broader understanding of what determines behaviour or what factors cause certain behaviours (Robinson, 2010:26). It has been successfully used in information technology adoption and use behaviours (Thompson, *et al.*, 1991; Bergeron, *et al.*, 1995; Robinson, 2010) in travel mode decision making (Verplanken, *et al.*, 1997), resident-tourist behaviours (Zhang, 2008) and in hotel employees' knowledge sharing (Kim & Lee, 2011) to mention a few.

The model identified three levels to any behaviour (Figure 2.3) (Robinson, 2010:15). The model starts with examining the behaviour itself (level 3) working backwards and identifies the determinants of behaviour (level 3) and determinants of behavioural intentions (levels 2 and 1). This study was however much interested in level 3 of the TIB theory (Figure 2.3) that of identifying the main determinants or predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. In the TIB model, Triandis (1977) argues that the probability that certain behaviour will occur is determined by three factors; intention, habits and facilitating conditions as indicated in Figure 2.3.



**Figure 2.3: Triandis' TIB Model**  
 (Source: Egmond & Bruel, 2007:9).

In addition to habit and intentions, the study also assessed tourist personality traits, social influence and cultural norms as some of the push factors. With reference to pull factors, facilitating conditions such as food at the destination and the destination environment were important predictors of tourist behaviour that were considered.

### ***Habit and Intention***

In this study and in relation to the third level of the TIB (Figure 2.3) habit and intentions were considered as push factors. This study considered habit and intention as push factors as they are internal characteristics of the tourists. Habit, in this study referred to the respondents', repeated behaviour associated with experiencing local cuisine. Robinson (2010:19) further reiterates that 'the potential to carry out a particular behaviour is proportional to the behavioural intention which corresponds to that act'. If intentions are high, actual behaviour is also highly potential. As such intentions and habits are related (Robinson, 2010:90). If intentions remain relatively constant over time, they will 'inevitably cause the same behaviour over and over' (Robinson, 2010:20). As the behaviour becomes repeated more frequently, habit increases and becomes a more accurate predictor of behaviour than intention (Robinson, 2010:20).

Although Zhang (2008:59) distinguishes habit and actual behaviour, by using a five year time period for habits, and others (e.g Mak, *et al.*, 2012:929) highlight the significance of exposure and /past experience in enhancing tourists' preferences towards certain food, some (e.g. Kim & Lee, 2011:7) posit that habit and actual behaviour have a tautological relationship. This is mainly because habit in the TIB, is assessed using a measurement of past behaviour or behavioural frequency. As Cheung, Chang and Lai (2000:84) reiterate, in cross sectional studies like this one, measurements of habit and actual behaviour are the same. For these reasons, neither intentions nor habits were considered as predictors of actual behaviour as they were considered to be tautological to actual behaviour as indicated earlier. Non-inclusion of intentions also helps 'simplify the model, prevent retrospective problems and provide more meaningful and accurate results' (Kim & Lee, 2011:7).

### ***Tourist Personality Traits***

Personality traits refer to 'individual characteristics that exert a pervasive influence on a broad range of food-related behaviours' (Mak, *et al.*, 2012:932). Food neophobia, food neophilia, variety seeking and novelty seeking are food-related personality traits that may influence tourists' consumption of food at the destination (Mak, *et al.*, 2012:929; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:759). However some of these factors, such as novelty seeking were also considered as consequences and values arising from interaction with pull factors at the

destination in a study by Klenosky (2002:389). Thus these values may in part be related to the same forces that push tourists to decide to travel (Klenosky, 2002:388,394). Some of these factors would therefore not necessarily be inherent in tourists' interpersonal characteristics but could be the result of other pull and push factors. This study therefore discussed food neophobia and food neophilia as the two main personality traits (Kim, Eves & Scarles, 2013:484) that predict local cuisine consumption behaviour.

Food **neophilia** is a food-related personality trait that is specifically related to food choice (Kim, Suh & Eves, 2010:217). Food neophilia is the tendency to be driven by novel food (Mkono, Markwell & Wilson, 2013:72). Food neophilics seek new food in order to increase sensation and derive pleasure (Kim, *et al.*, 2009:428). The search for novelty was the main determinant of destination revisit intentions, in a study by Jang and Feng (2007). In fact Jang and Feng (2007:582) argue that 'novelty seeking is a central component of travel motivation'.

Food **neophobia** on the other hand is the tendency to dislike unfamiliar foods (Tuorila LaÈhteenmaki, Pohjalainen & Lotti, 2001:29). Pliner and Hobden (1992:105), describe it as 'a reluctance to eat and/or avoidance of new foods'. Product familiarity, which is defined as 'how much people know about the product' as well as 'how much people think they know about the product' (Park & Lessig cited by Hwang & Lin, 2010:173) influences food neophobia. The more familiar a food is to the consumer the less phobic they are. For instance, in their survey Hwang and Lin (2010:183) found out that consumers who had stronger food neophobia were less likely to be familiar with Asian food, whilst those who were more familiar with Asian food were more likely to accept Asian food. Therefore it was posited that:

**H1a<sub>1</sub>:** Food neophobia predicts tourists' local cuisine consumption behaviour

Food neophobia often arises out of individual differences than cultural influence (Tuorila, *et al.*, 2001:37). It is affected by demographic factors such as age and gender (Hwang & Lin, 2010:173), place of residence (Verbeke & Lopez, 2005:823) or educational background (Tuorila, *et al.*, 2001:35). However, despite the importance of demographic differences amongst tourists' food consumption behaviours (Mak, *et al.*, 2012:929), Triandis' (1980) model fails to capture this influence.

In a study by Verbeke and Lopez (2005:837) age was a significant factor in the consumption of Latin American ethnic food by the Belgians (food neophobia was positively correlated with age;  $r = 0.229$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Older people had a higher tendency of restricting their food choice to familiar food than younger respondents. Belgian people of more than 55 years showed the highest food neophobia score as compared to other age groups. Therefore acceptance of Latin American ethnic foods decreased with age (Verbeke & Lopez, 2005:836). Although these findings are similar to Tuorila *et al.* (2001:35) who noted high food neophobia scores among the elderly, with other authors (e.g. McFarlane & Pliner, 1997: 234), neophobia decreased with increases in age. Therefore it was posited that,

**H1b<sub>1</sub>:** Age is positively correlated with tourists' neophobia of Setswana cuisine.

In another study (Edwards, Hartwell & Brown, 2010:305), male international students were found to be slightly more neophobic than women. Tuorila *et al.* (2001:29) also found men to be more neophobic than women. Gender was found to be quite influential in food neophobia, as such:

**H1c<sub>1</sub>:** Male tourists are more neophobic of Setswana cuisine than female tourists.

The tourists' level of education is also an important mediator of food neophobia and an important predictor of cuisine-related behaviour. In a study by Verbeke and Lopez (2005:837), people with higher levels of education had less food prejudices than those with lower education. Even amongst the genders, there were notable differences. Middle aged men who were more educated were less likely to be neophobic than men in other age groups who were less educated (Backstrom, Pirtilla-Backman & Tuorila, 2003:302). Young less educated females and middle aged less educated males were also found to be more neophobic (Backstrom, *et al.*, 2003:302). Food neophobia was also lower in highly educated respondents (Tuorila, *et al.*, 2001:35). Therefore the study posited that,

**H1d<sub>1</sub>:** There is statistically significant difference in food neophobia amongst the various educational levels of tourists.

Overall, food neophobia, with other factors was found to be a significant factor influencing ethnic food consumption for instance in the case of Belgians (Verbeke & Lopez, 2005:836)

and in Asian food (Hwang & Lin, 2010:183). However Triandis' (1980) model fails to capture the importance of demographic factors such as nationality, amongst tourists in influencing tourists' participation in cuisine tourism. For instance, there are marked differences between Western tourists and Asian tourists (Dejbakhsh, Arrowsmith & Jackson, 2011). In Pizam and Sussman's (1995) study, it was also noted that the Japanese, French, and Italians were perceived to avoid local food in the host destination, in contrast to Americans who were perceived to prefer local food. Because of such nationality differences the following hypothesis was designed:

**H1e1:** The sample means for food neophobia for all tourist nationalities are not equal.

Pull factors were also considered as predictors of local cuisine consumption behaviour. Pull factors were considered as environmental related factors that are objective and external. Triandis (1980) referred to these as facilitating conditions. These factors are usually geographic or resource based and they are known to make an 'act easy to do' (Triandis, 1980:25) and hence could favour or constrain the experience of local cuisine. They are important predictors of behaviour and prevail even when intentions are strong and habit is established (Bergeron, *et al.*, 1995:133). If facilitating conditions are strongly negative, then even habits and intentions will have limited influence (Robinson, 2010:26). As such social, cultural factors, attributes of food and beverages at the destination and attributes of the destination were then considered as pull factors and specifically as facilitating conditions as these are objective and externally driven factors. Though isolated for discussion purposes, the succeeding sections highlight how each of these factors has an influence on the eventual behaviour of consuming local cuisine.

### ***Social Influence***

Though social factors are determinants of behavioural intentions, in a modified TIB, some authors (Kim & Lee, 2011:21; Thompson, *et al.*, 1991:126), verified the direct influence of these factors on actual behaviour. Social factors are 'an individual's internalization of the reference groups' subjective culture, and specific interpersonal agreements that the individual has made with others, in specific social situations' (Triandis, 1980:210). Social factors are synonymous with the TRA and TPB's subjective norms (Kim & Lee, 2011:4). Triandis (1980) suggests use of a Likert scale for subjective norms. Therefore, a scale to measure

social factors was designed, where respondents were asked (on a five point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree), whether, people who are important to them (Ryu & Han, 2010:493) such as friends, relatives and peers thought they should experience local cuisine. Therefore the study posited that:

**H2<sub>1</sub>:** ‘Social others’ predict tourists Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

### *Cultural Norms*

There are marked differences in culture across different nationalities. According to Warde (cited by Batra, 2008:4) ‘differences include: forks versus chopsticks; small pieces of meat versus large; tables versus mats; the presence or absence of table knives; the fact that all the food is (or is not) served at the same time’. ‘For westerners, the consumption of certain domesticated pets is a cultural food taboo, while cats and dogs are considered to be a delicacy in other parts of the world’ (Gyimothy & Mykletun, 2009:262). These differences may affect tourists’ acceptability of certain forms of food preparation and service, crucial in some particular types of cuisine. Local eating habits (table manners) could easily affect acceptability of certain foods by tourists (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:763). For instance Cohen and Avieli (2004:763) note that the use of fingers instead of cutlery is unacceptable in some cultures. Such cultural differences could impede the development of cuisine tourism, especially in African countries, whose local cuisine mainly relies on the use of fingers.

Verbeke and Lopez (2005:836) observed that the Belgians were more open to other cultures. The openness of Belgians to other cultures was significantly correlated with the frequency of eating ethnic food ( $r = .232, p < .05$ ) and food neophobia ( $r = .382, p < .01$ ). Culture as Nield, Kozak and LeGrys (2000:383) also confirm, results in different satisfaction perceptions of local food at the destination. Therefore in this study, the TIB has been modified to include such variables. Hence:

**H3<sub>1</sub>:** An open culture predicts tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

### ***Facilitating Conditions: Food at the Destination and the Destination Environment***

Mak *et al.* (2012:929), identified food at the destination and the destination environment as some of the external factors that influenced food consumption in tourism. This section therefore discussed these factors and their influence on the consumption of food and beverages.

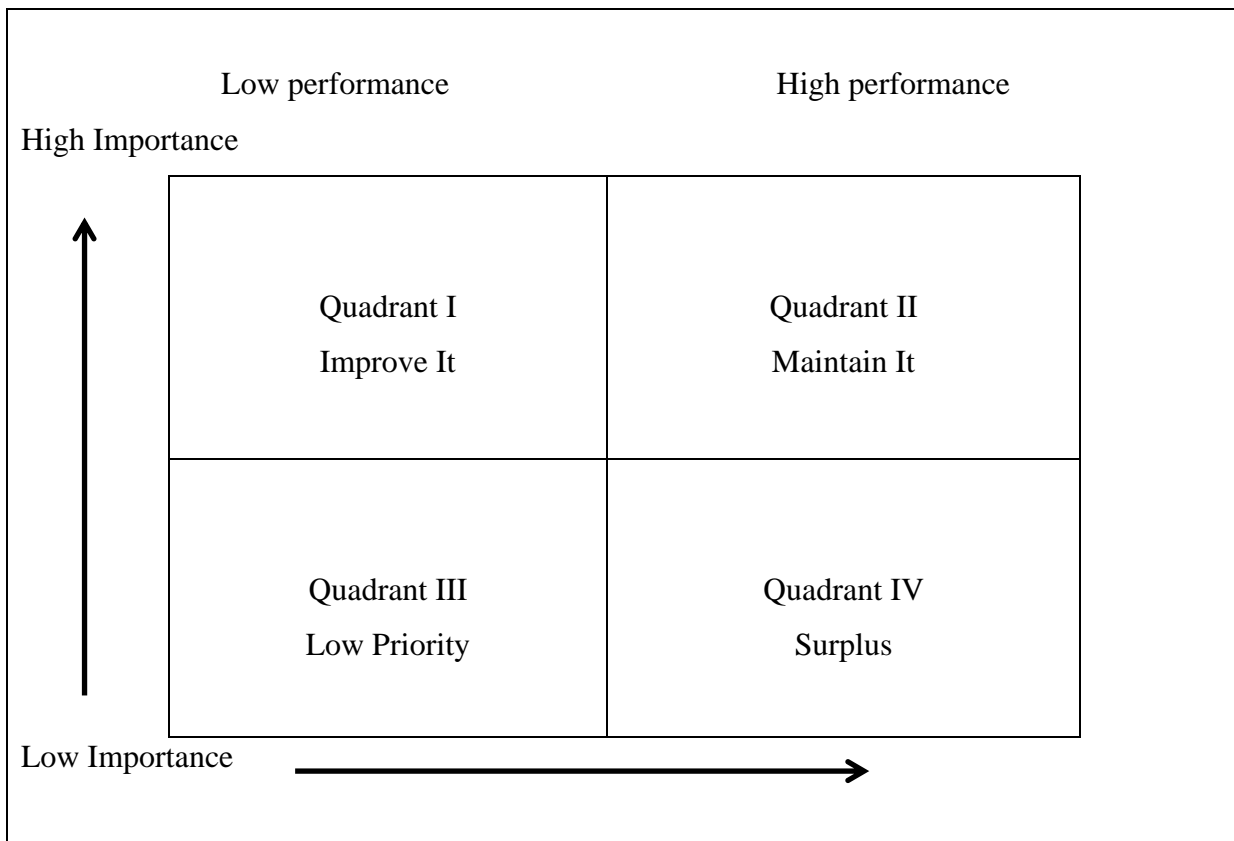
Literature on local cuisine and its different attributes is important in influencing tourist consumption behaviour. Food is a multi-attribute variable (Jingjing, 2012:218). Food attributes refer to the features that differentiate one type of food from other foods (Jang, Ha & Silkes, 2009:64). Food attributes may be physical, social and/or cultural (Jingjing, 2012:41). Through literature review, opinions of faculty members and students and a web based survey, Jang *et al.* (2009:64) identified 20 attributes selected as the most relevant to describing six Asian foods by American respondents. These included features such as spicy, tasty, traditional, aromatic, colourful, inexpensive, exotic, attractive, fresh, edible, looks pleasing, unique, healthy, nutritionally balanced, quality, light, neat, clean, digestible, and has a strong vegetable component (Jang, *et al.*, 2009:64). In a similar study, Jingjing (2012:iii) managed to isolate 36 attributes that described local cuisine. The attributes identified were then refined by use of a pilot survey of 300 Chinese tourists. The findings revealed that attributes of local cuisine are associated with local cuisine attractiveness at a destination.

Verbeke and Lopez (2005:831), also assessed attitudes of Belgian markets to Latin American ethnic food by measuring perception on nine ethnic food attributes: search attributes (price, colour, appeal); experience attributes (taste, spiciness, convenience) and credence attributes (leanness, safety, and healthiness). Respondents' opinions were measured on seven-point semantic differential and Likert scales (p. 828). Aspects of taste, spiciness, colour and appeal were found to be very influential in describing the ethnic food.

The importance and performance of these food and beverage attributes can act to influence the consumption of local food and beverages. Jang *et al.* (2009:64) defined importance as the 'overall evaluation of the significance of an attribute to a product'. They measured importance using a 7 point Likert scale, ranging from one (not important) to seven (very important), for each of the six Asian foods identified in their study amongst American respondents. The importance attached to each attribute varied with the type of cuisine

(Jingjing, 2012:20). This was an important finding that implies that attributes of local cuisine should not be generalised in analysis, but each cuisine type should be promoted with its own unique attributes. This is mainly because ‘some local foods are certainly more attractive than other kinds due to the characteristics of different kinds of food’ (Jingjing, 2012:20), which therefore meant that assumptions regarding a national taste should not be made (Nield, *et al.*, 2000:382).

Performance is regarded as the customer perception of the evaluative level of the attribute as it pertains to a product (Hemmasi *et al.* cited by Jang, *et al.*, 2009:64). Using an interactive matrix between importance and performance known as the Importance Performance Analysis (IPA) grid, Jang *et al.* (2009:65) were able to determine food attributes that had high importance and high performance in Asian cuisine. These fell into quadrant two of the grid as in Figure 2.4.



**Figure 2.4: Importance-Performance Grid**  
 (Source: O’Leary & Deang cited by Jang *et al.* 2009:65).

For each of the six Asian foods investigated by Jang *et al.* (2009:67), the attribute that had the highest importance and performance was tasty, followed by edible, for all the six food items, implying that caterers should maintain the tastiness and edibility of the product.

Despite the existing contentions in literature on which attributes satisfy tourists' consumption experiences or which ones are important, an understanding of the most influential attributes of local food is significant to marketers, especially in the development of strategy (Jang, *et al.*, 2009:69). Attributes selected on the basis of their influence to tourists' purchase decisions can offer a point of differentiation from competitors. Such attributes should definitely have higher performance and importance. It was therefore posited in this study that

**H4a<sub>1</sub>**: Most important food and beverage attributes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**H4b<sub>1</sub>**: Highly performing food and beverage attributes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

In addition, the destination environment as another external factor in local food consumption should be understood by marketers. The destination environment that an individual finds themselves in is also an objective predictor of behaviour. With regards to the destination environment, the gastronomic image/identity, marketing communication, service encounter and the servicescape were some of the factors identified by Mak *et al.* (2012:929) as influencing tourists' food consumption. This study discusses these factors in detail.

Opportunities presented by culinary tourism development at destinations, have given rise to an increased interest in culinary tourism in non-traditional culinary destinations, even those with no clear culinary identity (Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2010:17). Destinations are increasingly seeking ways of developing cuisine in their tourism prospects and creating an identifiable cuisine identity. Gastronomic image or identity is a very complex term. Gastronomic identity represents the character of a destination (Chang, Kivela, *et al.*, 2011:313). It is influenced by such factors as geography, climate, 'religions, history, level of ethnic diversity, innovations, capabilities, traditions, beliefs and values', these in turn having an influence on the availability of agricultural produce and its adaptability (Harrington, 2005: 129-130). Gastronomic identity is continuously evolving, as new cultures and ways of life are introduced in society. Thus like Harrington (2005:144) purports,

*all cuisines and gastronomic traditions are created through a fusion of ingredients and techniques as a result of the marrying of diverse cultures, ethnic influences and history with the restriction of product availability and know-how.*

However on a simpler note, gastronomic image or identity refers to what tourists would expect to find at a destination. Gastronomic identity also refers to what a destination would be associated with. For instance, one participant surveyed by Chang, Kivela *et al.* (2011:313) expected Australian's gastronomic identity to encompass lamb dishes since Australia is a country that has many sheep. As Chang, Kivela *et al.* (2011:313) further suggest the availability of lamb dishes in this case would determine a satisfying dining experience. Even in these expectations, most tourists (especially those neophilic) would expect a variety of dishes within the 'identity' and a variety of meal arrangements associated with the 'identity' in their dining arrangements (Chang, Kivela, *et al.*, 2011:312). In review of the above, it was presented that:

**H5<sub>1</sub>:** Gastronomic image predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

Marketing communications were also expected to predict behaviour. Marketing communications are the tools or means that are used to inform, persuade, incite and remind customers, both directly and indirectly, of a brand that a company sells (Keller, 2001:823). A company's total promotion mix is also called its marketing communications (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011). There are several marketing communication options available for use by marketers. These include media advertising, direct response and interactive advertising, place advertising, point of purchase advertising, trade promotions, consumer promotions, event marketing and sponsorship, publicity and public relations and personal selling (Keller, 2001:820) (Table 2.2) .

**Table 2.2: Alternative Marketing Communication Options**

Type of option	Examples in category
Media advertising	TV, Radio, Newspaper, Magazines
Direct Response and Interactive Advertising	Mail, Telephone, Broadcast media, Print media, Computer-related
Place Advertising	Bulletins, Billboards, Posters, Cinema, Transit
Point-of-Purchase Advertising	Shelf talkers, Aisle markers, Shopping cart ads, In-store radio or TV
Trade Promotions	Trade deals & buying allowances, Point-of-purchase display allowances, Push money, Contests and dealer incentives, Training programmes, Trade shows, Cooperative advertising
Consumer Promotions	Samples, Coupons, Premiums, refunds/rebates, Contests/sweepstakes, Bonus packs, Price-offs
Event Marketing and Sponsorship	Sports, Arts, Entertainment, Fairs and festivals, Cause-related
Publicity and Public Relations	TV, Radio, Newspaper, Magazines
Personal Selling	Mail, Telephone, Broadcast media, Print media, Computer-related

(Source: Keller, 2001:820).

Okumus *et al.* (2007:255), suggest that tourists' buying behaviour could be influenced into local food consumption through active marketing. When tourists' food and beverage experiences are understood and there is information that details the extent of value attached to food and beverage experiences at a destination, appropriate marketing and promotion tactics like those emphasised in table 2.2 could be designed. In essence, tourists' food consumption behaviour is to an extent influenced by messages conveyed in marketing communication options. Thus:

**H6a<sub>1</sub>:** Availability of information on cuisine predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

**H6b<sub>1</sub>:** Accessibility to information on cuisine predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

The servicescape is another destination related factor that was investigated in this study. The servicescape is defined by Hightower (2010:77), as everything that is physically present to the consumer during the service encounter. The servicescape has a strong influence on consumption experiences (Lin & Mattila, 2010:820). The service encounter which is the interaction between employees and customers is also important in the entire service process

(Lin & Mattila, 2010:820). Thus the servicescape (the physical environment) and the service encounter (the service interaction) are important in determining consumption behaviour. However such research that investigates the effect of elements of servicescape on behaviour is anecdotal (Mari & Poggesi, 2013:172).

Ardabili, Rasouli, Daryani, Molaie and Sharegi (2011:829) contend that food is offered at the destination in restaurants, at feasts/festivals or in canned and packaged forms. In addition to the restaurant (which can either be an International Franchised Restaurant or a locally owned restaurant), Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:970) also identified the importance of foodservice establishments at the accommodation facility and street vendors in providing food and beverages to the tourist. The five: restaurants, festivals, canned and packaged forms of food (retail), foodservice establishments at the accommodation facility and street vendors, as service facilities for local food consumption were discussed in this study as the main physical environments that offer interaction between the tourists and service providers. These five present the most common forms of servicescape present to the cuisine tourist.

Botswana has successfully introduced themed festivals, some that act to promote the culture of the local populace. Festivals represent the sole instance where the decision to travel can be taken on the grounds of the gastronomic experience offered (Anon, n.d). The Letlhafula Festival for instance is a well-known food and dance festival that is held once a year in Botswana. This is an event that allows locals and tourists to taste local cuisine amongst other activities. About four years ago, the national tourism office (Botswana Tourism Organisation), introduced the Dithubaruba Cultural Festival, which is also an annual event that showcases Bakwena culture (Mooketsi, 2013). The festival concentrates on dance, cultural performances and the consumption of local food and beverages. The Dithubaruba Festival owes its existence to the Dithubaruba, which is a heritage site amongst the Bakwena Tribe (Mooketsi, 2013). The siting of the festival at such a place, bears with it considerable cultural symbolism.

Development of themed festivals based on export beef processing or indigenous cattle breeds (Tswana breed) for instance are also being pursued. The Lobatse International Beef Festival officially launched in 2013 aims to showcase the local beef industry. The Festival is a platform that should also act to promote Botswana Meat Commission as a ‘major

international player in the beef industry' (Republic of Botswana, 2013). Different sausages, meat cuts and meat dishes were available for sampling during the festival.

However review of related literature suggests misguided dissemination of information on the aims of meat-related festivals. Whilst the Lobatse Beef Festival was mainly meant to publicise the town and encourage business (Republic of Botswana, 2013) for instance, the audience viewed it as an opportunity for them to indulge in meat related activities such as braaiing. Instead, to the audience's disappointment, the beef stalls were for butcheries to sell off their meat and show off beef preservation and preparation techniques (More, 2013). The audience expected the Lobatse Beef Festival to offer more tasting experiences which was not the case. This raises concern as to the objectives of national festivals in their efforts of promoting local food and beverage products. More provision should be made to incorporate as many interactive activities as possible, as by the name itself (Lobatse International Beef Festival), different connotations, on the objectives of such a festival, which include consumption to some extent, arise. Similarly the Ghanzi Beef Festival and the National Braai Festival held in Gaborone received mixed opinions from the audience (More, 2013). This shows to some extent the lack of integration in planning for such events. However, another festival, the National Braai Festival held in Gaborone on the other hand was mainly for entertainment purposes as families came together to enjoy beef braai products (Boikaego, 2013). Activities that involve the consumption of local food and beverages at such events receive great attention. Although one might argue to say that these festivals attract different audiences, as they promote regional differences and identity, a common understanding should still be held. Even with these regional differences, an international beef festival that changes geographical setting from one year to the other could be planned. The event could rotate amongst Botswana's prominent tourism destinations for instance or meat producing towns, depending on the theme. In each of the siting, a number of aims that also include an attraction of meat lovers should be incorporated. Such a festival that incorporates business and leisure is ideal for Botswana given the nature of tourism in the country which is still at its infancy in terms of development. With maturity, specialisation and niche marketing can then be encouraged.

Another form of service scape is in the form of retail canned and packaged forms of food and beverages. Canned food is very common with Taiwanese tourist groups (Ardabili, *et al.*, 2011:830). The canned packs contain typical cuisine found in the area. However due to

higher reliance on imported food (Lane, Hovorka & Legwogoh, 2012:117), it is quite challenging for Botswana to rely on this form of food presentation for tourism purposes. Bélisle (1984:819) also argues that the reliance of food imports for tourist consumption represents a loss of foreign exchange; the same foreign exchange which tourism aims to attract in many destinations. However, in the Caribbean, the following factors were identified as important in the use of imported food by the tourism industry: '(1) the item is not available in sufficient quantity locally; (2) the imported item is cheaper; (3) the imported item is of better quality; (4) the imported item is supplied more regularly; (5) it is more convenient to use the imported item; and (6) tourists prefer the taste of the imported item' (Bélisle, 1984:820) Whether these factors are true or not in the case of most food items consumed by tourists in Botswana, it is still important to emphasise that canned food is gaining prominence amongst tourists (Ardabili, *et al.*, 2011:830), especially those relying on self-catering facilities or long journey trips.

Therefore it seems that the packaged nature of food, especially on journeys has three main forms of symbolism:

- 1) An indication of convenience during travel,
- 2) an interaction between the tourist and the local geography and
- 3) an introduction of the concepts of gaze and glance, in food and food spaces.

Packaged food is usually convenient in nature as one can consume it anytime. The convenient nature of packaged food also facilitates the transportation and mobility of food (Gibson, 2007:12). In one of the cabin compartments, on the train journey studied by Gibson (2007:12), there were bottles of milk and water, a bottle of gherkins and a storage container for cheese which could be easily removed or moved. Local food packaged in different containers, conveys communication about the local place and its geography. On a train journey for instance, the food purchased, tasted and eaten at the station and on the train, which was mostly in packaged form were often the only contact with the places that tourists passed through (Gibson, 2007:12).

In the same study by Gibson (2007:12), neatly packaged food represented food that could be also gazed on at leisure during a train journey. However the word 'glance' than 'gaze' should be used due to the speed of the car or train which according to Larsen (2001:88) 'undermines the possibility of a fixing and penetrative look' associated with gazes. However in summary,

Larsen (2001:95) indicates that while the tourist gaze and travel glance may be two different ways of viewing tourism landscapes, operationally, most tourism experiences include both gazing and glancing. And gazing is just but one component of the tourism experience (Perkins & Thorns, 2001:185).

On the other hand, the street is also considered as a retail servicescape. The street is made up of a number of elements which decisively encourage or may discourage the growth of a town's tourism generation potential. For a long time, streets have provided a corridor for tourist activity in many cities around the world. The street in African society, more so, Southern Africa is characterised by a hive of activity, predominantly trade. In Gaborone, street trade is vibrant and is the major source of employment and income for the local unemployed populace. Street trade, informal and unprecedented has grown to be an important shadow of most African economies, accounting in some cases, even up to 60% of the economy (Local Economic Development Unit, 2004:3). Though not legally acknowledged the informal sector has contributed greatly towards employment creation and income generation.

Street trade or vending and service provision in Southern African cities occurs in different parts of streets and roads (Mitullah, 2003:7). Most traders locate strategic sites on heavy human traffic roads and streets, such as street corners, whilst some find their way onto the central markings of busy streets. Some traders have no specific location and spontaneously trade their wares on any street, often leading to confrontations with local police and municipal officers.

There are also wide variations on the types of goods and services offered on the street for sale. One such service is the provision of local food (fresh or processed) to tourists. Though lacking much emphasis in extant literature (Kikuchi & Ryan, 2007:297) street vending and hawking is a major tourist resource in some destinations especially in Asia (Henderson, Yun, Poon & Biwei, 2012:850). Street hawker centres are increasingly being used as community spaces where visitors are exposed to the local life of residents (Henderson, *et al.*, 2012:851). They also offer opportunity for satisfying needs for novelty (Kikuchi & Ryan, 2007:297). In addition, street food is usually authentic and inexpensive, compared to food offered at formal restaurants and tourist food service facilities (Burusnukul, *et al.*, 2011:973).

Henderson *et al.* (2012:852) carried out a survey of 147 tourists who had eaten at a hawker centre in Singapore. Respondents were asked to review their perceptions on a number of hawker centre aspects. Amongst these, 65% of the tourists agreed that hawker food was unique and was a reflection of Singaporean culture. Seventy five percent of the tourists sampled were also highly satisfied with the comfort level of the physical environment offered at the hawker centres. In general Henderson *et al.* (2012:849) reveal that hawker food plays a significant role as a visitor attraction that can offer insights into the contemporary society and heritage of a destination.

Despite the significance of street food in tourism, there a number of concerns traditionally associated with its consumption. Problems with relation to the nutritional value of certain foods, congestion, litter, criminal action and illegality are some of the most common concerns (Henderson, *et al.*, 2012:850). For instance, Thai food from street vendors was not preferred because of the unfamiliarity with local food products especially amongst the Americans and Australians (most participating tourists) and of sanitation (hygiene) concerns (Buruskunul, Binkley & Sukalakamala, 2011:971). Responses to sanitation also differed by nationality, gender and age. The Americans were much more concerned about sanitation of Thai food than other tourists in the study by Buruskunul *et al.* (2011:977). The study also revealed that women tourists were also more concerned than their male counterparts about sanitation aspects and were less likely to select street vendors for local Thai food consumption. Younger tourists were also least likely to select street vendors for local Thai food consumption (Buruskunul, *et al.*, 2011:977). Despite these concerns, however, street vending in some African continues to be an important aspect of the economy and society.

The preceding discussion highlighted the importance of festivals, retail purchase of food, and street vendors. However, the consumption of food at a restaurant is the most common way through which food at the destination can be presented. As supported by Jingjing (2012:35) and Verbeke and Lopez (2005:830), restaurants are the most possible places where tourists consume local food. In a South African study, for instance, it also emerged that most respondents identified specialty restaurants and eating places as a key component of food based tourism (du Rand, *et al.*, 2006:216). However Ardabili *et al.* (2011:829) argue that because restaurants create the food experience, there is need for converting them into tourist attractions. As Gibson (2007:6) writes:

*However, it is not just what is eaten...that is implicated in various nobilities but also the space in which it is eaten. It is not the English food per se that is disgusting but the English food being served within the moving space of the restaurant car on the train.*

Gibson (2007:6) here emphasises the importance of the intangible and tangible aspects of the restaurant, necessary for generating that appeal in food. Local food may be pleasant to taste but this should be complemented by the space within which it is served. So tourists may not only consume the food but the overall experience generated by the restaurants. As Gibson (2007:11) in a personal interview with Clarke (a London based artist) states, food sold may not be very good but the performance of its presentation is the one worth visiting. As such the tangible and intangible aspects of food service are also important in evaluating tourists' satisfaction with local food.

Nield *et al.* (2000:377) used a five point scale (from poor to excellent), to rate tourists' satisfaction perceptions of eight attributes of food service in Romania. The eight attributes were value for money, food quality, number of dishes, standard of good service, variety of dishes, food presentation, overall meal experience, the speed of service and attractiveness of surroundings. Although tourists were satisfied with all eight attributes, the attribute of value for money received the highest rating. Nield *et al.* (2000:383) also noted that these satisfaction levels varied with different cultural groups. Romanian tourists were least satisfied with food service attributes than Eastern and Western European tourists. This study by Nield *et al.* (2000) highlights the importance of understanding cultural differences existent amongst the main tourist groups in food service experiences.

Buruskunul *et al.* (2011:970) also used 23 statements (on a five point scale) to rate attributes that affect tourists' decisions in selecting different types of food service establishments. The statements were based on the following decisional attributes; familiarity with food product, sanitation, price, location, communication difficulty, psychological comfort (missing food consumed in home country) and experience of authentic Thai food. Tourists surveyed indicated that they would eat at International Franchised Restaurants (IFR), because they were familiar with the food (Buruskunul, *et al.*, 2011:971). Tourists also indicated that they would select locally owned restaurants because of the location and the desire to experience authentic Thai food. Some tourists also stated that they would dine at eating establishments at

their accommodation facilities because of the location. However tourists reported they would not eat food at locally owned restaurants because of sanitation concerns and communication difficulty.

Obonyo, Ayieko and Kambona (2013:4) also used an importance-performance analysis to assess gastro-tourism development in Kenya. They investigated hotel managements' perceptions (on a five point scale) of 13 food service attributes: service skills and knowledge, hygiene and general cleanliness, courteous and friendly staff, music and image portrayed, interior furnishings and decor, groomed service staff, service equipment, menu diversity and menu presentation, hotel facilities and dining atmosphere, speed of service delivery, food service style, food price and value for money, and finally, product serving suggestions. Staff service skills and knowledge, hygiene and general cleanliness and courtesy and friendliness of service staff, were perceived as the three most important food service attributes of gastro-tourism development (Obonyo, *et al.*, 2013:7). The least important were food price and value and guest serving suggestions. The top three performance attributes were courteous and friendly service, hygiene and general cleanliness, and clean and groomed service staff. The least performance attributes were speed of service delivery, service equipment, food price and value for money, product serving suggestions, service style and varied menu/food presentation. After factor loading, three food service factors: food service process, food service output and food service input were identified from the 13 factors. In terms of performance, Obonyo *et al.* (2013:11) conclude that hoteliers should improve on the food service process factor that had variables such as food price and value and speed of service delivery.

In summary the main items used to assess the physical environment or servicescape in analysing consumption behaviour were based on the Dinescape scale items developed by Ryu and Jang (2008a:14). The Dinescape is a specific instrument that refers to the physical environment of dining areas (Ryu & Jang, 2008a:4). Ryu and Jang (2008a:4) further define Dinescape as the man-made physical and human surroundings in the dining area of restaurants. The tool does not deal with the external environment such as the parking space and non-dining internal areas such as the restroom (Ryu & Jang, 2008b:1153). The Dinescape scale as used by Ryu and Jang (2008b:1153) has six dimensions: facility aesthetics, ambience, lighting, table setting, layout and the service staff.

Facility aesthetics are responsible for creating an aesthetic image or atmosphere (Ryu & Jang, 2008a:15). Aspects such as colour, furniture, the wall décor and paintings or pictures were considered as aesthetic features by Ryu and Jang (2008a:15) in their formulation of the Dinescape model. These are mainly visual cues. This study used aspects of the Dinescape scale in order to identify the objective predictors of the servicescape. Layout, considered a separate dimension in the original model, was, in this study captured under facility aesthetics and so were table settings. The layout refers to arrangement of furniture and seating (Ryu & Jang, 2008a:15). Table settings refer to the material that is used to serve customers and could include table ware (Ryu & Jang, 2008a:15), linen and the overall table setting (Ryu & Jang, 2008a:16). This study also includes the menu in the table settings, as it is a very important collaborating tool between the customer and the foodservice facility. The menu is the first point of call when customers need to understand what the establishment offers especially in restaurants. Instead of facility aesthetics, visual cues were categorised as design and layout factors in this study. Aspects considered under design and layouts both have functional and decorative roles in the servicescape.

Stroebele and Castro (2004:821) describe ambience as the ‘atmosphere of the environment’. Ambience is comprised of intangible non-visual cues such as music, temperature and scent (Ryu & Jang, 2008b:1155) or colour, sound, smell and texture (Stroebele & Castro, 2004:821). Stroebele and Castro (2004:821) further argue that these factors can be used to convert behavioural intentions into actual behaviour. Ambience affects the amount and patterns of eating, the food choices and food preferences (Stroebele & Castro, 2004:821). Although Stroebele and Castro (2004:821) found lighting to be a distinct dimension from ambience, Ryu and Jang (2008a:15), considered lighting as a variable that could affect facility aesthetics from a practical point of view. With such a view, this study did not assess lighting and music as single servicescape elements but rather as ambient features.

Liu and Jang (2009:495) also suggest that the ‘static’ dimensions of employees, such as their visibility and appearance, and not their behaviour should also be used when assessing the effect of atmospherics in consumption settings. In this study, the Dinescape model incorporated the service environment for one main reason; according to Mak *et al.* (2012:929), the service encounter and the servicescape influence tourists’ food consumption behaviour.

In the final analysis and in addition to service dimensions, furniture layout and decor, table settings and decor, wall furnishings and décor were all considered under Dinescape as a composite variable that predicts consumption behaviour. As such, it was hypothesized that:

**H7a<sub>1</sub>:** Dinescapes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

Within these servicescapes though, various elements act to influence internal responses that then influence behaviour. It has also been argued that the servicescape does not directly cause customers to behave in certain ways, rather, the perceptions of the servicescape lead to emotional, cognitive and physiological internal responses which in turn influence behaviour (Bitner, 1992:62). Bitner's (1992:62), three-typology framework for internal responses (emotional, cognitive and physiological) has been widely adopted in servicescape studies. Physiological responses such as pain, comfort and movement (Bitner 1992:60) that affect the physiological comfort of individual customers could be associated with consumption studies. According to Bitner (1992:66), ambient conditions that include background characteristics of the environment such as temperature, lighting, noise, music, and scent that generally affect the five senses are often associated with physical responses.

Bitner (1992:63) also indicates that the emotional responses derived from the environment can be assessed by two dimensions: the pleasure-displeasure dichotomy (often associated with affect) and arousal. Affect is described as a direct emotional response to the thought of behaviour (Cheung, *et al.*, 2000:85). It can be expressed through pleasure/ displeasure or joy etc. Pleasure refers to the extent to which individuals feel good, happy, pleased or joyful. Some authors studied the direct effect of affect on Internet/ WWW use (e.g. Cheung, *et al.*, 2000) and knowledge sharing behaviour (e.g Kim & Lee, 2011), respectively. However in both studies, affect had insignificant effect on the behaviours under study.

Arousal is the degree to which customers feel stimulated, excited or active (Ryu & Jang, 2008b:1153). Although a third emotional response exists, the dominance response, this has not been used much in empirical studies hence its ignorance in other studies (Ryu & Jang, 2008b:1153). Dominance is the extent to which an individual feels influential, in control or important (Ryu & Jang, 2008b:1153). This emotional response was also excluded from this study.

Ryu and Jang (2008a:18), validated the relationship between Dinescape scale items and behavioural intentions through the mediating emotional responses of pleasure and arousal. Although their study was mainly on the relationship between Dinescape items and behavioural intentions and not actual behaviour, the correlations revealed were all positive and significant. For instance the correlations indicated that pleasure ( $r = .64$ ) played a more important role than arousal ( $r = .44$ ) in influencing behavioural intentions (Ryu & Jang, 2008a:19). In addition, pleasure was correlated with ambience ( $r = .66$ ), followed by facility aesthetic ( $r = .52$ ), layout ( $r = .52$ ), and service staff ( $r = .52$ ). Arousal was also correlated with ambience ( $r = .56$ ), with employees ( $r = .49$ ), facility aesthetic ( $r = .48$ ), and layout ( $r = .45$ ).

A similar approach was used by Ryu and Jang (2008b:1164) in upscale restaurants in Midwestern and North-western states in the United States to assess customers' perceptions of the effects of Dinescape scale items on pleasure, arousal and behavioural intentions. Amongst their important findings, Ryu and Jang (2008b:1160), found out that pleasure influenced behavioural intention ( $\beta = .46$ ;  $t = 3.54$ ). Their study also assessed the impact of pleasure as mediating between arousal and behavioural intentions. They found out that arousal, through pleasure as a mediator, influenced behavioural intentions.

Therefore from the preceding discussion this study therefore posited the following hypotheses. It was hypothesised that the internal responses of pleasure and arousal would have mediating influence between Dinescape elements and local cuisine consumption behaviour. As such;

**H7b<sub>1</sub>:** The influence of dinescapes on tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is mediated by pleasure.

**H7c<sub>1</sub>:** The influence of dinescapes on tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is mediated by arousal.

**H7d<sub>1</sub>:** Pleasure mediates the influence of arousal on tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

The discussion has highlighted that internal responses are considered to mediate between food servicescape attributes (both physical and social) and the behaviour (Bitner 1992:62).

Both servicescape attributes and the service encounter would create negative or positive responses that would then affect local cuisine consumption behaviour. In summary understanding the push and pull framework is important in understanding factors predicting cuisine consumption behaviour, this behaviour being an important aspect influencing destination and cuisine marketing and strategy.

### **2.3.2 Destination and Cuisine Tourism Marketing**

Marketing is a social and managerial process by ‘which individuals and organisations obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging value with others’ (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011:33). Andersson (2007:52) posits that the value of such an experience is a function of an individual’s need for basic, social and intellectual experiences. Although value in this sense is viewed as an organic whole, for the sake of this study, the different categories of value are distinguished conceptually using Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991) model of consumption value. Sheth *et al.* model, mainly qualitative, was used by Williams and Soutar (2000) and found to be ideal for tourism experiences as they are subjective (Williams & Soutar, 2000:1416). Tourism products are more of intangible experiences than tangible products.

Sheth *et al.* (2000) model known as the consumption value theory or the theory of market choice behaviour is grounded in the multidimensional approach to perceived value, that consists of several interrelated attributes that form a complex phenomenon (Sánchez-Fernandez & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007:431). The theory asserts that the multifaceted nature of consumer choice involves a variety of value forms (Sánchez-Fernandez & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007: 438). The model has five categories of value that influence consumer choice behaviour. These are the functional, social, emotional, epistemic and conditional values. William and Soutar (2000:1416) argue that any or all of these values may influence a consumption experience. The **functional value** is perhaps the most fundamental value derived from tourism experiences. Sheth *et al.* (1991:160) define functional value as ‘the perceived utility acquired from an alternative’s capacity for functional, utilitarian or physical performance’. This value is widely expected by tourists as it is linked to the mere performance of any act.

The physical and physiological value of food and beverages is important in understanding the functional value of cuisine tourism to the tourist.

Perhaps the most important contribution to physiological studies is that of Maslow. Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs is a well-documented and traditional style of analyzing human physiological needs that transverse various disciplines. These needs have often been translated and used to understand motivations underlying human behaviour. As Hudson (1999:7) emphasizes, central to motivation, is the theory of needs. In essence, needs and motivations 'lie behind all behaviour' (Tikkanen, 2007:725). In tourism, Maslow is well acknowledged for his contribution to explaining basic tourist needs. Tikkanen (2007:730), for instance posits that the main motivation for food tourism lies in the physiological needs related to the food itself. In this case food is in itself the attraction (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:758) and should be capable of displaying functional, utilitarian and physical performance.

**Emotional value** is defined as the ability of the product or service to arouse feelings or affective states which could be both negative and positive (Williams & Soutar, 2000: 1418). The **social value** on the other hand is defined as 'the perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more social groups'. Williams and Soutar (2000:1418) however argue that this value might not be as influential in tourism consumption experiences; hence the need for context specific studies such as in the case of cuisine related consumption. The **conditional value** occurs when there are a number of circumstances facing the tourist (Sheth, *et al.*, 1991:162). Conditional value is defined by Sheth *et al.* (1991:192) as 'the perceived utility acquired by an alternative as the result of the specific situation or set of circumstance facing the choice maker...' The conditional value is therefore difficult to analyse as it depends on the specificity of a circumstance (Williams & Soutar, 2000:1417).

