A critical assessment of the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa

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Promoter: Prof Dr M Saayman

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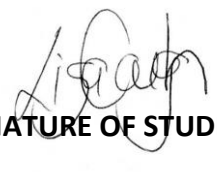
Declaration of independent work

I, Lisa-Mari Coughlan, identity number 880819 0043 081 and student number 26256096, hereby declare that this research project submitted to the North-West University for the degree *Philosophiae Doctor* in Tourism Management is my own independent work, and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North-West University, and has not been submitted before by any person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.



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SIGNATURE OF STUDENT **DATE**

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Abstract

Food consumption plays a vital role in shaping the tourist experience overall. It is estimated that tourists' expenditure on food and their demand for culinary experiences around the globe are growing daily. The International Culinary Tourism Association and the International Culinary Tourism Development Organisation ranked South Africa as the least-prepared culinary travel destination and the travel destination with the greatest potential for growth in the world. An in-depth knowledge of the determinants of tourists' culinary preferences could make an important contribution to the development of quality culinary tourism products that lead to tourist satisfaction and address the gap identified in South Africa.

The main goal of this study was to critically assess the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa. This goal was achieved through four main objectives. The first objective was to conduct an in-depth literature review on the existing knowledge on culinary tourism globally, including tourists' culinary preferences, and theories, models and frameworks influencing culinary preferences. This objective further included an investigation of South African culinary tourism, focusing on the current policies and strategies utilised in the domain. The second objective was to identify the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa and develop a taxonomy of South African tourists on the basis of these determinants. The third objective was to make recommendations for the promotion of local food, and the last objective was aimed at drawing conclusions from the results and making management and policy recommendations to stimulate growth in culinary tourism in South African.

This study was based on the theory of positivism. Positivism believes that the basis for knowledge should depend on scientific method. Even though the approach has been labelled as inflexible, benefits of positivism include providing wide coverage for a range of situations and helping to generalise research findings. The positivist philosophy is associated with deduction and a quantitative research design. Deduction is used to apply theories to specific situations. Existing theories were used to establish possible determinants of the

culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa. Strengths of quantitative research include it often being regarded as having higher credibility than qualitative research and being useful for studying large numbers of people. All these facts led the researcher to select a quantitative research design. A popular technique to gather quantitative data is to distribute questionnaires, and questionnaires have even been stated to be the most important tool for data collection in tourism research. A questionnaire based on the literature review was newly developed for the study.

Simple random sampling was the selected sampling method, as the results obtained through this sampling technique can be generalised back to the population and it gives each tourist an equal opportunity to be included in the research. International tourists awaiting flights in the departure halls of the international terminals at O.R. Tambo International Airport (the busiest airport in Africa) were the sample. In total, 627 questionnaires were analysed by means of descriptive statistics, factor analysis, t-tests, Spearman's rank order correlation analyses, analysis of variance, and structural equation modelling (SEM).

The main findings of the study included that international tourists regarded ordering from a menu that is easily understood as the most important element to them when they made culinary decisions. The second most important item was the availability of reasonably priced cuisine, and the third most important item was that the food had to appeal to their senses. Tourists were highly satisfied with their overall culinary experience while in the country and the value for money of food and beverages purchased. They were the least satisfied with menus indicating local items.

Five factors with respect to culinary preference were identified from the 32 variables on culinary preference. These five factors were social influence, culture and religion, exploration, the culinary experience and environmental sensitivity. The factors (and other statistics) were used to develop a taxonomy of international tourists on the basis of culinary preferences. Socialisers tended to be Africans, respondents who did not regard themselves as adventurous eaters and respondents who had visited South Africa before. Explorers generally visited South Africa for leisure purposes and spent a lot of money during their stay in South Africa. Devotees did not dine out frequently or consider themselves to be adventurous eaters. Experience seekers tended to spend a lot of money on packaged tours.

They were mostly not sure whether they had ordered local food in South Africa, but many had also had local food during this trip. Conservationists, many of whom were Australians, often made use of campgrounds and bed and breakfasts. These five segments (conservationists, experience seekers, devotees, explorers, and socialisers) formed the CEDES taxonomy of international tourists to South Africa.

In additional to the CEDES taxonomy, other contributions the study made included the contribution towards the scarce literature in terms of offering greater insight into culinary tourism and the role it plays in a developing country. A South African perspective of the determinants of international tourists' culinary preferences was also provided. A conceptual framework was proposed to critically assess the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa. An empirical model was also developed through the SEM analysis detailed which factors regarding culinary preference had statistically significant relationships with satisfaction with personal culinary preferences being met, satisfaction with affordability of cuisine and satisfaction with the dining environment.

The model supported five hypothesised relationships: the importance of social influence, culture and religion, and exploration linked directly to satisfaction with personal culinary preferences being met while in South Africa, and the importance of culture and religion had a direct relationship with satisfaction regarding the affordability of South African cuisine. Finally, the importance of the culinary experience was directly related to satisfaction with the dining environment in South Africa.