Possibly the most relevant value dimension to cuisine tourism is the **epistemic value**, which is defined as the perceived utility acquired when a product arouses curiosity, provides novelty and /or satisfies a desire for knowledge (Sheth *et al.* 1991:192). This value was also identified as the most important dimension in Williams and Soutar (2000:1419) study of a four wheel drive adventure tour in Western Australia. Kim *et al.* (2009:425), identified exciting experience, escape from routine, learning knowledge, authentic experience, and prestige as some of the values derived from tourism experiences. In a study of wildlife meat eaters,

Radder and Grunert (2009:170) also found out that the most important values amongst others were stimulation, achievement, and hedonism. Wildlife meat eaters interviewed by Radder and Grunert (2009:168) perceived wildlife meat to be novel, resulting in them feeling excited and stimulated, thus broadening their culinary experiences. Destination marketers and promoters can therefore provide cuisine based attractions that are based on tourists' expected and perceived value of the experience through different marketing techniques.

A definition of destination marketing is that provided by DMAIF (cited by Wang, 2011:3) as the 'proactive visitor centred approach to the economic and cultural development of a destination that balances and integrates the interests of visitors, service providers and the community'. There are a number of organisations with interest in the development of tourism at the destination. These organisations in some way match the demand with supply. In most cases, these organisations assume three main structures; the destination management organisation (DMO), a government ministry and a private entity (Pike, 2004:14). The DMO or destination marketing and management organisations (DMMO) as is the case in some countries, is responsible for promotion whilst the government unit provides policy guidance and planning. The private entity is usually a private sector umbrella association of industry representatives.

A DMO is defined by Pike (2004:14) as an 'organisation at any level responsible for the marketing of an identifiable destination', hence excluding separate government departments responsible for policy and planning. In most countries, there are four levels of organisations that operate under such auspices; national tourism administrations (NTA), state tourism offices, regional tourism organisation and local tourism offices (Wang, 2011:6).

The first and common level is that of the National Tourism Administration (NTA). The term NTA, first introduced in 1979 by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) refers to 'the authorities in the central state administration or other official organisation in charge of tourism development at the national level' (WTO cited by Wang, 2011:6). An NTA is distinct from a national tourism organisation or national tourism office (NTO) as marketing and promotion are some of its other many functions (Pike, 2004:14). On the other hand an NTO has overall responsibility for marketing and promotion (Wang, 2011: 6). Despite such differences, this study adopts Pike's (2004:14) consistent use of NTO, as an 'entity with overall responsible for marketing a country or a tourism destination, whether purely a DMO

or an NTA'. The traditional role of NTOs as DMOs, has assumed a passive state, where the distribution of printed literature marketing at particular destinations was dominant (So & Morrison, 2004:95). As tourists consume and view regions as tourism experiences (Buhalis, 2000:114) and as part of the experiencescape (Mossberg, 2007:60), respectively, the role of destination marketing organisations become more complex and calls for more coordinated effort.

A state tourism office on the other hand is responsible for marketing a state, a province or a territory as a tourism destination in countries with federal political systems such as the United States of America (Wang, 2011:6). Regional tourism organisations on the other hand are also known by such titles as convention and visitor bureaus (CVBs) or regional tourism boards (Wang, 2011:7). A regional tourism organisation is an entity responsible for marketing tourism in concentrated areas such as cities, towns, villages, resorts, islands and rural areas. Local tourism offices are responsible for marketing smaller geographical areas. They can be represented by local tourism administration such as a local government authority or by a local tourism association which could be a cooperation of local tourism businesses (Wang, 2011:7).

Botswana has a similar approach in its tourism development organisational structure. Three main structures for tourism development are evident; the existence of Botswana Tourism Organisation, the Department of Tourism (a ministerial unit) and the Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana (HATAB), a private sector entity.

The Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO), established by an Act of Parliament in 2004, and renamed from Botswana Tourism Board, has the mandate of marketing and promoting the country as a Premier Tourism Destination of Choice at national level (BTO, 2013b). It is the country's national tourism organisation. The organisation is also responsible for grading and classifying accommodation facilities, and promoting investment in the tourism sector (Republic of Botswana, 2013).

The key objectives of the marketing department of BTO as outlined by BTO (2013c) are to:

- Increase the volume, length of stay, and value of tourism flows.
- Create a greater understanding of Botswana Tourism by the targeted markets.

- Create a greater public awareness and understanding of Botswana tourism locally.
- Give special support to SMMEs in tourism that are not able to represent themselves in the generating markets.
- Develop strongest possible relationships within and between our sellers and the suppliers.
- Package and promote tourism opportunities in a manner that insures consistency in product quality.
- Maximize the position of Botswana as a tourism destination in the minds of customers relative to competitors.

Botswana Tourism Organisation by achieving its key objectives mainly aims at strategically positioning the country's travel and tourism destinations, products, and services in the major generating markets (BTO, 2013c). This also involves taking up the role of diversifying the sector to include other types of tourism such as cultural and heritage tourism (Mokgoabone, 2010). Botswana Tourism Organisation has regional offices in key destinations such as Gaborone, Francistown, Maun and Kasane and in other administrative towns such as Selibe-Phikwe, Kang, Palapye, Ghanzi, Tsabong and Letlhakane. The organisation also has representative offices abroad in Germany, the Unites States of America and the United Kingdom.

On the other hand, HATAB, established in 1982, has voluntary membership of over 40% of all registered tourism and hospitality establishments in Botswana (HATAB, 2013). Though privately funded and organised, the association works closely with the Botswana Tourism Organisation and Department of Tourism. The Department of Tourism is a unit in the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism (MEWT). It is the official public sector representative for tourism in the country. The Department is responsible for the development and implementation of policies and strategies (Department of Tourism, n.d). Through these various structures, Botswana administers and coordinates the development of tourism.

In developing tourism destinations, the destination marketing structures discussed above, usually require use of the marketing mix, which is a set of tools, which are used to raise awareness, inform and persuade customers to consume the experience of different destination offerings. The term also refers to the 'mixture of elements useful in pursuing a certain market response' (van Waterschoot & Van den Bulte, 1992:83). The marketing mix is a concept that

underlies the basics of marketing (van Waterschoot & Van den Bulte, 1992:83). The traditional marketing mix comprised of four Ps; price, product, promotion and place. The 4P classification system for the marketing mix was developed as a way of itemizing the large number of influences on market response that marketers should take into account (van Waterschoot & Van den Bulte, 1992:83). However, opponents of the traditional mix argue that the 20<sup>th</sup> century has radically transformed consumer's needs and their behaviour to such an extent that some of the components are irrelevant (Constantinides, 2006:413). This has led to researchers, especially academics, proposing the adoption of alternative frameworks or modified versions for the mix (Constantinides, 2006:413). This controversy is evident with components of the marketing mix especially in the service sector. Constantinides (2006:420) argues that the human element, a distinguishing element of services marketing, should be highlighted in adopting the marketing mix. Such controversy exists especially from the platform of the consumer as an interactive and more important component of the mix. However despite such controversy on which aspects are important for the marketing mix, this study only considers promotion as one of marketing mix, in more depth.

Promotion as one of the components of the traditional marketing mix involves developing communication channels with customers and other stakeholders, in order to increase awareness and persuade them to make a purchase or act in a certain way (Buhalis, 2000:112). As Mcfarlane and Pliner (1997:237), suggest, providing information about novel foods, is a technique that can reduce food neophobia and it can be applied to large groups of people. Information, especially 'taste' information is quite effective in influencing people to try novel foods (Pelchat & Pliner, 1995:162), because it provides more than a simple hedonic evaluation of the food (Pelchat & Pliner, 1995:163). Understanding consumer food neophobic tendencies and familiarity would help restaurant operators understand customer attitudes important in influencing purchase intentions and behaviour (Hwang & Lin, 2010:183). As Hwang and Lin (2010:183) further suggest, familiarity is important when marketing food thus, marketers should focus on advertising and promotion to increase the familiarity of new cuisines and make them more acceptable.

Although the traditional promotional mix consists of four tools: advertising, sales promotions, public relations and personal selling (Fill, 1999:6), modern communication options include media advertising, direct response and interactive advertising, place advertising, point of purchase advertising, trade promotions, consumer promotions, event

marketing and sponsorship, publicity and public relations and personal selling (Keller, 2001:820). Keller (2001:822) further suggests that any marketing communications programme should integrate one or more of these communications options.

Although promotion has received considerable attention in tourism literature (Buhalis, 2000:98) research on promotion of cuisine is still anecdotal. The interactive nature of customers as previously highlighted is most likely to affect the types of promotion and hence promotional strategies selected for cuisine related travel.

There are various options that can be used to promote cuisine; however the most common means according to Su and Horng (2011:95) are brochures and websites. These two fall under direct response and interactive advertising according to Keller's (2001:821) typology of marketing communications. Advertising was also recognized by Buhalis (2000:105), as a marketing responsive way of promoting destinations that are in their introductory and growth phases of their product life cycle. In a survey by UNWTO of its affiliate member states, those that promoted food tourism made up 68%. These member states used a variety of promotional tools; events (91%), brochures and advertising (82%), websites on food tourism (78 %), tourism guides (61%), blogs (43%), familiarization trips for journalists and tour operators (13%) and social networks (4%) for promoting food tourism (Jordan, 2012:13). The promotion of cuisine tourism inevitably results in the adoption of a marketing approach to tourism development. Adopting a marketing philosophy has a number of challenges (Boyne, *et al.*, 2003:133). The major challenge that exists is the lack of understanding of tourist behaviour in the context of cuisine tourism (Buhalis, 2000:98; Okumus, *et al.*, 2007:255). The different types of cuisine that exist make understanding cuisine tourist behaviour even more complex, making it almost impossible to apply models of cuisine tourist behaviour in differing contexts. As such an understanding of cuisine tourists' behaviour is paramount to the promotion of cuisine. Another major challenge is the varied nature of tourism stakeholders, who have complex relationships and varied interests in tourism development (Buhalis, 2000:98). This is a challenge that does not only affect the promotion of cuisine tourism but nearly all streams of tourism. However even with such challenges a number of promotion tools have been used elsewhere to promote cuisine and these are now discussed. This study is limited to the four promotional activities (web sites, brochures, travel books and media). These are explored in depth as they are the most common promotional tools used in related literature.

Destinations need to capitalise on the use of modern technologies such as the Internet. The internet is a forum for over two billion users (Internet World Statistics, 2001-2014) making it an ideal platform for web based advertising techniques. Web based promotion tactics are especially significant for African countries that rely on developed countries as their source markets for tourism. Botswana is not exempted, because almost a third of all tourist arrivals are from the Americas, Europe and Asia (Republic of Botswana, n. d). Whether it is a national tourism organization's website or a private operator's web site, the internet and World Wide Web (WWW) have potential of being powerful marketing and advertising tools (Cano & Prentice, 1998:69). Karagkouni (2012:53) even indicates that the construction of a state-of-the-art website is the key tool of successfully promoting gastronomy. The inclusion of information such as photographic images of the destination, information about regions and culture and search by keywords and the availability of text or photos changing or moving on the site has also made it more attractive for potential customers to select which places they may visit (Kozak, *et al.*, 2005:9). A website is very essential in any country's marketing efforts because it integrates tourists' main expected experiences (Kozak, *et al.*, 2005:9). It is therefore imperative to distinguish tourists' food and beverage experiences and emphasise these on any website, especially that of the national tourism office because 'it directly influences the perceived gastronomic image of the destination and creates a virtual experience for culinary tourists' (Horng and Tsai, 2010:76). The Internet has been quite influential in travellers' decisions to visit France, Italy and Thailand for cuisine tourism purposes (Karim & Chi, 2010:545).

Although a number of countries have somehow used the WWW or Internet for instance in promoting cuisine tourism, there are several challenges worth noting. A web site may sometimes fail to offer linguistic versions of tourism products on offer in an international tourist's native language (Cano & Prentice, 1998:71). This is one area that has been identified requiring future study by Okumus *et al.* (2007). The other observation is that a destination may have a very good website but this website is uni-directional as it does not allow interaction with clients. Cano and Prentice (1998:72) further suggest that national tourism organisational websites might have to employ personnel who can communicate remotely with customers. With some, the websites are not refreshed occasionally. Technical challenges also exist, for instance, not all users would have access to recently updated versions of the Hyper Text Mark-up Language (HTML) and Java, common computer languages (Hanna & Millar,

1997:469). The challenges as highlighted may therefore restrict the applicability of websites as useful tools for promoting cuisine tourism.

A brochure is the most popular medium used by tourism advertisers (Morgan & Pritchard, 2000:65). Travel books have also been influential in enticing travellers to visit France, Italy and Thailand for cuisine tourism purposes (Karim & Chi, 2010:545). Lifestyle and travel media, including television networks, like Food Network is also important in promoting cuisine based tourism. The themes developed in Horng and Tsai's (2010:77) content analysis of government websites (Table 2.3) give reference to some aspects of cuisine tourism that can be used in other promotional material such as brochures, travel books and websites.

**Table 2.3: Types of Cuisine Based Categories on Websites**

<b>Type of cuisine Based Category</b>	<b>Sample Types of Cuisine Based Category Activities</b>
Food culture	Introduction to food culture; Introduction to traditional food(s); special features of traditional food(s); Introduction to traditional beverages; Guide to the cities offering traditional food(s) and beverages; Origin of local cuisines; Representative foods; Food(s) and beverages for seasonal events and festivals; Introduction to cuisine professionals.
Featured foods and recipes	Introduction to featured foods; Introduction to special spices; Detailed recipes for representative cuisines.
Local cuisines	Introduction to local cuisines; Links to the recipes for local cuisines.
Table manners	Written description of table arrangements; Illustration of table arrangements; Introduction to table manners; Useful "Restaurant" expressions in local languages.
Information for cuisine tourists	Written description of representative cuisines; Photos of representative cuisines; Introduction and recipes for featured snacks and desserts.
Cuisine tourism marketing strategies	Introduction to selected restaurants; Introduction to cuisines in major cities and tourist spots; Links to websites introducing local cuisines; Guide to vegetarian local food; Introduction to special foods and beverages; Recommended gastronomy tours; Introduction to gastronomy tour itinerary; Introduction to cooking schools; Introduction to festivals; Recommended foods for souvenirs; Celebrity recommendations.
Restaurant guide	Search function – by cuisine category; Search function – by area; Search function – by restaurant; Search function – by specific dish.
Restaurant certification	National certification; Guide to certified restaurants; Certification promotion campaign

(Source: Horng and Tsai, 2010:77).

For instance in relation to food culture, brochures, travel books and websites can feature such aspects as the introduction to the food culture of Botswana, origin of local Setswana cuisine

or a guide to key representative foods and beverages. This information presented in forms that a tourist can appreciate, is lacking in print or online media. What could be challenging according to the categories devised by Horng and Tsai (2010) would also be the issue of national certification of restaurants. Although Botswana Tourism Organisation is responsible for the grading of hotels, the Gaborone City Council is responsible for regulating the other non-hotel restaurants. In order to achieve standardised certification procedures, certification of restaurants whether in hotels or not, should be monitored by an autonomous entity, ensuring that standards for food service are similar across the various restaurant facilities, deviating in some aspects in order to achieve competitive advantage.

Although websites, brochures, travel books and the media have been found to be influential in the promotion of cuisine, these aspects should be carried out as part of an overall strategy for the promotion of cuisine.

### **2.3.2.1 Strategy in Cuisine Development and Promotion**

Strategy is the ‘creation of a unique and valuable position, involving a different set of activities’ (Porter, 1996:68). Grant (1991:114) also defined strategy as the ‘match that an organisation makes between its internal resources and skills...and the opportunities and risks created by its external environment’. The concept is based on the premise that there are some resources and activities that allow organisations or firms to achieve their strategic objectives and outperform rivals. In summary strategy involves matching internal and external factors in order to create a unique position for an organisation. In the context of tourism, strategy allows destinations to match their unique resources to opportunities created by the external environment in order to achieve competitive advantage. The ultimate goal of strategy is to achieve competitive difference from rivals.

At industry level a strategic framework is a comprehensive picture of the industry’s strategies (Clearpath, n.d). Grant (1991:115) emphasises the importance of firms in selecting a strategy which best exploits resources and capabilities in relation to external opportunities. The selection of such strategy occurs in a process which first needs to identify the resources and capabilities that could be exploited. As such, strategies are designed in strategic frameworks and give reference to how a firm can achieve a unique position through the exploitation of its

best resources and capabilities. A strategic framework in other words is the structure through which strategies are identified, designed and implemented to achieve specific objectives.

In tourism, Riege and Perry (2000:1291) identified three main approaches to strategy formulation: the customer oriented, competitor-oriented and the trade oriented approaches. Firstly, the customer oriented approach adopts either a differentiated or undifferentiated focus (Riege & Perry, 2000:1292). The undifferentiated approach focuses on the common interests of the target segments, whilst the differentiated one focuses on specific needs of specific markets. Secondly, the competitor oriented approach allows tourism destinations to differentiate themselves in order to gain 'product quality leadership' (Riege & Perry, 2000:1292). This approach, according to Riege and Perry (2000:1292) is most suited to mature destinations that need to segment themselves and create market niches. Market niches may lead to successful destination positioning (Riege & Perry, 2000:1292), in order to regenerate appeal. Lastly, the trade-oriented approach focuses on travel intermediaries and travel distribution (Riege & Perry, 2000:1293). This type of approach would be most suited to destinations that rely to a large extent on a foreign tourist market and on import supply in its tourism value chain.

Although the three strategic approaches define the angle a tourism destination could take, Riege and Perry (2000:1292), argue that these strategic approaches are not mutually exclusive as they can be integrated into the overall strategy. In this vein, it is important to identify which approach is suitable for Gaborone in line with the stage of tourism development. A review of national tourism organisations and the emphasis they have used in developing cuisine could be used as a basis upon which a strategy approach suitable for Gaborone could be identified. Emerging markets and the demand for additional products and services increasingly mean that destination marketing organisations efforts should be versatile and flexible to such an extent that they can engage customers in effectively promoting and providing the experience they are seeking (King, 2002:105). Due to an increase in cuisine experience travel globally (Henderson, 2009:318) there is concern in destinations that have traditionally focused on other natural attractors though possessing vast potential in the provision of cuisine based attractions. Botswana is one of these destinations. It is important that Botswana devises a structure or strategy for the promotion of local cuisine attractors.

Existing structures that have been designed to develop and promote local cuisine are anecdotal in extant literature (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2013:6). However a handful of countries have developed national tourism offices and plans for the development and promotion of cuisine tourism. Taiwan for instance launched the Gourmet Taiwan International Action Programme, which sought to internationalise Taiwanese Cuisine (Lan, Wu & Lee, 2012:609). The government would identify organizations that promote culinary internationalization, promote better restaurant service, and ensure that large food festivals are planned thus, boosting the visibility and image of Taiwanese cuisine (Lan, *et al.*, 2012:610).

Georgia which prides itself as the birthplace of wine making is also an avid destination for wine and food lovers. About 35% of all international travellers visit Georgia for its food and wine (Georgian National Tourism Administration, 2012:33). The Georgian National Tourism Administration promotes the country's gastronomic product through food fairs and events, cookery workshops, wine tasting activities, and brochures amongst others (Georgian National Tourism Administration, 2012:33).

Kazakhstan has also developed the Dastarkhan Tour, which is a gastronomic tour that acquaints tourists to local food and its traditions (Committee on Tourism, 2012:35). The tour involves amongst other activities a visit to best restaurants and wine-distilleries, tasting national Kazakh cuisine and a fishing trip, where tourists also learn how to prepare special fish dishes.

Korea on the other hand is a more mature and well developed destination for cuisine. The country has embarked on developing and promoting its local cuisine since 1999 (Yong-Chan, 2012:36). Korea has successfully incorporated the development and promotion of cuisine in its national policy. The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism has developed a tourism themed product based on Korean cuisine. Guests can participate in aspects of preparing Korean food, including traditional fermented foods such as sun dried sea salt (*kimchi*), red pepper paste (*gochujang*), bean powder paste (*doenjang*), cured and preserved foods (*jutkal*) or soy sauce (*ganjang*) (Yong-Chan, 2012:36). The Korean Ministry's marketing efforts include amongst others, promoting cuisine in overseas Korean Culture Centres and Korean Plazas. The Ministry uses videos that publicize Korean cuisine, distributes publicity materials and organises sponsor events for visitors. The Ministry also sponsors large meetings, such as

the Annual General Meeting of the World Association of Chefs' Societies that encourage the full development of cuisine (Yong-Chan, 2012:36).

In other cases, though a country such as Ireland may have a national food tourism policy; this is the result of a 'bandwagoning' effect. Critics consider the National Food Tourism Implementation Framework of Fáilte Ireland as just a fashionable approach of raising awareness on food tourism (O'Brien & Browne, 2012:3). More like 'just following what others have done' and 'following the fashion' approaches. This then means that Irish tourism organisations might not take this action seriously (O'Brien & Browne, 2012:3). Therefore countries contemplating on developing cuisine for tourism promotion purposes should evaluate the strategic approach to pursue and the extent to which emphasis should be placed on marketing cuisine based attractions in their overall marketing strategies (Horng & Tsai, 2010). From the analysis of national tourism organisation plans in previous paragraphs, the customer oriented approach of strategy formulation emerges as the dominant type of strategy that can be adopted by Botswana. This could be mainly attributed to the marketing nature of all promotional strategies. However it is also important to incorporate both competitor and trade-oriented approaches in attractiveness strategies, since studies of attractiveness should be from both a supply and demand point of view (Formica, 2000:147). Therefore considering the fact that Botswana is to some extent reliant on an imported food supply especially for cereals, fruits, vegetables and fish (Lane, *et al.*, 2012:117), this warrants the need for a cuisine strategy to adopt all three strategic approaches.

The marketing strategies for cuisine tourism are guided by national tourism policy (Horng & Tsai, 2010:75). If a country has a strong support for cuisine in its tourism policy then emphasis can be placed on developing and marketing cuisine. Countries like Australia, Hong Kong and Canada have managed to place emphasis on promoting cuisine (Horng & Tsai, 2010:75). These countries have realised the potential of integrating the promotion of cuisine in tourism policy. If national tourism policy on the other hand does not emphasise the promotion of cuisine, then marketing strategies are not directed towards such efforts. The tourism policy should be embedded in a country's overall economic development policy (Dudensing, Hughes & Shields, 2011:1455), considering that tourism is one of the economic pillars of most developing countries. Within the same notion as above, marketing for cuisine tourism should be a construct of tourism policy in Botswana.

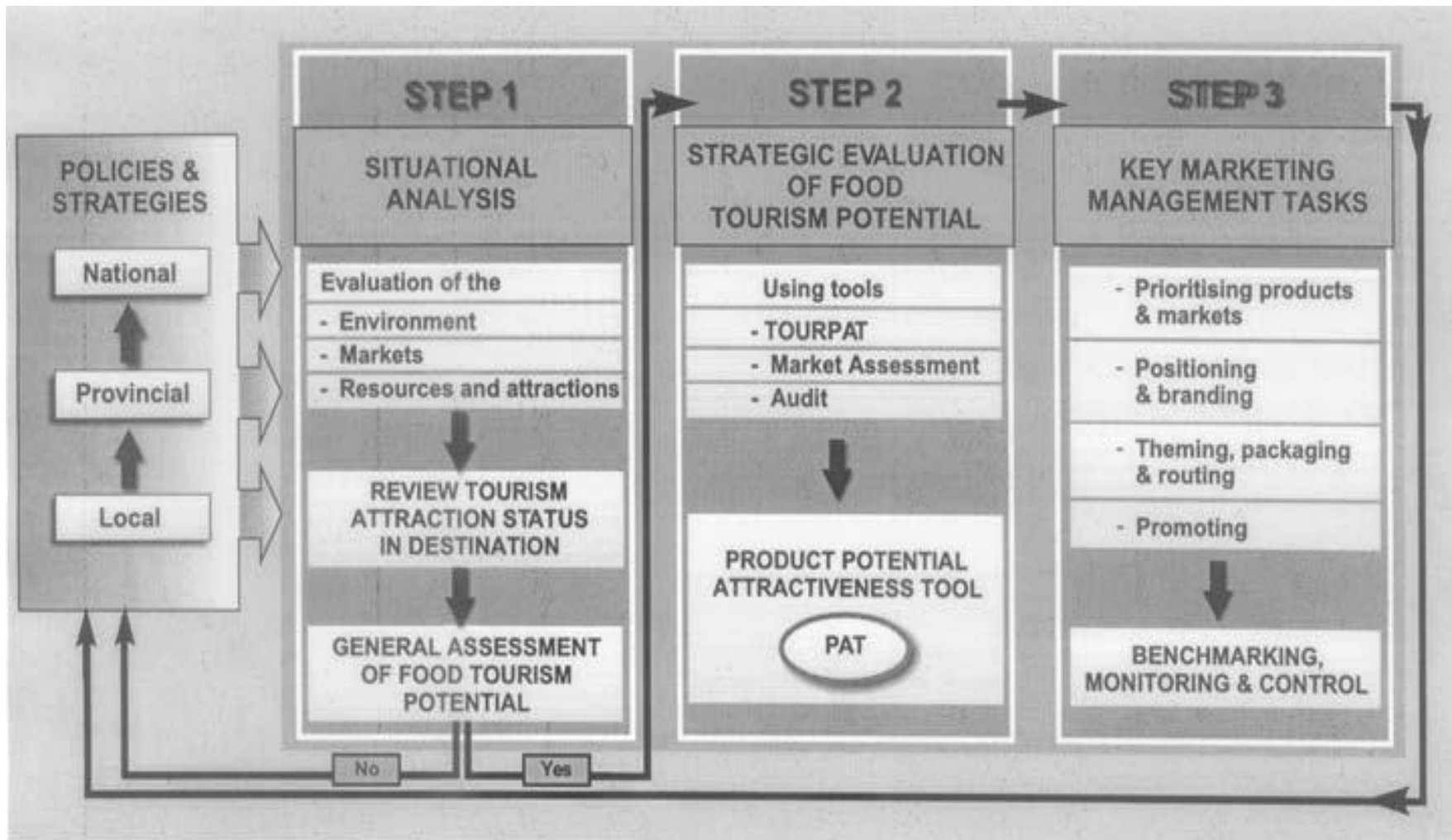
In the case of Botswana, tourism development has received prioritised attention in the country's national development plans. Botswana's National Tourism Policy contained in the Government Paper No. 2 of 1990 was predominantly focused on the promotion of wildlife attractions (Republic of Botswana, 2000). The lack of a driving cultural tourism strategy at national level, mainly due to the restrictive nature of public tourism policy made it almost impossible to develop cultural tourism. However the Botswana Tourism Master Plan adopted in 2000, emphasises the economic and cultural relevance of tourism (Bolaane & Kanduza, 2008:55). Bolaane and Kanduza (2008:55) further reiterate that the Government of Botswana recognises 'national culture as a key commodity which should sustain national tourism'. This paradigm shift in tourism policy, from predominantly wildlife focused, to the inclusion of cultural and heritage based attractions has seen the advancement in the promotion of art, song, dance and craft, with however limited emphasis on cuisine. Although such efforts signal progress in the promotion of cultural resources, their role in Botswana tourism remains minimal (Pansiri & Mahachi, 2015?). This raises concerns over the role of national tourism offices in raising awareness and persuading tourists to use cultural tourism resources such as cuisine. In essence efforts should be realised and challenges ameliorated if cultural resources such as the local food and beverages are to be used as prominent tourist attractors.

To increase the contribution from cultural tourism resources, such as cuisine, the Botswana Tourism Master Plan, highlights the need of developing these attractions alongside wildlife attractions (Republic of Botswana, 2000). This is important if the attractiveness of Botswana as a tourism destination is to be enhanced. In Botswana's efforts to diversify the economy and its tourism product, the importance of food and beverage, cannot remain neglected. Given such a context, it becomes imperative for the national tourism organisations to actively engage in crafting strategies for the development and promotion of cuisine.

A number of strategic models and frameworks designed elsewhere, for the development and implementation of cuisine were explored in the pursuing section. These include du Rand and Heath's (2006) framework for the development of food tourism, Horng and Tsai's (2012a) indicators for culinary tourism strategy and Chaney and Ryan's (2012) framework for the development of gastronomic tourism.

***du Rand and Heath's (2006) Framework for the Development and Implementation of Food Tourism***

du Rand and Heath (2006:216) developed a framework and guidelines that would enable marketers and entrepreneurs to optimise the tourism potential of local foods. The framework (Figure 2.5), which is an amalgamation of several frameworks, was tested on the Winelands Region of South Africa.



**Figure 2.5: Framework and Procedure for Developing and Implementing Food Tourism**  
 (Source: du Rand and Heath, 2006:221).

The framework has three main steps: a situational analysis, strategic evaluation of food tourism potential and the identification of marketing and management tasks (du Rand & Heath, 2006:221).

### *Step 1: Situational Analysis*

The situational analysis has three main components:

- An analysis of the environment, the potential and current markets and the resources and attractions available.
- A review of the tourism attraction status at the destination
- A general assessment of the food tourism potential

An analysis of the environment involves an identification of the suppliers of main food tourism offerings and the identification of the target market. This also involves an identification of food attractions, infrastructure, facilities and services and an evaluation of the macro forces that would either pose as threats or opportunities. A review of the tourism attraction status then follows. Finally under situational analysis a general assessment of the food tourism potential is undertaken. This involves determining market share and position status at either key/supportive/minimal or no attraction levels (du Rand & Heath, 2006:223). The importance of undertaking the situational analysis is to identify the nature, extent and context of the food tourism focus (du Rand & Heath, 2006:223). Answers obtained from such analyses are important indicators of whether to pursue the promotion of local cuisine or not. Until results are satisfactory, marketers cannot move onto the next step, step 2, which entails a strategic evaluation of the food tourism potential of a destination (du Rand & Heath, 2006:223).

### *Step 2: Strategic Evaluation of Food Tourism Potential*

If there is food tourism potential at a destination, the next step would be to perform a strategic evaluation of this potential utilising various tools and procedures. The strategic evaluation is executed using three main tools: TOURPAT (a tourism and culinary atlas linked to a geospatial database), market assessment and attractiveness audits. These tools then culminate

into the application of PAT (a product potential and attractiveness tool) (du Rand & Heath, 2006:223).

## TOURPAT

TOURPAT is a geospatial database of various food tourism resources and food tourism data on culture, infrastructure, tourism infrastructure, tourism routes, food and wine attractions, events and facilities, for instance, available at a destination (du Rand & Heath, 2006:224). This tool developed by du Rand and Heath, is a spatial visual display of culinary related attractions.

## Market Assessment and Attractiveness Audits

The following are observed in this phase:

- Marketers need to understand the potential and current markets of the destination through market research. Such information is usually available from statistical reports or general reports of that destination.
- In addition product-market matching needs to be performed. Buhalis (2000:103) supports this view when he postulates that the secret to successful destinations is providing the right products and services to the right target market.
- A competitive analysis is then undertaken. This involves an identification of key competitors' strengths, weaknesses, strategies and gaps that a destination could use to achieve advantage.
- Research/ Opportunity Audits require the destination to assess the availability of resources specifically for food tourism. This stage also enables the destination to substantiate the food tourism market share and position.
- The food tourism attractiveness audits enable the 'destination to pursue its goals, opportunities and strategies utilising its strengths and avoiding its weaknesses specifically with regard to food tourism' (du Rand & Heath, 2006:224).

According to the model, undertaking market assessment and attractiveness audits culminates into a product and potential assessment tool (PAT), which is then used to assist destinations in realising their potential for food tourism. PAT is a tool with several components such as

key attractors and enhancers upon which food tourism potential is measured on a scale of one (low status) to four (high status) (du Rand & Heath, 2006:225). According to du Rand and Heath (2006:225), the total score is an indicator of the 'product potential and attractiveness of the destination in terms of food tourism'. Having analysed and assessed the potential of developing food tourism, the model suggests the development of specific marketing and management tasks and tools for the development and implementation of food tourism, which is in step 3.

### *Step 3: Identification of Marketing Management tasks*

du Rand and Heath's (2006:226) model identifies four marketing management tasks important in the development of food tourism. The first task is the prioritisation of products and markets using information from the situation analysis. The second task involves the positioning and branding of food tourism at the destination. Thirdly, theming, packaging and routing for the destination is emphasised. Lastly the promotion aspects are outlined. These include promotional tools and techniques that could be used to market food tourism.

In summary the model by du Rand and Heath (2006) is a comprehensive model that could be used in similar destinations that seek to develop and implement food based tourism. However the model is mainly supply driven and lacks customer focus and opinions. Because tourism is a product of supply and demand; Formica (2000:147) reiterates that destination attractiveness studies should be approached by analysing both the attractions (supply) and by exploring the attractiveness perceptions of those who are attracted (demand). Despite this importance, very few studies have managed to incorporate both options and this study aims to fill that knowledge gap of analysing strategy formulation from both demand and supply perspectives. Before that can be done, other models developed later than du Rand and Heath (2006), have also been reviewed and are presented hereafter.

### *Horng and Tsai (2012a) Indicators of Culinary Tourism Strategy*

The model by Horng and Tsai (2012a:797) is based on the identification and exploitation of a destination's internal resources and unique capabilities in order to achieve competitive advantage. In order to achieve their objectives Horng and Tsai (2012a:797) based their study on the Resource Based Theory (RBT) and on the strategic planning process. Unlike other

strategies that are either based on external analysis or on bench mark countries, they argue that promotional strategy should be based on the internal strengths of a destination’s cuisine culture. They also argue that even if destinations were to take an external focus, they will always shift to concentrate on their internal capabilities (Horng & Tsai, 2012a:799). Thus promotional strategy should focus on authentic cuisine that relies on real local material, and adheres to tradition and naturalness (Horng & Tsai, 2012a:798). The RBT was found to be ideal for niche markets to which culinary tourism exists (Horng & Tsai, 2012a:800).

Through content analysis of strategies of bench mark countries and the use of fuzzy Delphi method, Horng and Tsai (2012a) devised a model for culinary tourism promotional strategy for Taiwan. The strategy had four dimensions, 10 factors and 75 indicators as highlighted in Table 2.4 to Table 2.7.

**Table 2.4: Resources Dimension**

Dimension	Factor	Indicators
Resources Dimension	Facilities and activities of culinary tourism	1. Itinerary of local culinary tourism 2. Food processing factories, wineries, breweries, and tea houses 3. Restaurants 4. Resources in the agriculture, forestry, fishing, and livestock industries (such as ranches, orchards, farms, and fish harbours) 5. Visiting ranches, orchards, and food processing factories, etc. 6. Spending on food and beverage
	Feature festivals and exhibitions	7. Food in the traditional festivals (like the Mid-autumn or Dragon Boat Festivals) 8. Food festivals (the Blue-fin Tuna season and the Hsinchu Rice Vermicelli Festival) 9. Food expo, culinary equipment trade fair 10. Food court, night markets 11. Magazines, books, and Internet resources 12. Traditional markets, supermarkets
	Organizations and systems of culinary cultural promotion	13. Culinary associations, societies, organizations 14. Restaurant rating and certification systems 15. Food quality certification system 16. Food experience activities 17. Culinary museums 18. Professional equipment at schools and colleges of food and hospitality

(Source: Horng & Tsai, 2012a:804).

Firstly, the resources dimension (Table 2.4) requires destinations to identify their unique resources. The strategy proposed for Taiwan in Horng and Tsai (2012a: 804) model, requires the country to identify its unique culinary culture and resources, including their advantages and disadvantages. The dimension was achieved by using three main factors and 18 indicators. The indicators reflect the breath of culinary activities and attractions that can be developed by destinations.

Secondly, the capabilities dimension (Table 2.5), evaluates governments' efforts in supporting the culinary tourism industry (Horng & Tsai, 2012a:804): this, being mainly achieved through coordinated government internal management and external enhancement. The public sector according to the model should have the power of promoting culinary tourism through coordination with marketing organisations and local culinary providers.

**Table 2.5: Capabilities Dimension**

Dimension	Factor	Indicators
Capabilities Dimension	Coordinated government internal management	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Horizontal collaborations between different departments</li> <li>2. Streamlined administration</li> <li>3. Specific and appropriate tourism policies</li> <li>4. Careful planning and use of budget on tourism promotion</li> <li>5. Raising the level of tourism supervisory agency</li> <li>6. Assessment on the viability of policy before implementation</li> <li>7. Education and training programs to enhance the knowledge and skills of government employees</li> <li>8. Continuous implementation of supportive policies for the culinary tourism industry</li> </ol>
	External enhancement	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>9. Providing assistance on operation or restructuring to traditional catering businesses</li> <li>10. Enhancing the professional knowledge and skills of local catering businesses</li> <li>11. Helping outstanding businesses to expand overseas</li> <li>12. Cooperation and exchanges with foreign tourism organizations</li> <li>13. Building and advertising the food (restaurant) quality certification system</li> <li>14. Coordinating the research capacities in the academia</li> <li>15. Reviewing the results of culinary tourism promotion effort</li> <li>16. Fostering partnerships with organizations in the private sector</li> </ol>

(Source: Horng & Tsai, 2012a:805).

Table 2.5 is therefore mainly a review of supply capability from the government, practitioner and academic points of view. Thirdly, the strategy dimension (Table 2.6) is important as it advocates for the adoption of marketing strategies to promote culinary cultural industries (Horng & Tsai, 2012a:805). This potentially leads to the creation of vertical value chains and marketing paths (Horng & Tsai, 2012a:806). Vertical value paths are import in rejuvenating and creating specific links with other sectors of an economy such as agriculture and farming.

**Table 2.6: Strategy Dimension**

Dimension	Factor	Indicators	Indicators (Cont.)
Strategy Dimension	Branding of Taiwan's culinary culture and feature development	1. Presenting local delicacies 2. Showcasing Taiwan's culinary traditions 3. Creating Taiwan's culinary brands 4. Providing guided tours 5. Organizing training and education programs to enhance culinary literacy 6. Defining and protecting local culinary cultures 7. Adding more food experiences in tourism activities 8. Building a platform for positive competitions	9. Providing creative food choices and services 10. Establishing a culinary culture database 11. Encouraging the use of local special produce 12. Organizing different kinds of culinary tourism activities 13. Highlighting Taiwan's culinary features 14. Fusing foreign culinary cultures 15. Emphasis on the food hygiene
	Specifying target markets and product qualities	16. Specifying the target markets 17. Defining the role of marketing 18. Planning for regional marketing 19. Market survey in the culinary tourism 20. Establishing a regional culinary tourism network 21. Selling the food with stories	22. Avoiding short-term hype 23. Establishing a culinary information platform 24. Promoting the restaurant quality certification system 25. Planning the itinerary of culinary tourism 26. Going in line with the international culinary trends
	Diverse marketing strategies and promoting campaigns	27. Maintaining a positive image with the help of the media 28. Making commercials to play in international markets 29. Positive word-of-mouth marketing	30. Hiring celebrities as spokespeople 31. Organizing large international culinary culture experience events 32. Publications (books and pamphlets) introducing Taiwan's culinary tourism 33. Providing culinary lessons

(Source: Horng & Tsai, 2012a:807).

Lastly the education dimension (Table 2.7), is important for improving research, knowledge and understanding of local food cultures at college levels and during service encounters with the industry (Horng and Tsai, 2012a:806). This creates competitive advantage for local students especially amongst their international counterparts.

**Table 2.7: Education Dimension**

Dimension	Factor	Indicators
Education Dimension	Facilitating industry-academia exchanges and enhancing education on culinary tourism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Compiling teaching materials for Taiwan's culinary tourism</li> <li>2. Promoting education on Taiwan's culinary cultures</li> <li>3. Coordinating the R&amp;D effort of universities and businesses</li> <li>4. Developing the knowledge about Taiwan's culinary cultures</li> <li>5. Making more domestic and international exchanges on culinary tourism education</li> <li>6. Preserving the knowledge on traditional local food</li> <li>7. Consolidating partnerships between the industry and academia</li> </ol>
	Improving the professional skills in catering management and practices	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>8. Understanding high-end culinary services</li> <li>9. Improving foreign language proficiency</li> <li>10. Strengthening practitioners' planning and coordination capabilities</li> <li>11. Cultivating culinary service know-how</li> <li>12. Encouraging culinary creativities</li> </ol>

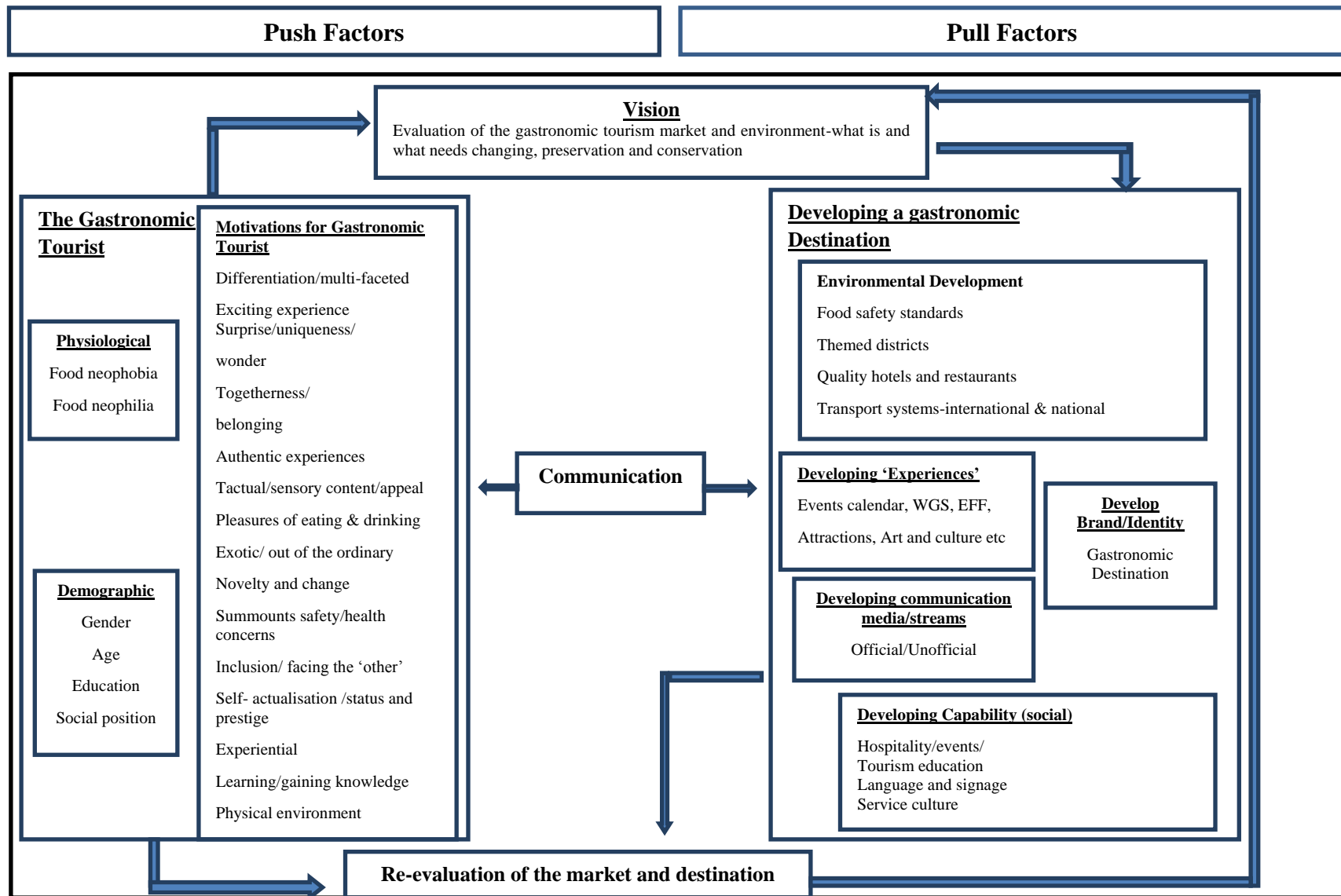
(Source: Horng & Tsai, 2012a:808).

A review of Horng and Tsai (2012a) is important in understanding the importance of the Resource Based Theory in the context of cuisine tourism. The model has identified and outlined one new aspect of culinary tourism strategy such as education that was largely ignored in earlier studies. The model is also very helpful in that it takes a holistic approach, based on all the aspects of culinary tourism that were identified by Smith and Xiao (2008), though it only concentrates on promotion which is just but one tool of marketing strategy. Though concentrating on the internal capabilities and resources, Horng and Tsai (2012a), also fail to account for market related research where, the needs and wants of cuisine tourists are identified (from their perspective), segmented and incorporated into the overall strategy as sub-strategies. The model does not adopt a step by step approach which might be very important especially with destinations that have both potential and existing demand. Instead it approaches strategy from a synchronized point of view, where all dimensions are applicable

at any stage of development. The model though also applicable to mature culinary destinations such as Taiwan, might not be applicable to developing destinations such as Gaborone. In addition, Botswana is in a stage of its tourism lifecycle where diversification into cultural products is paramount and as such might require a procedural approach in the development of cuisine tourism. The life cycle concept which might be necessary in crafting a framework for Botswana is a fundamental variable in determining strategy (Anderson & Zeithaml, 1984:6) or strategic planning (Cooper, 1992:57). Never the less, the model is important for the purpose of this study because it concentrates on promotional strategy, which is also the aim of this study.

### ***Chaney and Ryan (2012) Framework for Gastronomic Tourism Development***

Chaney and Ryan (2012:315) proposed a two sided approach in strategy formulation, that incorporated pull and push factors associated with gastronomic tourism development (Figure 2.6).



**Figure 2.6: Framework for Gastronomic Tourism Development**  
 (Source: Chaney & Ryan, 2012:316).

The pull factors in the model by Chaney and Ryan (2012:316), were destination related (Figure 2.6). These included such aspects as environmental development, the development of experiences, brand and identity development, the development of communication media and the development of capacity through education and service culture for example (Chaney & Ryan, 2012:316). Push factors covered such aspects as motivations, physiological and demographic aspects of the tourist (Chaney & Ryan, 2012:316). The model suggests that the media acts as a conduit through which information and feedback is relayed to the destination (pull factors) and the tourist (push) factors. The media also acts as a communication medium through which attributes of the destination are communicated to the tourist (Chaney & Ryan, 2012:316). In other words the relationship between the destination and the tourist, as mediated by media is reciprocal.

An important aspect of the model is its identification of the cyclical assessment and reassessment of the destination environment and market. Strategies developed for the advancement of gastronomic tourism, need continuous monitoring and evaluation. Gastronomic markets change as new products are introduced and destinations evolve. It is therefore important for marketers to develop strategic frameworks useful for each phase in the destination's life cycle. This is the approach that this study has undertaken. It has tried to review extant literature on models that have been designed for culinary or related forms of tourism. Integration, with modification to some of the models was undertaken in order to develop a framework ideal for the promotion of cuisine in Botswana at a specific stage of the destination's lifecycle.

### ***Adopting the Existing Models to the Promotion of Local Cuisine in Botswana***

Having identified the various strategies and frameworks that have been developed for the promotion of cuisine by a number of authors, it was important to devise a strategy framework that integrated some of the approaches for the promotion of cuisine in Botswana. Although strategic frameworks are different and no one framework may be exactly similar to another, there are a number of components identifiable to all.

King (2004) advises the use of a five key component approach in the formulation of a strategic framework. However this study proposed a four component strategy. Three of the components were based primarily on components of strategic frameworks that were

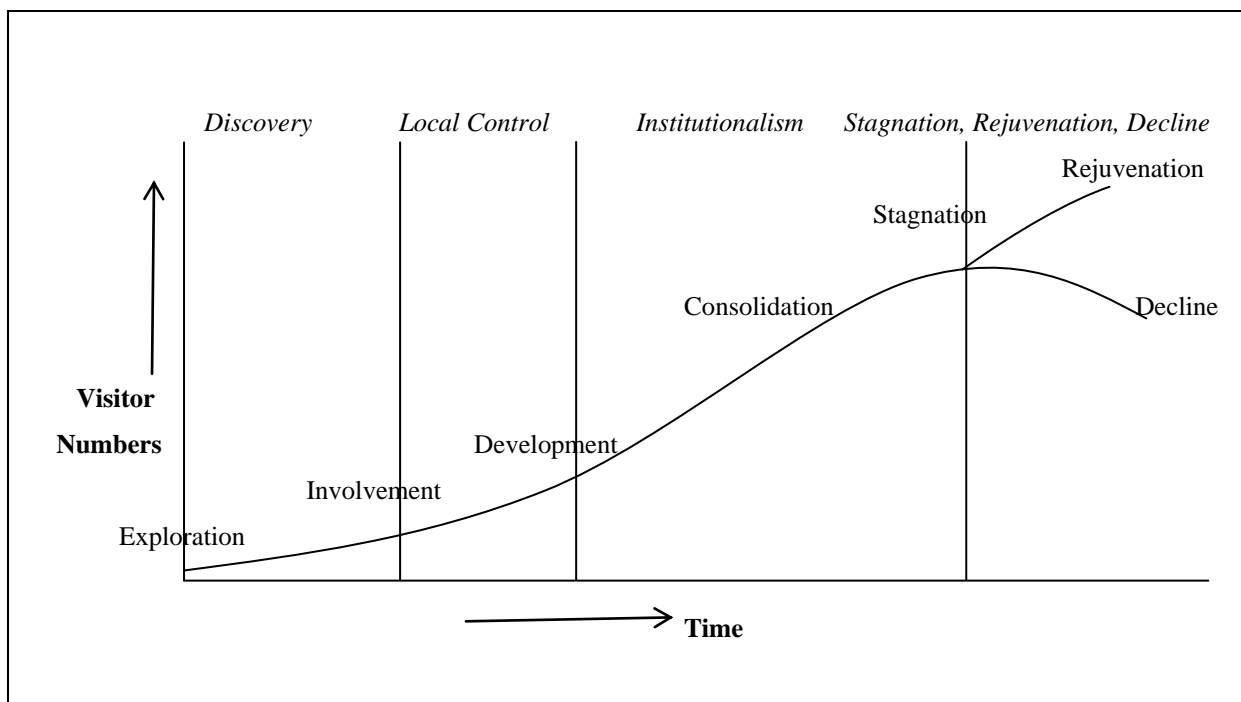
suggested by King (2004). King (2004) suggested that strategic frameworks should have a vision, a mission, strategic timeframes, key strategic objectives and key characteristics. The vision, mission and key strategic objectives used in the proposed framework for the promotion of local cuisine in this study (see Chapter Six) were adopted from King (2004). These were treated as one component. However the optional component by King (2004) of identifying key characteristics was not considered in this study, as it would be tautological to identifying the key attributes of local cuisine at a destination. King's (2004) model was also extended to include two other components: the promotion function and an implementation framework in the final analysis. An implementation framework which formed the fourth section of the proposed strategy was adopted because it was also used by the Cabinet Secretariat (2010:10,12). The marketing management tasks section (the third component) was adapted from du Rand and Heath (2006).

Horng and Tsai's (2012b:40), analysis of documents from seven bench mark culinary destinations identified four key success factors important for culinary development strategic frameworks: 'i) identifying and effectively using culinary tourism resources; (ii) evaluating government principles for promoting culinary tourism; (iii) adopting marketing strategies to promote culinary cultural sectors; and (iv) constructing educational environment for culinary culture and tourism'. Some aspects of the four key success factors proposed by Horng and Tsai (2012b) were also embedded in analysing and discussing the main components of the strategic framework that was used in this study. These key success factors are based on the resource-based view of the firm, which was emphasised by Grant (1991:114), as being important in the formulation of strategy.

The proposed strategic framework in Chapter Six therefore incorporates suggestions from King (2004), Cabinet Secretariat (2010), du Rand and Heath (2006), Horng and Tsai (2012b), Chaney and Ryan (2012) and Grant (1991). The model was tested in the case of Gaborone, to which findings are presented in Chapter Four and Five. However in order to devise such a framework, the study made the following assumptions:

### *The First Assumption*

Gaborone is in the involvement stage of its tourism area life cycle. The life cycle model has various stages as highlighted in Figure 2.7: exploration, involvement, development, stagnation and decline.



**Figure 2.7: Hypothetical Tourist Area Life Cycle**  
(Source: Butler cited by Cooper, 1992:58).

Based on Cooper (1992:57,58), at the Exploration Stage the destination is still unchanged by tourism. The area is visited by a small volume of explorer type tourists. There are low volumes of tourists due to limited access and facilities. At the Involvement Stage, there is an increased and regular volume of visitors. A tourist season emerges as pressure is exerted on public service provision. At the Development Stage a large number of visitors are attracted. Visitors become dependent on travel arrangements. At this stage community initiatives and sustainable development strategies are critical. The Consolidation Stage is characterised by the total number of visitors that is still increasing, though the rate of increase is now decreasing. The destinations have identifiable tourism business districts and are fully fledged parts of the tourism industry.

At the Stagnation Stage, peak tourist volumes have been reached and the destination is losing its original appeal. Promotional and development efforts are required to maintain the number of visits (Cooper, 1992:8). At decline, the destination has lost its appeal as visitors explore newer destinations. At this stage, ‘rejuvenation’ or ‘re-launch’ strategies, are necessary (Cooper, 1992:58).

Although all or some of these stages are easily identifiable at a destination, Hovinen (2002:227) argues that some of the stages co-exist and destinations do not pass through all the five stages of the life cycle. However the assumption that Gaborone is in its involvement stage in this study is based on a number of observations. Firstly non-resident arrival numbers in accommodation facilities across the country have been steadily increasing (Department of Tourism, 2011:10). There is also a steady growth of tourist accommodation facilities in Gaborone. Within the South East District where Gaborone lies, there has been an increase in the number of licensed tourist accommodation facilities from 44 to 54, between 2009 and 2011 (Department of Tourism, 2009:5; Department of Tourism, 2011:10). This signaled a 23% increase in accommodation facilities in the District, over a three-year period. This steady increase in tourist numbers and accommodation facilities is synonymous with an emerging tourist season.

### *The Second Assumption*

The second assumption in strategy formulation for local cuisine in this study was based on the observation that neither Botswana nor Gaborone, the capital city, is a bench mark cuisine destination. Bench mark destinations are those that have successfully implemented and promoted cuisine in their tourism policies. This includes cities such as Macao and countries such as Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand and Australia (Horng & Tsai, 2012b:52).

## **2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The Chapter dealt with introductory aspects of tourism in Botswana and cuisine tourism in general. The importance of cultural tourism and hence cuisine tourism was discussed. The

study also acknowledged and discussed McKercher *et al.* (2008) classification of cuisine tourists as it was closely linked to Smith and Xiao's (2008) model of culinary tourism. The importance of tourist behaviour as paramount variable in cuisine tourism promotion was also discussed. A review of extant literature also highlighted the importance of demand and supply factors in assessing destination attractiveness. As such the push (demand) and pull (supply) factors that would most likely influence local cuisine consumption behaviour were isolated by use of the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour (TIB). The Theory identified habit, intention and facilitating conditions as the main predictors of actual behaviour. Modifying the Theory, this study examined habit, intention and personality traits as push factors. The study then assessed social others, cultural factors, the food at the destination and other aspects of the destination environment as facilitating conditions. These factors were also considered important aspects of cuisine strategy at national level. The chapter also revealed that cuisine promotion strategy is influenced to some extent by national policy and tourism policy (du Rand & Heath, 2006:221). A favourable national policy gives rise to a successful cuisine strategy amongst other enablers. From related literature, a four component strategy was suggested that could be used to promote cuisine tourism in Botswana. Components of the proposed strategy were designed using extant literature and results from Chapter Four and Five. The proposed framework is presented and discussed in Chapter Six. However the following chapter, Chapter Three, discusses the research design and methods of research that were used in order to gather findings for Chapter Four and Five.

### **3 CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD OF RESEARCH**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

A research project should aim at addressing a particular research problem (Blaikie, 2003:11). As previously indicated in the introduction, there is lack of strong emphasis on the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana (Pansiri & Mahachi, 2015?). Surprisingly despite limited coverage by Botswana Tourism Organisation, Botswana's local cuisine is praised throughout Southern Africa (Heart Foundation Botswana, 2009). To address this research problem, this chapter outlines the use of pragmatism where both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used in a mixed methods (MMs) research design. The chapter also explains how the research design and method of research was formulated. The Chapter therefore highlights the different research methods that were used, emphasising some of the advantages and disadvantages inherent in them.

#### **3.2 PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNING OF THE STUDY**

Paradigms have largely been considered as world views or 'all-encompassing ways of experiencing and thinking about the world' (Morgan, 2007:50). However Morgan (2007:50) argues that there are a number of problems that emerge if one just stops at this broad sense of a paradigm without specifying the elements contained therein the worldview. Morgan prefers considering paradigms as 'a set of shared beliefs and practices among members of a specialty area' (p.55). This shared view or philosophy has been held in this study.

Research paradigms are generally distinguishable by two main philosophical dimensions; ontology and epistemology (Wayhuni, 2012:69). Ontology refers to questions about the nature of reality (Giacobbi, Poczwardowski & Hager, 2005:21) or nature of knowledge

(Wayhuni, 2012:69). Epistemology on the other hand refers to theories of knowledge (Gaicobbi, *et al.*, 2005:21), or the view on what constitutes acceptable knowledge (Wayhuni, 2012:70). Ontologically, objectivists assume that reality is external and independent of social actors whilst subjectivists believe that reality is dependent on social actors and individuals can contribute to social phenomena (Wayhuni, 2012:69). The two fundamental philosophical dimensions, ontology and epistemology, are often the foundation of research paradigms as used in the social sciences.

Before the 19<sup>th</sup> century, research evolved mainly around the ontological and epistemology assumptions of logical positivism (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:519). ‘At the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, social scientists began to question seriously whether or not they were justified in utilizing the scientific methods of the physical sciences to study social and human issues’ (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:519). Wilhem Dilthey emerged as a strong opponent of positivism, advocating an alternative paradigm for the social sciences (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:519). Egon Guba and Yvonna Lincoln also emerged as some of the best known proponents for an alternative paradigm to positivism (Morgan, 2007:56). Dilthey argued that objective social reality existed (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:519) and should be considered in research inquiry. This competing paradigm was known as, ‘naturalistic inquiry’ later becoming known as constructivism of interpretivism (Morgan, 2007:56). However Smith (cited by Onwuegbuzie, 2002:519) criticised Dilthey, suggesting that since both positivism and constructivism had their shortcomings, there could be ways of merging the two. However despite his attempts, Smith failed in this endeavour (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:520). Thus the feud between the two paradigms continued its toll until the 1950s and 1960s when post-positivism emerged as another alternative paradigm (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:520).

Post-positivism, also known as critical realism is objective and exists independently of human thoughts, though it is interpreted through social conditioning (Wayhuni, 2012:70). This meant that social reality could only be understood in a context of ‘relevant law or dynamic social structures which have created the observable phenomena within social world’ (Wayhuni, 2012:71). Extreme advocates of post-positivism even believed in the Incompatibility Thesis that stated that paradigms ‘could not and should not be mixed’ (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:520). In the 1960s, pragmatists however, began to advocate for the use of mixed methods, a third type of paradigm (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:15), that is a combination of qualitative and quantitative research designs and research processes

(Onwuegbuzie, 2002:520). Thus pragmatism as an alternative paradigm especially for the social sciences was born. Pragmatists believed in both objective and subjective views (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:520) of research inquiry believing that in the social sciences, reality can be subjective or objective. This study was therefore embedded in the pragmatism realm of research paradigms. This is so, as advised by Pansiri (2005:195) because of the extent to which the researcher agrees with its assumptions and beliefs. The word pragmatism comes from the Greek word, *πρᾶγμα*, meaning action, from which according to Giacobbi *et al.* (2005:20) the English words ‘practice’ and ‘practical’ were derived from. Pragmatism holds its origins in the works of James (1907) and Peirce (1984) as outlined by Giacobbi, *et al.* (2005:20). It is a philosophy of knowledge construction that emphasises the use of practical solutions to research inquiry (Giacobbi, *et al.*, 2005:19). Pragmatism starts with the research question and its emphasis is on what works best to address the research problem at hand (Wayhuni, 2012:71). Pragmatists are set apart from positivists who rely on the correspondence of theory and reality (Giacobbi, *et al.*, 2005:20). They (pragmatists), opt for methods and theories that are useful in answering practical problems and not those that reveal the truth about the nature of reality (Giacobbi, *et al.*, 2005:21).

Pragmatism is more based on abductive reasoning ‘that moves back and forth between induction and deduction’, where the researcher converts observations into theory and then assesses those theories through action (Morgan, 2007:71). The other advantage of pragmatism is its ability for transferability, meaning research findings and implications can be applicable in other contexts (Morgan, 2007:72). Thus its use in this study could result in other corroborative studies in other contexts. Instead of being neither objective nor subjective, pragmatism is also based on inter-subjectivity (Morgan, 2007:71) as it captures dualism. Morgan (2007:72) states that, ‘in a pragmatic approach, there is no problem with asserting both that there is a single “real world” and that all individuals have their own unique interpretations of that world’. Because of advantages of dualism, pragmatists often use multiple and/or mixed method (MM) designs in their investigations (Giacobbi, *et al.*, 2005:23). Mixed method research is often defined as the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches within a single study (van der Roest, Spaaij & van Bottenburg, 2013:2). The main rationale for use of MMs is that the combined use of qualitative and quantitative approaches can provide a fuller understanding of research problems than would a mono method type of research (van der Roest, *et al.*, 2013:10). In fact qualitative and quantitative techniques complement each other (Husén, 1988:8) and are both important and

useful (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:14). Both quantitative and qualitative techniques can be mixed at different aspects of the study such as during formulation of the research questions, sampling, data collection, data analysis and interpretation (Yin, 2006:46).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:22) went on to devise a mixed methods design matrix, based on two important considerations; 1) whether there is a dominant domain where the researcher is operating within or 2) whether the researcher aims to conduct the phases concurrently or sequentially. The mixed methods design matrix as suggested by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:22) has four quadrants (Figure 3.1).

		Time Order Decision	
		<i>Concurrent</i>	<i>Sequential</i>
Paradigm Emphasis Decision	<i>Equal</i>	QUAL + QUAN	QUAL → QUAN QUAN → QUAL
	<i>Dominant</i>	QUAL + quan QUAN + qual	QUAL → quan qual → QUAN QUAN → qual Quan → QUAL

**Figure 3.1: Mixed Methods Design Matrix<sup>1</sup>**  
 (Source: Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:22).

With concurrent decisions, both qualitative and quantitative techniques are used at the same time that is simultaneously (Pansiri, 2005:201). For instance, MMs used in most sports management literature had the advantage of addressing confirmatory and exploratory questions simultaneously (van der Roest, *et al.*, 2013:10). Although there is limited interaction between qualitative and quantitative techniques during data collection in this instance, the findings should complement one another at the data interpretation stage (Onwuegbuzie, 2002:525). On the other hand, a sequential type of timing occurs when one phase influences another phase either in data collection or analysis. In this study for instance,

<sup>1</sup> “qual” stands for qualitative, “quan” stands for quantitative, “+” stands for concurrent, “ → ” stands for sequential, capital letters denote high priority or weight, and lower case letters denote lower priority or weight.

some results, partly influenced stages of data collection for some of the research questions, creating a multiphase timing decision. The advantage of multiphase sequential timing is that it creates opportunities for the repeated validation of findings thus helping achieve stronger inference with the findings (van der Roest, *et al.*, 2013:15). In a sequential set up, the latter technique would also assist in explaining and interpreting the findings of the former (Pansiri, 2005:202).

In view of Husén (1988: 8) that the strategy or paradigm that one selects for their research largely depends on the objectives one has in mind; this study adopted a pragmatic research philosophy. Indeed because researchers have freedom of choice regarding the methods, techniques and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes (Pansiri, 2005:198). In addition because the use of pragmatic philosophy in tourism is anecdotal (Pansiri, 2009:85), this study only acted to add onto existing knowledge on its use, especially from the context of a developing country perspective. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques, methods and processes were used throughout the study, both concurrently and sequentially, depending on the stage of the research. This is with support from Hardy, Jones and Gould (1996:259) as well who suggest that at times it is best to use a qualitative method, whilst at other times, a quantitative approach. In this chapter for instance, qualitative forms of literature review were used for analysing tourism in Botswana and the type of local cuisine that could be used for tourism promotional purposes. However the quantitative techniques were then used sequentially to validate some of the opinions. Thus the study adopted a pragmatic approach to data collection, analysis, interpretation and discussion.

The main rationale for the use of pragmatism and hence a mixed method research design is that the combined use of qualitative and quantitative approaches can provide a fuller understanding of research problems than would a mono method type of research (van der Roest, *et al.*, 2013:10). Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were used and information was collected in as many ways as possible and from as many sources as possible. This had the advantage of allowing the study to approach the research problem from different angles thus increasing the validity and reliability of the study findings. Cuisine is a relatively under documented area of cultural tourism in Botswana; as such there was need to use a mixed methods approach. The research methods employed in this study are also reflective of this approach, since both primary and secondary data was analysed as well in addressing the research objectives.

### **3.3 RESEARCH METHODS**

The following research methods were employed in this study; gathering of primary data mainly through field research surveys and secondary data. Secondary sources of information, e-journal aggregators, online and networked databases to include government papers on tourism development and promotion (e.g. Botswana Tourism Master Plan, the Tourism Policy), magazines, brochures, newspapers, Internet sites (local and international), national tourism website and databases and e-journal aggregators such as Ebscohost, Cambridge Journals, Emerald, Sage, Science Direct, Scholar Google, Taylor Francis and Wiley-Blackwell were also used. The primary data was collected using field research surveys which are now discussed in detail.

#### **3.3.1 Field Research Surveys**

There were four field research surveys:

1. Expert opinion survey (Survey A/Appendix A)
2. Food and beverage supervisors' survey (Survey B/Appendix B)
3. Tourist survey (Survey C/Appendix C)
4. Tourism and hospitality marketing officials survey (Survey D/Appendix D)

##### **3.3.1.1 Expert Opinion Survey (Survey A)**

The study used internet search engines such as google.com and online travel sites to compile a list of popular Setswana cuisine. Words and word compounds such as food in Botswana, local cuisine, Setswana food and beverages, hotel food and traditional cuisine were used as search options. The search was terminated when keyword hits failed to generate any new cuisine items. A list of 28 Setswana cuisine types derived from the internet search (from ten websites) and from von Rudloff's (2007) collection of favourite Botswana cuisine recipes emerged and was used in the design of the Expert Questionnaire (Appendix A). Types of cuisine occurring more than twice during the compilation, were referred only once.

### *The Expert Questionnaire*

After compiling the list of 28 Setswana cuisine types, the author then sought the opinion of experts through a questionnaire in order to isolate the main Setswana cuisine that is usually or could be served to tourists. An expert opinion survey was adopted for this part of the study, because expert panel evaluation is the most common method used for evaluating destination attractiveness (Formica & Uysal, 2006:420). Experts' knowledge would be more reliable than visitors' opinion since expert opinions are based on experienced observations of what is happening in the industry. Lastly, because of their professional involvement and permanent presence at their respective places of stay, experts have a solid knowledge of the entire portfolio of cuisine that could potentially be used for tourism purposes.

Sixty two experts mainly selected through purposive sampling formed part of this survey. Purposive sampling occurs when respondents are 'hand-picked' for a specific purpose (Denscombe, 2007:17) as was done in this case. Purposive sampling has the advantage of enabling access to the best available knowledge from sample subjects (Sharma, 1997:124) and is often used to select a sample of experts (Polit & Beck, 2010:312) as in this case. However one disadvantage of this sampling technique is that it is inherently biased (Polit & Beck, 2010:312) and reliability of the criterion used to select respondents is questionable (Sharma, 1997:124). Despite such disadvantages, the method was deemed necessary in this study.

The questionnaires were administered both electronically and face to face. The questionnaires had five sections:

- Demographic Profiles
- Tourism Potential of Setswana Cuisine
- Setswana Cuisine and National Identity
- Promotion of Setswana Cuisine
- Destination Tourism potential and Life Cycle Area Stage

The first section requested respondents to state their demographic information. This section had six questions.

In the original questionnaire, the second section had four sub-sections. In the first subsection, experts' opinions, measured on a Likert scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), were sought on their perceptions of the tourism potential of the 28 Setswana cuisine types. The second sub-section was open ended and requested experts to identify other local food and beverage that had tourism potential. The third subsection requested experts to describe the main features of the 28 cuisine types using any adjectives of their choice. A pilot test which was carried out on five lecturers in the Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management at the University of Botswana generated a response rate of 0% for this sub-section. This subsection was, in the final questionnaire excluded as the respondents failed to express their opinions on how they would describe the cuisine. Two conclusions were drawn from the pilot test regarding the third subsection. Firstly respondents might have not understood what they were required to state, and secondly, they might have found it cumbersome to write descriptive words for all the 28 cuisine types. In the final analysis of the pilot test, the third subsection was excluded because respondents' difficulty in comprehending the question. It had been meant to be a sub-section though that would enrich literature on the most identifiable attributes of local Setswana cuisine; which is lacking in extant literature. The fourth sub-section was a question (Likert scale from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree), on experts' perceptions of whether Setswana cuisine could in general serve as a tourist attraction.

The third section of the questionnaire asked respondents the extent to which they associated the 28 Setswana cuisine types with national identity. This was measured on a five point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Section four addressed the main methods as identified in extant literature that could be used to promote local cuisine to domestic and international tourists. This section was measured on a 5 point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There was also an open ended subsection that required experts to identify other methods that could be used to promote Setswana cuisine to tourists.

Lastly section five was mainly used to assess the destination tourism potential and life cycle stage of Gaborone. This section was also measured on a point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

### *Sampling Strategy for Experts*

Given the nature of the opinion sought (that of establishing menu items that could be used for tourism purposes) a key informant sample was selected through purposive sampling. Three groups of experts were consulted: food and beverage managers and operational staff in hotels and non-hotel restaurants, officials in the tourism and hospitality industry and academic lecturers in Gaborone. The food and beverage personnel were mainly from the pool of executive or head chefs, restaurant managers and supervisors, restaurant servers and food and beverage managers in Gaborone. This sample was deemed to be comprised of personnel from the tourism and hospitality industry who were deemed as appropriate to the study and as suitable respondents possessing 'rich' information on typical cuisine that could be used for tourism purposes. It is important to note that by use of a purposive sample, not everyone had an equal probability of inclusion in the sampling frame. However the results obtained were expected to be indicative of the wider population of food and beverage personnel at restaurants that served Setswana cuisine. Sixty-two experts from hotels, lodges, restaurants and tourism administration offices were approached from April to May 2014.

Because the study is mainly a preliminary one, a number of lecturers from the University of Botswana, especially from the Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management and the Family and Consumer Sciences Department, were also approached. Respondents were approached through the University of Botswana's internal Microsoft Outlook mailing system in April 2014. Initially the questionnaire was sent as an email attachment to 27 academic staff members from the two departments. An intranet survey was considered fast and cheaper as opposed to face to face administration, postal or telephone surveys (Denscombe, 2007:9), hence it's selection in this part of the survey. However after three failed attempts of retrieving responses through the mailing system, probably due to the fact that questionnaires were sent during the examination period (April/May), the author personally administered 18 questionnaires to lecturers who were present at that time. Lecturers from similar institutions such as Botswana Accountancy College and Botho University, where tourism and hospitality programmes had been recently introduced were also approached through purposive sampling. Some of the lecturers, teaching hospitality related courses, were known by the author and were deemed important respondents for the aims of the study. The author personally administered the research instrument to these respondents. From similar academic institutions, a total of 10 questionnaires were distributed. However from the 18 questionnaires

distributed at the University of Botswana and the 10 distributed at similar academic institutions in Gaborone, only 16 were collected for the final analysis.

### **3.3.1.2 Food and Beverage Supervisor and Tourist Surveys (Surveys B and C)**

Two types of surveys, Survey B and Survey C, were administered at both hotels and non-hotel restaurants in Gaborone. Two sampling techniques for food and beverage supervisors (Survey B) and restaurant dining respondents (Survey C) were established in this section. One key food and beverage supervisor was expected from each hotel or non-hotel restaurant.

#### ***Selection of Survey Hotels (N = 13)***

The selection of hotels initially involved use of stratified random sampling and included the following steps:

1. Identification of the population of hotels in Gaborone
2. Selection of relevant strata
3. Listing the population according to the relevant strata
4. Selection of sample size

The population of hotels in Gaborone were those that had been graded with the Botswana Tourism Organisation as of the 5<sup>th</sup> of April 2014. For Gaborone, these were 48 in number.

The type of strata selected was the status of grading. The status of grading for hotels in Botswana is based on the star rating. The star grading system is used to differentiate the various quality levels of accommodation facilities (BTO, 2014a). Six types of grading are available: five star, four star, three star, two star, one star, grade pending and no award. Depending on the size of the hotel and its star grading, hotels may have more than one restaurant. In Botswana it is a legal requirement for three, four and five star hotels to have at least two restaurants whilst two and one star hotels can have only one restaurant (MEWT, 1996). Hotel restaurants are those that serve in-house hotel guests to a larger extent and walk-in trade, depending on the location of the hotel. These restaurants are usually themed and

operate controlled operating hours. Most hotel restaurants' beverage demands are serviced from adjacent bars or coffee/tea stations.

The population of hotels was then listed according to the relevant strata as reflected in Table 3.1. However to this list the following were excluded:

- Bed and breakfast only establishments offering either English or Continental Breakfast menus (9)
- Bed only establishments (2)
- Hotels under refurbishment (1)
- Hotels that had been rented out to college students (1)
- Hotels that did not offer any local Setswana cuisine (1)
- Self-catering establishments (2)

**Table 3.1: Number of Graded Hotels in Gaborone Before and After Exclusion Criteria**

Grading Status	Number of Graded Hotels before Exclusion Criteria	Number of Graded Facilities after Exclusion Criteria
Five Star	1	0
Four Star	4	3
Three Star	7	5
Two Star	7	6
One Star	12	10
Grade Pending	16	7
No award	1	1
Total	48	32

All 32 hotels identified after the exclusion criteria (Table 3.1) were selected into the original sampling frame. However due to difficulty in obtaining access to all of the identified hotels in Table 3.1, mainly due to lack of management consent to participate in the survey, this study mainly relied on results from 13 hotels out of the 32 identified in the original stratified sampling frame. This represented 41% of the original sampling frame (after exclusion). However this sample was no longer a randomised sample but a purposive sample.

### *Selection of Survey Non-Hotel Restaurants (n = 34)*

The selection of non-hotel restaurants (n = 34) was based on purposive sampling. The purposive sample was established from the population of non-hotel restaurants in Gaborone as of the 30<sup>th</sup> of April 2014. This list was obtained from the Commercial Affairs Department at the Gaborone City Council, the governing arm of Gaborone City. The list had 194 restaurants.

The use of a purposive sample was justified because the author had to identify, from the 194 restaurants, those that could be classified as non-hotel restaurants. In this study non-hotel restaurants are defined as restaurants that were independently run and mostly owner managed and/or operated. These restaurants also had the opportunity of offering Setswana cuisine on their menu, as their menus were not restrictive. As such restaurants that failed to meet this criterion and hence excluded from the sampling frame were:

- fast food franchised operations that operated a strictly controlled and sometimes international menu (61);
- specialty ethnic restaurants that served Japanese, Portuguese, Chinese or other Asian cuisine (15);
- Institutional and industrial catering facilities such as refectories and canteens that catered to a restrictive and captive market (22);
- Formal and casual restaurants that did not offer any Setswana cuisine on their menus (28)
- Restaurants that had closed down or closed for refurbishment but were still listed on the population from the Gaborone City Council (2).

After the exclusion criterion, 66 non-hotel restaurants formed part of the sampling frame. However in the final analysis, the final sample was comprised of 34 non-hotel restaurants. This represented 52% of the population of non-hotel restaurants as defined in this study.

As such the total sample for the food and beverage managers was comprised of 47 restaurant facilities, that is 13 hotels and 34 non-hotel restaurants. This final sample was based on: 1) the exclusion criterion and 2) consent from management for inclusion into the sampling

frame. In general, the author faced much resistance for consent from the non-hotel restaurants than from the hotel restaurants.

### ***Food and Beverage Supervisors' Survey (Survey B)***

The food and beverage supervisors' survey (Appendix B) was used to solicit for *inter alia*, information on the extent to which local cuisine is promoted on their organisational menus and the extent to which they informed tourists on local cuisine offerings.

The questionnaire for food and beverage supervisors was both self and interviewer-administered by the author and one research assistant during May and July 2014.

### ***Sampling Strategy for Food and Beverage Supervisors***

A purposeful type of sampling strategy was used as the author had to identify food and beverage supervisors and not operational staff for inclusion in the survey. Purposive sampling thus ensured that respondents were from this background. Some of the managers/supervisors completed the questionnaires on their own while others were interviewed. Some of the managers or supervisors were not co-operative and refused to fill in the questionnaire suggesting that the questionnaire be completed by a junior employee. Others accepted the questionnaires but asked the author to come back on a later day for collection. It took quite an effort to collect the completed questionnaires with such an arrangement. This was not only time-consuming, but was expensive in terms of transport cost as the author had to visit an establishment more than twice. Some managers/ supervisors even after acceding to completing the questionnaire later failed to submit a completed copy.

### ***Sample Size for Food and Beverage Supervisors***

One food and beverage supervisor or manager was expected to be on shift at any meal period: thus only one supervisor was expected for each of the 47 restaurant facilities (both hotel and non-hotel restaurants that had acceded to survey requests). As such the anticipated sample was 47 food and beverage supervisors.

### *The Tourist (Diners') (Survey C)*

In order to identify tourist typology, the main factors that influence tourist consumption and methods of cuisine promotion, a semi-structured self-administered questionnaire (Survey C/Appendix C) was designed. The questionnaire was administered by the author and one research assistant between May and July 2014. The diners' survey was conducted concurrently with the food and beverage supervisors' survey at the 47 restaurant facilities identified in the preceding discussion. The researchers would approach the food and beverage supervisors before service time and then approach diners' during and after service time for each respective restaurant facility.

### *The Tourist Questionnaire*

The tourist questionnaire had seven main sections:

- Travel and demographic profile of diners.
- Interest in local Setswana cuisine.
- Pleasure Scale
- Arousal Section
- Promotion of local cuisine
- Local cuisine consumption behaviour.
- Factors that influence local cuisine consumption behaviour.

The questionnaire was based on literature reviewed in line with tourists' local cuisine experiences.

The first section had 14 questions that asked respondents *inter alia*, their age, nationality, travel patterns and spending patterns. Information of the type of tourists, that is, whether domestic or international of those surveyed was also collected.

In the second section, the study adopted the use of McKercher *et al.* (2008) tourist typology and the definition of gastronomic tourism by Santich (2004:10) when drafting the main decisional question for classifying cuisine tourists in Gaborone. McKercher *et al.* (2008)

typology was used in this study since it has also been used successfully elsewhere in other studies (e.g Chang, *et al.*, 2010; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012) in classifying culinary tourists. Although the original five class typology by McKercher *et al.* (2008:141) is based on responses to the question: ‘I would consider myself to be a culinary tourist, someone who travels to different places to try different foods,’ the deciding question in this study was modified. Santich’s (2004) definition was also used because it is ideally suited to the consumption of cuisine by tourists. Santich (2004:20) refers to gastronomic tourism, or food and wine tourism, as travel motivated, at least in part, by an interest in food and drink, eating and drinking. The definitions used by McKercher *et al.* (2008) and Santich (2004) were combined and used to draft the final question (Question TB1 in Appendix C) used in the Interest in Local Setswana Cuisine section: ‘Are you motivated by an interest in local Setswana cuisine whenever you travel?’ The question was then measured using a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

In the third section, for pleasure, respondents were asked to state on a five point scale how they felt when consuming Setswana cuisine in three questions (TB2ai to TB2aiii) (Appendix C). The mean of three aspects of pleasure (happiness, satisfaction and content) were used to construct the composite variable of pleasure. TB2ai measured the emotional response of happiness and a five point scale from very unhappy to very happy was used. TB2aii measured satisfaction and used a scale from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied. TB2aiii measured content and used a scale from highly discontented to highly content.

The arousal variable (in the fourth section under Question TB2bi) was assessed using excitement associated with Setswana cuisine consumption. The questions were measured on a five point hedonic scale from highly unexcited to highly excited.

The section had three questions (TB3a to TB3c) (Appendix C). Questions TB3a and TB3b were quantitative whilst Question TB3c was an open ended question on other methods diners perceived could be used to promote local cuisine. Question TB3a and TB3b were designed using extant literature. Methods of promotion identified by Kozak *et al.* (2005) and Horng and Tsai (2010) were used to develop the two questions. The questions were measured on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The consumption of food and beverages at a destination is a physical experience expressed through tactile and olfactory senses as stated earlier. As such synonyms of the verb taste, adopted from Thesaurus (2011-2012) were used to describe other interactive behaviours of experiencing local cuisine. Thus Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour (sixth section) was constructed using sentences with the verbs, eat and sample. The study aimed at examining actual behaviour, like other studies (e.g Cheung, *et al.*, 2000; Kim & Lee, 2011) and as such took advice from Triandis (1980:250) as previously reiterated in Chapter One, and used frequency, instead of duration and intensity, as measures of actual behaviour. As such the phrases, ‘...each time I visit Gaborone.’ and ‘I constantly sample...’ were incorporated in questions TB4a and TB4b, respectively, to express the frequency of consumption (see Appendix C). The mean of the two questions was then used to construct the Consumption Behaviour variable. The questions were measured on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The last section of the diners’ survey (Questions TB5a to TB12o) was based on factors that could predict Setswana cuisine consumption as deduced from extant literature. Nine main factors were identified: food neophobia, social others, open culture, most important food and beverage attributes and highly performing food and beverage attributes, gastronomic image, availability of information on cuisine and accessibility to information on cuisine and the dinescape. In order to identify the influence of these factors as predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour a number of hypotheses were then designed (Table 3.2). In addition, review of extant literature (e.g. Bitner, 1992; Cheung, *et al.*, 2000) identified arousal and pleasure as mediators of consumption behaviour. As such the two were included as additional factors that influence consumption behaviour. Table 3.2 presents the main characteristics of the predictor factors including the hypotheses and tests that were used. Results of the statistical tests performed on the variables and hence the tests of the hypotheses are however presented and discussed in Chapter Five.

**Table 3.2: Characteristics of the Predictor Factors of Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour**

Type of Predictor Factor	Measures and References Used	Hypothesis	Tests Used for Hypothesis	Sub-Hypotheses	Tests Used for Sub-hypothesis
Food Neophobia	Measured by six items adapted from Pliner & Hobden (1992); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).	<b>H1a<sub>1</sub></b> : Food neophobia predicts tourists' local cuisine consumption behaviour	Stepwise Regression	<b>H1b<sub>1</sub></b> : Age is positively correlated with tourists' neophobia of Setswana cuisine.	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient
				<b>H1c<sub>1</sub></b> : Male diners are more neophobic of Setswana cuisine than female diners.	Independent samples <i>t</i> tests
				<b>H1d<sub>1</sub></b> : There is statistically significant difference in food neophobia amongst the various educational levels.	ANOVA
				<b>H1e<sub>1</sub></b> : The sample means for food neophobia for all nationalities are not equal	ANOVA
Social Others	Measured by three items adapted from Ryu & Han (2010); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).	<b>H2<sub>1</sub></b> : Social others significantly influence tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.	Stepwise Regression	None	None
Open Culture	Measured by four items (Two items, i.e. Questions TB7a & TB7b were adapted from Verbeke & Lopez, 2005); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).	<b>H3<sub>1</sub></b> : An open culture has significant influence on tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.	Stepwise Regression	None	None

Food and Beverage Attributes	Measured by two items (highly performing food and beverage attributes and most important food and beverage attributes); Adapted from Jang <i>et al.</i> (2009) and Jingjing (2012); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).	<b>H4a<sub>1</sub></b> : most Important cuisine attributes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. <b>H4b<sub>1</sub></b> : Highly performing cuisine attributes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.	Stepwise Regression	None	None
Gastronomic Image	Measured by three items (Questions TB9a to TB9c adapted from Chang <i>et al.</i> (2011) and Harrington (2005); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).	<b>H5<sub>1</sub></b> : Gastronomic image predicts Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.	Stepwise Regression	None	None
Information on Local Cuisine	Measured by two variables: availability and accessibility of information on Setswana Cuisine (Questions TB10 and TB11); Adapted from Okumus <i>et al.</i> (2007); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).	<b>H6a<sub>1</sub></b> : Availability of information on local cuisine predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. <b>H6b<sub>1</sub></b> : accessibility of information on local cuisine predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.	Stepwise Regression	None	None

Dinescape	Measured using 15 items; Eleven of the items were adapted from Liu and Jang (2009), Mak <i>et al.</i> (2012), Ryu and Jang (2008a; 2008b) and Stroebele and Castro (2004); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).	<b>H7<sub>1</sub></b> : Dinescapes predict tourist' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.	Stepwise Regression	<b>H7<sub>b1</sub></b> : The influence of dinescapes on Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is mediated by pleasure.	Simple Regression	Linear
				<b>H7<sub>c1</sub></b> : The influence of dinescapes on Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is mediated by arousal.	Simple Regression	Linear
				<b>H7<sub>d1</sub></b> : Pleasure mediates the influence of arousal on Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.	Simple Regression	Linear

The hypotheses addressed in Table 3.2 relate to Objective Three and Research Question Three of the study. In addition, the sub hypotheses relate to subsidiary Questions Three and Four. The hypotheses were tested and results are discussed in Chapter Five.

### *Sampling Strategy for Diners*

A purposeful type of sampling was used. In this strategy the most productive sample to answer the research questions is solicited (Marshall, 1996:523). Purposive sampling was deemed necessary as it is the most effective way of ‘understanding complex issues related to human behaviour’ (Marshall, 1996:523). The sampling technique was also used as it helped ascertain that respondents were from a dining background and would be visitors to Gaborone or Botswana.

A purposive sample size of 249 diners based on accessibility of respondents at the 47 hotel and non-hotel restaurants was approached by the author and a research assistant. A hotel or restaurant was approached during lunch or dinner, since the sampling target were all lunch or dinner guests on that particular day as pre-arranged with management. The questionnaire was administered after the guests had finished eating their dessert course (where applicable) or when they had finished eating, in some cases, but before the bill had been presented to them. Because the questionnaire solicited for information on some attributes of the dining experience it was not possible for the questionnaire to be administered before consumption. The researchers made sure to explain to the respondent that they would fill in the questionnaire after they had finished eating. In most cases, the questionnaire was collected when the guest was leaving.

In other cases especially with non-hotel restaurants, diners were approached as they exited the place. In these cases, the researchers approached every fourth diner (who accepted to be surveyed) as encouraged by Kivela, Reece and Inbakaran (1999:275). The researcher would introduce themselves and request the guests’ permission to conduct the study. After that the researcher would explain to the respondent the overall objectives of the research and the fact that participation in the survey was strictly anonymous and voluntary.

Administering the questionnaire at the point of exit was challenging, as the questionnaire was long and time consuming and some potential respondents were lost in the process. However,

the researchers exercised caution in making sure that respondents to these questionnaires were mainly tourists, both domestic and international by use of a filter question: What is your usual place of residence? Respondents who identified Gaborone as their place of residence were excluded. Every guest who had acceded to the request was surveyed. Thus the sampling frame targeted all diners above 18 years of age who were present for either lunch or dinner on that particular day and whose usual place of residence was not Gaborone. The researchers targeted one restaurant or hotel at any particular meal period. For hotels (only one in this study) with more than one restaurant, arrangements were made to visit each restaurant at its own prescribed time. In summary, a sample of 249 diners was drawn from the 13 hotel and 34 non-hotel restaurants in Gaborone which were also approached for the food and beverage supervisor survey. Incomplete questionnaires (with more than 50% of the responses missing) which were nine were excluded during analysis. In the final analysis, this left the author with 240 usable questionnaires, representing a 96% response rate from 44 restaurants that finally consented to the diner surveys (three of the restaurants returned blank unfilled questionnaires). Most of the incomplete questionnaires were collected from diners at the point of exit, some of whom cited that they were rushing for other commitments.

### ***Survey Arrangements***

Although a government permit (Appendix E) had been issued for this study from the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism, permission to conduct the surveys within the respective hotels and non-hotel restaurants was also sought from management, by telephone, email and in-person. In some cases permission was granted by the human resources manager and in others by the general managers, the food and beverage managers or the directors. Hotels or non-hotel restaurants that declined to be surveyed were excluded from participation.

### ***Tourism Marketing and Promotion Officials' Survey (Survey D)***

Semi-structured formal interviews were conducted by the author with officials, responsible for marketing tourism and local cuisine in the public and private sectors in Gaborone in August 2014. Initially five organisations were approached. These included Botswana Tourism Organisation, Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana, Botswana Craft

Marketing, Botswana Investment and Trade Centre and the Department of Art and Culture in the Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture. Efforts to approach key marketing personnel through the telephone and electronically from the Botswana Investment and Trade Centre were futile. In addition, enquiries from the Department of Art and Culture indicated that the unit was mainly a financial sponsor to marketing organisations such as Botswana Craft Marketing. As such the Department of Art and Culture was excluded because the survey was interested in organisations that were actively involved in promotion.

A purposive sample size based on accessibility of key informants from the remaining three organisations was used. One key informant from each organisation was preferred, providing a sample size of at least three key informants from the three organisations that were finally approached. The first interviewee was the Marketing Executive at Botswana Tourism Organisation. The second interviewee was the Events and Functions Manager at Botswana Craft Marketing, whilst the third was the Food Services Manager at Gaborone Sun Hotel, Casino and Conference Centre (a member of the Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana). The interviews were mainly used for soliciting information on the extent to which local cuisine could be used for tourism promotional purposes, challenges facing the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana and how these could be addressed.

### *The Interview Guide*

The interview guide had five questions in addition to seven demographic questions. The demographic questions asked respondents *inter alia*, how long they had worked for the organisation. The five interview questions were mainly designed to gather information on the extent to which Setswana cuisine was being promoted by these organisations, the challenges they faced and some of the mitigatory measures they perceived could be introduced in order to promote Setswana cuisine at a much larger scale.

### **3.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Analysis of primary data collected through the four surveys was mainly through qualitative and quantitative means, particularly through the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 22.

#### **3.4.1 Analysis of the Expert Opinion Survey (Survey A)**

The expert opinion survey was preceded by a qualitative literature search of local cuisine on travel websites and print literature as discussed in Chapter One. Twenty eight cuisine types were compiled from the preliminary search. The 28 cuisine types were then incorporated in the survey questions for experts. Sixty two experts were approached in the expert opinion survey. Some sections of the survey were analysed quantitatively using descriptive statistics such as frequency analysis. The survey also had qualitative questions. The qualitative questions were analysed thematically using content analysis.

#### **3.4.2 Analysis of the Tourist Survey (Survey C)**

Before final administration, the questionnaire designed for tourists was pilot tested. Results of the pilot test were presented in Chapter Five. In all 249 diners acceded to the survey request. However nine of the questionnaires were unusable as they had more than 50% of incompleteness. The Tourist Survey was analysed in the following manner:

##### **3.4.2.1 Tourist Demographic Profiles and Interest in Setswana Cuisine**

Frequency analysis and cross tabulations were used to present and analyse tourists' demographic information and tourist typology based on their interest in Setswana cuisine.

### **3.4.2.2 Pleasure and Arousal**

This section was analysed using descriptive statistics, especially frequency analyses. Whilst arousal was measured by one item, pleasure is a composite emotional variable that was constructed from three emotions (happy, satisfaction and content). The composite variable was tested for internal consistency reliability using Cronbach alpha. Internal consistency reliability is the extent of uniformity and coherence of the different components that make a construct (Weiner & Graham, 2003:55). According to Weiner and Graham (2003:55), Cronbach alpha is the most common statistical index for internal consistency. To be acceptable Cronbach alpha levels should fall within the acceptable range of 0.7 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:54). However, an alpha value of .90 and above would signal excellent consistency (Rubin & Babbie, 2009:83).

### **3.4.2.3 Promotion of Local Cuisine**

This section had two subsections. The first sub section was analysed using descriptive statistics, especially mean frequency analyses, since the section was measured using a five point Likert Scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The second subsection was open ended and was analysed thematically using content analysis.

### **3.4.2.4 Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour**

Descriptive statistics especially, frequency analysis was used to analyse local cuisine consumption behaviour as a composite variable. The variable was analysed for internal consistency reliability using Cronbach Alpha. The predictors of local cuisine consumption behaviour were analysed through descriptive statistics, as well as Pearson's Correlation Coefficients. Pearson's correlation coefficient tests the relationship or correlation between two variables (Pallant, 2007:126). A coefficient of +1 indicates that the two variables are perfectly positively correlated, as one variable increases so does the other (Field, 2009:170). A correlation coefficient of -1 indicates that the two variables are perfectly negatively correlated that is as one variable increases the other decreases in a proportionate manner. A coefficient of zero implies that the two variables are not correlated. As such it is desirable when testing for correlation, to observe values between -1 and +1 (Field, 2009:170). A value

of +/-1 represents a small effect, +/-3 a medium effect and +/-5 a large effect (Field, 2009:170).

To test prediction effect on Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour, eleven factors (Pleasure, Arousal, Food neophobia, Social others, Open culture, Gastronomic image, Dinescape, Availability of information on local cuisine, Accessibility of information on local cuisine, Most important attributes of local cuisine and Highly performing attributes of local cuisine) were assessed using Stepwise regression analysis. Stepwise regression analysis was also used by Robinson (2010) for assessing prediction of software piracy behaviour. Robinson (2010) also used a purposive sample. Guo and Hussey (cited by Salkind, 2010:924) also advocate for the use of a homogenous sample derived from non-probability sampling than use of a heterogeneous sample taken from probability sampling in prediction. As such regression analysis was used in this study on a purposive sample of diner respondents. However the use of such statistical methods meant the findings may not be generalizable to the wider population (Chen, 2013: 169).

Simple linear regression (using the Enter method), analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Independent sample *t* tests were then used to test other hypotheses generated in line with prediction of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. Independent sample *t* tests were used to analyse the influence of gender on food neophobia. The alpha level for the *t* test was set at .05. ANOVA was used to assess the influence of age, level of education and nationality on food neophobia. Simple linear regression was used in testing mediation influence. In general results from the Tourist/Diner survey (Survey C) are presented in Chapter Five.

### **3.4.3 Analysis of the Food and Beverage Supervisor Survey (Survey B) and the Tourism Marketing and Promotion Officials' Survey (Survey D)**

Forty four supervisors/managers formed part of the food and beverage supervisors' survey. Quantitative sections of the survey from Question EA1 to EA6 (Appendix B) were analysed using descriptive statistics. Questions EB1 to EB6, requesting respondents to highlight several aspects of their Setswana cuisine such as the challenges they usually faced in

promoting the local cuisine, were analysed by way of content analysis, specifically thematic analysis. A similar approach was used for the interviews. Demographic questions were analysed using descriptive statistics, whilst the open ended questions were analysed thematically.

Content refers to ‘words, meanings, pictures, symbols, ideas, themes or messages that can be communicated’ (Okumus, *et al.*, 2007:254). Content analysis was selected because of the need to understand in-depth views and meanings associated with written expressions, sentiments and comments from the supervisors (Mahachi & Shemi, 2014). The thematic analysis approach described by Mills, Eurepos and Wiebe (2010:926) was used in this study. This approach involved:

1. Identification of themes or patterns of cultural meaning
2. Coding and classification of data according to themes
3. Interpretation of the results in common themes

In this study, words and phrases were extracted from the food and beverage supervisors’ and interviewees’ responses and were coded and collated into themes. The collation into themes relied on the interpretive abilities of the researcher (Cassell & Symon, 1994:163). Findings derived from the analyses were then expressed either qualitatively or quantitatively (Okumus, *et al.*, 2007:255).

### **3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter has emphasised the use of a mixed method research design. The use of a number of quantitative and qualitative techniques in data collection and analysis were employed either sequentially or concurrently in order to identify cuisine that could be promoted for tourism purposes and in order to analyse factors that influence local cuisine consumption behaviour in Gaborone. Results emerging from the field research surveys are now presented in Chapter Four and Chapter Five.

## **4 CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF SURVEYS A AND B**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents and discusses findings from the first two surveys: the expert opinion survey and the food and beverage supervisors' surveys (Surveys A and B). The survey for experts was administered from April to May 2014. The food and beverage supervisors' survey was administered from May and July 2014. Due to the exploratory and descriptive nature of the research, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to analyse data. Statistical analysis was based on the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 22.

### **4.2 RESULTS OF THE EXPERT OPINION SURVEY (SURVEY A)**

The expert opinion survey was administered to a purposive sample of lecturers, food and beverage management personnel and officials in tourism and hospitality between April and May 2014. Sixty two experts were approached. The final questionnaire had five main sections. The first section requested respondents to provide their demographic profile. The second section which had a list of selected Setswana cuisine types, solicited for experts' opinions on the extent to which they perceived cuisine types could be promoted for tourism purposes. The third section then asked respondents the extent to which they associated local cuisine types with national identity. Section four addressed the main methods that could be used to promote local cuisine. Finally section five assessed respondents' views on the tourism potential and life cycle stage for Gaborone. However before final administration, the questionnaire was pretested on a purposive sample of five lecturers at the Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management at the University of Botswana as was outlined in Chapter Three.

## 4.2.1 Demographic Profile of Experts

The following section details demographic information pertinent to the experts.

### 4.2.1.1 Gender, Age, Educational Qualification and Nationality

A total of 62 experts were approached between April and May 2014. Of this sample 52% were female (Table 4.1). Most (45.2%) of the expert respondents were relatively young, aged between 30 and 39 years of age, whilst those aged below 30 were also considerable in number (38.7%).

**Table 4.1: Demographic Profile of Experts (n=62)**

Characteristic	Detail	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	32	52
	Male	30	48
Age	Below 30 years	24	38.7
	30-39 years	28	45.2
	40-49 years	6	9.7
	Above 50 years	4	6.5
Educational Qualification	BGCSE	6	9.7
	Certificate	1	27.4
	Diploma	17	25.8
	Bachelor	16	17.7
	Master	11	4.8
	Doctorate	3	1.6
	Missing	8	12.9
Nationality (by name of country)	Botswana	57	91.9
	India	1	1.6
	South Africa	1	1.6
	Zimbabwe	3	4.8

Table 4.1 also shows that the majority of respondents had medium level qualifications such as diplomas (27.4%) and bachelor's degrees (25.8). In terms of nationality, the majority of experts (91.9%) were Batswana, with 4.8% Zimbabweans, and 1.6% for both Indian and South African.

#### 4.2.1.2 Position at Place of Work

Table 4.2 indicates that the majority of respondents held positions as supervisors (24.2%) and as middle level managers (24.2%). The rest were academic lecturers (22.5%) from the main institutions that offer tourism and hospitality education and training in Botswana, operational staff (21%) and senior level managers (8.1%).

**Table 4.2: Experts' Positions at Place of Work (n=62)**

<b>Position at Work</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>% of Total sample</b>
<b>Supervisors</b>		
Restaurant Supervisor	11	
Food and Beverage Supervisor	1	
Floor Manager	1	
Head Waiter	1	
Kitchen Manager	1	
Total	15	24.2
<b>Middle Level Management</b>		
Restaurant Manager	4	
Banqueting Manager	1	
Station Manager	1	
Head of Department	1	
Executive Chef	2	
Operations Manager	1	
Food and Beverage Manager	3	
Food Services Manager	1	
Total	15	24.2
<b>Senior Level Management</b>		
Senior Administrator	2	
Finance Manager	1	
General Manager	2	
Total	5	8.1
<b>Operational Staff</b>		
Chefs	5	
Hostess	1	
Kitchen Attendant	1	
Receptionist	1	
Statistician	1	
Waiters	3	
Cashier	2	
Total	13	21.0
<b>Academics</b>		
Senior lecturers	3	
Lecturers	11	
Total	14	22.5

Categorisation of the experts' positions at their respective organisations was based mainly on Tesone's (2012) concepts of senior management, middle management and supervisory positions in the hospitality industry. Tesone (2012:12) considers supervision as the first level of management. Employees in this position, oversee the work performed by line and staff workers and may use titles such as Supervisor, Lead or Assistant Manager.

According to Tesone (2012:10), middle managers are responsible for the function of work units usually called departments, divisions or stores. The middle manager coordinates activities within and outside the department or unit. This concept was used to classify middle level managerial experts in this study. On the other hand, senior level managers occupy the top positions within their enterprises (Tesone, 2012:10). This group of managers is responsible for the strategic management of their companies.

#### 4.2.1.3 Place of Work

The majority (29.0%) of experts were from the non-hotel restaurant category (Table 4.3).

**Table 4.3: Experts' Place of Work (N=62)**

<b>Place of work</b>	<b>Number of Places</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>% of Respondents in Total sample</b>
<b>Fully Serviced Hotel</b>			
4 Star	1	6	
3 Star	2	5	
1 Star	1	1	
Total	4	12	19.3
<b>Commercial Guest House</b>			
2 Star	1	1	
1 Star	3	3	
Total	4	4	6.5
<b>Select Service Hotel</b>			
3 Star	1	1	
1 Star	1	1	
Grade Pending	2	3	
No award	1	1	
Total	5	7	11.3
<b>Non-Hotel Restaurant</b>	10	18	29.0
<b>Tourism/Hospitality Promotion Organisation</b>	2	4	6.5
<b>Travel Agency</b>	1	1	1.6
<b>Academic Institutions</b>	4	16	25.8

The others (25.8%) were academics employed at various tourism and hospitality training and education centres in Gaborone, whilst 19.3% were employed in fully serviced hotels, 11.3% in selected service hotels, 6.5% in both commercial guest houses and hospitality/tourism promotion related organisations and 1.6% in a travel agency.

#### 4.2.2 Setswana Cuisine as Tourism Resources

A list of 28 popular local Setswana menu items was compiled from menu items listed on the ten websites and from von Rudloff (2007). Experts were asked to state the extent they perceived the cuisine types had potential for tourism promotion, on a five point Likert scale (from 1, strongly disagree to 5, strongly agree). From this list it emerged that the local cuisine that had the highest potential of promotion as a tourism resource, on average as perceived by experts, was *seswaa* (pound boiled beef) (Table 4.4) with a mean rating of 4.58, followed by *koko ya Setswana* (free range Setswana chicken) (mean = 4.47).

**Table 4.4: Perceived Tourism Potential of Setswana Cuisine (N=62)**

Rank	Cuisine Item	English Translation	Std.	
			Mean	Deviation
1	<i>Seswaa</i>	pound boiled beef	4.58	.967
2	<i>Koko ya Setswana</i>	free range Setswana chicken	4.47	1.127
3	<i>Segwapa</i>	dried meat/biltong	4.35	.960
4	<i>Morogo wa dinawa</i>	bean-leaf vegetables	4.21	1.026
5	<i>Nama ya podi</i>	goat meat	4.21	1.147
6	<i>Bogobe jwa lerotse</i>	sorghum porridge with cooking melons	4.18	1.079
7	<i>Serobe</i>	boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal	4.10	1.155
8	<i>Dikgobe</i>	beans mixed with maize/ sorghum or samp	4.08	1.205
9	<i>Lerotse</i>	cooking melons	4.06	.990
10	<i>Morogo wa thepe</i>	wild spinach	4.00	1.265
11	<i>Bogobe</i>	hard sorghum porridge	3.90	1.234
12	<i>Lekatane</i>	wild melons	3.87	1.208
13	<i>Phane</i>	mopane worms	3.85	1.377
14	<i>Stampa</i>	samp (cracked maize)	3.85	1.226
15	<i>Nchwachwa</i>	cooked dry maize	3.82	1.325
16	<i>Mmidi</i>	maize cob	3.81	1.212
17	<i>Bogobe jwa ting</i>	sour sorghum porridge	3.79	1.243
18	<i>Bobola</i>	pumpkin leaf stew	3.77	1.247
19	<i>Phaletshe</i>	maize meal porridge	3.77	1.207
20	Kalahari truffle	wild mushrooms	3.74	1.196
21	<i>Lebelebele</i>	millet	3.71	1.260
22	<i>Mowana</i>	baobab fruit	3.67	1.338
23	<i>Morama</i>	wild plant	3.64	1.225

24	Gemere	traditional ginger beer	3.60	1.336
25	<i>Motogo</i>	soft sorghum porridge	3.35	1.380
26	<i>Bojalwa jwa Setswana</i>	opaque traditional beer	3.35	1.415
27	<i>Delele</i>	okra	3.21	1.416
28	<i>Khadi</i>	clear traditional beer	2.97	1.663

[Note: Some of the English translations are based on von Rudloff (2007)]

The cuisine perceived to have the least potential for promotion for tourism was *khadi* (clear traditional beer from wild fruit) at a mean rating of 2.97. The beverage is prepared from so many ingredients depending on the location (Maruapula & Chapman-Novakodfski, 2011:357). *Khadi* was possibly not expected to have high tourism potential (as it had a mean rating less than 3), mainly because it is associated with torpor from alcohol abuse. The beverage also maintains a low and inferior social status compared to commercial alternatives of alcoholic beverages (von Rudloff, n.d: 4). Although *bojalwa jwa Setswana* (opaque traditional beer) and *khadi* are both non-commercial alcoholic beverages, *bojalwa jwa Setswana* received a higher ranking in terms of tourism potential than *khadi* probably because as von Rudloff (n.d:3) states *bojalwa jwa Setswana* is a beverage that is ‘regarded with fondness’ and is drunk by consumers regardless of their social standing,

In terms of tourism potential *delele* (okra) was also considered the second least cuisine type at a mean rating of 3.21. Okra’s lack of popularity in terms of tourism potential can be closely tied to negative perception associated with its slimy appearance and texture. ‘People generally don’t take to okra’ as indicated by the National Research Council (2006:287). However it is important to note that *delele* is one of the most versatile vegetables that could be incorporated in any cuisine. The vegetable can be boiled, blanched, fried, sautéed, and steamed and is even eaten raw when young and fresh (National Research Council, 2006:288). In addition, the dry pods, when ground, can be used as a binding agent (National Research Council, 2006:288). In spite of the negative perceptions associated with okra, the National Research Council (2006:299) suggests that,

*To overcome popular repugnance requires more than science...it requires publicity. Some sort of Okra Appreciation Society would help give the vegetable a good push. It might foster newspaper and magazine coverage of okra’s possibilities. And it might operate such things as contests, recipes, home-economics courses, and nutritional awareness demonstrations. Although the plant’s prospects are high, its future*

*depends on a mental course change to break it out of the slime still blinding everyone to the crop's greater potential.*

The narrative from the National Research Council (2006:299), in a way supports the great potential and the need for an increased awareness of okra even in restaurant menus. This is a comment that could be taken seriously, given the versatility of the vegetable.

Experts were then asked to identify other cuisine they perceived could be used for promotion purposes in an open ended (subjective) question. Responses that emerged indicated that there was a considerable list of other cuisine types that experts perceived could be promoted for tourism purposes as indicated in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5: Additional Cuisine that could be Used for Tourism Purposes (n=62)**

<b>Name of Cuisine</b>	<b>English Translation</b>	<b>Number of Mentions by Experts</b>
<i>Makgomane</i>	traditional squash	6
<i>Mokoto</i>	pound beef mixed with offal	5
<i>Setopoti</i>	traditional watermelon beer	4
<i>Milo</i>	wild fruit/juice	4
Morula beer	morula beer	4
<i>Dikgeru</i>	morula nuts	4
<i>Kgengwe</i>	wild fruit	2
<i>Mokgalo</i>	wild fruit	2

(Note: cuisine that was mentioned only once was excluded from the list).

From Table 4.5 *Makgomane* (traditional squash) received the highest number of mentions amongst experts. The squash is usually boiled and served alone or with either fresh or sour milk (Maruapula & Chapman-Novakodfski, 2011:352). The list of additional cuisine to some extent reflects a deficiency on the representation of Setswana cuisine in literature. To some extent this suggests the existence of gaps in the objective (list of 28 cuisine types) and the subjective list (Table 4.5) as experts gave varied responses. There is a lot more cuisine that is not being presented in literature or travel related websites; meaning the breadth and richness of Setswana cuisine is yet to be fully and adequately presented for tourism appreciation.

#### 4.2.2.1 Local Cuisine as Tourism Resources

There was one general question that asked respondents' view of whether local cuisine could serve as a tourist attraction in Botswana. Of the 62 respondents, 53.2% strongly agreed, 35.5% agreed, whilst 9.7% were neutral and the rest (1.6%) strongly disagreed.

#### 4.2.2.2 Association of Local Cuisine and National Identity

Experts were then asked to state the level of extent to which they perceived the 28 cuisine types could be tied to national identity. This aspect for all 28 cuisine types was measured using a five point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Experts collectively perceived that *seswaa* (pound boiled beef) was the local cuisine that could be mostly associated with Botswana's national identity amongst the list of 28 menu items as indicated in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6: Perceived Association of Local Cuisine and National Identity (n=62)**

Rank	Cuisine Item	English Translation	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	<i>Seswaa</i>	pound boiled beef	4.76	.619
2	<i>Serobe</i>	boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal	4.50	.919
3	<i>Phane</i>	mopane worms	4.34	.991
4	<i>Dikgobe</i>	samp and beans	4.34	.940
5	<i>Bogobe jwa lerotse</i>	pumpkin and sorghum porridge	4.32	1.021
6	<i>Koko ya Setswana</i>	free range Setswana chicken	4.29	1.107
7	<i>Morogo wa dinawa</i>	bean-leaf vegetable	4.27	1.058
8	<i>Nama ya podi</i>	goat meat	4.23	1.078
9	<i>Segwapa</i>	dried meat/biltong	4.19	.972
10	<i>Lerotse</i>	cooking melons	4.15	1.022
11	<i>Bogobe</i>	hard sorghum porridge	4.15	1.171
12	<i>Morogo wa thepe</i>	wild spinach	4.11	1.216
13	<i>Bogobe jwa ting</i>	fermented sorghum or maize meal porridge	4.11	1.073
14	<i>Gemere</i>	traditional ginger beer	4.08	1.271
15	<i>Stampa</i>	samp	4.08	.980
16	<i>Lebelebele</i>	millet	4.08	1.091
17	<i>Bobola</i>	pumpkin leaf stew	4.06	1.143
18	<i>Motogo</i>	soft sorghum porridge	4.03	1.280
19	<i>Lekatane</i>	wild melons	4.00	1.056
20	Kalahari truffle	wild mushrooms	3.85	1.143
21	<i>Nchwachwa</i>	cooked dry maize	3.84	1.257
22	<i>Mmidi</i>	maize cob	3.81	1.252
23	<i>Khadi</i>	clear traditional beer from wild fruit	3.77	1.336
24	<i>Bojalwa jwa Setswana</i>	opaque traditional beer	3.77	1.234

25	<i>Mowana</i>	baobab fruit	3.77	1.247
26	<i>Phaletshe</i>	maize meal porridge	3.73	1.230
27	<i>Morama</i>	wild plant	3.65	1.307
28	<i>Delele</i>	okra	3.63	1.333

The cuisine item perceived to be least linked to Botswana's national identity was *delele* (Okra) (Table 4.6). Although *delele* is revered on the African market, the vegetable is known to be common in Caribbean and Asian cuisine and to some extent French and Japanese cooking (National Research Council, 2006:288). As such it is justifiable that the cuisine cannot be strongly tied to Botswana's national identity. However as noted because of its low tourism potential and low ties with national identity, a lot of effort is required in elevating *delele* to the status suggested by the National Research Council (2008:288), that of finding its way on restaurant menus, prepared in traditional styles.

*Morama* (a wild African plant) was also perceived to have a lower tie with Botswana's national identity (Table 4.6). In actual fact *morama*, also known as *marama*, is a delicacy endemic to Southern Africa (National Research Council, 2006:235). The plant is a rich source of proteins and in taste 'morama ranks with the best' (National Research Council, 2006:236). However the use of the plant for commercial purposes and including tourism could be limited to the following reasons identified by the National Research Council (2006:240) 1) the plant has been neglected and there is a lack of knowledge on its adaptation to cultivation and 2) the seeds and tubers usually take two to four years to mature (National Research Council, 2006:240), in which case, the plant fails to provide a readily accessible resource for tourism.

#### **4.2.2.3 Top Ten Cuisine Types in relation to Tourism Potential and National Identity**

The study further analysed tourism potential and national identity of some of the top ten cuisine types in each category as perceived by experts. In relation to tourism potential and association with national identity (Table 4.4 and Table 4.6), *seswaa* (pound boiled beef) attained number one position. However *koko ya Setswana* (free range Setswana chicken), which was number two under tourism potential moved down to number 6 in relation to national identity.

Whilst *serobe* (boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal) received seventh place ranking under tourism potential, it was ranked as number two under association with national identity. *Phane* (mopane worms), a cuisine whose visibility was missing in the top ten list in terms of its potential for tourism promotion received third place ranking in terms of association with national identity. *Morogo wa thepe* (wild spinach), though emerging under tourism potential lost its positioning in relation to national identity. The rest of the cuisine types maintained their visibility in the ten top lists as having both potential for tourism promotion and also having higher association with national identity (see Table 4.4 and Table 4.6).

It is quite evident from Table 4.4 and Table 4.6, that *seswaa* (pound boiled beef) is Botswana's number cuisine tourism attractor. *Seswaa* is made by,

*boiling beef (or sometimes chicken) in water with considerable quantities of salt (other spices are unthinkable) until it is very well done and soft. The meat is then removed from the large three-legged cast-iron pot it is cooked in and beaten with a wooden spoon until it takes on the texture of shredded beef.*  
(Denbow & Thebe, 2006:112).

This type of cuisine also links very well with Botswana's gastronomic image; as what tourists expect to find in Botswana, since it also received number one ranking in relation to national identity.

*Phane* (mopane worms) failed to secure a place in the top ten list of cuisine with the most tourism potential, but emerged at third place in terms of its association with national identity. The worms have a prickly skin. However, the worms are high in protein (60%) (Deutsch & Murakhver, 2012:139) and in terms of identity, the worms are a delicacy and are indigenous to South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe (Osseo-Asare, 2005:63). The taste of *phane* can differ from one geographical region to the other and depending on the preparation methods used. In Botswana for instance there are two types of *phane* that breed especially in the Northern parts of the country. In Botswana the importance of *phane* is revered on both the old five pula (P5) coin (Speth, 2010:102) and the new five pula coin.

The five pula coin bearing the picture of a mopane worm on its reverse side was first introduced on the first of November 2000 as previously it was a bank note. The emergence of

the mopane worm is symbolic of the country's cultural and socio-economic facets as Botswana's currency has been designed with 'symbolic illustration of the socio-economic, political and cultural make-up of Botswana as a country, including the importance of democracy, tourism and mining' (Bank of Botswana, 2014b). However the significance of *phane* as a tourism resource should be elevated and the worm and hence the cuisine associated with it should be accorded the national level of appreciation in tourism as it has on national currency.

In a study of 'unusual' or 'scary food' often considered as the 'Other' in cuisine literature, Mkono (2011:257) describes the mopane worm as the 'epitome of otherness'. Because of this 'otherness' the mopane worm is a unique type of cuisine that should provide an escape from the ordinary. The choice to consider *phane* for tourism promotion can therefore be based on its strong link to 'otherness', its unique gastronomic image and can also lie with the marketer's innovative ideas of increasing its acceptability amongst familiar and more acceptable cuisine. For instance, mopane worms were served alongside chocolate mousse and egg custard at the Boma, a restaurant in Victoria Falls (Mkono, 2011:257). Hwang and Lin (2010:173), also support the introduction of familiar flavours to new food to increase its chances of acceptance. The winning combination as Mkono *et al.* (2013:73) suggest, (that might also be applicable to Botswana) is attaining a balance between some degree of local cuisine and the ontological comfort of familiar food. And for some of the diners, a certificate would be awarded if they braved to eat unfamiliar cuisine (Mkono, 2011:258).

### **4.2.3 Promotion of Local Cuisine to Tourists**

Experts were also asked to state their opinions, on a five point Likert scale, on which methods they perceived could be used to promote local cuisine to domestic tourists and international tourists. The main type of promotional method that could be used for domestic tourists that was identified from the closed ended questions in the expert opinion survey was television (mean=4.48, SD =.987) (Table 4.7). This was followed by hotel and restaurant websites (mean=4.44 SD =.934).

**Table 4.7: Type of Promotional Method for Domestic Tourists**

<b>Type of Promotional Method</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Television	4.48	.987
Hotel and Restaurant Websites	4.44	.934
National Tourism Organisational Websites	4.32	1.156
Travel Guides/ books	4.23	1.062
Radio	4.15	1.252
Travel Brochures	4.13	1.079
Tour Operator/ Travel Agency Websites	4.05	1.193

For international tourists national tourism organisational websites received the highest rating (mean=4.62, SD =.891), followed by hotel and restaurant websites (mean=4.58, SD =.860) (Table 4.8).

**Table 4.8: Type of Promotional Method for International Tourists (n=62)**

<b>Type of Promotional Method</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
National Tourism Organisational Websites	4.63	.891
Hotel and Restaurant Websites	4.58	.860
Travel Brochures	4.48	.882
Tour Operator/ Travel Agency Websites	4.47	.936
Travel Guides/ books	4.40	.983
Television	3.92	1.297
Radio	3.44	1.467

From the analysis of the closed ended questions, the national tourism organisation websites, hotel and restaurant websites and television, distinctly emerged as the most preferred methods by experts for the two tourist groups. When deciding on which destination to visit, the tourist would most likely visit a national tourism website. This is especially true for international tourists who rely on the official tourism website of destination countries for tourism specific information. As travellers become more technologically literate, websites can offer destinations competitive advantage especially towards drawing the destination to tourist generating regions (Kozak, *et al.*, 2005: 9). It is therefore important to note the importance of the online platform for tourism promotion in addition to traditional methods such as television or radio.

#### 4.2.4 Destination Tourism Potential

In this sub section, experts were asked to review the attractiveness of physical facilities, economic and administrative structures available for tourism. These external factors were measured by six items on a five point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). The six items were then collectively used to create the composite variable, Destination tourism potential (Table 4.9). Table 4.9 also presents the mean and the internal consistency reliability of the variable.

**Table 4.9: Descriptive Statistics and Internal Reliability of Scale Items for Destination Tourism Potential (n=62)**

Measure	n	Mean	SD	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Destination Tourism Potential	234	3.95	.877	6	.85

Internal consistency reliability tests were conducted to assess the uniformity and coherence of the different items in the composite variable (Weiner & Graham, 2003:55). Cronbach alphas which are most commonly used for Likert scales (Whitley & Kite, 2013:668) were used for internal consistency reliability analysis. Cronbach alpha levels for all the statements in the composite variable fell within the acceptable range of 0.7 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:54). This meant that the six items were coherent and were collectively used to measure the same aspect, which was destination tourism potential.

#### 4.2.5 Destination Area Life Cycle Stage

Experts were also asked to indicate the level of extent to which they perceived tourism in Gaborone was in its involvement stage of its Area Life Cycle, through the question: Tourism in Botswana has realised an increased and regular volume of visitors (adapted from Cooper, 1992:57). Cumulatively, 42.5% of the experts agreed that tourism in Gaborone was in its involvement stage, whilst 38.8% were neutral and 18.8% disagreed. This meant that most experts agreed that Gaborone was experiencing an increased but steady flow of tourists. Secondary data reviewed in Chapter Two also supported the observation that there is an increase in tourist numbers and facilities as evidenced by the steady growth of

accommodation facilities in Gaborone and elsewhere. The steady flow of tourism is important in facilitation of tourism specific activities by tourism planners and developers. An understanding of the tourism area life cycle model is important as it can be used to align promotional strategy to the appropriate stage in the area life cycle since marketing options vary at each stage of the cycle (Cooper, 1992:60).

#### **4.2.6 Summary of Findings from the Expert Survey**

From the expert survey opinion survey a ranking of the 28 cuisine types established from ten travel related websites and literature was obtained. There were two rankings, one for perceived tourism potential and the other on perceived association with national identity. In both rankings, *seswaa* (pound boiled beef) emerged as the number cuisine tourism attractor, as it had the highest ranking for tourism potential (Mean = 4.58, SD = .967) and was perceived to be highly associated with national identity (Mean = 4.76, SD = .619). National identity is an important indicator of gastronomic image. However in a destination that is mainly at the involvement stage of its tourism area life cycle (based on review of literature and a 42.5% expert agreement level), and as a destination that is trying to establish fully fledged tourism seasons, the study recommends the inclusion of 20 key cuisine types in the strategic framework for Gaborone. The 20 cuisine types are amongst the top ten cuisine types in relation to tourism potential, association with national identity and amongst the additional cuisine types identified in one of the open ended questions in the survey (see Table 4.5). These are: *seswaa* (pound boiled beef), *koko ya Setswana* (free range Setswana chicken), *morogo wa dinawa* (bean-leaf vegetable), *segwapa* (dried meat/biltong), *bogobe jwa lerotse* (sorghum porridge with cooking melons), *serobe* (boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal), *morogo wa thepe* (wild spinach), *phane* (mopane worms), *dikgobe* (samp and beans), *lerotse* (cooking melons), *nama ya podi* (goat meat), *makgomane* (traditional squash), *mokoto* (pound beef mixed with offal), *setopoti* (traditional melon beer), *milo* (wild fruit juice), morula beer, *dikgeru* (morula nuts), *kgengwe* (wild fruit) and *mokgalo* (wild fruit).

The 20 cuisine types can further be classified under:

Meats and proteins: *seswaa* (pound boiled beef); *koko ya Setswana* (free range Setswana chicken); *segwapa* (*dried meat/biltong*); *serobe* (boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal); *phane* (mopane worms); *nama ya podi* (goat meat); *mokoto* (pound beef mixed with offal).

Cereals and Starches: *bogobe jwa lerotse* (sorghum porridge with cooking melons);

Fruits and Vegetables: *morogo wa dinawa* (bean-leaf vegetable); *morogo wa thepe* (wild

spinach); *lerotse* (cooking melons); *makgomane* (traditional squash); *dikgeru* (morula nuts), *kgengwe* (wild fruit) and *mokgalo* (wild fruit).

<sup>2</sup>Composite cuisine: *dikgobe* (samp and beans)

Beverages: *Setopot* (ginger beer); *milo* (wild fruit juice), morula beer,

The classification is helpful in menu planning and menu consideration. It was further noted that the 12 cuisine types identified in the top ten lists (Table 4.4 and Table 4.6) have varying levels of tourism potential and association with national identity. It is therefore important to develop appropriate strategies for each cuisine depending on the strength of each of the two features. However depending on the level of stage of development at a destination, all 28 cuisine types identified by experts and the eight additional cuisine types identified as additional cuisine types by experts could be incorporated in a cuisine strategy for Botswana at a broader level.

In summary the main methods identified by experts that could be used for promoting local cuisine to domestic tourists were largely Television (Mean = 4.48, SD = .987), Hotel and restaurant websites (Mean = 4.44, SD = .934), National Tourism Organisational Websites (Mean = 4.32, SD = 1.156) and travel guides/books (Mean = 4.23, SD = 1.062) (Table 4.8). As for international tourists, experts perceived that the following could be used to a larger extent: National Tourism Organisational websites (Mean = 4.63, SD = .891), Hotel and restaurant websites (Mean = 4.58, SD = .860), Travel brochures (Mean = 4.48, SD = .882), Tour operators (Mean = 4.47, SD = .936), and Travel guides/books (Mean = 4.40, SD = .983) (Table 4.9).

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<sup>2</sup> The composite cuisine is a combination of two/more organic compounds, in this case protein and carbohydrates. Composite cuisines are important in Africa as they offer a readily available balanced meal.

Lastly in terms of destination tourism potential experts perceived Gaborone as being conducive for tourism growth (Mean = 3.95, SD = .877) (Table 4.9) and being at the involvement stage of its destination area life cycle.

### **4.3 RESULTS OF THE FOOD AND BEVERAGE SUPERVISOR SURVEY (SURVEY B)**

In addition to the expert survey, another survey was administered to a sample of food and beverage personnel at establishments that offered local cuisine on their menu. Initially 66 establishments had been identified for the sampling frame. However due to an exclusion criterion discussed in Chapter Three and the lack of management consent to participate in the survey for some of the restaurant facilities, the final sampling frame was comprised of 47 establishments (13 hotel restaurants and 34 non-hotel restaurants). One questionnaire was self-administered to one key food and beverage supervisor or employee per restaurant facility. Of the 47 administered a total of 44 questionnaires were retrieved, giving a response rate of 94%. This survey was used to elicit *inter alia*, information on the extent to which local cuisine is promoted on organisational menus and the extent and methods used to inform tourists on local cuisine offerings. The questionnaires were personally and interviewer administered by the author and a research assistant between May and July 2014. The questionnaire had both open ended and closed ended questions. This questionnaire had two sections: a section on the demographic profile of respondents and a second section on aspects of local cuisine offering within the establishments.

#### **4.3.1 Demographic Profile of Supervisors**

A total of 44 food and beverage questionnaires from 13 hotel and 31 non-hotel restaurants that offer local cuisine in Gaborone were received in the final analysis. The respondents' demographic profiles are presented in Table 4.10.

**Table 4.10: Demographic Profile of Food and Beverage Personnel (n=22)**

Characteristic	Detail	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	28	63.6
	Male	16	36.4
Age	Below 30 years	18	40.9
	30-39 years	22	50
	40-49 years	2	4.5
	Above 50 years	2	4.5
Educational Qualification	BGCSE	8	18.2
	Diploma	20	45.5
	Bachelor	10	22.7
	Missing	6	13.6
Nationality (by name of country)	Botswana	40	90.9
	Zimbabwe	4	9.1

Of the 44 respondents, 63.6% were female and the rest (36.4%) were male (Table 4.10). The majority of the respondents were reasonably young as most (50%) were aged between 30-39 years of age and 40.9% were below 30 years of age. In terms of their highest educational qualifications, most (45.5%) were diploma holders. In addition, 90.9% of the respondents were Batswana. The sample was also comprised of middle level managers (36%), supervisors (32%), operational staff (23%) and senior level managers (9%) (Table 4.11).

**Table 4.11: Food and Beverage Personnel's Positions at Place of Work (n=44)**

Position at Work	Frequency	% of Total Sample
<b>Supervisors</b>		
Restaurant Supervisor	12	
Food and Beverage Supervisor	2	
Total	14	32
<b>Middle Level Management</b>		
Restaurant Manager	2	
Banqueting Manager	2	
Executive Chef	4	
Operations Manager	2	
Food and Beverage Manager	4	
Food Services Manager	2	
Total	16	36
<b>Senior Level Management</b>		
Administrator	2	
General Manager	2	
Total	4	9
<b>Operational staff</b>		
Chefs	6	
Kitchen Attendant	2	
Waitress	2	
Total	10	23

Table 4.12 further reveals that the majority (70.5%) of respondents were working in non-hotel restaurants, whilst 15.9 % were working in select service hotels. The rest (13.6) were working in fully serviced hotels.

**Table 4.12: Food and Beverage Supervisors' Place of Work (n=44)**

<b>Type of Restaurant</b>	<b>Number of Places</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>% of Respondents in Total Sample</b>
<b>Fully Serviced Hotel</b>			
4 Star	1	1	
3 Star	2	2	
2 Star	3	3	
Sub-Total	6	6	13.6
<b>Selected Service Hotel</b>			
3 Star	3	3	
1 Star	2	2	
Grade Pending	1	1	
No award	1	1	
Sub-Total	7	7	15.9
<b>Non-Hotel Restaurant</b>	31	31	70.5
<b>Total</b>	44	44	100

### 4.3.2 Aspects of Local Cuisine Offering Within the Establishments

Food and beverage supervisors were also asked to state their opinions on five main aspects of local cuisine offering within their establishments. These aspects were on the type of Setswana cuisine preferred by visitors to restaurant facilities, coverage of Setswana cuisine on the menu, awareness of Setswana cuisine offering by diners, methods used to inform diners of the availability of Setswana cuisine offerings and challenges faced when promoting Setswana cuisine. However the coverage of Setswana cuisine on the menu is presented under methods used to inform diners of the availability of Setswana cuisine offerings.

#### 4.3.2.1 Type of Setswana Cuisine Preferred by Visitors

Table 4.13 highlights the local cuisine that was mostly preferred by visitors, dining within the sampled hotel and non-hotel restaurant facilities as perceived by food and beverage personnel.

**Table 4.13: Type of Setswana Cuisine Preferred by Visitors at Restaurant Facility**

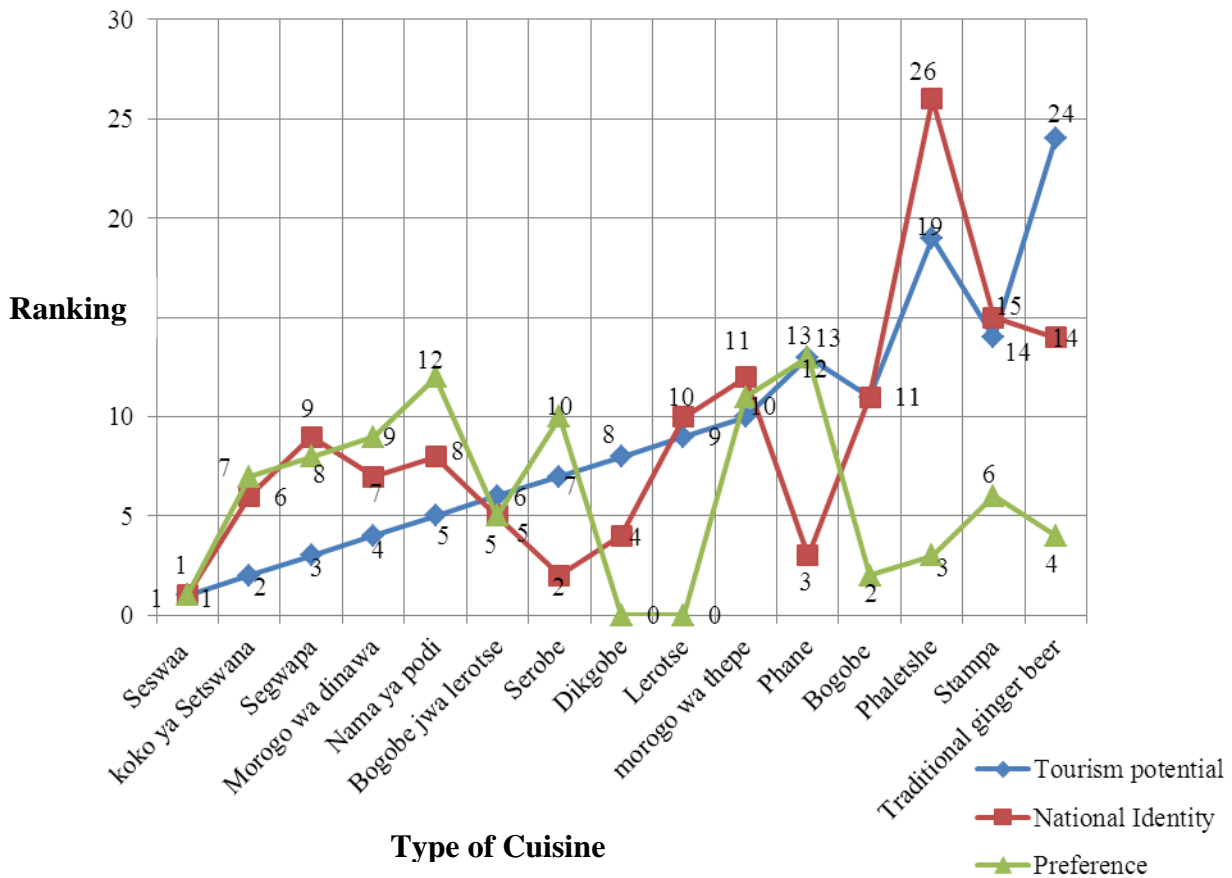
Rank	Type of cuisine	English Translation	Number of mentions
1	<i>Seswaa</i>	pound boiled beef	15
2	<i>Bogobe</i>	hard sorghum porridge	6
3	<i>Phaletshe</i>	maize meal porridge	5
4	<i>Gemere</i>	traditional ginger beer	4
5	<i>Bogobe jwa lerotse</i>	pumpkin and sorghum porridge	4
6	<i>Stampa</i>	samp	3
7	<i>Koko ya Setswana</i>	free range Setswana chickens	3
8	<i>Segwapa</i>	dried meat/biltong	3
9	<i>Morogo wa dinawa</i>	bean-leaf vegetable	1
10	<i>Serobe</i>	boiled, diced sweet breads/offals	1
11	<i>Morogo wa thepe</i>	wild spinach	1
12	<i>Nama ya podi</i>	goat meat	1
13	<i>Phane</i>	edible Mopane tree worms	1

From the food and beverage supervisors' responses, a list of 13 most preferred cuisine was generated (Table 4.13). Table 4.13, indicates that *seswaa* acquired number one position as the most preferred cuisine by diners as perceived by food and beverage supervisors. This was followed by *bogobe* and *phaletshe*.

However a more contrasting view between experts and food and beverage supervisors from the selected hotel and non-hotel restaurants, in terms of the top ten cuisines preferred by tourists was observed. Two cuisine types, *phaletshe* (maize meal porridge) and *gemere* (ginger beer) whose presence was neither observed in Table 4.4 and Table 4.6 as part of the top ten lists, were ranked (by supervisors) as the third and fourth most preferred cuisine type by customers visiting the restaurant facilities that were surveyed in Table 4.13. Even though the two (*phaletshe* and *gemere*) were not considered as having higher tourism potential or highly linked with national identity in comparison to other cuisine types (see Table 4.4 and Table 4.6), their preference by visitors should warrant their presence in the portfolio of Setswana cuisine intended for promotion. This brings out an important aspect for consideration with promotional aspects associated with Setswana cuisine: supply (expert opinions and preferences) should not be considered in isolation from demand preferences, rather they should match them.

The three important aspects identified in this study; tourism potential, national identity and customer preference were then used to develop a cuisine tourism promotion matrix (Figure

4.1) of rankings for Setswana cuisine. In the final analysis based on the rankings in Table 4.4, Table 4.6 and Table 4.13, a new list of 15 cuisine types emerged (Figure 4.1) that could be considered for incorporation in the strategic framework. *Seswaa* was number one in all three aspects, whilst *koko ya Setswana* was number six in terms of national identity, number seven in terms of preference and number 2, in terms of tourism potential (Figure 4.1). This list as displayed in Figure 4.1 also includes cuisine types like, *dikgobe*, which received no preference rating (in the top ten) but was perceived to represent cuisine that had high association with national identity (ranked fourth) and average tourism potential (position eight).



**Figure 4.1: Rankings of Tourism Potential, Link with National Identity and Customer Preference of Key Setswana Cuisine**

Although *serobe* (boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal) received second place ranking in terms of association with national identity, the cuisine type received seventh place ranking in terms of tourism potential and tenth place in relation to customer preference. *Serobe* might not appeal to tourists because of the main ingredients used. To prepare *serobe*, the

*intestines and selected internal parts of a goat, sheep, or cow are first cleaned (although many insist this not be overdone, or it will remove much of the “flavor”). They are then boiled along with peeled goat or sheep hooves before being finely chopped.*

(Denbow & Thebe, 2006:113).

Offals or the internal parts of animals may harbour bacteria and can become foul smelling if kept over a long considerable time without proper storage. In addition some caterers insist on not over cleaning the offals as they may lose their flavour in the process, however this may be a contradiction to safety and hygiene standards. So although, *serobe* is a good marker of Setswana identity it may lack potential as a tourism resource due to aesthetic reasons as mentioned earlier.

In an additional open ended question, as previously mentioned, experts were asked to identify other cuisine they perceived could be used for tourism promotion. This question yielded eight additional cuisine types (Table 4.5). These were *makgomane* (traditional squash), *mokoto* (pound beef mixed with offal), *setopoti* (traditional melon beer), *mmilo* (wild fruit juice), morula beer, *dikgeru* (morula nuts), *kgengwe* (wild fruit) and *mokgalo* (wild fruit). These cuisine types had more than one mention by experts in the opinion survey. The additional cuisine indicate to some extent the inadequacy of tourism literature, especially online travel sites in presenting cuisine that has potential for tourism promotion; since literature was used to generate the initial list of 28 cuisine types. However the eight additional cuisine types represent additional cuisine that should be presented in tourism literature. The eight cuisine types in addition to the 15 identified in Figure 4.1 were all included in the strategic framework.

#### **4.3.2.2 Awareness of Setswana Cuisine Offering by Diners**

Respondents were also asked to indicate whether diners were aware of the Setswana cuisine offerings on the menu (Question EB3, Appendix B). Table 4.15 highlights the responses received for the question.

**Table 4.14: Awareness of Setswana Cuisine Offerings by Diners**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Yes	33	75.1
Not really; not entirely	6	13.6
No	2	4.5
<i>No response</i>	3	6.8

Most respondents (75.1%) indicated that diners were aware of the local cuisine on offer. Some went on to even indicate that diners were aware ‘since they are mainly local’, and that they ‘they visit for local dishes most of the time’, ‘especially seswaa which is a favourite dish to all our guests, especially whites’. However one respondent agreed that diners were aware but ‘others can’t understand them’. Amongst the respondents, others (13.6%) indicated that diners were not entirely aware of Setswana cuisine offerings, allowing room for improvement in terms of how local cuisine is promoted in restaurant facilities.

#### **4.3.2.3 Methods used to inform Diners of the availability of Setswana Cuisine Offerings**

Food and beverage supervisors were then asked to state the main methods they used to inform diners of the availability of Setswana cuisine (Question EB4, Appendix B). Table 4.16 highlights the main methods respondents used at their facilities to inform diners.

**Table 4.15: Methods used to Inform Diners of Setswana Cuisine Offerings**

<b>Type of Method</b>	<b>Examples cited</b>	<b>Number of mentions</b>
<b>Media Advertising</b>	<i>Television</i>	6
	<i>Radio</i>	5
<b>Point of Purchase Advertising</b>	<i>In-house Television Screens</i>	1
	<i>Menu</i>	15
	<i>Randomized Tasting by Diners</i>	1
<b>Direct Response and Interactive Advertising</b>	<i>Email</i>	1
	<i>Website</i>	4
	<i>Brochure</i>	3
	<i>Travel book</i>	1
	<i>Flyer</i>	1
<b>Publicity</b>	<i>Word of Mouth</i>	
<b>Place Advertising</b>	<i>Day specials</i>	6
<b>Other</b>	<i>Other</i>	2
<b>None</b>	<i>None</i>	1
<b>Total</b>		<b>41</b>

(Source: Methods adapted from Keller, 2001: 820-821).

(Note: some respondents mentioned more than one method).

Food and beverage supervisors were also asked to state the extent of Setswana cuisine coverage on the menu (Question EB2, Appendix B). The extent of coverage of local Setswana cuisine on the restaurants' menu was analysed using percentage rating. Respondents were expected to indicate on a scale of 0% to 100% the extent to which the menu was indicative of Setswana cuisine.

The menu was considered very important (15 mentions, n = 44), in informing tourists' of Setswana cuisine offerings (Table 4.15). However Setswana cuisine for 48% of the 44 establishments, only occupied about 25 to 50% of the menu. Setswana cuisine also occupied less than 25% and around 51% to 75% of the menu for 19% of the facilities in both cases. Setswana cuisine occupied more than 75% of the menu for only 14% of the facilities. This, to some extent is attributable to the fact that most operators perceived a lack of market interest from the locals and as such concentrated on offering contemporary cuisine with piecemeal offerings of Setswana cuisine. The lack of market interest is one of the themes that emerged when food and beverage supervisors were asked what challenges they faced when trying to promote Setswana cuisine. This challenge is explained further under Chapter Five. When the sample of restaurant facilities that would form part of the survey was being defined in Chapter Three, an exclusion criteria was used to identify by all means possible a representative purposive sample of restaurant facilities that offer Setswana cuisine in Gaborone. Although all restaurant facilities offered some form of Setswana cuisine, Setswana cuisine coverage of at least 75% or more on the menu was evident in only 14% of the establishments. This is a trend that indicates to some extent that there are very few restaurants that specialise in Setswana cuisine and this is to the disadvantage of other customer markets that may be interested in tasting the local cuisine of Botswana.

The food service facilities also mainly relied on television (6 mentions, n = 44) and word of mouth (6 mentions, n = 44) in informing tourists of local cuisine offerings (Table 4.15). These methods though, are more attuned to attracting local or domestic tourists than international tourists, because as one international tourist from the United States, stated 'the menu at the restaurant should have 3 or local food items and they should explain what they are in simple language. Information is extremely important for customers'. The statement by the tourist and the review of the food and beverage supervisor survey, indicate to some extent

that local food service facilities in Gaborone have not embraced themselves fully in attracting an international audience. Even the use of the hotel websites was only mentioned by four respondents (n = 44).

#### **4.3.2.4 Challenges Faced when Promoting Setswana Cuisine**

Food and beverage supervisors were then asked to indicate in their own words the challenges they faced in their attempts to promote Setswana cuisine (Question EB5, Appendix B). Based on the author's language and interpretive abilities, challenges faced when promoting local cuisine as perceived by the food and beverage supervisors, were classified into seven themes (depending on the context of the response from the food and beverage personnel).

The first challenge identified was the language barrier. The theme was constructed using phrases such as 'the food has difficult names', 'most of them don't know the local food, 'explaining the recipes', 'it is difficult to explain the food' and 'they don't understand the language'. The language barrier is a common communication gap associated with cuisine tourism (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:764). Probably this is also one of the reasons why in the pilot test, the experts (Survey A) could not describe attributes of Setswana cuisine. This is an area that is under documented and upon further research, this area could assist caterers in menu design as specific menu descriptions (with proper standardised English translations) could be constructed using the various attributes that would have been generated. More research effort therefore needs to be extended in identifying cuisine specific attributes which can then be used as selling points or markers for cuisine tourism.

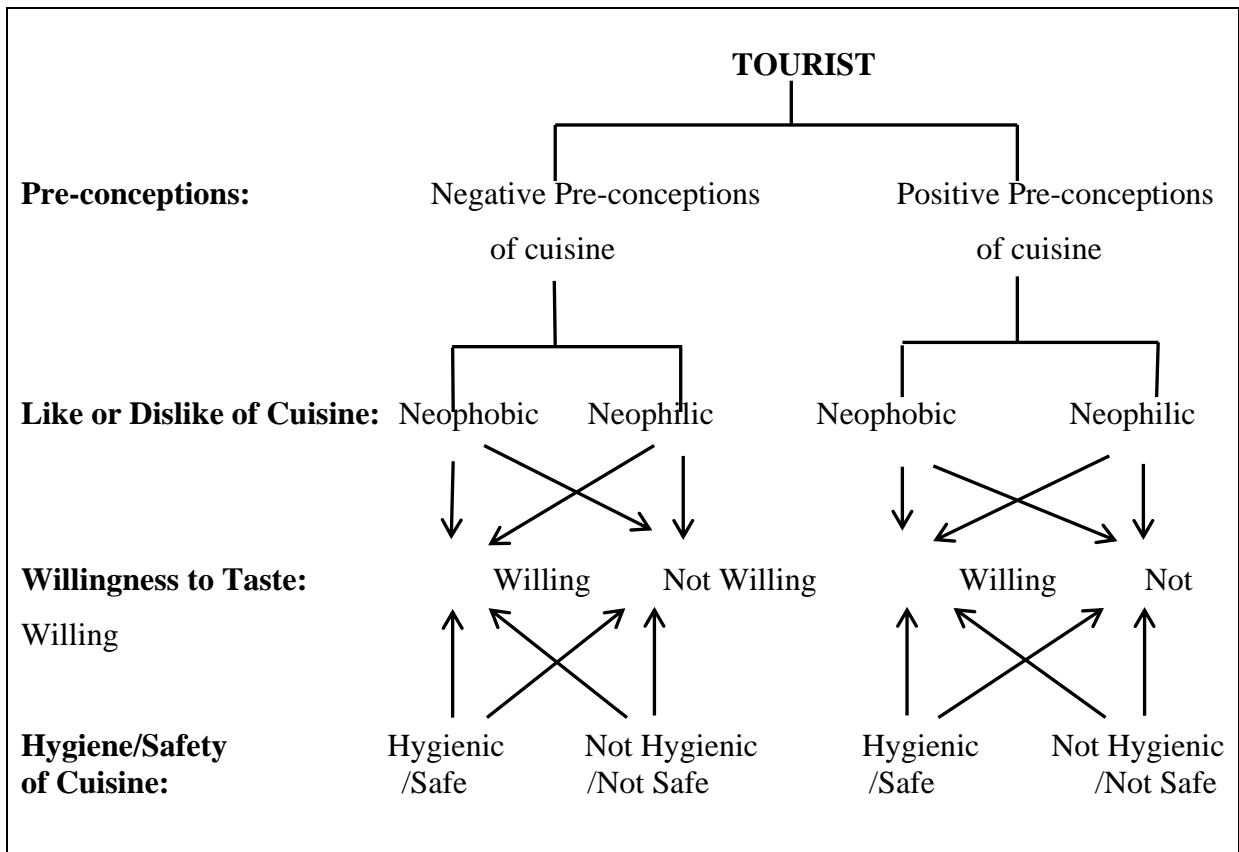
The second theme emerging from the analysis was safety, health and hygiene considerations. This theme was developed using phrases such as 'most feel like it is something they can't eat after tasting', 'tourists are double minded on whether the food is clean or not', and that 'they feel like it is not safe to eat'. These three statements for instance to some extent portray the importance of preconceived thoughts in the mind of the tourist. However these preconceived thoughts could be fallacies. There are two implications emerging from this: firstly there is need of converting fallacy into fact and secondly there is need for assurance (or re-assurance in some cases) of the hygienic and safety aspects of the local cuisine. These two implications are associated with pre-travel decisions and during-travel arrangements.

During the pre-travel decision making phase, tourists require information on the safety and hygienic aspects of local cuisine from the national tourism websites, the hotel websites or maybe television as suggested in this study. The pre-travel decision on food safety is especially important for the first time visitor or infrequent visitors (Maclaurin, 2004: 245), in comparison to the frequent travellers who minimise travel related risks with their extensive experience of foreign places. Although the number of first time visitors in the sample was small (6.5%, see Chapter Five), first time visitors are important in influencing word of mouth advertising based on their first impressions of the cuisine and the dinescape.

During travel, assurance is received at the destination, and most confirmatory, from the food service facility. However although tourists may have negative thoughts of some of the local cuisine, this is often exacerbated by its actual appearance. Cohen and Avieli (2004:762) emphasised this point when they wrote,

*The tourists' apprehensions regarding the safety of local food at the destination constitute a significant impediment to novel culinary experiences. Even when they do not suffer from neophobia, tourists are often reluctant to eat, or even sample, local food out of health worries or disgust caused by its unhygienic appearance.*

A number of contrasting views stem from Cohen and Avieli's writing and have been used to develop Figure 4.2. These can have implications on the safety, health and hygiene challenge identified in this study and hence the overall approach used in appealing to the cuisine tourist.



**Figure 4.2: Hygiene and Safety Conceptions of Food Neophobia and Food Neophilia**  
 (Source: Adapted from Cohen & Avieli, 2004).

A number of permutations emerge from Figure 4.2. For instance, tourists may have negative pre-conceived ideas about local cuisine, be neophobic but still be willing to taste the local cuisine, regardless of its hygienic/safety presentation. On the other hand, a tourist may have positive pre-conceptions of local cuisine, be neophilic, but be reluctant to taste the local cuisine. Therefore each scenario displayed in Figure 4.2 has different implications on the promotion of local cuisine. With each permutation it becomes increasingly difficult to promote local cuisine. As such it is important to be observant of the fact that cuisine tourists amongst any selected group have varying levels of neophobia. However working from the bottom of Figure 4.2, if the appearance of the cuisine is hygienic, it is most probable that willingness to taste is encouraged so are the positive pre-conceptions. The positive pre-conceptions are vital in encouraging the intention to taste and hence the eventual behaviour of consumption.

Figure 4.2 also highlights to some extent the complexity of food neophobia and food neophilia. The figure also conveys the assumption that there are varying levels of phobia which should be investigated further in the context of local cuisine. This was one of the

observations developing from Chapter Five. This study also emphasises that a new approach of classifying cuisine tourists can be adopted based entirely on this model or a modified version.

The third theme of challenges, supply irregularities, emerged from phrases like ‘maintaining availability and quality is a problem’, ‘non-availability of commodities’ and ‘availability of stock from the suppliers is not consistent’. Supply challenges in the hospitality industry are not a new problem (Bélisle, 1984:820). Because of their quest to provide fresh and quality menu items, restaurant facilities often discover themselves in quandaries with suppliers on irregularities associated with inconsistent deliveries. This trend is not even surprising in Africa, as it increasingly realises food supply and agricultural production irregularities due to drought and crop pestilences.

The fourth theme was a lack of market interest developed from phrases such as ‘some of the tourists are not interested’, ‘our customers are resistant’, ‘our target market the youth, are not interested in local cuisine’. The survey brought in two contrasting and ironic opinions, especially from the customers point of view. From one side, the food and beverage supervisors could easily identify cuisine mostly preferred by diners, but on the other hand they cited aspects such as a lack of market interest in Setswana cuisine. The general perception emerging from the survey was that although there were some customers who preferred Setswana cuisine to a larger extent there was limited interest in this type of cuisine. This observation is supported by the conclusion that only 14% of the surveyed establishments had Setswana cuisine coverage of more than 75% on their menu. The low number of specialist Setswana cuisine providers is emphasised by the lack of market interest as stated. However upon further analysis it seems that the lack of market interest is emanating from the locals, especially the youth who frequent these facilities.

The fifth theme was cost. Six of the food and beverage supervisors indicated that sometimes the ingredients are too costly. The cost aspect can be an important factor especially that the menu item would be relatively much pricier in comparison to similar items in its category. For instance the alternative of maize meal is sorghum meal (*bopi jwa mabele*). The average price for maize meal in the Gaborone region was P3.00 per kilogramme whilst that of sorghum meal was P5.00 per kilogramme in 2012 (Statistics Botswana, 2014:116-117). This would mean that relative to maize meal porridge (*phaletshe or pap*) sorghum porridge

(*bogobe*) is expected to be costlier. However despite its cost, in terms of connection to national identity and its potential for tourism promotion, *bogobe* received an 11<sup>th</sup> place ranking, whilst *phaletshe* or *pap* was ranked 19<sup>th</sup> in terms of tourism potential and 26<sup>th</sup> in terms of national identity (Tables 4.4 and 4.6 respectively).

The cost aspect is also extended to the diners, as generally from the study, in terms of likely expenditure on meals and restaurants the majority (66.2%) were likely to spend less than US\$50 (See Chapter Five). Though acting as a deterrent to customer choice, to some extent cost can be traded for the unique experience that is associated with cuisine types with higher potential for promotion and national identity.

The sixth theme was competition especially from street vendors who are selling similar dishes. Street vendors, who have found space around main government enclaves and business centres, sell similar cuisine and sometimes in bulk and at a much relatively lower price. It could not be established in this study whether street vendors source their produce from similar suppliers as the restaurant facilities. However because street vendors have lesser operational costs in terms of site expenses or labour expenses, their products may be less costly.

Lastly aesthetic factors are associated with the visual appearance of the cuisine itself. The theme was developed from phrases like ‘some tourists don’t like the appearance of the local food like *phane*’, the ‘food does not look presentable’. Others cited reasons such as the ‘appearance was bland’ and was ‘not appealing for presentation’. Indeed some of the cuisine is bland in colour and appearance and lacks that overall appeal associated with the visual presentation of foods and beverages. This is one of the reasons why the cuisine may not appeal to the tourists as suggested by the supervisors.

### 4.3.3 Summary of Findings from the Food and Beverage Supervisor Survey

From the Food and Beverage supervisors' survey, a list of 13 cuisine types was generated. However from this list supervisors strongly perceived that customers preferred (in order of preference of the top ten items), *Seswaa* (pound boiled beef), *Bogobe* (hard sorghum porridge), *Phaletshe* (maize meal porridge), *Gemere* (traditional ginger beer), *Bogobe jwa lerotse* (pumpkin and sorghum porridge), *Stampa* (samp), *Koko ya Setswana* (free range Setswana chickens), *Segwapa* (dried meat/biltong), *Morogo wa dinawa* (bean-leaf vegetable) and *Serobe* (boiled, diced sweet breads/offals). Two cuisine types (*phaletshe* and *gemere*), though not being cited as having high tourism potential and association with national identity by experts in Survey A, were considered to be highly preferred by customers who visited the restaurant facilities as indicated by the food and beverage supervisors. Customer preference (in addition to tourism potential and national identity resulting from the expert survey) was therefore one of the three main concepts that was used in the proposed strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine.

Seventy five percent of the supervisors (see Table 4.15) perceived that the local populace were very much aware of the cuisine that is currently being offered in most facilities. Because some of the clientele were also considered to be South African, supervisors expected them to know the local cuisine offerings. Although supervisors who formed part of this survey, indicated that the customers do prefer Setswana cuisine and even identified the cuisine types mostly preferred, the study found out that Setswana cuisine occupied at least 75% of the menu for only 14% of the 44 establishments. As such customer awareness or a lack of it, forms an important aspect of the demand side of the strategic framework.

The main challenges food and beverage supervisors were facing in relation to Setswana cuisine were associated with the language barrier, safety and hygiene considerations, and lack of market interest, cost implications, competition, aesthetic factors and supply irregularities. Most of the challenges were supply driven than demand driven. This is a consideration that was taken note in drafting the proposed framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Chapter Six.

#### **4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter sought to present results of the empirical surveys that were undertaken in Gaborone between April and July 2014. Surveys were conducted amongst 62 experts from both the practitioner and academic fields in tourism and hospitality and amongst 44 food and beverage supervisors within hotel and non-hotel restaurants. The results were presented in narrative and illustrative forms. The results were also discussed in relation to their impact on the strategic framework which is the main goal of this study.

## **5 CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF SURVEYS C AND D**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The following section presents findings associated with the tourist/diner questionnaire (Survey C) and the interviews with tourism and hospitality marketing officials (Survey D). Survey C had seven main sections. The first section comprised of questions on the travel and demographic characteristics of the diners. The second section tried to identify the level of interest in local Setswana cuisine. The third and fourth sections had questions on pleasure and arousal associated with local cuisine consumption, respectively. The fifth section had questions on the promotion of local cuisine, whilst the sixth section was on consumption behaviour. Lastly, section seven had questions on factors that influence consumption behaviour. Survey D on the other hand had two main sections: the demographic profiles and a set of five questions on the promotion of Setswana cuisine.

### **5.2 RESULTS OF THE TOURIST/DINER SURVEY (SURVEY C)**

Data collection was based on three criteria: firstly respondents were supposed to be visitors and not residents of Gaborone. Secondly, respondents must have experienced local cuisine in Gaborone or Botswana during their current trips. Thirdly respondents should have spent not more than 12 consecutive months in Gaborone, in the case of international tourists (Lubbe, 2003:51). Questionnaires were administered between May and July 2014 by the author and a research assistant.

### 5.2.1 The Pilot Test

The questionnaire was piloted on a group of eight diners at a three star lodge in Gaborone on Saturday the 28<sup>th</sup> of June 2014 during lunch time (12h00 to 14h00). This group comprised of Senegalese nationals who were on a two week tour in Botswana. That Saturday was their fourth day in the country.

The author approached the group just after most of the diners had finished eating their dessert course. The author introduced herself and explained the main reason why she was interrupting their meal. After consensus, the group filled in the questionnaire. They made a few observations regarding the following questions:

1. Question TA6. How many times have you visited Gaborone in the last 12 months:  
It was their first time to visit the country and an option to indicate such on the questionnaire was missing.
2. Question TA14. Approximately how much do you plan to spend on this trip on:
  - A. Transport
  - B. Accommodation
  - C. Meals and Restaurants
  - D. Other

Two of the group members indicated that this question could include a range of possible expenditure for its various components. For example for transport the question could have a range of US\$0 to US\$50.

3. Pleasure Scale:  
Aspects of the pleasure scale were not numbered.

After the pilot test and the observations, the author decided to include a response section for 'this once' for question TA6 in the final tourist questionnaire. The author also introduced three possible expenditure options, that is a range of 'less than US \$50', 'between US\$ 50-US\$ 99', and 'more than US\$100' for question TA14. The scale items in the pleasure scale were then numbered from TB4ai to TB4aiii.

## 5.2.2 The Final Questionnaire

A total of 249 questionnaires were administered to diners at 47 restaurant facilities. However at the last minute, three of these facilities declined to consent to the survey request. In addition nine of the 249 questionnaires were unusable as they had more than 50% of incompleteness. Thus the final analysis was based on a 96% response rate from diners at 44 restaurants. A high response rate was achieved and the author with help from the research assistant aided respondents in filling the questionnaires. The following sections present findings on the seven main sections of the questionnaire, starting with the demographic and travel profile of the diners.

### 5.2.2.1 Demographic and Travel Profile of Diners

Demographic information on gender, age, highest educational qualification and nationality was analysed from the questionnaire. Table 5.1 presents the demographic profile of the 240 diners.

**Table 5.1: Demographic Profile of Diners**

Characteristic	Detail	Frequency	%	N
Gender	Female	81	33.8	N=240
	Male	159	66.3	
Age	Below 30 years	99	41.3	N=232
	30-39 years	111	46.3	
	40-49 years	18	7.5	
	Above 50 years	12	5.0	
Educational Qualification	BGCSE	6	2.8	N=216
	Diploma	102	47.2	
	Bachelor	78	36.1	
	Master	24	11.1	
	Doctorate	6	2.8	
Nationality (by name of country)	Botswana	192	82	N=234
	United States	9	3.8	
	United Kingdom	3	1.3	
	Malawi	3	1.3	
	South Africa	9	3.8	
	Sweden	3	1.3	
	Zimbabwe	15	6.5	

Table 5.1 reveals that the majority of participants (66.3%) were male. The majority (46%) were also aged between 30-39 years. In terms of educational qualifications, the majority were Diploma holders (47%) and 82% were from Botswana. The finding that most diners were Batswana is consistent with responses emerging from the food and beverage supervisor survey where 75 % (n = 44) indicated that diners would be aware of the Setswana cuisine that is on offer within the food and beverage service facilities. One Food and Beverage Manager in particular reiterated that the diners are aware 'since they are mainly local'.

### ***Travel Profile of Diners***

The sub-section for the diners' travel profile had eight questions as presented in Table 5.2. Most of the diners (25%) visited Gaborone almost every day, in the past 12 months (Table 5.2). Others (23.8%) visited almost monthly, whilst some (22.5%) visited almost every week. The rest (20%) visited once or so in year, this once (2.5%) and others could not remember (6.3%).

The sample also comprised of diners who infrequently went out dining as most (40%) indicated that they go out dining only a few times during the year (Table 5.2). Table 5.2 also shows that some (26.3% and 20%) respondents dined out a few times a week and at least once a week respectively.

**Table 5.2: Travel Profile of Diners**

<b>Name of Question and Responses</b>	<b>No. of Diners</b>	<b>%</b>
Times visited Gaborone in last 12 months (n=240)		
<i>Almost everyday</i>	60	25
<i>Almost every week</i>	54	22.5
<i>Once a month</i>	57	23.8
<i>Twice or so in a year</i>	48	20
<i>This once</i>	6	2.5
<i>I can't remember</i>	15	6.3
Main reason for visiting Botswana (n=240)		
<i>Leisure</i>	27	11.3
<i>Visiting Friends and Relatives</i>	45	18.7
<i>Business and Professional</i>	138	57.5
<i>Transit</i>	6	2.5
<i>Other [Students, 15; Religious meeting, 6; Personal, 3]</i>	24	10
Length of Stay in Botswana (n=237)		
<i>One night</i>	27	11.4
<i>Two nights</i>	36	15.2
<i>Three nights</i>	27	11.4
<i>More than three nights</i>	147	62
Number of times you go out dining (n=240)		
<i>Once a week</i>	48	20
<i>Few times a week</i>	63	26.3
<i>Once a month</i>	33	13.8
<i>Few times a month</i>	96	40
Dining places frequently visited in Gaborone (n=237)		
<i>Hotel/Motel Restaurants</i>	114	47.5
<i>Fast food Restaurants</i>	117	48.8
<i>Other</i>	6	2.5
Size of Travel Party on this Trip (n=237)		
<i>Alone</i>	54	22.8
<i>Two</i>	81	34.2
<i>Three to four</i>	75	31.6
<i>More than four</i>	27	11.4
Travel party on this Trip (n=240)		
<i>Alone</i>	60	25
<i>Friends</i>	63	26.3
<i>Family</i>	63	26.3
<i>Work mates</i>	54	22.5
Likely Expenditure on this trip on Transport (n=231)		
<i>Less than US\$ 50</i>	153	66.2
<i>Between US\$ 50-100</i>	48	20.8
<i>More than US\$ 100</i>	30	13
Likely Expenditure on this trip on Accommodation (n=234)		
<i>Less than US\$ 50</i>	132	56.4
<i>Between US\$ 50-100</i>	51	21.8
<i>More than US\$ 100</i>	51	21.8

Likely Expenditure on this trip on Meals and Restaurants (n=231)		
<i>Less than US\$ 50</i>	153	66.2
<i>Between US\$ 50-100</i>	48	20.8
<i>More than US\$ 100</i>	30	13
Likely Expenditure on this trip on others (n=222)		
<i>Less than US\$ 50</i>	189	85.1
<i>Between US\$ 50-100</i>	21	9.5
<i>More than US\$ 100</i>	12	5.4

In addition Table 5.2 also shows that the main reason diners were visiting Gaborone was for business and professional reasons (57.5%) with some (18.7%) visiting friends and relatives, others (11.3%) travelling for leisure, and others (2.5%) in transit and the remainder travelling for other reasons (10%). Gaborone is the capital city of Botswana and is also the main investment and trade centre in Botswana (Cavric, *et al.*, 2003:10). The city draws visitors from the other smaller towns and most travellers to Gaborone are the working community from neighbouring towns who commute to work every day. Gaborone is also an important centre for shopping and entertainment. This would also signal why most (25%) of the diners travelled to Gaborone almost every day indicating that most restaurant visitors were excursionists. However substantial numbers also travelled to Gaborone once a month (23.8%) and almost every week (22.5%).

Table 5.2 further shows that most (62%) of the diners were spending more than three nights in Gaborone and most were travelling as pairs (34.2%). In terms of likely expenditure on meals and restaurants, transport, accommodation and other, the majority (66.2%, 66.2%, 56.4% and 85.1% in each case respectively) were likely to spend less than US\$50.00. This characteristic implies that the sample was mainly comprised of low spenders, a characteristic that is not consistent with typical cuisine tourists as most tourists spend almost a third of their expenditure on food (Bélisle, 1984:823). The low expenditure is consistent with Botswana's national statistics on the general level of expenditure on food and drink which though increasing, was low and stood at only 8% of overall tourist expenditure in 2010 (Republic of Botswana, n.d). This finding is important in advising tourism marketers on their pricing techniques of cuisine resources; the resources need not be highly priced. To some extent highly priced cuisine will only act to deter cuisine tourists' expenditure on local cuisine in the case of Gaborone.

On further analysis using cross tabulations, respondents (12.5%, Table 5.3) who visited Gaborone almost every day mostly dined out a few times a week. This indicates to some extent the importance of cuisine to the day visitor in the context of Gaborone. Cuisine is therefore an important fabric of day or excursion visitation to Gaborone.

**Table 5.3: Cross Tabulation of Times Visited Gaborone \* Number of Times Gone Out Dining in a Month (n=240)**

		Number of times you go out dining a month			
		Once a week Freq. (%)	Few times a week Freq. (%)	Once a month Freq. (%)	A few times a month Freq. (%)
Times visited Gaborone in last 12 months	Almost everyday	12 (5.0)	30 (12.5)	9 (3.8)	9 (3.8)
	Almost every week	18 (7.5)	21 (8.8)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.0)
	Once a month	15 (6.3)	12 (5.0)	9 (3.8)	21 (8.8)
	Twice or so in a year	6 (2.5)	15 (6.3)	9 (3.8)	18 (7.5)
	This once	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	I can't remember	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	15 (6.3)

### ***Main Reasons for Dining***

Diners were asked to state what motivated them to go out dining. This question was open ended. A total of 201 diners responded to the question. The author used content analysis to classify the motives into themes. Based on the authors' qualitative interpretative abilities, the most commonly emerging themes on why the respondents were dining out were related to 'fun and relaxation' (33.3%), 'meeting friends and family' (26.4%), the 'food at the restaurant' (14.9%), 'convenience purposes' (11.4%), 'seeking new experiences' (6.5%), 'business meeting' (4%) and 'other' (3.5%). The first two themes identified, coincide with generic travel motivational statements such as rest and relaxation and meeting friends and family (McKercher, *et al.*, 2008:144). The 'fun and relaxation' theme could have been prominent because the sample was comprised mainly of relatively young respondents as most (46%) were aged between 30-39 years of age, whilst 41.3% were below 30. The age factor is probably also the main reason why most respondents were Diploma (47.2%) and Bachelor's Degree holders (36.1%).

Cuisine specific motivations behind most culinary travel such as ‘to experience cuisine’ or to ‘try food at this restaurant’ (McKercher, *et al.*, 2008:144) were seldom cited. From the responses received, two sets of motivations referred to as ‘food at the restaurant’ and ‘seeking new experiences’, that could to some extent indicate cuisine related travel motivations, were developed but these received fewer citations. For instance the ‘food at the restaurant’ theme was referred by 14.9% of the respondents whilst the ‘seeking new experiences’ only received 6.5% of the responses. The ‘food at the restaurant’ theme was developed from responses like, ‘to taste the food here’, ‘I enjoy the food’, ‘only place where the food is nice’ and ‘to taste the African food at this place’. The ‘seeking new experiences’ theme was developed from phrases such as ‘to have a taste of different cuisine’, ‘for a change’, ‘try new food’, and ‘this is a new experience’. The ‘seeking new experiences’ theme is closely associated with escape from the mundane, a trait evident amongst the food neophilics. Food neophilics often seek new food in order to increase sensation and derive pleasure (Kim, *et al.*, 2009:428). In this case the experience of new food derives pleasure for tourists as they are taking the risk of indulging in unfamiliar cuisine. Tourists’ quests to seek unfamiliar experiences are associated with peak tourist experiences (Mossberg, 2007:63). This peak experience to some extent is the *raison d’être* for cuisine related travel. However the sample was comprised of only 6.5% of possible food neophilics.

### ***Typology of Cuisine Tourists***

The main decisional question for classifying cuisine tourists in Gaborone was based on McKercher *et al.* (2008) tourist typology and the definition of gastronomic tourism by Santich (2004:10). The question used in this study was ‘Are you motivated by an interest in Setswana cuisine whenever you travel?’ Responses were measured on a five point Likert scale with 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). Based on McKercher *et al.* (2008) model, the ‘Definite’ cuisine tourists are those who would have strongly agreed to be motivated by an interest in Setswana cuisine whenever they travel. Those who agreed are called the ‘Likely’ food tourists. The ‘Possibles’ are those who were neutral, whilst the ‘Unlikely’ cuisine tourists are those who disagreed. Those in strong disagreement are classified as the ‘Non’ cuisine tourists.

In this study, 231 diners responded to this question. Based on McKercher *et al.* (2008) typology, this study therefore comprised of at least 29.1% of the ‘Definite’ cuisine tourists,

46.8% of the 'Likely' cuisine tourists, 16.5% 'Possible' cuisine tourists, 6.3% 'Unlikely' cuisine tourists and 1.3% 'Non' cuisine tourists. Cross tabulations were also performed in order to identify characteristics specific to these types of tourists (Table 5.4).

**Table 5.4: Cross Tabulations of Demographic Factors \* Tourist Typologies**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Aspects</b>	<b>‘Non’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Unlikely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Possible’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Likely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Definite’ Freq. (%)</b>
Gender n=237	Female	3 (1.3)	6 (2.5)	9 (3.8)	33 (13.9)	30 (12.7)
	Male	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	30 (12.7)	78 (32.9)	39 (16.5)
Age n=237	Below 30	3 (1.3)	6 (2.5)	27 (11.4)	39 (16.5)	21 (8.9)
	30-39 years	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	6 (2.5)	54 (22.8)	42 (17.7)
	40-49 years	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	3 (1.3)
	Above 50 years	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	6 (2.5)	3 (1.3)
Nationality n=231	Botswana	3 (1.3)	12 (5.2)	33 (14.3)	87 (37.7)	54 (23.4)
	United States	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)
	United Kingdom	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
	Malawi	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
	South Africa	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.9)
	Sweden	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
	Zimbabwe	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (3.9)	7 (3.0)
Educational Qualification n=213	BGCSE	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.4)
	Diploma	3 (1.4)	6 (2.8)	21 (9.9)	51 (23.9)	18 (8.5)
	Bachelor	0 (0.0)	3 (1.4)	9 (4.2)	33 (15.5)	33 (15.5)
	Master	0 (0.0)	3 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	12 (5.6)	9 (4.2)
	Doctorate	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.8)	0 (0.0)

**Table 5.4: Cross Tabulations of Demographic Factors \* Tourist Typologies (Cont.)**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Aspects</b>	<b>‘Non’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Unlikely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Possible’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Likely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Definite’ Freq. (%)</b>
Times visited Gaborone in last 12 months n=237	Almost everyday	3 (1.3)	9 (3.8)	9 (3.8)	36 (15.2)	3 (1.3)
	Almost every week	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	30 (12.7)	12 (5.1)
	Once a month	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	30 (12.7)	21 (8.9)
	Twice or so in a year	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	9 (3.8)	30 (12.7)
	This once	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
	In can’t remember	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	6 (2.5)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)
Purpose of visiting Gaborone n=237	Leisure	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	12 (5.1)
	VFR	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	12 (5.1)	18 (7.6)
	Business/Professional	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	12 (5.1)	81 (34.2)	36 (15.2)
	Transit	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	Other	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	6 (2.5)	6 (2.5)	6 (2.5)
Length of Stay in Gaborone n=234	One night	0 (0.0)	6 (2.6)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	6 (2.6)
	Two nights	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	6 (2.6)	15 (6.4)	12 (5.1)
	Three nights	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	15 (6.4)
	>three nights	3 (1.3)	6 (2.6)	30 (12.8)	75 (32.1)	33 (14.1)

**Table 5.4: Cross Tabulations of Demographic Factors \* Tourist Typologies (Cont.)**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Aspects</b>	<b>‘Non’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Unlikely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Possible’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Likely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Definite’ Freq. (%)</b>
Times visited Gaborone in last 12 months n=237	Almost everyday	3 (1.3)	9 (3.8)	9 (3.8)	36 (15.2)	3 (1.3)
	Almost every week	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	30 (12.7)	12 (5.1)
	Once a month	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	30 (12.7)	21 (8.9)
	Twice or so in a year	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	9 (3.8)	30 (12.7)
	This once	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
	I can’t remember	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	6 (2.5)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)
Purpose of visiting Gaborone n=237	Leisure	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	12 (5.1)
	VFR	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	12 (5.1)	18 (7.6)
	Business/Professional	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	12 (5.1)	81 (34.2)	36 (15.2)
	Transit	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	Other	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	6 (2.5)	6 (2.5)	6 (2.5)
Length of Stay in Gaborone n=234	One night	0 (0.0)	6 (2.6)	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	6 (2.6)
	Two nights	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	6 (2.6)	15 (6.4)	12 (5.1)
	Three nights	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (3.8)	15 (6.4)
	>three nights	3 (1.3)	6 (2.6)	30 (12.8)	75 (32.1)	33 (14.1)
Places frequently visited in Gaborone n=234	Hotel/Motel restaurants	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	9 (3.8)	60 (25.6)	39 (16.7)
	Fast food outlets	3 (1.3)	12 (5.1)	30 (12.8)	48 (20.5)	24 (10.3)
	Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)

**Table 5.4: Cross Tabulations of Demographic Factors \* Tourist Typologies (Cont.)**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Aspects</b>	<b>‘Non’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Unlikely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Possible’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Likely’ Freq. (%)</b>	<b>‘Definite’ Freq. (%)</b>
Times a month spent dining out n=237	Once a week	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	21 (8.9)	18 (7.6)
	Few times a week	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	36 (15.2)	21 (8.90)
	Once a month	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	3 (1.3)	15 (6.3)	12 (5.1)
	Sometimes	3 (1.3)	9 (3.8)	27 (11.4)	39 (16.5)	18 (7.6)
Main purpose for Dining out n=198	Meeting Friends & Family	1 (0.5)	4 (2.0)	5 (2.5)	26 (13.1)	16 (8.1)
	Meeting workmates	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.5)	5 (2.5)	2 (1.0)
	Fun and relaxation	0 (0.0)	5 (2.5)	9 (4.5)	32 (16.2)	20 (10.1)
	Food at the restaurant	1 (0.5)	2 (1.0)	7 (3.5)	14 (7.1)	6 (3.0)
	For convenience purposes	1 (0.5)	3 (1.5)	5 (2.5)	10 (5.1)	3 (1.5)
	Seeking new experiences	0 (0.0)	1 (0.5)	3 (1.5)	5 (2.5)	4 (2.0)
	Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (2.0)	3 (1.5)
Dining party on this trip n=234	Alone	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	21 (8.9)	12 (5.1)	21 (8.9)
	Friends	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	3 (1.3)	42 (17.7)	21 (8.9)
	Family	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	6 (2.5)	42 (17.7)	21 (8.9)
	Work mates	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	9 (3.8)	15 (6.3)	24 (10.1)
Meals and Restaurants Exp. N=228	<US\$ 50	3 (1.3)	12 (5.3)	39 (17.1)	60 (26.3)	36 (15.8)
	US\$50-US\$99	0 (0.0)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	24 (10.5)	21 (9.2)
	>US\$100	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	24 (10.5)	6 (2.6)

The results from Table 5.4 show that in all typologies except for the 'Non' cuisine tourists, there were more males than females. For the 'Possible' cuisine tourists, the majority (11.4%) were below 30 years of age, whilst for both the 'Likely' and 'Definite' cuisine tourists, the majority (22.8% and 17.7% respectively) were aged between 30 and 39 years. McKercher *et al.* (2008:142) also observed that 'Definites' were relatively younger than the other respondents being aged between 26-35 years. Most 'Possible' (9.9%) and 'Likely' (23.9%) cuisine tourists were also Diploma holders. With reference to the 'Definite' cuisine tourists, the majority were bachelor degree holders (15.5%). In terms of nationality, of the 82% Batswana in the whole sample, 37.7% were 'Likelies', and 23.4% were 'Definites'. For the Zimbabweans (6.5%) in the sample, 3.9% were 'Likelies' whilst 3% were 'Definites'. As for the 3.8% Americans in the sample, the 'Possibles', 'Likelies' and 'Definites' each comprised of 1.3%.

Most of the 'Likelies' (15.2%) also visited Gaborone almost every day whilst 12.7% of the 'Definites', who were the majority, visited twice or so a year. Table 5.4 also shows that the majority of both 'Likely' and 'Definite' cuisine tourists were visiting for business and professional purposes (34.2% and 15.2% respectively). The majority of 'Possibles', 'Likelies' and 'Definites' (12.8%, 32.1% and 14.1% respectively) were also staying for more than three nights. Most of the 'Possibles' were dining alone (8.9%), whilst most of the 'Likelies' were dining with friends (17.7%) and family (17.7%) and the 'Definites' were mostly dining with workmates (10.1%). Having 'fun and relaxation' and 'meeting friends and family', were the two main reasons cited amongst the 'Likelies' and the 'Definites'. Sixteen percent of the 'Likely' cuisine tourists cited 'fun and relaxation' whilst 13.1% cited 'meeting friends and family' as their main motives for dining out. Amongst the 'Definites', 10.1% percent indicated they were dining out mainly for 'fun and relaxation' and 8.1% for 'meeting with friends and family'.

In general, the majority of the 'Unlikely' and 'Possible' cuisine tourists (5.1% and 12.8% respectively) in this study, indicated that they usually frequented fast food outlets, whilst the 'Likely' and 'Definite' cuisine tourists mostly dined at restaurants in hotels and motels (25.6% and 16.7% respectively). This finding is also consistent with McKercher *et al.* (2008:142) as the 'Definites' had a higher propensity to dine in restaurants. However most respondents in all the three groups (17.1%, 'Possibles'; 26.3%, 'Likelies' and 15.8%, 'Definites') expected to spend less than the equivalent of US\$50.00 on meals and restaurants.

There was not much difference therefore in the level of expenditure the ‘Definites’ were willing to expend with reference to the two other groups, the ‘Possibles’ and the ‘Likelies’.

This study therefore found that there were very few possible food neophilics (6.5%) in the sample (based on the ‘seeking new experiences’ motive). This finding is not commensurate with general observations from this survey, given that this section also revealed a higher number of ‘Likelies’ cuisine tourists (those who agreed to be motivated by an interest in Setswana cuisine when they travel) and the ‘Definites’ (those who strongly agreed to be motivated by this interest). These results could imply that not all ‘Likelies’ and ‘Definites’ were food neophilic but rather consumed Setswana cuisine as a supporting or daily routine activity. This finding is similar with the view of food as a supporting tourism resource in most other destinations (Fields, 2002:36). This finding is also important in that it implies that within the ‘Likelies’ and the ‘Definites’, there could be varying levels of food neophilia, that could give rise to further segmentation of these typologies depending on the context. It is suggested therefore that the ‘Definites’ and ‘Likelies’ can further be segmented into the ‘Likely Neophobic’ and ‘Likely Neophilic’, whilst the ‘Definites’ are further segmented into the ‘Definite Neophobic’ and ‘Definite Neophilic’. This suggestion therefore implies that although tourists’ may have the motive to consume local cuisine whenever they travel, some of them dislike the cuisine for varied reasons. So a tourist who maybe a ‘Definite Neophilic’ in one destination may be a ‘Definite Neophobic’ in another, depending on the context.

It is also important to note that although the peak experience is succinctly unique, Mossberg (2007:63) argues that there are circumstances when the peak experience and the supporting experience are interchangeable. In this case the original motivation behind one’s travel changes and is dominated by the supporting experience, which then becomes the peak experience. This could mean the ordinary daily routine, which is mainly characteristic of the ‘Likelies’ and the ‘Definites’, in this study, can therefore be transformed into a peak experience depending on the context. However for such a motivational change to occur there is need for an internal or external stimulating factor.

It can therefore be concluded that food neophilia within the ‘Likely’ and ‘Definites’, in this study is context specific and can occur in varying levels. This supports Okumus *et al.* (2007:255) that motivations for cuisine tourism fall on a continuum, depending on the

importance attached to food in the trip decision making process. A continuum of these levels can be drawn, an area which could form the basis of future research.

### *Promotion of Setswana Cuisine*

In this section diner respondents were asked to state the extent to which they perceived in general, Setswana cuisine could be promoted for tourism purposes (Question TB3a, Appendix C). Two hundred and twenty-eight respondents answered the question. The majority of respondents (51.3%) strongly agreed that Setswana Cuisine could be promoted for tourism purposes. Cumulatively 79% of the diners agreed that the local cuisine has tourism potential. These findings imply to a larger extent that there is great potential for use of Setswana cuisine as tourism resources.

Diners were also asked about the main methods they perceived could be used for promoting local cuisine. Table 5.5 highlights the mean responses to this question.

**Table 5.5: Methods that could be used to Promote Local Setswana Cuisine to Tourists (n=231)**

<b>Promotional Method</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
National Tourism Organisation Websites	4.26	1.014
Hotel and Restaurant Websites	4.21	1.000
Television	4.09	1.068
Tour Operator/Travel agency websites	4.07	.980
Travel Guides/Books	4.07	1.020
Travel Brochures	4.01	1.009
Radio	3.92	1.255

In ranked order, diners also perceived that the main methods that could be used to promote Setswana cuisine to tourists were national tourism organisation websites (mean = 4.26, SD = 1.014), hotel and restaurant websites (mean = 4.21, SD = 1.000) and television (mean = 4.09, SD = 1.068). Radio received the lowest ranking (mean = 3.92). There could have been higher variability in these responses because the question was not specific on whether it meant methods for domestic tourists or international tourists as had been done with the expert survey. However it is evident from the study that with most of the ‘Likely’ and ‘Definite’ cuisine tourists (25.6% and 16.7% respectively) (see Table 5.4) preferring to dine at

restaurants in hotels and motels the importance of hotel and restaurant websites should not be over looked.

Diners were also asked to identify other methods that could be used to promote local cuisine using open ended responses (Question TB3c, Appendix C). The open ended responses elicited from 74 Diners (Table 5.6) identified the importance of functions and events in promoting local cuisine. This was followed by the Internet in the form of social media (31 mentions) and magazines and newspapers (23 mentions). The menu was also cited by 15 diner respondents.

**Table 5.6: Other Methods that could be used to Promote Setswana Cuisine (n=198)**

<b>Type of Method</b>	<b>Sample Narratives</b>	<b>Number of mentions</b>
Functions & Events	<i>'Expos', 'food shows/festivals', 'cultural festivals', 'Botswana food festivals across the country by a central body or organisation', 'traditional tasting festivals', 'competition shows', 'international trade fairs', 'competitions in different districts', 'traditional day once a week in restaurants and hotels', 'food festivals', 'local cuisine competitions', 'local cuisine shows', 'cultural meals once a week'</i>	74
Internet	<i>'Facebook', 'Social media', 'Internet', 'Twitter'</i>	31
Magazines/ Newspapers	<i>'Daily news', 'Advertiser', 'In-flight magazines'</i>	23
Menu	<i>'Menu booklets', 'the menu at the restaurant should have 3 or 4 local food items and they should explain what they are in simple language. Information is extremely important for customers', 'menu books'</i>	15
Billboards	<i>'billboards'</i>	13
Foreign embassies	<i>'marketing our local culture abroad at foreign embassies', use of BTO foreign office'</i>	9
Posters	<i>'put posters everywhere, 'posters'</i>	9
International / national TV channels	<i>'Use channels like food network', 'BTV', 'local television'</i>	8
Increase Accessibility	<i>'Create places that offer local cuisine', 'have more traditional outlets'</i>	8
Pamphlets	<i>'print pamphlets for tourists', 'pamphlets'</i>	3

Although all methods identified in Table 5.6 received ratings above 4, from the demand side of tourism, the main methods that require inclusion in the strategy were: national tourism websites, hotel and restaurant websites, functions and events, social media and print media in

the form of magazines and newspapers. These methods have great value in the design of the strategic framework proposed for the study.

### 5.2.2.2 Consumption Behaviour

In order to develop the Consumption Behaviour variable, two questions measured on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) were used. These were Question TB4a ‘I eat local Setswana cuisine each time I visit Gaborone’ and Question TB4b ‘I constantly sample local Setswana cuisine when I visit Gaborone’. In order to confirm whether the two questions were measuring the same construct, internal consistency reliability tests using Cronbach alpha were used. The results of the reliability analysis are displayed in Table 5.7.

**Table 5.7: Internal Consistency Reliability of Scale Items for Consumption Behaviour**

Scale Measure	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Consumption behaviour	2	.62

Although the scale items had an alpha value of .62 and can be considered as having low reliability as suggested by Tavakol and Dennick (2011:54), Pallant (2007:95) reports that it is common to find low Cronbach values with scales that have fewer than ten items. In this case the scale only had two items.

#### *Factors that Influence Consumption Behaviour*

Five composite variables (food neophobia; social others; open culture; gastronomic image and dinescape) and four other variables (availability of information on local cuisine; accessibility of information on local cuisine; most important attributes of local cuisine and highly performing attributes of local cuisine) were used in the tourist survey to represent factors that predict the consumption behaviour of Setswana cuisine. These factors identified as predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour were analysed using regression analysis. However before regression analysis could be conducted, the variables were subjected to internal consistency reliability analysis using Cronbach alpha and to correlation analysis using Pearson’s correlation coefficient.

Internal consistency reliability tests for the uniformity and coherence of the different components of a construct (Weiner & Graham, 2003:55). The value of Cronbach alpha is acceptable if it is within the acceptable range of 0.7 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:54). On the other hand Pearson's correlation coefficient is used to describe the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2007:126). This study used Cohen and Holliday (1982:93) who considered values between .70 and .89 as having high positive correlation, values between .40 and .69 as having modest positive correlation and values that are less than .39 as having low positive correlation.

*Internal Consistency Reliability*

The five composite variables (food neophobia; social others; open culture; gastronomic image and dinescape) were tested for internal consistency reliability using Cronbach Alpha, as indicated in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.8: Cronbach Alpha Coefficients of Composite Variables that Predict Consumption Behaviour**

<b>Scale Measure</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>Cronbach Alpha</b>
Food Neophobia	6	.66
Social Others'	3	.86
Open Culture	4	.70
Gastronomic Image	3	.90
Dinescape	15	.94

The values for alpha for four of the five composite variables in Table 5.8 were above .7 and were considered acceptable according to Andrew, Pederson and McEvoy (2011:202). Those above .8 were even considered preferable as suggested by Pallant (2007:98). For gastronomic image and dinescape, the items were considered to have excellent reliability as values of alpha were above .9 (Rubin & Babbie, 2009:83). The other variable, food neophobia, had a value below the acceptable range of of 0.7 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:54). In general, all five composite variables displayed acceptable levels of internal consistency. This is especially important as the variables were then assessed on their predictor effects on one variable, Consumption Behaviour.

### *Pearson's Correlation Coefficients*

The nine factors identified as predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour and two other variables (pleasure and arousal) were tested for correlation with consumption behaviour using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient. The composite variable of Pleasure was transformed from three items. Internal consistency reliability of the variable to check whether the three items were measuring the same construct was also performed. Cronbach alpha for the composite variable was .85 as indicated in Table 5.9.

**Table 5.9: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the Composite Variable of Pleasure**

Scale Measure	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Pleasure	3	.85

In some studies (e.g Ryu & Jang, 2008a; Ryu & Jang, 2008b) pleasure and arousal were considered as mediators of behaviour. A mediator is a variable that accounts for the relationship between a predictor variable and a criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986:1174). Because the independent variable causes the mediator, Baron and Kenny (1986:1177) suggest that these two should be correlated. In this study, although pleasure and arousal were also considered as mediators, it was important to study their correlation as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986:1177) with other variables and especially with Consumption behaviour. It was also important to note if any two of the eleven predictors were correlated before stepwise regression could be performed in order to avoid multicollinearity (Baron & Kenny, 1986:1177). Multicollinearity occurs when there is a high degree of correlation between independent variables (Kothari, 2004:142). As such the eleven variables were all analysed for correlation analysis.

The results of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 5.10. The Table highlights how Consumption Behaviour and eleven predictor factors; Pleasure, Arousal, Food neophobia, Social others, Open culture, Gastronomic image, Dinescape, Availability of information on local cuisine, Accessibility of information on local cuisine, Most important attributes of local cuisine and Highly performing attributes of local cuisine, were correlated.

**Table 5.10: Correlations between Consumption Behaviour and the Predictors of Consumption Behaviour**

FACTORS		Most important attributes	Highest performing attributes	Pleasure	Consumption Behaviour	Social Others	Open Culture	Gastronomic Image	Dinescape	Food Neophobia	Arousal	Availability of Information	Accessibility of Information
Most important attributes	r	1											
	Sig.												
	N	240											
Highest performing attributes	r	.748**	1										
	Sig.	.000											
	N	240	240										
Pleasure	r	-.176**	-.089	1									
	Sig.	.003	.086										
	N	237	237	237									
Consumption Behaviour	r	.080	.054	.198**	1								
	Sig.	.109	.202	.001									
	N	237	237	234	237								
Social Others	r	.272**	.293**	-.003	.351**	1							
	Sig.	.000	.000	.484	.000								
	N	237	237	234	234	237							
Open Culture	r	.182**	.250**	-.080	.267**	.246**	1						
	Sig.	.002	.000	.110	.000	.000							
	N	237	237	234	234	234	237						
Gastronomic Image	r	.663**	.558**	-.107	.123*	.316**	.318**	1					
	Sig.	.000	.000	.051	.030	.000	.000						
	N	237	237	234	234	234	234	237					
Dinescape	r	.312**	.320**	-.079	.188**	.350**	.183**	.502**	1				
	Sig.	.000	.000	.115	.002	.000	.003	.000					
	N	234	234	231	231	231	231	231	234				
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).													
* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).													

**Table 5.10: Correlations between Consumption Behaviour and the Predictors of Consumption Behaviour (Cont.)**

FACTORS		Most important attributes	Highest performing attributes	Pleasure	Consumption Behaviour	Social Others	Open Culture	Gastronomic Image	Dinescape	Food Neophobia	Arousal	Availability of Information on Local Cuisine	of Information on Local Cuisine
Food Neophobia	r	.154*	.056	-.143*	-.037	.082	-.079	.143*	.178**	1			
	Sig.	.010	.198	.016	.291	.109	.118	.015	.004				
	N	229	229	226	226	226	226	228	226	229			
Arousal	r	-.058	.004	.604**	.445**	.039	.036	.030	.103	-.052	1		
	Sig.	.188	.473	.000	.000	.277	.292	.323	.060	.219			
	N	237	237	237	234	234	234	234	231	226	237		
Availability of Information on Local Cuisine	r	-.033	-.031	-.003	.128*	.012	-.018	-.019	.043	.222**	-.008	1	
	Sig.	.308	.317	.480	.026	.429	.394	.386	.262	.000	.450		
	N	234	234	231	231	231	231	234	228	225	231	234	
Accessibility of Information on Local Cuisine	r	-.089	-.031	-.014	-.066	-.022	.000	.032	.203**	.120*	-.016	.145*	1
	Sig.	.086	.319	.416	.157	.367	.499	.313	.001	.035	.402	.014	
	N	237	237	234	234	234	234	237	231	228	234	234	237
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).													
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).													

Consumption behaviour and seven predictor factors (Table 5.10), ‘Arousal’, ‘Social others’, ‘Open culture’ ‘Gastronomic image’, ‘Dinescape’ and ‘Availability of Information on Local Cuisine’ had significant positive correlation:

1. Arousal and Consumption behaviour ( $r = .445$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ ).
2. Social Others and Consumption behaviour ( $r = .351$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ )
3. Open Culture and Consumption behaviour ( $r = .267$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ )
4. Gastronomic Image and Consumption behaviour ( $r = .123$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .05$ )
5. Dinescape and Consumption behaviour ( $r = .188$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p < .001$ )
6. Availability of information on local Cuisine and Consumption behaviour ( $r = .128$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .05$ )
7. Pleasure and Consumption behaviour ( $r = .198$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ )

The correlation between Consumption Behaviour and the rest of the factors was non-significant as  $p$  values were neither significant at .01 nor at .05 levels (Table 5.10). As such there was no relationship between Consumption Behaviour and the following, ‘Highest performing attributes of local cuisine’, ‘Most important attributes of local cuisine’, ‘Food Neophobia’ and ‘Accessibility of Information on Local Cuisine’.

Correlations between predictor factors were also observed. From Table 5.10, a high positive correlation value was noticed between:

1. Most important attributes of local cuisine and Highest performing attributes of local cuisine,  $r = .748$ ,  $n = 240$ ,  $p < .001$ .

It is generally expected that the most important attributes of local cuisine should be the highest performing attributes. This is because there is a positive relationship between the importance and performance of cuisine attributes (Obonyo, *et al.*, 2013:3). Service providers are expected to identify and continuously work on the most important and highest performing attributes in order to sustain competitiveness and business growth (Obonyo, *et al.*, 2013:4). Setswana cuisine for inclusion in the strategic framework should be promoted using its most important and highest performing attributes. These attributes selected on the basis of their influence to tourists’ purchase decisions can offer a point of differentiation from competitors. In this study although a section had been incorporated in the original questionnaire to experts

(Appendix A) requesting them to describe the 28 cuisine types identified from literature using adjectives of their choice, the section was excluded in the final questionnaire, as respondents failed to describe the cuisine. However this aspect could be refined in a future study so that the most important and highest performing attributes of Setswana cuisine are identified per cuisine type. Jingjing (2012:218) acknowledges the multi-attribute nature of cuisine and argues that the importance attached to each attribute varies with the type of cuisine (Jingjing, 2012:20). As such each cuisine type identified for inclusion in the framework should be promoted with its own set of attributes.

Using results from Table 5.10, modest positive correlation values between .40 and .69 (Cohen & Holliday, 1982: 93) were observed between:

1. Most important attributes of local cuisine and Gastronomic Image,  $r = .663$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ .
2. Arousal and Pleasure,  $r = .604$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$
3. Highest performing attributes of local cuisine and Gastronomic Image,  $r = .558$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ .
4. Dinescape and Gastronomic Image,  $r = .502$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Both ‘Most important attributes of local cuisine’ and ‘Highest performing attributes of local cuisine’ were modestly positively correlated with ‘Gastronomic Image’. As discussed in Chapter Two, if gastronomic image or identity refers to what tourists would expect to find at a destination then they would expect to find the most important and highest performing attributes of local cuisine being emphasised. Highly performing and most important attributes of cuisine should therefore be associated with the gastronomic image in the design of the strategic framework. In this study, conclusions can be given that most important and highest performing attributes of Setswana cuisine in general, communicate to a large extent gastronomic image.

‘Gastronomic Image’ and the ‘Dinescape’ were also found to be modestly positively correlated ( $r = .502$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The gastronomic image is related to what diners would expect to find at a destination in terms of ties to national identity, a set of expected values and cultural heritage (see Appendix C). In this case results indicate that dinescape aspects such as tableware, flatware and the menu highly represented national identity,

expected cuisine values and cultural heritage. In other words to a large extent the service environment and service personnel portrayed a gastronomic image that was consistent with the country's identity and cultural heritage. This aspect is very evident in most hotels and even non-hotel restaurants as they assume and use ethnic identity in their interior design and exterior design profiles. 'Gastronomic image' was also positively correlated with 'Social others' ( $r = .316$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and an 'Open culture' ( $r = .318$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Gastronomic image is important in linking the people and their culture to cuisine tourism. In this case, the values that tourists would expect in relation to Setswana cuisine are a reflection of the local populace and their culture. This is very true in Botswana as Batswana have managed to embrace their culture with pride and dignity. However acceptance and appreciation of local cuisine as argued in the other surveys should be promoted more.

Pleasure refers to the extent to which individuals feel good, happy, pleased or joyful. The correlation between 'Arousal' and 'Pleasure' was modest ( $r = .604$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Both Pleasure and Arousal are emotional responses that precede behaviour (Bitner, 1992:62). The results obtained support Ryu and Jang (2008a), as they also observed modest correlation between Pleasure and Arousal ( $r = .44$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This finding is important as it could mean restaurant facilities need to maintain pleasant and arousing dinescapes or environments. However in this study, the relationship between arousal and dinescapes, and pleasure and dinescapes was not significant. Instead dinescapes were positively correlated to 'Most important attributes' ( $r = .312$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ ); 'Highest performing attributes' ( $r = .320$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and 'social others' ( $r = .35$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p < .001$ ). To improve diners' emotional response to the dinescape, restaurant facilities can make use of varied dining room design themes that are regularly reviewed. Although this could be costly, in the short term for instance, restaurant aspects such as lighting colours, pictures or wall hangings can be changed in a rotational manner but in line with the overall theme for the restaurant facilities, in order to arouse the diners. The restaurant environment is important in enhancing the tourists' emotions. In summary a number of other relationships between predictor factors were also significant and low or very low (see Table 5.10).

### *Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis*

Stepwise regression analysis was then performed to assess the extent to which the eleven predictor factors even those with insignificant correlation predicted Consumption Behaviour.

This was mainly done so as to support the hypotheses that had been set on prediction factors of Consumption Behaviour in Chapter Two. It is important as Madrigal (2012:243) suggests, not to quickly conclude that non-significant correlations have no influence on a regression model. As such both significant and non-significant factors were included in the stepwise regression model. Before regression analysis could be run, tests of assumptions associated with stepwise regression were performed. The following assumption tests and the outline of the remedial actions that were taken where violations were detected were done:

1. Ratio of cases to independent variables: This section of the study used eleven independent variables. The generally accepted criterion is to have 15 more times the number of cases to independent variables (Field, 2009:222). This study had 21 times the number of cases to independent variables. Thus this aspect was met.
2. Outliers: To detect multivariate outliers Mahalanobis' distance was used. In this study, three cases had a Mahalanobis  $D^2$  with a probability less than 0.001 ( $D^2 = 32.74, p = .0000$ ;  $D^2 = 30.09, p = .0000$ ;  $D^2 = 30.10, p = .0000$ ). These three outliers were removed from the analysis.
3. Multicollinearity and singularity: Multicollinearity occurs when there is a high degree of correlation between independent variables (Kothari, 2004:142). If the tolerance values had been close to zero, multicollinearity would have been a possibility (Bryman & Cramer, 2009:311). This assumption was checked by examining the tolerance values obtained from the regression analysis. The tolerances for Arousal, Social Others, Open Culture were .998, .939 and .939 respectively, suggesting that multicollinearity was unlikely.
4. Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals: Distribution for normality and linearity was assessed using normal probability plots and scatterplots. The points in the normal probability plots were located on approximately straight diagonal lines. Most scores in the scatter-plot of the standardised residuals were also concentrated in the centre along the 0 point. As such results indicated some consistency with linearity and homoscedasticity.

In conclusion all assumptions for multiple regression analysis were met. As such stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed to identify the extent to which the eleven factors predicted consumption behaviour. The criterion for probability of  $F$  for entry was set at  $< .05$  and the probability of  $F$  to be removed was set at  $> .10$ . The prediction model was reached in

three steps and three factors were retained: Arousal, Social others and Open culture. The model was statistically significant,  $F(3, 230) = 39.54$ ,  $p < .001$  and accounted for approximately 34% of the variance for consumption behaviour ( $R = .58$ ,  $R^2 = .34$ ).

Arousal seemed to be an important predictor of Consumption Behaviour ( $\beta = .43$ ) whilst Social others ( $\beta = .29$ ) and Open culture ( $\beta = .18$ ) to some extent also predicted consumption behaviour (Table 5.11).

**Table 5.11: Stepwise Regression Results**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardised coefficient	t-value	Sig.
	B	SE-B	$\beta$		
Constant	-1.825	.535			
Arousal	.961	.121	.427	7.97	.000
Social Others	.276	.053	.290	5.26	.000
Open culture	.241	.074	.181	3.27	.001

(Note: The dependent variable was Consumption behaviour.  $R = .583$ ,  $R^2 = .340$ . \* $p < .05$ )

The low level of association between ‘Pleasure’ and Consumption Behaviour and hence its subsequent exclusion as a predictor of Consumption Behaviour, is associated with the possibility that most diners who participated in the survey, consumed Setswana cuisine as part of their daily routine. As previously indicated there were few food neophiles (6.5%). Food neophiles commonly associate pleasure with tourist consumption experiences. Although the majority of the diners emphasised the importance of having ‘fun and relaxation’ as the main motive for dining out, this motive it at seems was not associated with deriving pleasure.

In this study, ‘Social others’ were found to predict Consumption behaviour ( $\beta = .290$ ). In a sample whose second most important motive for dining out is ‘meeting friends and family’ (26.4%), ‘Social others’ as having positive correlation and as an important predictor of Consumption behaviour was foreseen. Friends and family are important and significant in Tswana lifestyle (Amanze, 1996:10) and in Africans as a majority, considering that most diners were African. Although this trend is changing amidst modernity, family values for instance will always remain important in Botswana (Mberengwa, 2007:30) and in Africa.

‘Open culture’ was also found to be an important predictor of tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. The ‘Open culture’ is indicative of a culture amongst the diners that is collaborative and inclusive. Since most of the diners were Batswana, such an open culture could be closely associated with Botswana’s democracy whose roots as Ngcongco (cited by Leith, 2005:36) claims, lie in traditional Tswana culture. Batswana are also known to be friendly and welcoming (Denbow & Thebe, 2006:167) and easily embrace the presence of other cultural norms. The open culture is also reflective of Botswana’s receptiveness and consideration as a just, caring and compassionate nation (Botswana Vision 2016 Council, 2010).

### *Hypotheses Testing for Predictor Factors*

Using the results of the stepwise regression (Table 5.11) that resulted in the inclusion of arousal, social others and an open culture as predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour; the following alternative hypotheses were supported:

**H2<sub>1</sub>**: ‘Social others’ predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**H3<sub>1</sub>**: An ‘Open culture’ predicts tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

On the basis of the stepwise regression, which excluded the rest of the predictor factors (see Table 5.11) the study also supported the following null hypotheses:

**H1a<sub>0</sub>**: Food neophobia is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**H4a<sub>0</sub>**: Most important food and beverage attributes are not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**H4b<sub>0</sub>**: Highly performing food and beverage attributes are not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

**H5<sub>0</sub>**: Gastronomic image is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**H6a<sub>0</sub>**: Availability of information on cuisine is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

**H6b<sub>0</sub>**: Accessibility to information on local cuisine is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

**H7a<sub>0</sub>:** Dinescapes are not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

To the contrary the regression model also found arousal to be an important predictor of consumption behaviour. During the literature review arousal had not been identified as a predictor of behaviour but rather as a predictor of behavioural intentions but mediated by pleasure (see Ryu & Jang, 2008b:1160). Arousal was included in the regression model because of its modest positive correlation with consumption behaviour ( $r = .445$ ,  $n = 234$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Conclusively, this study has identified arousal as an even important direct predictor of consumption behaviour than other predictor factors.

### ***Hypothesis Testing for Demographic Influence on Cuisine Neophobia***

The influence of demographic factors like age, gender, level of education and nationality on cuisine neophobia was further analysed. To test the differences amongst varying age groups and cuisine neophobia, two hypotheses were set:

**H1b<sub>0</sub>:** There is no statistically significant difference in food neophobia amongst the different age groups.

**H1b<sub>1</sub>:** There is statistically significant difference in food neophobia amongst the different age groups.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant differences among diners in different age groups in relation to Setswana cuisine neophobia. The test statistic for ANOVA is the  $F$  ratio (Kendrick, 2005:449). The statistic is used to analyse a variable by another variable that has more than two categories, as with the four age groups identified in this study. The results of ANOVA are presented in Table 5.12.

**Table 5.12: Results of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Cuisine Neophobia by Age**

	Age				F (3, 225)	Sig.
	Mean					
	Below 30 (n=93)	30 – 39 (n=108)	40 – 49 (n=16)	Above 50 (n=12)		
Cuisine Neophobi a	3.06	3.25	2.81	3.75	2.95	.034

(Notes: 1. Sig. ( $p < .05$ )

2. Mean score is based on a 5-point Likert Scale, 1= Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

The results of ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences among the age groups,  $F(3, 225) = 2.95, p = .03$ . Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance was significant,  $p = .004$ . Since Levene's test was significant that is less than .05 this meant group variances in the sample were significantly different (Field, 2009:150). As such post-hoc Games Howell tests were used because these tend to offer the best performance where population variances differ (Field, 2009:375). Post hoc tests (Table 5.13) revealed statistically significant differences between diners over 50 years (Mean =3.75, SD = .452), and those below 30 years (Mean = 3.06, SD = .882), those 30-39 (Mean = 3.25, SD = 1.042) and those 40-49 (Mean = 2.81, SD = .75).

**Table 5.13: Games Howell Post Hoc Tests for Food Neophobia by Age Group**

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I – J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Below 30	30-39 years	-.185	.136	.522	-.54	.17
	40-49 years	.252	.209	.628	-.33	.83
	Above 50 years	-.685*	.159	.001	-1.13	-.25
30-39 years	Below 30	.185	.136	.522	-.17	.54
	40-49 years	.438	.213	.195	-.15	1.02
	Above 50 years	-.500*	.165	.025	-.95	-.05
40-49 years	Below 30	-.252	.209	.628	-.83	.33
	30-39 years	-.438	.213	.195	-1.02	.15
	Above 50 years	-.938*	.228	.002	-1.57	-.31
Above 50 years	Below 30	.685*	.159	.001	.25	1.13
	30-39 years	.500*	.165	.025	.05	.95
	40-49 years	.938*	.228	.002	.31	1.57

(Note: \*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level).

This meant diners above 50 years reported higher levels of neophobia than the other age groups. There were no other significant differences between the other groups. As such the

study rejected the null hypothesis,  $H1b_0$ . The finding that diners aged 50 years and above were more neophobic than the other age groups is supported in extant literature as neophobia usually increases with age (Tuorila, *et al.*, 2001:35; Verbeke & Lopez, 2005:836). It has been established by Verbeke and Lopez (2005:836) that older people have a higher tendency of restricting their food choice to familiar food than younger respondents. However in this study, the opposite should have been observed as those aged 50 and above were expected to be more familiar to traditional Setswana cuisine than the other age groups considering that the group of diners was predominantly Batswana. Therefore in terms of neophobia to other cuisines, Verbeke and Lopez's (2005) observation is more suited to the elderly in contexts where they are visiting outside their usual environment and encountering cuisine outside their familiarity sphere and 'comfort bubble' other than when they are encountering their own native or indigenous cuisine. Upon further analysis with cross tabulation, however, it emerged that those who were above 50 years of age comprised of an equal proportion of Batswana (50%) and other nationalities (50%). As such the study could not assume or conclude that Batswana in the over 50 age group were all neophobic, neither can the study ascertain whether the influence was from the other nationals. This section opens up another avenue for future research: the evaluation of why food neophobia increases with age even amongst consumers who are familiar with their own cuisine, as in this case. One explanation can be advanced from Moulin (2000:20), who attests the importance of a strong gastronomic tradition in the appreciation of inhabitants' own traditional food. In the case of Botswana, the study therefore suggests that such a strong gastronomic tradition linked to appreciation of traditional food may be lacking.

To identify differences between male and female diners, two hypotheses were set:

**H1c<sub>0</sub>**: The sample means for food neophobia for female and male diners are equal

**H1c<sub>1</sub>**: Male diners are more food neophobic than female diners

An independent samples *t*-test, with an alpha level set at .05, was performed on food neophobia and gender. Results are highlighted in Table 5.14.

**Table 5.14: Results of Independent Samples *t*-Tests and Descriptive Statistics for Food Neophobia by Gender**

	Gender						t	df
	Male			Female				
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n		
Food Neophobia	3.18	.994	151	3.15	.869	78	-.188	227

(Note: Mean score is based on a 5-point Likert Scale, 1= Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

The results indicate that on average male respondents experienced more neophobia (Mean = 3.18, SD = .994) than females (Mean = 3.15, SD = .869). This finding confirms other studies (e.g. Edwards, *et al.*, 2010:305; Tuorila, *et al.*, 2001:29) where food neophobia was generally higher amongst males than female respondents. This difference however was not significant,  $t(227) = -.188, p > .05$ . As such the study failed to reject the null hypothesis,  $H_{10c}$ . By failing to reject the null hypothesis, results imply that male and female diners were not significantly different in their approach to food neophobia.

To test the differences in food neophobia amongst diners by level of education, two hypotheses were set:

**H1d<sub>0</sub>:** There is no statistically significant difference in food neophobia amongst diners with various educational levels

**H1d<sub>1</sub>:** There is statistically significant difference in food neophobia amongst diners with various educational levels

In order to examine whether there were statistically significant differences amongst diners with varying levels of education in relation to Setswana cuisine neophobia, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The results of the tests are presented in Table 5.15.

**Table 5.15: Results of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Food Neophobia by Highest Level of Education**

	Highest Level of Education					F (3, 203)	Sig.
	Mean						
	BGCSE (n=6)	Diploma (n=94)	Bachelor (n=78)	Master (n=24)	Doctorate (n=6)		
Food Neophobia	2.00	3.38	3.15	2.88	2.50	5.40	.000

(Notes: 1. Sig. ( $p < .05$ )

2. Mean score is based on a 5-point Likert Scale, 1= Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

The results from Table 5.15, revealed statistically significant differences among the different groups,  $F(4, 203) = 5.40$ ,  $p = .000$ . To identify where the differences were, Games Howell post hoc tests were conducted, since homogeneity of equal variances was violated (Levene's test was significant at  $p = .002$ ). Results of the post hoc tests are displayed in Table 5.16.

**Table 5.16: Games Howell Post Hoc Tests for Food Neophobia by Highest Level of Education**

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
BGCSE	Diploma	-1.383*	.090	.000	-1.63	-1.13
	Bachelor	-1.154*	.103	.000	-1.44	-.87
	Master	-.875*	.220	.005	-1.52	-.23
	Doctorate	-.500	.224	.299	-1.40	.40
Diploma	BGCSE	1.383*	.090	.000	1.13	1.63
	Bachelor	.229	.137	.452	-.15	.61
	Master	.508	.237	.229	-.18	1.19
	Doctorate	.883*	.241	.047	.01	1.75
Bachelor	BGCSE	1.154*	.103	.000	.87	1.44
	Diploma	-.229	.137	.452	-.61	.15
	Master	.279	.243	.780	-.42	.98
	Doctorate	.654	.246	.156	-.22	1.52
Master	BGCSE	.875*	.220	.005	.23	1.52
	Diploma	-.508	.237	.229	-1.19	.18
	Bachelor	-.279	.243	.780	-.98	.42
	Doctorate	.375	.313	.753	-.58	1.33
Doctorate	BGCSE	.500	.224	.299	-.40	1.40
	Diploma	-.883*	.241	.047	-1.75	-.01
	Bachelor	-.654	.246	.156	-1.52	.22
	Master	-.375	.313	.753	-1.33	.58

(Note: \*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level).

The analysis from Table 5.16 revealed statistically significant differences between diners with a BGCSE (Mean = 2.00, SD = .000) in all cases, with diploma holders (Mean = 3.38, SD = .869); bachelor degree holders (Mean = 3.15, SD = .913) and master degree holders (Mean = 2.88, SD = 1.076). In all these cases, diners with BGCSE reported lower levels of neophobia to those with a higher qualification. This observation contradicts findings by Tuorila *et al.* (2001: 35) where neophobia was lower in respondents with higher levels of education.

There was also a statistically significant difference between diners with a diploma (Mean = 3.38, SD = .869) and doctorate holders (Mean = 2.50, SD = .548). In this case, diploma holders reported higher levels of neophobia than doctorate holders, which to some extent confirm Tuorila *et al.* (2001:35) when they reported lower levels of neophobia amongst respondents with higher level qualifications compared to respondents with lower level qualifications.

The two contrasting views emerging from this study on the effect of the level of education on cuisine neophobia bring in a new perspective to research. It is most likely that the effect of level of education on food neophobia is mediated or moderated by other underlying factors which this study has failed to determine. This raises important conclusive statements to the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana: lower educational levels do not necessarily depict high neophobic tendencies, rather in other cases, education can actually lead to the dislike of local cuisine, since consumers know more and are aware of the additional knowledge associated with the preparation, the hygiene and the safety aspects. Higher levels of education can even act to discourage the consumption of local cuisine; some which relies on unacceptable habits (reference is given to the preparation of *serobe* for instance where the intestines are not expected to be cleaned thoroughly). This nonetheless does not imply that those with lower levels of knowledge should be prejudiced. In summary more research on the relationship of cuisine neophobia and levels of education should therefore be established to fully understand this concept.

To identify differences amongst different nationalities, two hypotheses were set:

**H1e<sub>0</sub>:** The sample means for food neophobia for all nationalities are equal

**H1e<sub>1</sub>:** The sample means for food neophobia for all nationalities are not equal

In order to examine whether there were statistically significant differences amongst the different nationalities in relation to Setswana cuisine neophobia, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The results of the tests are presented in Table 5.17.

**Table 5.17: Results of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Food Neophobia by Nationality**

	Mean						F (6, 216)	Sig.	
	BW (n=181)	GB (n=3)	MW (n=3)	SE (n=3)	US (n=9)	ZA (n=8)			ZW (n=16)
Food Neophobia	3.12	3.00	3.00	2.00	4.00	3.06	3.16	3.204	.005

(Notes: 1. Mean score is based on a 5-point Likert Scale, 1= Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree.  
2. BW=Botswana, GB=United Kingdom, MW=Malawi, SE=Sweden, US=United States, ZA=South Africa, ZW=Zimbabwe).

The results from Table 5.17, revealed statistically significant differences among the groups,  $F(6, 216) = 3.20, p = .005$ . To identify the differences Games Howell post hoc tests were conducted, since equal variances were not assumed (Levene's test was significant,  $p = .000$ ). Results of the post hoc tests are displayed in Table 5.18.

**Table 5.18: Games Howell Post Hoc Tests for Food Neophobia by Nationality**

(I) Nationality	(J) Nationality	Mean Difference (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Botswana	United States	-.884	.298	.140	-1.99	.22
	United Kingdom	.116	.072	.674	-.10	.33
	Malawi	.116	.072	.674	-.10	.33
	South Africa	-.884	.335	.233	-2.18	.41
	Sweden	1.116*	.072	.000	.90	1.33
	Zimbabwe	.054	.185	1.000	-.55	.65

Note: \*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level).

**Table 5.18: Games Howell Post Hoc Tests for Food Neophobia by Nationality (Cont.)**

(I)Nationality	(J) Nationality	Mean Difference (I - J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
United States	Botswana	.884	.298	.140	-.22	1.99
	United Kingdom	1.000	.289	.079	-.10	2.10
	Malawi	1.000	.289	.079	-.10	2.10
	South Africa	.000	.436	1.000	-1.48	1.48
	Sweden	2.000*	.289	.001	.90	3.10
	Zimbabwe	.938	.335	.146	-.21	2.09
United Kingdom	Motswana	-.116	.072	.674	-.33	.10
	United States	-1.000	.289	.079	-2.10	.10
	Malawi	.000	.000	.	.00	.00
	South Africa	-1.000	.327	.148	-2.30	.30
	Sweden	1.000	.000	.	1.00	1.00
	Zimbabwe	-.063	.170	1.000	-.64	.51
Malawian	Botswana	-.116	.072	.674	-.33	.10
	United States	-1.000	.289	.079	-2.10	.10
	United Kingdom	.000	.000	.	.00	.00
	South Africa	-1.000	.327	.148	-2.30	.30
	Sweden	1.000	.000	.	1.00	1.00
	Zimbabwe	-.063	.170	1.000	-.64	.51
South Africa	Botswana	.884	.335	.233	-.41	2.18
	United States	.000	.436	1.000	-1.48	1.48
	United Kingdom	1.000	.327	.148	-.30	2.30
	Malawi	1.000	.327	.148	-.30	2.30
	Sweden	2.000*	.327	.005	.70	3.30
	Zimbabwe	.938	.369	.233	-.38	2.25
Sweden	Botswana	-1.116*	.072	.000	-1.33	-.90
	United States	-2.000*	.289	.001	-3.10	-.90
	United Kingdom	-1.000	.000	.	-1.00	-1.00
	Malawi	-1.000	.000	.	-1.00	-1.00
	South Africa	-2.000*	.327	.005	-3.30	-.70
	Zimbabwe	-1.063*	.170	.000	-1.64	-.49
Zimbabwe	Botswana	-.054	.185	1.000	-.65	.55
	United States	-.938	.335	.146	-2.09	.21
	United Kingdom	.063	.170	1.000	-.51	.64
	Malawi	.063	.170	1.000	-.51	.64
	South Africa	-.938	.369	.233	-2.25	.38
	Sweden	1.063*	.170	.000	.49	1.64

The analysis from Table 5.18 revealed statistically significant differences in all cases between diners from Sweden (Mean = 2.00, SD = .000) and those from United States (Mean = 4.00, SD = .866), from South Africa (Mean = 4.00, SD = .926), from Botswana (Mean = 3.12, SD = .968) and from Zimbabwe (Mean = 3.06, SD = .680). Swedish diners reported significantly

lower levels of neophobia than diners from the other four countries. There were no other significant differences. As such the null Hypothesis  $H_{1e_0}$  is rejected.

Although literature has established that at least 44% of the American leisure market now finds trying different types of cuisine a desirable attribute of a vacation (YBP & R/ Yankelovich cited by Marzella, 2008:3), this was not the case with the Americans that formed part of this survey. The Americans and South Africans who formed part of this study reported very high food neophobia levels. This finding also contradicts Pizam and Sussman (1995), where Americans were perceived to prefer local food at the destination.

Botswana shares a lot in common with other black South Africans and other African countries elsewhere in terms of culture (Mwakikagile, 2010:189). For diners from Southern Africa in this case from Malawi, Botswana, Zimbabwe and South Africa, levels of neophobia were expected to be higher because the cuisine identified in the study forms most of the indigenous diet of these countries. However, based on neophobia, the Swedish (Table 5.18), significantly present a much more ready market for cuisine tourism than the other nationalities; though they present a negligible percentage of the sample (1.3%).

### ***The Influence of Mediating Variables – Arousal on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour & Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour***

Like Ryu and Jang (2008b), this study tested for the mediation effects of arousal and pleasure on behaviour. Baron and Kenny (1986:1177) suggest that the mediator and the dependent variable should be correlated but not too strongly correlated as to cause multicollinearity. In examining the influence of Arousal on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour and Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour, as mediators, firstly, bivariate correlations were performed.

The correlation on Arousal and Dinescape was non-significant ( $r = .103$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p > .05$ ) (Table 5.10). The correlation on Pleasure and Dinescape was also non-significant ( $r = -.079$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p > .05$ ) (Table 5.10). This indicated that there was no possible mediating influence between Arousal and Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour. As such no subsequent regression analysis was applied.

***The Influence of Mediating Variables - Pleasure on Arousal and Consumption Behaviour***

Before regression could be run, the correlations amongst the three variables were checked again. ‘Arousal’ (independent variable) and ‘Pleasure’ (mediator) had high significant correlation ( $r = .604, n = 237, p < .001$ ). ‘Arousal’ had positive correlation with Consumption Behaviour (dependent variable) ( $r = .445, n = 234, p < .001$ ). ‘Pleasure’ also had positive correlation with Consumption Behaviour ( $r = .198, n = 234, p < .001$ ). With all relationships showing positive correlation, mediation was tested using simple linear regression analysis (using the Enter method).

Mediation was tested using Baron and Kenny’s (1986:1177) three equations:

1. Regressing the mediator on the independent variable (path *a*)
2. Regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable (path *b*) and
3. Regressing the dependent variable on both the mediator and the independent variable (path *c*).

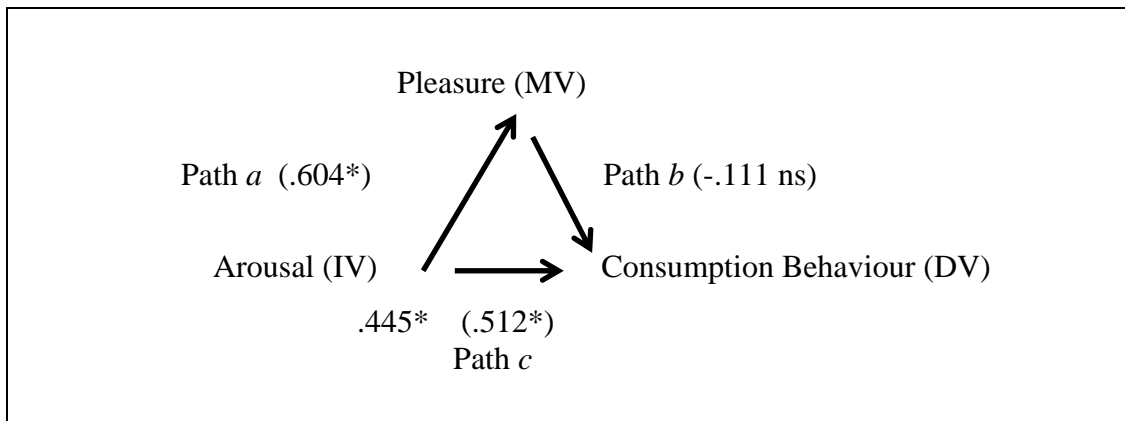
The mediation results of pleasure on arousal and Consumption Behaviour are presented in Table 5.19.

**Table 5.19: Results of Mediation Analysis**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	Sig.
		B	SE	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.110	.503		-.220	.826
	Arousal	1.002	.132	.445	7.566	.000
2	(Constant)	.292	.567		.514	.608
	Arousal	1.154	.166	.512	6.964	.000
	Pleasure	-.255	.168	-.111	-1.515	.131

(Note: Dependent variable: Setswana Cuisine Consumption behaviour)

The equations with their path coefficients are also illustrated in Figure 5.1.



**Figure 5.1: Path Coefficients for Mediation Analysis**

(Note: \* $p < .001$ ; ns = non-significant)

For mediation to be present, Baron and Kenny (1986:1177) conclude that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second equation. However in this study there was significant initial relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable ( $\beta = .445, p < .05$ ) (Table 5.19) that remained significant after controlling for the mediator ( $\beta = .512, p < .05$ ). The second path coefficient between the Independent Variable and the Dependent Variable (path *c*), Figure 5.1 also shows a higher regression value, implying that there was no possible mediation. As such the study can conclude that ‘Pleasure’ was not a significant mediator of ‘Arousal’ and Consumption Behaviour. ‘Arousal’ as a predictor of Consumption Behaviour remained significant after analysing for mediation. This finding to some extent fails to emphasise the influence of internal emotional responses as mediators of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. It is argued therefore in this study that the internal responses can independently act as direct predictors and even stronger predictors of behaviour than the other factors.

### 5.2.3 Summary of Findings Tourist/Diner Survey

The questionnaire had seven main sections. The first section comprised of questions on the travel and demographic characteristics of the diners. The second section tried to identify the level of interest in local Setswana cuisine. The third and fourth sections had questions on pleasure and arousal associated with local cuisine consumption, respectively. The fifth section had questions on the promotion of local cuisine, whilst the sixth section was on

consumption behaviour. Section seven had questions on factors that influence consumption behaviour. A sample of 240 diners was used for the survey.

In relation to travel and demographic characteristics of the sample, the study found that most (82%) of the diners were Batswana. The sample was also comprised of more male than female diners. The majority (46%) were also aged between 30-39 years. In terms of educational qualifications, the majority (47%) were Diploma holders. Most (25%) of the diners visited Gaborone in the past 12 months almost on a daily basis. The main reason they cited for visiting Gaborone was for business and professional reasons (57.5%). The study also found out that most of the restaurant diners sampled were low spenders. This finding is important in advising tourism marketers on their pricing techniques of Setswana cuisine resources; the resources need not be highly priced.

The study also found that 46.8% of sample was comprised of 'Likely' cuisine tourists. 'Likely' cuisine tourists may travel to a destination for its cuisine, but this may not be their main motivation. With increased marketing however, 'Likelies' can easily be converted to definite cuisine tourists. Cross tabulations were also run on the profile to categorise cuisine tourists' characteristics. From the cross tabulations, Most of the 'Likelies' (15.2%) visited Gaborone almost every day whilst 12.7% of the 'Definites', who were the majority, visited twice or so a year. Having 'fun and relaxation' and 'meeting friends and family', were the two main reasons cited amongst the 'Likelies' and the 'Definites'. This finding is important as it explicitly indicates that cuisine tourists who had high interest in Setswana cuisine whenever they travelled, where however not linking this interest to their current visit to Gaborone. Though interest is explicit as evidenced by 76% of cuisine tourists who cumulatively agreed to being motivated by an interest in Setswana cuisine whenever they travelled, the influence of this interest was found to be implicit especially in generating cuisine specific related motives in the current trip. This is an important consideration in the development of cuisine promotion strategy.

In terms of promotion, the majority of respondents (51.3%) strongly agreed that Setswana cuisine could be promoted for tourism purposes. This is a strong indicator of positive support from the demand perspective of the promotion of Setswana cuisine for tourism purposes. Diners strongly perceived that the main methods that could be used to promote Setswana cuisine to tourists were national tourism organisation websites (mean=4.26, SD =1.014) and

hotel and restaurant websites (mean=4.21, SD =1.000). In the open ended responses on which other methods they perceived could be used, 74 diners (Table 5.6) identified the importance of functions and events in promoting local cuisine whilst social media received 31 mentions and magazines and newspapers received 23 mentions. The six main methods (NTO websites, hotel/restaurant websites, functions and events, social media and magazines and newspapers) were considered for inclusion in the strategy.

In order to examine the prediction influence of a number of factors on Consumption Behaviour, correlations and stepwise regression was performed. Correlations amongst the variables indicated high positive correlation between ‘Most important attributes of local cuisine’ and ‘Highest performing attributes of local cuisine’,  $r = .748$ ,  $n = 240$ ,  $p < .001$ . This finding supports Obonyo *et al.* (2013:3) as they indicated that there is a positive relationship between the importance and performance of cuisine attributes. Each cuisine type should be promoted based on its most important and highest performing attributes. These attributes are still to be identified in the case of Setswana cuisine that was found to have high potential for use as tourism resources. However the proposed strategic framework took recognise that most important and highest performing attributes of cuisine should be emphasised. In addition other correlations that were modest (Most important attributes of local cuisine and Gastronomic Image,  $r = .663$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Arousal and Pleasure,  $r = .604$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Highest performing attributes of local cuisine and Gastronomic Image,  $r = .558$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Dinescape and Gastronomic Image,  $r = .502$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p < .001$ ) were also considered in the framework.

The results of Stepwise regression conducted on Consumption Behaviour as the dependent variable and eleven factors (pleasure, arousal, food neophobia, social others, open culture, gastronomic image, dinescape, availability of information on local cuisine, accessibility of information on local cuisine, most important attributes of local cuisine and highly performing attributes of local cuisine) as independent variables resulted in the inclusion of only three factors (social others, arousal and open culture) in the regression model. The three factors were then used to design a modified model for the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour for the consumption of local cuisine in Gaborone for level 3 only in Chapter Six.

Results of correlation and the stepwise regression, together with Independent Samples *t* tests and ANOVA tests were also used for hypothesis testing. ANOVA revealed statistically

significant differences among the age groups,  $F(3, 225) = 2.95, p = .03$ . Diners above 50 years reported higher levels of neophobia than the other age groups. Using independent samples  $t$  tests, the study also found that male and female diners were not significantly different in their approach to food neophobia,  $t(227) = -.188, p > .05$ . Using ANOVA, the study established that diners with BGCSE reported lower levels of neophobia to those with higher qualifications,  $F(4, 203) = 5.40, p = .000$ , contradicting Tuorila *et al.* (2001:35) for instance who reported lower levels of neophobia in respondents with higher levels of education. The study also established that Swedish diners reported significantly lower levels of neophobia than diners from the other nationalities,  $F(6, 216) = 3.20, p = .005$ . Neophobia of Setswana cuisine was highest amongst the Americans and the South Africans who formed part of the survey.

Lastly the study found no mediating influence of arousal on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour. There was also no mediating influence of Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour. Pleasure was also not a significant mediator of Arousal and Consumption behaviour.

### **5.3 RESULTS OF THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MARKETING OFFICIALS' SURVEY (SURVEY D)**

Interviews with three tourism and hospitality marketing officials Survey D were held in July 2014. Initially five organisations had been targeted but due to several reasons cited in Chapter Three only three interviewees were included in the final analysis. Due to the nature of the tourism industry that is still developing, only a few organisations would be responsible for marketing cuisine. The interviews were conducted in Gaborone. Purposive sampling was used in this section, because it had the advantage of allowing flexibility in selecting participants to the surveys.

The first interviewee is referred to as Interviewee A. Interviewee A is the Marketing Executive at Botswana Tourism Organisation. The interview with Interviewee A was held at her office and lasted for about 30 minutes. Interviewee B, who was the second interviewee, is the Events and Restaurant Manager at Botswana Craft Marketing, a cultural marketing

organisation. This company hosts the annual Letlhafula Food Festival, a national cultural event. The interview was held at her office and lasted for about 25 minutes. The interview with the third interviewee, Interviewee C was at her place of work and it lasted for about 40 minutes. Interviewee C is a Food Service Manager at Gaborone Sun Hotel, Casino and Conference Centre (a member of the Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana). The interviews were guided by five questions. All interviews were recorded manually. Findings from this section were presented using the five main questions in section B of the interview guide (Appendix D). However the demographic profile of interviewees was presented first.

### 5.3.1 Demographic Profile of Interviewees

Table 5.20 highlights that all of the interviewees were female and were Batswana.

**Table 5.20: Demographic Profile of Interviewees**

	Gender	Age (years)	Highest Educational Qualification	Nationality	Years at Post
Interviewee A	Female	30-39	Bachelor	Botswana	3
Interviewee B	Female	30-39	Diploma	Botswana	5
Interviewee C	Female	40-49	Bachelor	Botswana	3

### 5.3.2 The Type of Cuisine Preferred by Tourists in Botswana

Interviewees were also asked to identify what type of local food and beverages tourists prefer in Botswana (Question GP8, Appendix D). The observation that *seswaa* is Botswana's number cuisine tourism attractor was resonated by two of the three tourism and hospitality marketing specialists interviewed. They identified *seswaa* as the most popular cuisine amongst tourists both domestic and international. Their remarks were:

Interviewee A: The younger market like students like fast foods. The domestic market like more of the traditional, they love their own food. The international market, well they like game meat especially biltong, and also a fusion of local cuisine with what they are used to.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee B: *seswaa* is the ultimate because it is unique.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee C: *Seswaa* and *Paleche*. *Paleche* is not difficult to sell, it is also internationally recognised. Tourists also love our beef because it is seen as organic, they also love game meat.

In general it emerged from the interviews that beef based cuisine like *seswaa*, game meat and biltong was popular amongst tourists. This confirms Denbow and Thebe (2006:108) who state that Botswana cuisine is centred on meat. This is also the cuisine that would have the highest potential for promotion. However, because *seswaa* is certainly more attractive than other types of cuisine it should therefore be promoted with its own attributes.

### **5.3.3 Platforms used to Inform Tourists on the Availability of Local Cuisine**

Concerning the second question (Question GP9, Appendix D), interviewees were asked to state the main methods or platforms they used to inform tourists on the availability of Setswana cuisine. All three interviewees identified the importance of events and functions in the promotion of local cuisine as indicated in their responses:

Interviewee A: we use cultural events like the Letlhafula and Dithubaruba. We sponsor and act in partnership with cultural organisations. Cuisine complements dance. Botswana culture is mainly dance and song. To some extent we use exhibitions and local eatery places.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee B: radio, television sometimes brochures. Events and functions like Letlhafula, and then there is the Beef Festival.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee C: we use functions and we have also tried theme nights. For functions it has to be the first day and not every day, because they will complain especially the locals. There is also the Letlhafula festival in the country but there is lack of an educational tour in the event.

However even during the functions, Interviewee C reiterates that Setswana cuisine should not be offered on all days but rather on the first day, when delegates are still enthusiastic. With festivals such as the Letlhafula, it was also important to introduce an educational component. The emphasis of education in cuisine tourism is very important as there is a lack of grounded traditional knowledge amongst most of the populace. For instance information on the history

of local cuisine, its development and transformations could be captured within the festival in the form of short films or video. As well, regional variations when depicted through an educational component can act to bridge the lack of market interest that prevails.

### **5.3.4 Extent of Tourists' Awareness of Local Cuisine Offerings in Gaborone**

Interviewees were also asked to indicate to what extent tourists were aware of local cuisine offerings (Question GP10, Appendix D). The responses derived were:

Interviewee A: Local cuisine is still under developed. It is yet to be presented to the international market in a way they can appreciate it.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee B: Most Africans especially South Africans know the local cuisine we have. Some don't know but they like to try in most cases.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee C: Some like it but most outsiders may shy away. The locals know especially those attending government functions so we do not need to publicize that much.

Interviewees perceived that tourists especially those from within the country and those from South Africa knew of the availability of local cuisine. South Africans in particular were expected to know because since the 1970s, the majority of Tswana people have lived in South Africa (Mwakikagile, 2010:189). The largest population of Tswana people are in South Africa and this is where the Tswana in Botswana come from (Mwakikagile, 2010:189). As such there is commonality of indigenous cuisine amongst the Tswana and a number of South Africans of Tswana descent. The cuisine would be an extension of their mundane cuisine. However Interviewee A perceived that local cuisine is under developed and there is need for authorities to identify appropriate ways in which it could be presented for appreciation by the local and international market.

### **5.3.5 Challenges faced when Promoting Local Cuisine to Tourists**

Interviewees were asked to identify the main challenges they faced in trying to promote local cuisine (Question GP11, Appendix D). Interviewees gave the following responses:

Interviewee A: Demand exceeds supply, for example there is not enough free range chickens to feed everyone. The produce from suppliers is not consistent. Most farmers produce for their own consumption and not for sale. Again there is a lack of knowledge in traditional food preparation. People who are knowledgeable are unaware of the opportunities. The language barrier is also a major challenge, as caterers sometimes fail to express themselves.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee B: We don't have many types of vegetables only versions of *morogo*. The starches like *bogobe*, *stampa* and the meats are plenty. We also need a steady supply of ingredients from individuals...The quality of ingredients is not consistent...The market for local cuisine is low so opening many places won't work.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee C: Tourists love brightly coloured food but our dishes are bland and sometimes do not need a garnish. We once tried *mopane* worms as a snack, and we had to remove it from the menu because they were not appealing...It is difficult to source some of the ingredients like, already processed sorghum in bulk...from a business point of view there is not enough profit you can get from selling traditional dishes...The safety for tripe is questionable; to what extent do they clean the tripe. I have never heard of a place where the ingredients have been checked for safety and hygiene...Some of the dishes take time to cook e.g the free range chickens, that is time and energy.

Five major themes of challenges faced by tourism and hospitality officials in promoting Setswana cuisine were extracted from the responses above: language barrier, safety, health and hygiene considerations, aesthetic factors, supply irregularities and a lack of market interest.

### **5.3.5.1 The Language Barrier**

The language barrier identified as the communication gap and one of the impediments of food tourism by Cohen and Avieli (2004:764) was also eminent in this survey. It is apparent that if tourists could speak the native language, for those that cannot, then this problem could be eliminated. However tourists, especially international, by their nature are not expected to stay at the destination for more than 12 months (Lubbe, 2003:51), as they cease to be classified as tourists. The ephemeral nature of international tourists' stay at the destination is the main reason why for most, they cannot speak or understand the native language.

This study has found out that the language barrier is not only a challenge with international tourists as highlighted by food and beverage supervisors, but it is a challenge for the service providers as well. As Interviewee A indicated, ‘The language barrier is a challenge, as caterers sometimes fail to express themselves’. The language barrier is therefore two faceted. It is not only about the tourist understanding the native language but also about the caterer knowing how to express themselves in a way that the tourist understands. The effort of bridging the communication gap should therefore be two way and reciprocal.

In general, although tourist understanding of local cuisine is exemplified as a challenge, it could be seen as an opportunity for the food service facility and for the national tourism office. Associating cuisine with its native or indigenous name can be used as a reference for authenticity and hence act as its main selling point. The desire to experience authentic Thai food was one of the main driving motives for tourists’ selection of locally owned restaurants in Thailand for instance (Buruskunul, *et al.*, 2011:971). The quest for authentic experiences can therefore act to draw more, even international tourists, to Botswana’s indigenous cuisine.

### **5.3.5.2 Safety, Health and Hygiene considerations**

Travel warnings are very much common for most African countries. Most are warnings against drinking tap water (Young, 2008:84) or against local street food fare (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:762). Contaminated water for instance is common for spreading diarrhoea, dysentery or typhoid (Young, 2008:84). For Botswana, the usual health considerations are with water, food and personal hygiene (Chiodini & Boyne, 2003:47).

Traveller’s diarrhoea is the most common ailment linked to tourism and is commonly associated with travellers moving from the developed to the developing countries (Chiodini & Boyne, 2003:33). Marco Polo, one of the pioneers of modern travel even had diarrhoea on one of his journeys (Buckley, Samagalski, Cummings, Storey and Strauss, 1994:235). The history of traveller’s diarrhoea is long established. Even with some levels of immunity, most travellers always take heed and usually keep away from ‘likely contaminated’ or ‘ill looking’ food’. As such safety and hygiene considerations are warranted, even from the caterers’ point of view. Some of the local cuisine requires strict adherence to safety and hygienic practices during preparation and service. As reiterated by Interviewee C, ‘the safety for tripe

is questionable; to what extent do they [caterers] clean the tripe. I have never heard of a place where the ingredients have been checked for safety and hygiene'. Interviewee C is justified in her concern for the safety and especially hygiene relating to the preparation of tripe. By its nature tripe requires lengthy periods of time in cleaning and cooking. Probably this is why *serobe* (a beef/goat offal mixture) as discussed earlier received seventh place ranking in terms of tourism potential but received second place ranking in terms of national identity. The cuisine is a typical gastronomic product associated with Botswana but its acceptability is limited by safety and hygiene considerations to some extent.

### **5.3.5.3 Aesthetic Factors**

Aesthetics are associated with the philosophy of food that conjures up the sensory and imagery appreciation of food. Korsmeyer (2012:94) links aesthetics to the descriptive and verdictive properties of food. The appearance of food is important in determining its acceptance and consumption (King, 1999:5). 'We eat with our eyes': this is a common adage that impels all food service providers to prepare their food in ways that are as presentable as possible. However it was ostensible from the study that some of the popular cuisine was not visually appealing. *Phane* as a tourism resource may not be appealing; as Interviewee C stated,

*Tourists love brightly coloured food but our dishes are bland and sometimes do not need a garnish. We once tried mopane worms just as a snack, but we had to remove them from the menu because they were not appealing.*

Looking at the colour of the prepared cuisine, most of it looks bland. In some cuisine, garnishes are not even used as they distort the authenticity of the cuisine. However despite the visual appeal most of the cuisine has distinctive flavours and is of high nutritional value: these aspects acting as key selling points.

### **5.3.5.4 Supply Irregularities**

Another major challenge faced by respondents sampled in this study was the irregularity of supply. Two main concerns associated with supply were raised: the challenge to maintain

consistency in the availability of supply and the challenge to maintain consistency in the quality of supply.

Even in cases where local produce is available, Interviewee C reverberated that, ‘the quality of ingredients is not consistent’. These concerns were duly noticeable and are partly due to the performance of the agricultural sector in the country. Although agriculture in Botswana is one of the country’s largest economic sectors, over the years the performance of this sector has been poor, mainly due to intermittent rainfall and pest and disease outbreaks (Statistics Botswana, 2014: 2). Another reason for the low levels of supply could be that most crops are produced for domestic consumption. As Interviewee A indicates, ‘most farmers produce for their own consumption and not for sale’. This assertion is true in some cases. For instance looking at the sorghum crop production disposal figures for 2012; of the 7461 metric tonnes that were produced, 5588 metric tonnes (75%) were stored and used for home consumption, whilst only 1361 metric tonnes (18%) were sold or traded (Statistics Botswana, 2014:112). The trend for millet is even similar: 1499 metric tonnes (95%) were stored and used for home consumption whilst only 9 metric tonnes (0.6%) was sold or traded out of a total 1582 metric tonnes (Statistics Botswana, 2014:114). Probably the main reason why farmers do not produce for sale in larger quantities is because of the lack of market interest for Setswana cuisine. This is the next challenge that was discussed in this study.

#### **5.3.5.5 Lack of Market Interest**

Like the food and beverage supervisors, Interviewee B also acknowledged the lack of market interest: ‘the market for local cuisine is low so opening many places won’t work’. However this observation contradicts the recommendation by Interviewee A to open ‘many new Setswana eatery places in Gaborone’. However the lack of market interest could be attributable to the fact that as has been discussed, most of visitors were Batswana, who consumed the cuisine identified mostly as part of their daily staple cuisine. It is rational enough therefore for the locals to consume cuisine other than their local indigenous cuisine types when they are dining out. It is also rational to observe that these same people cannot travel all the way from their usual places of residence to indulge in the same local cuisine that they can easily prepare at home and pay much less in comparison. In this case it is best to view Setswana cuisine eatery places in Gaborone as mainly an extension of the familiarity of

home. As such these places can best appeal to cuisine tourists who intend to embrace familiarity when they travel. However it may also be important to take note of the regional variations that could be used to generate interest. Cuisine from the Northern part of the country, for instance which is usually different from that in the Southern part due to climatic differences, could be presented in restaurant facilities using the regional variations as the main selling points. The cuisine would be unique and worth trying for those who have never tasted it. Methods of preparation vary and by embracing the differences, unique experiences can be created.

### **5.3.5.6 Other Challenges**

Other challenges that were identified from the study were

1. Lack of variety especially for the vegetable range: ‘we don’t have many types of vegetables only versions of morogo. The starches like bogobe, stampa and the meats are plenty’ (Interviewee B).
2. Issues of financial sustainability: ‘from a business point of view there is not enough profit you can get from selling traditional dishes’ (Interviewee C).
3. Lack of traditional knowledge in food preparation: ‘lack of knowledge in traditional food preparation’ (Interviewee A).
4. Lengthy preparation times: ‘Some of the dishes take time to cook e.g the free range chickens and that is time and energy’ (Interviewee C). For seswaa for example, preparation time can take as long as four hours (von Rudloff, 2007:7).

### **5.3.6 The Promotion of Local Cuisine at a Larger Scale to Tourists**

Education and awareness; establishment of safety, hygiene and health standards; ensuring consistent and appropriate levels of supply; maintaining authenticity of Setswana cuisine and identification and introduction of cuisine promotion champions were some of main themes emerging from responses by interviewees when they were asked what they perceived could be done to promote local cuisine on a larger scale:

Interviewee A: Boost supplies...educate the suppliers...need for more Setswana eatery places in the city.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee B: we have tried to promote the local cuisine but more can be done...suppliers should bring good produce...we need to keep our cuisine natural/original and traditional and not contemporary.

\*\*\*\*\*

Interviewee C: Our chefs should know how to cook for example *serobe* using a standardised recipe and at the same time make sure it is mixed right...education...BTO should get fact sheets of our local cuisine from knowledgeable people...establish standards...You can also do a demonstration video of cuisine from different regions prepared by well knowledgeable persons, as there are many regional differences...cultural groups should pick up key dishes and promote them to the level of *seswaa*. *Seswaa* is a signature dish...Understanding the cultural aspects of a dish is important. Emphasize the healthy perspectives of the cuisine, e.g sorghum is very healthy.

### 5.3.6.1 Education and Awareness

It was apparent from the interviews that education and awareness of Setswana cuisine should be highly considered, especially in emphasising its importance and uniqueness. ‘Understanding the cultural aspects of a dish’ and the ‘healthy aspects of cuisine’, for caterers as Interviewee A indicated, is important. In some cases, the Letlhafula Festival though being a noble idea lacks that educational tour component (Interviewee C). Interviewee C also suggested that Botswana Tourism Organisation which is the national tourism office should get ‘fact sheets of our local cuisine from knowledgeable people’ and ‘present it to the tourists in a way that they can understand’. Interviewee A also reiterated that ‘people who are knowledgeable are unaware of the opportunities’ that present with cuisine tourism. This would mostly apply to traditional cultural knowledge which to some extent is not written down but can be passed from one generation to the other orally. There is not much literature in Botswana on the indigenous knowledge linked to indigenous or traditional cuisine. This knowledge gap is exacerbated by the fact that there are so many regional variants of Setswana cuisine (Von Rudloff, 2007:5; Interviewee C). Each traditional dish for instance has ‘so many recipes and there can never be agreement on the correct method to prepare any menu’ (Von Rudloff, 2007:5). For instance *seswaa* whilst being identified as the key tourism resource is also commonly known as *chotlho* in other Tswana dialects (Denbow & Thebe, 2006:113). Considering the two terms, *seswaa* is more popular in its use to *chotlho*. As such

it is important to establish agreed regional variants of recipes that can be used in publicity information. Interviewee C further suggested the use of visual representation: ‘You can also do a demonstration video of cuisine from different regions prepared by well knowledgeable persons’ in order to document some the regional variations.

In terms of awareness, it is apparent from the surveys, that the local populace is aware of Setswana cuisine offerings in the market. However awareness with other markets and even abroad should be advocated. For instance, Maruapula and Chapman-Novakodfski (2011:353) argue that most young Batswana are not aware of the fibre-rich traditional dishes such as boiled sorghum grain (*lohata*) because such delicacies have not been presented in their original contexts to them but rather as processed alternatives. Methods of preparation and diets have changed and this could probably be the reason why the youth lack interest in traditional Setswana cuisine. However a lot of effort is being extended to increase awareness amongst locals through the Letlhafula Food Festival and cooking competitions, though more could be done.

### **5.3.6.2 Establishment of Standards**

Interviewee C emphasised the need for standardised recipes. The establishment of standards can act to regulate consistency and authenticity of Setswana cuisine. Standards can therefore be developed in purchasing so as to procure safe and hygienic produce and in preparation to ensure that adequate procedures are adhered.

### **5.3.6.3 Ensuring Consistent Supply and Maintenance of Authenticity**

Suppliers should ensure and learn how to boost their supplies. In some cases this might mean importing from neighbour countries as cuisine in sub-Saharan Africa especially, relies on similar sets of ingredients to a large extent. The use of imported products is quite questionable in relation to authenticity in cuisine tourism. However as Bélisle (1984:820) argues the use of imports in tourism is justifiable especially when the item is not available in sufficient quantities locally or the imported item is of better quality. Despite such, efforts should be extended on keeping ‘our cuisine natural/original and traditional and not contemporary’ as Interviewee B suggested, especially in the method of preparation.

#### **5.3.6.4 Identification and Introduction of Cuisine Promotion Champions**

Lastly Interviewee C emphasised the importance of cultural groups in promoting local cuisine. Cultural groups can therefore act as champions in the promotion of Setswana cuisine. The concept of cultural champions is not new in extant literature. For instance cultural champions have been used to promote Aboriginal culture (Nelson, 2007:10.9). In Japan, cultural champions have also been used to preserve Japanese culture and idealism (Calichman, 2005:85). Cultural champions are important for the preservation and conservation of both tangible and intangible cultural products. In this context they can therefore act to promulgate the level of awareness of Setswana cuisine even at international level.

#### **5.3.7 Summary of Findings from the Interview Survey**

Three interviewees from three tourism and hospitality organisations formed the sample for this survey. All three interviewees were female, with age ranges between 30 and 49 years.

The interviewees were asked amongst other questions to state the cuisine they perceived tourists visiting Botswana would prefer. The interviewees strongly perceived that beef based cuisine like *seswaa*, game meat and biltong was popular amongst tourists. However they strongly perceived that *seswaa* would be largely preferred to any other cuisine types. One of the interviewees described *seswaa* as unique. This finding concurs with the findings from the expert opinion survey and the food and beverage survey where *seswaa* was identified as the most attractive cuisine type.

Just like the food and beverage supervisors and diners (Surveys B and C), the marketing officials also strongly perceived that events were very influential in promoting the local cuisine. Functions and events bring different societies together and as such are ideal for the transfer of cultural knowledge.

In relation to the extent to which tourists are aware of local cuisine offerings in restaurants two of the Interviewees were adamant that tourists especially those from within the country and from South Africa would know of the availability of local cuisine. However Interviewee A believed that the local cuisine is underdeveloped and emphasised the importance of improving ways of presentation to the international market. There is therefore a need for local cuisine to be developed and presented to the international market.

The interviewees came with a number of challenges which were classified into five themes: language barrier, safety, health and hygiene considerations, aesthetic factors, supply irregularities and a lack of market interest. The most prominent challenge identified was supply irregularities. These themes were also supply driven than demand driven, just like the challenges that were identified by the food and beverage supervisors. The main themes emerging from the interviews were incorporated in the proposed strategic framework in Chapter Six.

Interviewees were also asked to suggest possible ways through which local cuisine could be promoted on a larger scale. The suggestions brought up were grouped into different themes: education and awareness; establishment of safety, hygiene and health standards; maintenance of consistent and appropriate levels of supply; maintaining authenticity of Setswana cuisine and identification and introduction of cuisine promotion champions. The most prominent theme emerging was the maintenance of consistent and appropriate levels of supply. This theme was a direct response to the challenge of supply irregularities. However all the themes were considered in the proposed strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Chapter Six.

## **5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter analysed findings from the tourist survey and the tourism and hospitality marketing officials' survey. The main characteristics of diners were spelt and so were the main factors that predicted tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. The interviews held with marketing officials were also important in identifying cuisine that has great

potential for promotion. Both surveys were important as well as they helped identify the main methods that could be used for promoting local cuisine. A number of promotional methods for local cuisine were discussed in this Chapter. However the importance of the national tourism organisation and restaurant websites, the television, magazines and newspapers, the menu and functions and events were also emphasised. Challenges associated with the promotion of local cuisine and how these could be addressed were aspects that were also discussed.

## **6 CHAPTER SIX: PROPOSED STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK FOR THE PROMOTION OF LOCAL CUISINE, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The main purpose of this thesis was to design a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine. Five key research objectives were generated. The first objective was to analyse literature on tourist experiences and how it relates to cuisine. The second objective set to identify local cuisine that could be promoted for tourism purposes in Botswana, whilst Objective Three, sought to identify factors predicting tourists' local cuisine consumption behaviour (henceforth referred to as consumption behaviour) in Botswana. Objective Four, was on analysing strategic tourism management literature concerning the development and promotion of local cuisine. Lastly the study set to draw conclusions and make recommendations concerning the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana. The first three objectives and part of Objective Four were analysed in the previous chapters. The rest of Objective Four, especially literature concerning the proposed strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine and Objective Five were analysed in this Chapter.

The aim of this Chapter is to summarise the main contributions and findings of the study. The chapter begins with highlighting the main contributions of the study. Then the Chapter discusses and summarises the main findings of the literature review and the empirical surveys in light of the five key research objectives that were generated in Chapter One. Lastly general recommendations based on the findings are proposed and recommendations for future research are then presented.

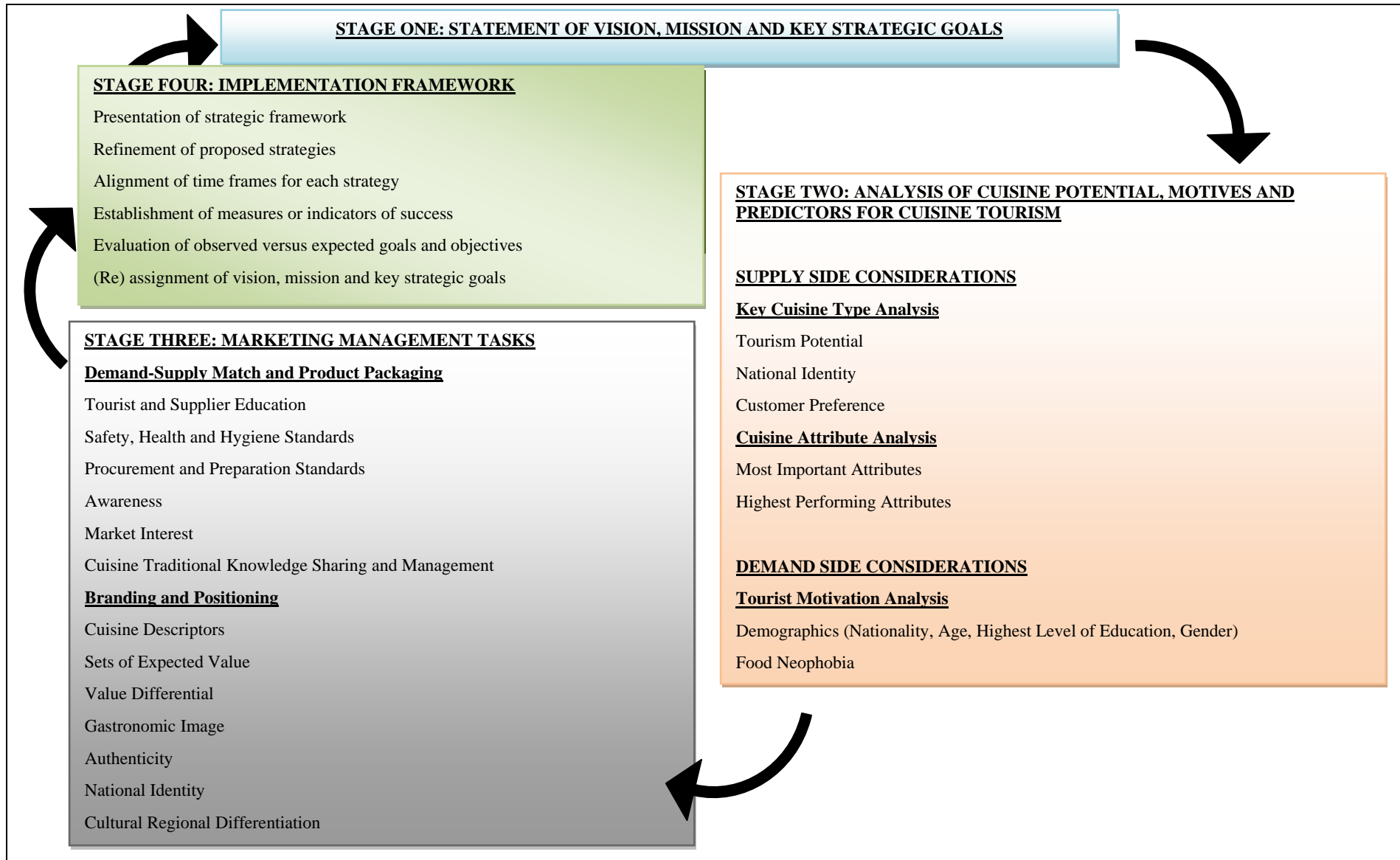
## **6.2 UNIQUE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY**

The most significant contribution of this study is the development of a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine, the cuisine tourism promotion matrix and the identification of predictors for tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

### **6.2.1 Strategic Framework for the Tourism Promotion of Local Cuisine in Botswana**

This study's contribution is mainly through a four component strategic framework for the promotion of Setswana cuisine in Botswana. Although presentation of the framework in this chapter is based on findings from Gaborone, a similar strategic approach (with modification in some cases) can be used for analysis elsewhere in Botswana. The framework advocates for a procedural approach which has been adopted from du Rand and Heath (2006). The framework was also informed by other strategies (King, 2004; Cabinet Secretariat, 2010; Chaney & Ryan 2012; Horng & Tsai, 2012b) as highlighted in Chapter Two.

The framework is guided by two main assumptions. The first assumption which was confirmed was the stage of Gaborone in its tourism area life cycle. The study had made an assumption that Gaborone was in its involvement stage as it has realised an increased and regular volume of visitors from 2009 (Department of Tourism, 2011:10). This assumption was confirmed by Experts in Survey A as cumulatively, 42.5% of them agreed that tourism in Gaborone was in its involvement stage. The second assumption was based on the analysis that neither Botswana nor Gaborone was a bench mark cuisine destination. Bench mark cuisine destinations are tourist destinations that have successfully implemented and promoted cuisine in their tourism policies. Based on these two guidelines, the strategic framework with its strategies that could be implemented in promoting local cuisine was developed (Figure 6.1).



**Figure 6.1: Strategic Framework for the Tourism Promotion of Local Cuisine in Botswana**

The proposed framework has four components: Stage One, Two, Three and Four. Stage One presents the vision, mission and main goals of the framework. Stage Two presents the cuisine tourism potential. Stage Three and Four present the marketing management tasks and the implementation framework, respectively.

#### **6.1.1.1 Stage One: Statement of Vision, Mission and Main Goals**

Stage One involves a clarification of the vision of the strategy framework, its mission, and key strategic goals. This stage was adapted from King (2004). In summary, step one entails the following:

- Vision Statement
- Mission Statement
- Key Strategic Goals

##### ***The vision statement***

To develop, promote and offer Setswana cuisine as tourism resources in Botswana.

##### ***Mission statement***

The framework advocates for the full realization of the tourism potential of key Setswana cuisine, tying such potential with national identity and customer preferences.

##### ***Key Strategic Goals***

Three key strategic goals are proposed for the Strategic Framework:

1. To emphasize the tourism potential of Setswana Cuisine in Botswana.
2. To understand the main motives and predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption in Botswana.
3. Identify the main techniques that can be used to promote Setswana cuisine in Botswana.

### **6.1.1.2 Stage Two: Analysis of Cuisine Potential, Motives and Predictors for Cuisine Tourism**

Stage Two of the proposed framework is based on du Rand and Heath (2006) and Chaney and Ryan (2012) models but modified to suit the context of the study. For instance some of the aspects in Steps One and Two of du Rand and Heath (2006) were incorporated in Stage Two of this study's framework design. Stage Two of this study mainly addresses Strategic Goals One and Two: Emphasizing the tourism potential of Setswana cuisine and understanding the main motives and predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption.

#### ***Goal One***

In order to emphasize the tourism potential of Setswana cuisine, the following strategies are suggested:

1. Evaluation of the attractiveness of Gaborone as a tourism destination
2. Assessment of the tourism potential of Setswana cuisine

#### ***Review of the tourism attractiveness status of Gaborone***

Using results from the literature search and empirical surveys, this section involves a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the destination tourism potential of Gaborone city. It includes a review of the attractiveness of physical facilities and administrative structures available for tourism. In this study, six questions that evaluated the political, economic, social, administrative, physical and technological structures as being attractive for tourism promotion were used to develop a composite variable referred to as destination tourism potential in the expert opinion survey (Appendix A). Internal consistency reliability of the six items was measured using Cronbach alpha and the value for alpha was within the acceptable range of 0.7 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011:54). In terms of destination tourism potential, Gaborone received a mean score of 3.95 on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), from the expert survey, which implied good standing. As such similar aspects of destination attractiveness can be used to assess the general attractiveness of a destination.

### *Tourism Potential of Setswana Cuisine in Gaborone*

After reviewing the general attractiveness of a destination the next step would be to evaluate the attractiveness of its cuisine resources. This section is divided into two: the discussion of key cuisine types for promotion and cuisine attribute analysis.

#### Key Cuisine Types for Tourism Promotion:

Local cuisine types that could be promoted for tourism purposes should be identified. The identification and classification of resources is the first stage of a five stage framework for strategy formulation as suggested by Grant (1991:115). Grant (1991:116) further argues that resources and capabilities of a firm and of a destination in this case, are the foundation of strategy since they provide the basic direction of a strategy. This study used both qualitative and quantitative techniques in a qual-QUAN sequential process to identify key cuisine types that could be used for tourism promotion. The qualitative technique was based on content analysis where travel websites and books were used to identify a list of 28 cuisine types. In the quantitative approach, the 28 cuisine types were presented to a group of experts selected purposively. The experts were expected to indicate to what extent they perceived each cuisine type could be promoted for tourism and to what extent each cuisine type was associated with national identity. Experts were also requested, in an open ended section to identify other cuisine types that had potential for promotion as tourism resources. In addition food and beverage supervisors (Survey B) were also asked in an open ended question to indicate the type of cuisine diners preferred at their restaurant facilities. In the final analysis, the study identified 15 key Setswana cuisine types that had high potential for promotion (Figure 5.1). These cuisine types were part of the top ten list for cuisine types perceived to have high tourism potential and high association to national identity by experts (Survey A), as well as high customer preference as perceived by food and beverage supervisors (Survey B).

The 15 cuisine types were *seswaa* (pound boiled beef), *koko ya Setswana* (free range Setswana chicken), *morogo wa dinawa* (bean-leaf vegetable), *segwapa* (dried meat/biltong), *bogobe jwa lerotse* (sorghum porridge with cooking melons), *serobe* (boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal), *morogo wa thepe* (wild spinach), *phane* (mopane worms), *bogobe* (hard sorghum porridge), *phaletshe* (maize meal porridge), *stampa* (samp or cracked maize) and *gemere* (ginger beer). Three cuisine types, *dikgobe* (samp and beans), *lerotse* (cooking melons) and *nama ya podi* (goat meat) though

not being cited under customer preference were perceived to have high tourism potential and association with national identity. All fifteen cuisine types were included in the final analysis and were therefore considered for promotion.

The study also considered the eight additional cuisine types identified by food and beverage supervisors (Survey B, Table 4.5) that could be promoted for tourism purposes. These were *makgomane* (traditional squash), *mokoto* (pound beef mixed with offal), *setopoti* (traditional melon beer), *mmilo* (wild fruit juice), morula beer, *dikgeru* (morula nuts), *kgengwe* (wild fruit) and *mokgalo* (wild fruit).

In summary, the following sub-strategies were crafted:

1. Promote key cuisine types with high tourism potential (rankings from one up to ten), high national identity (rankings from one up to ten) and high customer preference (rankings from one up to ten) to the 'Likely', 'Definite' and 'Definite Neophilic' cuisine tourists.
2. Promote key cuisine types with low tourism potential (rankings above ten), low national identity (rankings above ten) and low customer preference (rankings above ten), to the day visitors and the 'Possibles'.
3. Promote additional cuisine types to the 'Likely' and 'Definites'.

#### Cuisine Attribute Analysis:

The attributes of the food at the destination was identified as one of the key external factors that influence food consumption in tourism (Mak, *et al.*, 2012:929) (Chapter Two). In a study by Jingjing (2012:349-350), both food and destination factors were used to assess the attractiveness of local cuisine in Mainland China. Aspects of food representation, appearance, reputation, good service and the atmosphere were some of the attributes that were evaluated by Jingling (2011:349). The attributes of local cuisine and the service offered at restaurants (as part of the dinescape) were therefore important factors in determining local cuisine attractiveness (Jingling, 2011:v). When viewed as a geographic entity, each destination has its unique needs and limitations which need to be addressed accordingly (Buhalis, 2000:98). In this study, the correlations between Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour and four factors, food neophobia, accessibility of information on local cuisine and the most important and highly performing cuisine attributes, was not significant

(Table 5.10). However because of other correlations observed in the study, the following strategies were developed:

1. Promote the most important attributes of Setswana cuisine and the highest performing attributes of Setswana cuisine (based on  $r = .748$ ,  $n = 240$ ,  $p < .001$ ).
2. Emphasize the most important attributes of Setswana cuisine with gastronomic image (based on  $r = .663$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ ).
3. Link the highest performing attributes of local cuisine with gastronomic image, (based on  $r = .558$ ,  $n = 237$ ,  $p < .001$ ).
4. Link dinescapes with gastronomic image, (based on  $r = .502$ ,  $n = 231$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

In general, despite the good overall tourism potential of Gaborone city, a number of stakeholders have neglected the potential of cuisine tourism development in this nexus. This is widely due to the fact that most tourism policies especially in Africa, have traditionally concentrated on a generic approach to marketing and promoting tourism, failing to comply with trends in the industry. In South Africa, for instance, food took long to be recognized as an attraction because stakeholders were unaware of its tourism potential and had insufficient knowledge regarding its promotion (du Rand & Heath, 2006:219). Even surveys that are undertaken at national level, especially in the case of France for example, have failed to assess visitors' perceptions of the importance of food (Frochot, 2003:79). The visitor surveys regularly undertaken by the Department of Tourism in Botswana also portray a similar trend as they only evaluate tourists' contribution to food and beverage expenditure. Thus most existing surveys fail to distinguish, in their statistics, whether food is a necessary or pleasurable activity in tourism (Frochot, 2003:79).

In the case of Gaborone, officials and experts have acknowledged the importance of local cuisine but there has been limited development and attention awarded to it. A neglected approach to the recognition of the importance of food in tourism has meant funding which should be tied to promotional activities had not been fully provided to cater for cuisine based tourism by national governments. This portrays weak institutional arrangements to provide for the development and promotion of cuisine tourism. The trend is mutual in academia as research on the link between food and tourism has taken long to be recognised (Frochot, 2003:79). It is only recently that cuisine tourism has to some extent gained cognisance from governments, especially African. The South African White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism (Republic of South Africa, 1996) for instance, recognises the importance of tourists' sampling local food, wine and beer in

South Africa. As such the Government of Botswana is also being urged to take a wider and more active approach to the promotion of local cuisine.

Thus Goal One is basically an analysis of the supply factors of cuisine tourism, which in this study were identified as the destination tourism potential of Gaborone and the tourism potential of Setswana cuisine. After having undertaken an analysis of Goal One which dictates whether there is tourism destination potential and cuisine tourism potential, an analysis of Goal Two is then undertaken in order to evaluate the demand for cuisine tourism.

## ***Goal Two***

This Section discusses tourist motives and the main predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

### *Tourist Motivation Analysis*

Having identified cuisine that can be used for tourism purposes, it is important to identify potential and actual demand for such. The motives determining such demand were isolated in this study from the tourist/diner survey in Gaborone. The main motives for dining out as emphasised by diners were having ‘fun and relaxation’ (33.3%) and ‘meeting friends and family’ (26.4%).

The ‘possible’ cuisine tourists, those who were neutral to the question ‘are you motivated by an interest in Setswana cuisine whenever you travel’ also represented potential demand. The sample of diners comprised of 16.5% ‘Possible’ cuisine tourists. This was a substantial number and efforts could be employed in converting them into ‘likely’ or ‘definite’ cuisine tourists. As previously reiterated, the original motivation behind one’s travel can change and be dominated by a supporting experience (which might be the cuisine experience). For such a motivational change to occur there is therefore need for an internal or external stimulating factor, which could be the use of effective promotion. The majority (4.5%) of the ‘Possibles’ cited having ‘fun and relaxation’ as their main motive followed by trying ‘food at the restaurant’ (3.5%) (see Table 5.4). Since their second motive is related to cuisine tourism more effort could be employed in converting the secondary motive into a dominant one. As such motives identified for potential demand could be used to create actual demand. The following strategies were proposed:

1. Link fun and relaxation to Setswana cuisine promotion.
  - For example events such as the Beef festival should emphasize more of fun and relaxation motive theme. This could include fun related activities such as nutrition themed arts and crafts and health games based on the local cuisine and competitions.
2. Encourage tourists/diners (international for instance) to sample local cuisine at restaurants
  - provide a tourist cuisine directory and bring to the spotlight all restaurants that serve Setswana cuisine.
  - attach a grade based on the extent and diversity of coverage on the menu.
3. Identify potential demand
  - convert potential demand into actual demand by altering the main motive.

#### *Main predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour*

The main predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour isolated from this study were ‘Arousal’, ‘Open culture’ and ‘Social others’. ‘Social others’ like family, friends and colleagues were important in this study. This factor is associated with the diners’ second most important motive of ‘meeting friends and family’.

The following strategies were therefore constructed:

1. Associate Setswana cuisine with important social functions such as weddings, funerals or other functions.
2. Associate Setswana cuisine consumption with feelings of excitement.
3. Link the openness of Batswana culture to the promotion of Setswana cuisine

After having undertaken the second stage which dictates whether there is tourism and food potential, the third stage is then undertaken in order to further evaluate this potential.

#### **6.1.1.3 Stage Three: Marketing Management Tasks**

Having assessed in detail the attractiveness of local cuisine from both the demand and supply side, it is important to develop specific marketing management tasks. Amongst other tasks, the promotion of local cuisine is the main focus of this study and as such aspects of promotion have been discussed in detail in the framework.

The proposed framework could also adopt some of the marketing management tasks highlighted by du Rand and Heath (2006:226) at this stage as follows:

- Demand-Supply Match and Product Packaging
- Branding and Positioning of local cuisine
- Promotion of local cuisine

### ***Demand-Supply Match and Product Packaging***

It is important to identify appropriate market segments that require specific cuisine products (Horng & Tsai, 2012b:50). However, tourism destination organisations and cuisine providers should provide a good experience, that is based on educating and informing tourists of why the local cuisine is unique and is tied to local culture (Horng & Tsai, 2012b:50). Education on local culture and food is very important if culinary tourism strategy is to remain sustainable. One of the interviewees (Survey D) also emphasized the importance of incorporating an educational component in some of the festivals that are held. Horng and Tsai (2012b:51) reiterate the importance of nurturing professional talent in order to improve product service and quality; hence education should form part of the strategic framework. Based on the expert opinion survey and the interviews, the following strategies are proposed:

1. Educate tourists and suppliers of the cultural, safety, health and hygiene aspects of Setswana cuisine
2. Introduce educational tour components in functions and events
3. Increase awareness regionally and internationally
4. Increase market interest through awareness and education locally, especially amongst the youth who are the bulk of diners
5. Establish procurement and preparation standards and inform suppliers of the importance of their adherence
6. Increase traditional cuisine knowledge sharing and management.

### ***Branding and Positioning of Setswana Cuisine***

O'Malley (1991:107) defined a brand as 'a name, symbol, design, or some combination which identifies the product of a particular organization as having a substantial, differentiated advantage'.

However this definition may be criticised for adopting an organisational approach. The other feature of such a definition is that it lacks emphasis on consumer benefits (Wood, 2000:664). It is important to note that a brand is not just an extensional feature of a product neither should it be used to the advantage of the corporate world as with the traditional product plus view that considers branding as an additional aspect of the product. In this case, a brand is used as a product identifier (Ambler & Styles, 1996:222). For instance Horng and Tsai (2012b:49), recommend that destinations should feature the ‘most representative and popular cuisine product’ and integrate this product into the local food culture, in building a culinary brand. This ensures that the brand is easily withheld by the local populace and tourists. There is however need to shift from the traditional view to the more contemporary paradigm of branding (McQuiston, 2004). The contemporary view positions the brand as a promise and as a set of expectations that the product offers a certain type and level of value (McQuiston, 2004). McQuiston (2004:348) further suggests that the organization in addition to promising such value must ensure that the desired target market desires and is willing to pay for the value. This contemporary view is more appropriate to consumer experiences where customers expect value for the interaction they have at a destination. Therefore in the context of branding cuisine, product features should not be the only aspects communicated by a brand as suggested by Horng and Tsai (2012:49). Instead a brand should communicate other aspects of a destination. For instance the issue of associating nationality with cuisine (Okumus, *et al.*, 2007:253), a very important identifying trait of cuisine brands, should be used to create an identifying mark of destinations in consumers’ minds. Food products can also be linked to cultural markers or cultural tradition and heritage, thus enhancing the products’ value as consumers identify certain regions with certain products (Skuras & Dimara, 2004:812). From the ensuing discussion and findings from this study, these strategies could be emphasised:

1. Promote cuisine with sets of expected values e.g the healthy aspect
2. Consider cuisine with higher association to national identity for promotion
3. Increase levels of understanding of the expected values amongst the targeted groups
4. Associate cuisine with regional differences to cultural differences
5. Associate national cultural identity overall with Setswana cuisine
7. Identify and introduce Setswana cuisine promotion champions
8. Maintain authenticity of traditional methods of preparation

A strong cuisine brand should be able to create positive perceptions from customers that can assist in acceptance and increase the willingness to taste local cuisine. As Lin *et al.* (2011:44) purport,

‘the identified dimensions of food in relation to a destination can be used to determine which representative food items can be well recognized and memorized and can adequately reflect the characteristics of a given place’.

After branding, cuisine should be strategically positioned. Strategic positioning occurs by offering benefits that are distinct from competition and are desired by consumers (Wood, 2000:667). Wind (cited by Dibb & Simkin, 1993:31) defines positioning as ‘the place which a product occupies in a given market as perceived by the product’s targeted customers’. The most unique, highly performing and important attributes of food can be used to create a positioning strategy (Jang, *et al.*, 2009:69). Positioning creates an image of the product in the minds of the customers. The image is what customers perceive about the expected benefits of a product.

As such it is important to consider these strategies:

1. Use the most important and highest performing attributes and descriptors to position each cuisine type.
2. Create value differential based on the expected value versus the cost attached

Karim and Chi (2010:549) also emphasise the importance of a unique food image at cuisine destinations. Findings from Karim and Chi (2010:542) indicate a strong association between food image and travellers’ visit intentions to the cuisine destinations of Italy, France and Thailand. They argue that travellers’ image perceptions are important in determining the type of marketing programmes to develop that appeal to potential food tourists (p.549). Unfortunately Karim and Chi (2010) are some of few researchers that studied the link between images and the purchase or consumption of food and drink. In fact Skuras and Dimara (2004:812) recommend more attention from researchers on the influence of food image and purchasing behaviour of denominated food and drink. Because of the positive correlation between Gastronomic image and consumption behaviour ( $r = .123, n = 234, p < .05$ ), the study proposed this strategy:

1. Emphasise the uniqueness of the image of Setswana cuisine.

Because positioning relies on image creation, this therefore means positioning also relies heavily on marketing communication, especially advertising and promotion. Karim and Chi (2010:551) further support the view that destinations should create an appropriate image first then use a mix of

appropriate tools to deliver the desired image. Having identified cuisine that could be integrated into the tourism portfolio of Botswana, it is important to then match these products to the appropriate market segments through various promotional tools. Strategies to address this part are:

1. Mainly use national tourism organizational websites, hotel/restaurant websites and functions to promote Setswana cuisine to international tourists.
2. Mainly use television, hotel/restaurant websites and functions to promote Setswana cuisine to domestic and day visitors.

#### **6.1.1.4 Stage Four: Implementation Framework**

Organisations and countries acknowledge the importance of effective strategy implementation. A framework for the implementation of proposed courses of action, including their evaluation and monitoring should be laid. The framework should be implemented as one of the marketing functions of BTO. In the case of Gaborone, implementation of this strategy includes the activities that should be carried out by the national tourism organisation that are aimed at executing a particular strategy (Carpenter & Sanders, 2007:18). The implementation strategy should therefore begin with:

1. Presentation of the strategic framework to the private and public authorities responsible for the promotion of cuisine tourism, such as Botswana Tourism Organisation, the Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana and the Department of Tourism (Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism) for possible financing and support.
2. Refinement of proposed strategies (the proposed strategies should be reinforced by attaching measurable objectives)
3. Alignment of time frames for each strategy (each strategy should have an expected time period for implementation as some strategies could be medium or long term)
4. Establishment of measures or indicators of success
5. Evaluation of observed versus expected goals and objectives (in most cases the strategy realised through the implementation framework is somewhat different from the original plan [Carpenter & Sanders, 2007:18]).
6. (Re)assignment of vision, mission and strategic goals

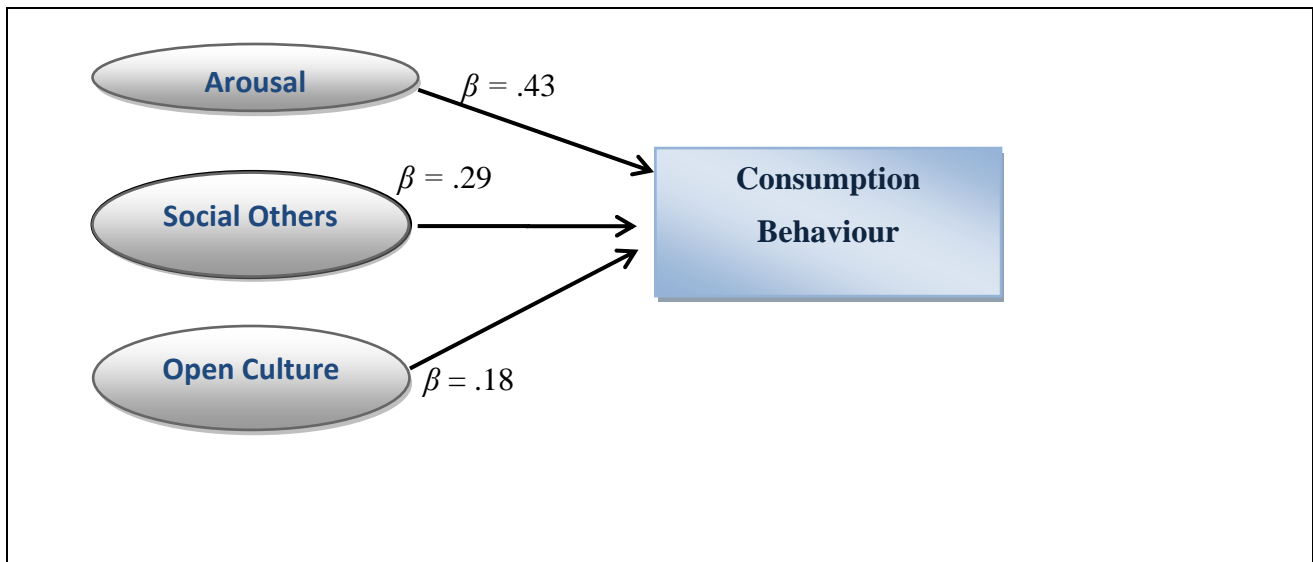
### **6.1.2 The Cuisine Tourism Promotion Matrix**

The study is also important because of its contribution to the analysis of the tourism potential of local cuisine through the use of a cuisine tourism promotion matrix. Using both a demand and supply perspective the study suggests the use of a matrix based on tourism potential, customer preference and national identity in identifying key cuisine that can be used for promotion purposes.

The matrix (Figure 4.1) can be used to identify the top performing cuisine in relation to the three aspects. Tourism potential and national identity in this study was analysed using experts' opinions thus emphasising the need of supply driven perspectives. Although customers' preferences were based on food and beverage supervisors' opinions this aspect represented what the market preferred: actual demand.

### **6.1.3 Predictors of Tourists' Setswana Consumption Behaviour**

Using Stepwise multiple regression, the study also identified three factors (social others, arousal and open culture) that were important predictors of local cuisine consumption behaviour. The three factors were then used to design a modified model for the third level (that which predicts actual behaviour) of the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour. The Theory was modified in this context for the consumption of local cuisine in Gaborone (Figure 5.5).



**Figure 6.2: Modified TIB Model for Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour (Level 3).**

(Source: Adapted from Egmond & Bruel, 2007:9).

The model depicts the three main factors that were found to have significant prediction of Consumption Behaviour. However the model predicts only 34% of the variance of consumption behaviour, meaning the rest of the variance is accounted for by other factors that were not identified in this study. Unexplained variance can be due to important key variables which were not identified in the model or errors that could have occurred in variable identification. However this is another area of study. Despite, its shortcomings, the modified model lays the foundation for future enquiry in cuisine consumption behavioural research.

## 6.2 CONCLUSIONS ON THE REVIEW OF EXTANT LITERATURE

The following discussion presented the main conclusions drawn from the literature review conducted in this study. These conclusions on the literature review were mainly used to answer two main research questions for the study, Question 1: How does existing literature on tourists cuisine experiences relate to tourism? Question 4: What literature exists on strategic tourism management for the promotion of local cuisine?

- In relation to extant literature it can therefore be confirmed that empirical research on local cuisine is anecdotal though increasing. For instance, a number of authors (e.g Amira, 2009;

Jingjing, 2012; Karim, 2006; Shenoy, 2005; Steinmetz, 2010) to mention a few, have undertaken postgraduate research exclusively on cuisine and tourism in order to understand the link between the two concepts. Concepts such as ‘otherness’ have emerged in cuisine literature and have also been used to help understand the relationship (e.g Mkono, 2011). In general, though anecdotal, cuisine tourist experiences are now raising increased attention especially as alternative forms of tourism for a number of economies, especially Asian. However, the extent of appreciation and promotion of local cuisine in most African states, Botswana not exempted is limited and is a concept that is still to be embraced.

- It was also evident from the literature review that Setswana cuisine as a tourism resource is an under-developed and under-represented area. Even travel websites that to some extent intend on publicising cuisine to international markets have failed to document in full the rich variety of Setswana cuisine. To some extent this only acts to confirm that there are a lot of cuisine types that demonstrate potential for promotion but have been under-represented in extant literature.
  
- It is also important to note that there are quite a number of strategic models that have been crafted for the promotion or development of cuisine or gastronomic tourism. However most of these strategies (e.g. Chaney & Ryan, 2012; Horng & Tsai, 2012a) were developed for bench mark cuisine destinations or countries that have successfully implemented and promoted cuisine in their tourism policies. In the case of Botswana, there has been limited attention awarded to the promotion of local cuisine in the Tourism Policy of 1992. Although the Botswana Tourism Master Plan of 2000, emphasises the economic and cultural importance of tourism (Bolaane & Kanduzi, 2008:55), cuisine in the cultural node has not been strongly promoted. Cuisine instead is offered as a secondary attractor, with primary attractors being music or dance. Related literature supports the view of cuisine as a primary cultural attractor, alongside dance or song. Such potential should be realised by Botswana Tourism Organisation.

## **6.2.1 CONCLUSIONS ON THE RESEARCH SURVEYS**

This section presents the main conclusions drawn from the surveys based on the main objectives of the study and with specific reference to Research Questions 2, 3 and 5 (Question 2: What type of local cuisine can be used for tourism purposes? Question 3: What factors influence tourists' cuisine consumption behaviour? Question 5: What conclusions and recommendations can be put forward for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana?).

Firstly, conclusions are drawn on tourists' cuisine experiences, then factors that predict Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour, then on the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana.

### **6.2.1.1 Conclusions on tourists/diners' cuisine experiences**

In terms of the tourist experience, it emerged that most diners as established through Survey C visiting hotel and non-hotel restaurants in Gaborone were mainly day visitors. Their cuisine experiences were therefore dictated by the physiological need of food and beverages and as such their cuisine experiences were mainly secondary. In relation to diners who were mainly Batswana, Setswana cuisine is and remains an important fabric of their daily visitation to the capital city for business and leisure. Thus most diners were not motivated in whole by cuisine but by the opportunity it affords them to socialise and meet with friends. To these types of tourists cuisine is viewed as a supporting consumer experience and tourists seek familiar cooking or preparation methods that may evolve around a 'core' product (Quan & Wang, 2004:301); which in most cases is a staple food in the home country.

Although the majority of diners in this survey were relatively young, literature indicates that the youth are not as aware of local traditional cuisine as expected in Botswana (Maruapula and Chapman-Novakodfski, 2011:353). From the survey, there is therefore some misunderstanding on whether the youth are really disinterested in Setswana cuisine or are actually an important market for Setswana cuisine if their levels of awareness of the inherent benefits and attributes are heightened.

In relation to the study, the diners also indicated that they were mainly motivated by the need for 'fun and relaxation' and 'meeting friends and family'. Amongst the diners there were some who could be classified as 'likely' and 'definite' cuisine tourists (based on McKercher, *et al.*, 2008 typology), as they were motivated by an interest in Setswana cuisine when they travelled. However upon further analysis, some of the 'definites' were neophobic and disliked Setswana cuisine. It can therefore be concluded that an interest in Setswana does not necessarily culminate and was not synonymous to the motive of tasting Setswana cuisine and the like of Setswana cuisine. In essence, motives, interests and likes differed amongst the individuals who were sampled. Despite the observations however, in general, cuisine tourism presents huge potential for the development of tourism in Botswana based on the experts' opinions.

The practical importance of this study was also emphasised through the objective identification of 28 Setswana cuisine types from literature and some of the closed ended sections (of the expert and the food and beverage supervisor survey) that could be promoted for tourism purposes. Using objectivity, *Seswaa* (pound boiled beef) was identified as the ultimate Setswana cuisine attractor because of its high tourism potential, high association with national identity and high customer preference. Apart from the 28 cuisine types, eight additional Setswana cuisine types were also identified (Table 4.5) using a subjective open-ended question. Although both the closed and open ended sections were useful in identifying cuisine types with tourism potential, the analysis implied that there exists a gap between the objective evaluation of local cuisine suitable for tourism promotion and the subjective evaluation. This also means the list of potential Setswana cuisine suitable for tourism promotion is non-exhaustive. Although the local market is aware of Setswana cuisine offerings, the conclusion is that to a large extent the opportunity of developing local cuisine for an international market exists. However it is also important to note that even with such opportunity, the level of interest from the international market of Setswana cuisine may differ as evidenced by levels of neophobia which were lower in the Swedish (Mean = 2.00, SD = .00) but higher in the Americans (Mean = 4.00, SD = .866) (Table 5.1).

Despite the high levels of potential demand for cuisine tourism, this study has observed that caterers, especially the food and beverage supervisors, were not as confident of the market demand as they were of the high potential in cuisine attractiveness. It therefore seemed that there was a mismatch between an understanding of the market dynamics (for instance characteristics and motives) and caterer confidence, as far as the promotion of local cuisine is concerned.

### **6.2.1.2 Conclusions on factors predicting Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour**

This study used a modified version of the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour (TIB) in predicting Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. This model though based on findings in Gaborone, may not be generalizable to the overall population because of the use of non-probability sampling (Chen, 2013:169). However a modified TIB can be invaluable to Southern African countries, whose cuisine and demographics are closely similar to each other. The model could also be used to inform other Southern African countries keen on diversifying their tourism portfolio. However it has also emerged that the model is not a conclusive tool for identifying factors that predict consumption behaviour. This is mainly because Gaborone, the study area, is a metropolitan area that may not have a distinctive culture but rather is an amalgamation of regional cultures and cuisine cultures. As such factors that predict consumption behaviour in such scenarios may be varied and non-conclusive.

However, despite the model's shortcomings the study found that 'Arousal', an 'Open culture' and 'Social others' were important predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption. Cuisine tourism needs to be inter-twined in the social and cultural fabric of the locals, considering that most usually dine out and are also influenced by family and friends and their cultural traditions.

The study also observed significant neophobia tendencies amongst diners aged 50 years and above in comparison to other age segments. Diners above 50 years of age were expected to be less neophobic as they were more familiar with the indigenous cuisine compared to the lower age segments. The study also established significant differences amongst diners with BGCSE and other diners with higher levels of education. Diners with BGCSE reported lower levels of neophobia to those with higher qualifications. The study also established that Swedish diners reported significantly lower levels of neophobia than diners from the other nationalities. The study found that although male diners were more neophobia than female diners, this difference was not significant.

### **6.2.1.3 Conclusions on the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana**

The study identified the prominence of national tourism websites and hotel and restaurant websites in the promotion of Setswana cuisine to international tourists. The study also revealed the

importance of television and hotel and restaurant websites in promotion of local cuisine to domestic tourists. Festivals were also highlighted as another way through which Setswana cuisine could be promoted. The study is however of more importance in that it presents information on an often neglected aspect of tourism marketing, the importance and influence of the national tourism organisation website to the international tourist. A website is very essential in any country's marketing efforts because it integrates tourists' main expected experiences (Kozak, *et al.*, 2005:9). It is therefore imperative to distinguish tourists' cuisine experiences and emphasise these on any website, especially that of the national tourism office because 'it directly influences the perceived gastronomic image of the destination and creates a virtual experience for culinary tourists' (Horng & Tsai, 2010:76). The importance of hotel and restaurant websites can never be underestimated as well. These websites are important to both the international and the domestic tourist. Therefore, in addition to the menu, food and beverage service facilities should also appreciate and adopt the strong marketing power of websites.

Lastly some of the challenges associated with the promotion of local cuisine, highlighted by the food and beverage supervisors (Survey B) and marketing officials' interview (Survey D) evolved around both demand and supply side considerations. Both food and beverage supervisors and interviewees cited supply irregularities as they noted inconsistencies and irregularities in the quality and quantity of commodities supplied especially by the agricultural suppliers. Some of the challenges cited by both interviewees and the food and beverage supervisors were the language barrier, safety, health and hygiene considerations and aesthetic factors. The food and beverage supervisors also noted cost and competition issues. However on further analysis, most of the challenges are supply side challenges which can or should be addressed by caterers and the Botswana Tourism Organisation, to mention a few stakeholders.

## **6.2.2 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The findings and conclusions from this study raise a number of important recommendations. The recommendations presented in this study were categorised into general recommendations and recommendations for future research.

### **6.2.2.1 GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS**

This study has raised seven important general recommendations.

#### **6.2.2.2 Key Cuisine Types**

To marketers and aspiring entrepreneurs in the hospitality industry, the key Setswana cuisine types identified in this study confirm what could be provided on a typical Setswana based menu, for appreciation by the tourist. There are varied cuisine types that could be offered that provide a balanced meal, full of proteins, vegetables and carbohydrates. However this study concludes by emphasising the need to increase the breath of vegetable cuisine on the menu in order to increase variety. Currently the range of starch based local cuisine types out numbers the other components.

#### **6.2.2.3 Identification of Sets of Expected Attributes and Values**

It is also advisable for caterers to promote local cuisine based on a set of expected values and attributes that could be closely associated with national identity, safety, health and hygiene considerations. In the case of Setswana cuisine the main attribute that could be emphasised is the health aspect and national identity. By identifying a set of attributes and values, caterers can attract specific target markets and hence differentiate their offerings.

#### **6.2.2.4 Emphasis of Tourism Potential, National Identity and Customer Preference in Tourism Promotion**

The study recommends the consideration of the relationship between tourism potential, national identity and customer preference, whenever efforts are engaged of identifying local cuisine for tourism promotion, in any context. The three concepts were identified as important in matching supply with demand of Setswana cuisine. With sound empirical research the three concepts could be used as a platform for tourism promotion of local cuisine in similar research.

### **6.2.2.5 Address of Supply Side Challenges**

In general the study recommends increased effort by caterers or suppliers and the tourism providers in general in addressing the supply driven challenges that were noted in Surveys B and D. For instance, safety, health and hygiene considerations can be addressed at facility and at national level with support of the Botswana Bureau of Standards and the Botswana Tourism Organisation. Training should also be conducted in local restaurants in order to ensure adherence to safe and hygienic practices of food preparation.

### **6.2.2.6 Increased Promotional Efforts**

The study has established that there is currently a mismatch between the tourism potential of Setswana cuisine and its demand, mainly because of lack of market interest and a lack of awareness especially amongst the youth and international demand. Re-discoveries and emphasis on the local cuisine should be encouraged by BTO and through the introduction of Cultural Champions. The local populace especially the youth who were the majority in this study should be encouraged to appreciate their own cuisine heritage and culture.

The study recommends that tourism promoters should match demand with supply. For instance the level of marketing of Setswana cuisine on the BTO website is incongruent to its demand internationally. National tourism organisations need to play an active role in diversifying the tourism base in Botswana. This could mean an active role in the appreciation of Setswana cuisine and hence it's increased publicity. In addition, functions and festivals as key platforms for the promotion of local cuisine should be emphasised and should be diversified, in order to capture the breadth and regional variants of Setswana cuisine.

The study therefore recommends a stronger adoption of Setswana cuisine promotion by the national tourism organisation in order to excite market interest and awareness. In order to close the gap, caterers and academics should conduct more studies on the market dynamics of Setswana cuisine. This could mean a finer understanding on issues of market interest and acceptance of local cuisine through aspects such as concept testing and menu tasting activities.

### **6.2.2.7 Increased Caterer Confidence**

The potential for development and recognition of cuisine as significant tourism resources is great, however caterers (the supply/restaurant facilities), lack understanding and confidence in the market. In order to improve confidence, this study therefore recommends the conduction of more market research, by caterers in order to better understand their niche and specific markets.

### **6.2.2.8 Development of a National Strategic Framework**

The strategic framework that was developed in this study is based on findings in Gaborone. It has been observed that Gaborone being a metropolitan area has no distinctive cuisine but rather an amalgamation of regional cuisines. It is therefore recommended that regional strategic frameworks based on the regional differences that culminate in a national strategic framework could be established for cuisine tourism in Botswana by BTO. The national strategic framework can then act as a tool at national level that could be used to develop and promote Setswana cuisine as national tourism resources. The framework can be integrated into the country's long term tourism development initiatives.

## **6.2.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The study has identified research gaps and areas that could be considered in future:

### **6.2.3.1 Concurrent Application of Mixed Method Approaches**

Pragmatism as a philosophy of research is an area that still requires deeper understanding especially in tourism research. For instance the use of sequential mixed methods approach is not advisable especially when studying consumption of the cuisine experience, as consumption and production are inseparable. More models based on the concurrent use instead, and application of mixed methods, especially in cuisine consumption studies should be developed. These could provide a better understanding of actual behaviour (taking place at the time of service consumption and

production) as opposed to behavioural intentions which are futuristic and benefit more from sequential forms of analysis.

### **6.2.3.2 Setswana Cuisine Attributes**

More research is required on identifying adjectives or descriptors that characterise Setswana cuisine. These could be used as unique selling points.

### **6.2.3.3 Continuum of Food Neophilia and Food Neophobia**

The study concluded that food neophilia within the ‘Likely’ and ‘Definites’, was context specific and occurred in varying levels. Possibly due to the influence of a number of variables which were not established in this study. A continuum of neophobia and neophilia levels of Setswana cuisine should be established and this could form the basis of future research. Research in this area can help elevate literature in cuisine tourist typology which is anecdotal.

### **6.2.3.4 Relationship between Neophobia and Familiarity**

This study has established that tourists can still be neophobic to cuisine that they are familiar with. This to some extent indicates that tourists may not necessarily be compelled to taste local cuisine based on familiarity. This indicates that the concept of familiarity and its influence on the consumption of ‘own’ or indigenous local cuisine amongst residents in their own country still needs research and understanding.

### **6.2.3.5 Demand Specific Aspects of Cuisine Tourism**

More research on the demand aspects of cuisine tourism should be undertaken. Demand specific aspects such as market interest and acceptance levels of local cuisine are areas that could be reviewed further. These two concepts could also assist marketers attain further understanding of the market dynamics of cuisine tourism.

The study also proposes an assessment of the mutual inclusiveness of motivation, interest and dislike as important aspects in defining cuisine tourists. There is also need for validation of

statistical differences and establishment of statistical relationships amongst motives, likes and interests of cuisine amongst tourists.

#### **6.2.3.6 Variance in the TIB Model**

Because the modified TIB model only managed to predict 34% of the variance of behaviour, future research by academics could consider identifying other factors to help explain the variance.

#### **6.2.3.7 The Destination Area Life Cycle**

Findings from this study were based on Gaborone as being at the involvement stage of its area life cycle. This means new frameworks for Gaborone as it reaches the development, consolidation or decline phases of its life as a tourism destination could be explored in future.

### **6.2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This Chapter serves as a capstone of the study as all the other chapters have culminated in a strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine which was discussed. Several conclusions were outlined regarding review of extant literature and the empirical surveys. The study has also highlighted several recommendations that can be taken by the national tourism organisation, academics and caterers. A number of recommendations have also been outlined for future research, regarding tourists' experiences and their relationship to tourism.

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## **8 APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX A: EXPERT QUESTIONNAIRE**

*Date* \_\_\_\_\_ *Questionnaire Number* \_\_\_\_\_

Dear Respondent

I am kindly inviting you to participate in this study entitled: ‘The development of a strategic framework for the promotion of Setswana cuisine in Botswana’, which seeks to evaluate the extent to which Setswana cuisine can be used as a tourism resource in Gaborone. Your contribution is valuable and will go a long way in assisting tourism developers and promoters understand the importance of Setswana cuisine attractiveness at tourism destinations.

The completion of this questionnaire is highly confidential and the respondents' identity will be kept anonymous. If you decide not to participate in this study, your decision will not affect your future relations with the North West University, its personnel, nor its associated institutions. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Your participation in this survey is voluntary.

Return of the questionnaire will serve as your consent in participating in this survey. You need not provide your identity particulars.

Thank you for your cooperation in participating in the survey.

Delly Mahachi Chatibura (Mrs)  
PhD Candidate  
North West University  
Email: delly.mahachi@mopipi.ub.bw/  
Tel: 355 4461

## **SECTION A**

**Please tick the box that best applies to you or answer in the space provided.**

**EA1. What is your gender?**

Female	Male
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**EA2. What is your age?**

Below 30	30-39 years	40-49 years	Above 50 years
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**EA3. What is your highest educational qualification?**

BGSE	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
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**EA4. What is your nationality?**

Motswana	Other, please specify
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**EA5.** Where do you work? \_\_\_\_\_

**EA6.** What is your position at your place of work? \_\_\_\_\_

**SECTION B****EB1. To what extent could the following dishes be promoted for tourism purposes?**

[1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree]

	Name of cuisine	Rating				
		1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.1</b>	Seswaa [pound boiled beef]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.2</b>	Bobola [pumpkin leaf stew]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.3</b>	Bogobe [sorghum porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.4</b>	Phane [Mopane worms]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.5</b>	Motogo [sorghum soft porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.6</b>	Morama [wild plant]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.7</b>	Serobe [boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.8</b>	Lerotse [Wild melons]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.9</b>	Lekatane [wild melons]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.10</b>	Morogo wa dinawa [bean-leaf vegetables]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.11</b>	Gemere [Ginger beer]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.12</b>	Khadi [clear traditional beer from wild fruit]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.13</b>	Bojalwa jwa Setswana [opaque traditional beer]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.14</b>	Paletshe [maize meal porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.15</b>	Kalahari truffle [wild mushrooms]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.16</b>	Stampa [Samp]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.17</b>	Lebelebele [millet]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.18</b>	Ting [fermented sorghum or maize meal porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.19</b>	Dikgobe [samp and beans]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.20</b>	Segwapa [dried beef]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.21</b>	Nama ya podi [goat meat]	1	2	3	4	5

<b>EB1.22</b>	Koko ya Setswana [free range Setswana chicken]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.23</b>	Delele [wild leaf vegetable]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.24</b>	Bogobe jwa lerotse [Pumpkin and sorghum porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.25</b>	Nchwachwa [cooked dry corn]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.26</b>	Mmidi [corn]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.27</b>	Morogo wa thepe [wild spinach]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB1.28</b>	Mowana [baobab fruit]					

**EB1.29 Which other foods or beverages do you think could be used for tourism purposes in Botswana?**

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**EB1.30 In general, can Setswana cuisine serve as a tourist attraction in Botswana?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
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### **SECTION C**

**EB2. To what extent could the following cuisine be associated with Botswana's national identity? [1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree]**

	<b>Name of cuisine</b>	<b>Rating</b>				
<b>EB2.1</b>	Seswaa [pound boiled beef]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.2</b>	Bobola [pumpkin leaf stew]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.3</b>	Bogobe [sorghum porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.4</b>	Phane [Mopane worms]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.5</b>	Motogo [sorghum soft porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.6</b>	Morama [wild plant]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.7</b>	Serobe [boiled, diced sweetbreads/offal]	1	2	3	4	5

<b>EB2.8</b>	Lerotse [Wild melons]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.9</b>	Lekatane [wild melons]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.10</b>	Morogo wa dinawa [bean-leaf vegetables]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.11</b>	Gemere [Ginger beer]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.12</b>	Khadi [clear traditional beer from wild fruit]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.13</b>	Bojalwa jwa Setswana [opaque traditional beer]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.14</b>	Paletshe [maize meal porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.15</b>	Kalahari truffle [wild mushrooms]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.16</b>	Stampa [Samp]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.17</b>	Lebelebele [millet]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.18</b>	Ting [fermented sorghum or maize meal porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.19</b>	Dikgobe [samp and beans]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.20</b>	Segwapa [dried beef]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.21</b>	Nama ya podi [goat meat]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.22</b>	Koko ya Setswana [free range Setswana chicken]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.23</b>	Delele [wild leaf vegetable]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.24</b>	Bogobe jwa lerotse [Pumpkin and sorghum porridge]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.25</b>	Nchwachwa [cooked dry corn]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.26</b>	Mmidi [corn]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.27</b>	Morogo wa thepe [wild spinach]	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB2.28</b>	Mowana [baobab fruit]	1	2	3	4	5

## **SECTION D**

**EB3. Which of these methods could be used for promoting Botswana's Setswana cuisine to domestic tourists? [1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree]**

	Type of promotional method	Rating				
<b>EB3.1</b>	National Tourism Organisational Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB3.2</b>	Tour Operator/ Travel Agency Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB3.3</b>	Hotel and Restaurant Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB3.4</b>	Travel Brochures	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB3.5</b>	Travel Guides/ books	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB3.6</b>	Television	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB3.7</b>	Radio	1	2	3	4	5

**EB4. Which of these methods could be used for promoting Botswana’s Setswana cuisine to international tourists? [1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree]**

	Type of promotional method	Rating				
<b>EB4.1</b>	National Tourism Organisational Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB4.2</b>	Tour Operator/ Travel Agency Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB4.3</b>	Hotel and Restaurant Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB4.4</b>	Travel Brochures	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB4.5</b>	Travel Guides/ books	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB4.6</b>	Television	1	2	3	4	5
<b>EB4.7</b>	Radio	1	2	3	4	5

**EB5. Are there any other methods that could be used to promote Botswana’s Setswana cuisine to tourists?**

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**SECTION E**

**Please answer the following questions using a scale of strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).**

**EB6. Destination Tourism Potential**

Aspect	Rating				
Physical facilities in Gaborone are attractive for tourism growth	1	2	3	4	5
The administrative structure in Gaborone is attractive for tourism growth	1	2	3	4	5
Political situation in Gaborone is attractive for tourism growth	1	2	3	4	5
Economic situation in Gaborone is attractive for tourism growth	1	2	3	4	5
Social aspects in in Gaborone are attractive for tourism growth	1	2	3	4	5
Technological aspects in Gaborone are attractive for tourism growth	1	2	3	4	5

**EB7. Destination Life Cycle Stage**

Tourism in Gaborone has witnessed an increased and regular volume of visitors	1	2	3	4	5
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**EB8. Please provide additional comments on any of the aspects that were highlighted in this survey.**

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## **APPENDIX B: FOOD AND BEVERAGE SUPERVISORS' QUESTIONNAIRE**

*Date* \_\_\_\_\_ *Questionnaire Number* \_\_\_\_\_

Dear Respondent

I am kindly inviting you to participate in this study entitled: 'The development of a strategic framework for the promotion of Setswana cuisine in Botswana', which seeks to evaluate the extent to which Setswana cuisine can be used as a tourism resource in Gaborone. Your contribution is valuable and will go a long way in assisting tourism developers and promoters understand the importance of Setswana cuisine attractiveness at tourism destinations.

The completion of this questionnaire is highly confidential and the respondents' identity will be kept anonymous. If you decide not to participate in this study, your decision will not affect your future relations with the North West University, its personnel, nor its associated institutions. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Your participation in this survey is voluntary.

Return of the questionnaire will serve as your consent in participating in this survey. You need not provide your identity particulars.

Thank you for your cooperation in participating in the survey.

Delly Mahachi Chatibura (Mrs)

PhD Candidate

North West University

Email: [delly.mahachi@mopipi.ub.bw/](mailto:delly.mahachi@mopipi.ub.bw/)

Tel: 355 4461

**SECTION A**

**Please tick the box that best applies to you or answer in the space provided.**

**EA1. What is your gender?**

Female	Male
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**EA2. What is your age?**

Below 30	30-39 years	40-49 years	Above 50 years
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**EA3. What is your highest educational qualification?**

BGSE	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
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**EA4. What is your nationality?**

Motswana	Other, please specify
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**EA5. Where do you work?** \_\_\_\_\_

**EA6. What is your position at your place of work?** \_\_\_\_\_

**Please answer the following questions appropriately**

<b>EB1</b> What type of local food and beverages do tourists prefer at your establishment?          
<b>EB2</b> On a scale of 0 to 100%, what percentage of your menu is local food and beverage?          

**EB3** Are diners aware of the local food and beverages that are offered in this establishment?

**EB4** What methods do you use to inform tourists on the availability of local menu offerings?

**EB5** What are some of the challenges you face when promoting local food and beverage to tourists?

## APPENDIX C: TOURIST QUESTIONNAIRE

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Questionnaire Identity \_\_\_\_\_

Dear Respondent

I kindly invite you to participate in this study entitled: ‘The development of a strategic framework for the promotion of Setswana cuisine in Botswana’, which seeks to evaluate the utilisation and promotion of Setswana cuisine as a tourism resource in Gaborone. I believe your contribution is valuable and will go a long way in assisting tourism developers and promoters understand the importance of Setswana cuisine attractiveness at tourism destinations.

The completion of this questionnaire is highly confidential and the respondents’ identity will be kept anonymous. If you decide not to participate in this study, your decision will not affect your future relations with the University of Botswana, its personnel, and associated institutions. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Your participation in this survey is voluntary.

Return of the questionnaire [signed by you] will serve as your consent in participating in this survey. You need not provide your identity particulars.

Thank you for your cooperation in participating in the survey.

Delly Mahachi Chatibura (Mrs)

PhD candidate

North West University

Email; delly.mahachi@mopipi.ub.bw

Tel: 355 4461

## **DEMOGRAPHIC AND TRAVEL PROFILE**

**Please tick the box that best applies to you or answer in the space provided.**

**Questions refer to your trip or stay in Gaborone.**

**TA1 What is your usual place of residence?** \_\_\_\_\_

**TA2 What is your gender?**

Female	Male
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**TA3 What is your age?**

Below 30	30-39 years	40-49 years	Above 50 years
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**TA4 What is your highest educational qualification?**

BGSE	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
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**TA5 What is your nationality?**

Motswana	Other, please specify
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**TA6 How many times have you visited Gaborone in the last 12 months?**

Almost every day	Almost every week	Once a month
Twice or so in a year	This once	You can't remember

**TA7 What is the main reason you are visiting Gaborone?**

Leisure, recreation & holidays	Visiting friends & relatives	Business and professional
Transit	Other, please specify _____	

**TA8 How long will you be staying in Gaborone?**

One night	Two nights	Three nights	More than three nights
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**TA9 How many times a month do you dine out?**

Once a week	Few times a week	Once a month	Sometimes
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**TA10 What is the main reason you are dining out?** \_\_\_\_\_

**TA11 Which dining places do you usually frequent in Gaborone?**

Hotel/Motel Restaurants	Fast Food restaurants
Other dining places, please specify _____	

**TA12 What is the size of your travel party on this trip?**

Alone	Two	Three to Four	More than four
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**TA13 Whom are you travelling with?**

Alone	With Friends	With Family	With Work Mates
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**TA14 Approximately how much do you plan to spend on this trip on:**

a. Transport	Less than S\$50	Between US\$ 50-S\$ 99	More than US\$ 100
b. Accommodation	Less than S\$50	Between US\$ 50-S\$ 99	More than US\$ 100
c. Meals and restaurants	Less than S\$50	Between US\$ 50-S\$ 99	More than US\$ 100
d. Other	Less than S\$50	Between US\$ 50-S\$ 99	More than US\$ 100

**INTEREST IN SETSWANA CUISINE**

Please tick the box that best applies to you or answer in the space provided.

**TB1 Are you motivated by an interest in Setswana cuisine whenever you travel?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
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**PLEASURE SCALE**

The following questions are concerned with how you feel when consuming local Setswana cuisine. Please tick the scale value that best applies to you.

**TB2ai Eating Setswana cuisine in Botswana makes you feel**

Very unhappy	Unhappy	Indifferent	Happy	Very Happy
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**TB2aii Eating Setswana cuisine in Botswana makes you feel**

Highly dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Indifferent	Satisfied	Highly Satisfied
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**TB2aii Eating Setswana cuisine in Botswana makes you feel**

Highly Discontent	Discontent	Indifferent	Content	Highly Content
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**AROUSAL**

The following question is concerned with how you feel when consuming local Setswana cuisine. Please tick the scale value that best applies to you.

**TB2bi Eating Setswana cuisine in Botswana makes you feel**

Highly unexcited	Unexcited	Indifferent	Excited	Highly Excited
------------------	-----------	-------------	---------	----------------

**PROMOTION OF LOCAL SETSWANA CUISINE**

**TB3a To what extent do you think Setswana cuisine could be promoted for tourism purposes?**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
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**TB3b Which of these methods could be used for promoting Botswana’s Setswana cuisine?**

[1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree]

	Type of promotional method	Rating				
<b>TB3bi</b>	National Tourism Organisational Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB3bii</b>	Tour Operator/ Travel Agency Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB3biii</b>	Hotel and Restaurant Websites	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB3biv</b>	Travel Brochures	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB3bv</b>	Travel Guides/ books	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB3bvi</b>	Television	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB3bvii</b>	Radio	1	2	3	4	5

**TB3c Are there any other methods that could be used to promote Botswana’s Setswana cuisine?** \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

## **SETSWANA CUISINE CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR**

Please answer the following questions using a scale of strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

**TB4a I eat local Setswana cuisine each time I visit Gaborone**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
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**TB4b I constantly sample local Setswana cuisine when I visit Gaborone**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
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## **FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE SETSWANA CUISINE CONSUMPTION**

The following scales represent the main factors that may influence consumption of Setswana cuisine. Please answer them using a scale of strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

### Food Neophobia Scale

<b>TB5a</b> I don't trust new foods	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB5b</b> If I don't know what is in a menu item, I won't try it	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB5c</b> I stick to what I know on the menu	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB5d</b> I am afraid to eat foods I have never eaten before	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB5e</b> I am particular about the food that I eat in Gaborone	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB5f</b> I dine at places that I know	1	2	3	4	5

### Social Others' Scale

<b>TB6a</b> My parents encourage me to experience Setswana cuisine when I travel	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB6b</b> My close relatives say I should try Setswana cuisine when I travel	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB6c</b> My colleagues encourage me to try Setswana cuisine when I travel	1	2	3	4	5

### Open culture scale

<b>TB7a</b> I am very comfortable interacting with people from other countries	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB7b</b> I like going to places where I can associate with people from other countries	1	2	3	4	5

<b>TB7c</b> Some of my friends are from other countries	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB7d</b> I like foods from different countries	1	2	3	4	5

Setswana cuisine Attributes

<b>TB8a</b> Setswana cuisine communicates its highest performing attributes	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB8b</b> Setswana cuisine communicates its most important attributes	1	2	3	4	5

Gastronomic Image Scale

<b>TB9a</b> Setswana cuisine depicts national identity	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB9b</b> Setswana cuisine communicates a set of expected values	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB9c</b> Setswana cuisine is linked to cultural heritage	1	2	3	4	5

Availability of Information on Setswana cuisine

<b>TB10</b> Information on Setswana cuisine experiences is available	1	2	3	4	5
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Accessibility of Information on Setswana cuisine

<b>TB11</b> Information on Setswana cuisine experiences is accessible	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Dinescape Scale

<b>TB12a</b> Music at the restaurant is appealing	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12b</b> Lighting at the restaurant is appealing	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12c</b> The restaurant has an attractive arrangement of furniture	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12d</b> The restaurant has comfortable seating arrangements	1	2	3	4	5

<b>TB12e</b> The restaurant has attractive furniture décor	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12f</b> The tableware used in this restaurant is clean	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12g</b> Appropriate tableware has been used	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12h</b> The table setting is attractive	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12i</b> There is attractive linen on the tables in this restaurant	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12j</b> The menu at this restaurant is informative	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12k</b> The restaurant has attractive wall furnishings	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12l</b> The restaurant has well-designed wall decorations	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12m</b> The service staff are well dressed	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12n</b> The service staff are professional	1	2	3	4	5
<b>TB12o</b> There is prompt service at the restaurant	1	2	3	4	5

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**APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TOURISM PROMOTION OFFICIALS**

**GP1. Name of Organisation** \_\_\_\_\_

**GP2. What is your gender?**

Female	Male
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**GP3. What is your age?**

Below 30	30-39 years	40-49 years	Above 50 years
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**GP4. What is your highest educational qualification?**

BGSE	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
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**GP5. What is your nationality?**

Motswana	Other, please specify
----------	-----------------------

**GP6. What is your position in the organisation?** \_\_\_\_\_

**GP7. For how long have you worked for this organisation?** \_\_\_\_\_

**GP8. What type of local food and beverages do tourists prefer in Botswana?**

**GP9. What methods or platforms do you use to inform tourists on the availability of Setswana cuisine?**

**GP10. To what extent are tourists aware of the Setswana cuisine that is offered in Gaborone?**

**GP11. What are some of the challenges you face when promoting Setswana cuisine to tourists, both domestic and international?**

**GP12. What can be done to promote Setswana cuisine at a larger scale to tourists?**

## APPENDIX E: RESEARCH PERMIT

TELEPHONE: 3647900  
TELEGRAMS: MEWT  
TELEX:  
TELEFAX: 3908076

REFERENCE: EWT 8/36/4 XXVI (74)



REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT,  
WILDLIFE AND TOURISM  
PRIVATE BAG BO 199  
GABORONE  
BOTSWANA

ALL CORRESPONDENCE MUST BE ADDRESSED TO  
THE PERMANENT SECRETARY

28<sup>th</sup> April 2014

MS DELLY MAHACHI  
PRIVATE BAG UB00701  
GABORONE

Tel: +267 355 4461/ 73202958

Email: [delly.mahachi@mopipi.ub.bw](mailto:delly.mahachi@mopipi.ub.bw) [dchatibura@yahoo.com](mailto:dchatibura@yahoo.com)

**APPLICATION FOR A RESEARCH PERMIT: STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK  
FOR THE PROMOTION OF LOCAL CUISINE IN BOTSWANA: EWT 8/36/4  
XXVI (56)**

We are pleased to inform you that you are granted permission to conduct a research entitled: **“Strategic framework for the promotion of local cuisine in Botswana”**.

The research will be conducted in **Gaborone**.

This permit is valid for a period effective from **28<sup>th</sup> April 2014 to the 28<sup>th</sup> April 2015**.

This permit is granted subject to the following conditions:

1. Signing and submission of an Agreement between Government of Botswana and Independent Researchers.
2. Progress should be reported periodically to the **Department of Tourism**.
3. The permit does not give authority to enter premises, private establishments or protected areas. Permission for such entry should be negotiated with those concerned.
4. You conduct the study according to particulars furnished in the approved application taking into account the above conditions.
5. Failure to comply with any of the above conditions will result in the immediate cancellation of this permit.
6. The research team comprises of **Ms Delly Mahachi**.

7. The applicant should ensure that the Government of Botswana is duly acknowledged.
8. The applicant should apply for a supplementary permit at the Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) to get into any of our protected Areas and pay appropriate fees as determined by the DWNP.
9. Copies of videos/publications produced as a result of this project are directly deposited with the Office of the President, National Assembly, Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism, Department of Tourism, National Archives, National Library Service, and the University of Botswana Library.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully



C. Bogale-Jaiyeoba

**FOR/PERMANENT SECRETARY**

cc: Director, Department of Tourism  
District Commissioner, Gaborone