The newly developed quantitative questionnaire added methodological value and can be used in similar studies in the future. Recommendations and clear guidelines for future research based on the findings were provided to government and industry stakeholders in order to reap the various benefits of the knowledge that was gained on culinary preferences.

Keywords: CEDES taxonomy, conceptual framework, culinary preference, culinary satisfaction, empirical model, international tourists, South Africa

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

α:	Alpha
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
BBQ	Barbeque
CEDES	Conservationists, Experience Seekers, Devotees, Explorers and Socialisers
CFI	Comparative fix index
CI	Confidence interval
CMIN/DF	Normed chi-square
d	Effect size
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
GDP	Gross domestic product
KDF	Karoo Development Foundation
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
n	Sample size
NTSS	National Tourism Sector Strategy
OEC	Observatory of Economic Complexity
OCTAC	Ontario Culinary Tourism Advisory Council
p-value	Statistical significance
RMB	Rand Merchant Bank
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
rho	Spearman's rank correlation coefficient
SAB	South African Breweries
SEM	Structural equation modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TIB	Theory of interpersonal behaviour
TPB	Theory of planned behaviour
TRA	Theory of reasoned action
TSR	Theory of self-regulation
UK	United Kingdom
WOSA	Wines of South Africa
ZAR	South African rand
ZMOT	Zero moment of truth

Chapter 1: Scope of the research

1.1 Introduction

My favorite thing is to go where I have never gone.

Arbus (s.a.)

Tourism can be defined as "the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes" (Statistics South Africa, 2010:307). Tourism is one of the largest industries in the world (National Department of Tourism, 2011:4). Provisional statistics indicate that tourism directly contributed 3.0% to the gross domestic product (GDP) of South Africa in 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2016a:2), and 8 903 773 tourists visited the country in that year (Statistics South Africa, 2016b:10).

Tourism has many subcategories, one of which is cultural tourism. Food and beverages are an integral part of cultural tourism (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:237; Perkins, 2014), adding to the appeal of destinations (Visser, 2007:40) and resulting in important economic benefits (Perkins, 2014; South African Tourism, 2014:1 & 40). Cultural tourism can become a tool of socio-economic development through job creation and poverty alleviation among historically disadvantaged communities in South Africa (Ivanovic, 2008:xx). This concept is not new as, during the mid-1920s, tourists on their way to the Victoria Falls could stop at a rural village in what is now Botswana to experience traditional foods and tribal dancing (Saunders & Barben, 2007:28). This also illustrates that cultural tourism is more dependent on cultural heritage resources in the community than on expensive infrastructure. Cultural and culinary tourism have the capacity to redistribute benefits throughout South Africa (Ivanovic, 2008:xx).

Culinary tourism is defined as any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes local culinary resources. The culinary resources referred to include

raw ingredients, as well as the food and beverages reflecting the destination and traditional methods of preparing these items (Smith & Xiao, 2008:289-290). Food and beverages are essential to the tourist experience (Torres, 2002:300). In the United Kingdom (UK), culinary tourism is estimated to be worth $8 billion each year (Manolis, 2010). A study by Saayman and Scholtz (2012:11) indicated that tourists to national parks in South Africa spent 24% of their total expenditure on food. It is also estimated that foreign tourists spent R7.4 billion on food in South Africa during 2013 (South African Tourism, 2014:40). This translates to over 10% of the total amount that international tourists spent during their stay in South Africa (South African Tourism, 2014:1), highlighting the importance of tourists' culinary experiences and preferences.

According to Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434), food preference assumes the availability of at least two different items, and a decision being made to choose the one item over the other. However, the beverage component of tourists' food experience should not be ignored. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the term culinary preference is used. Not much is known about the profile of culinary tourists (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:232) or their preferences, as culinary tourism is a complex and diverse set of motivations and experiences (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:237).

There is a general scarcity of studies that examine culinary tourism (Torres, 2002:300; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:775; Ignatov & Smith, 2006:252; Chang, Kivela & Mak, 2010:990; Williams, Williams & Omar, 2014:3), with Du Rand and Heath (2006:207) stating that very little has been published regarding culinary tourism in developing countries such as South Africa. Du Rand and colleagues studied the utilisation of food in destination marketing in South Africa (Du Rand, Heath & Alberts, 2003:97 & 101; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:206). The objectives of their study were to determine the status of food as an attraction of destinations, the role of food in destination-marketing strategies, and the constraints and gaps experienced in utilising local food as key elements of destination marketing. However, the research did not endeavour to identify the determinants of tourists' culinary preferences, nor has any other study in a South African context aimed to do so to the author's knowledge.

This has motivated the requirement for the current study. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a background to the study, define the problem statement, state the goal and objectives, define some key concepts and specify the layout of the study.

1.2 Background to the study

To further grasp the importance of food in the South African tourism context, the National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS) objectives must be considered. The NTSS is the National Department of Tourism's strategy for the tourism sector of South Africa. The latest NTSS was compiled through a comprehensive consultative process that commenced in 2009. Stakeholder contributions, as well as 37 000 public comments received, were used in the formulation of the NTSS and its 11 objectives. Of the 11 NTSS objectives, the following three have an impact on the current study: Objective 1, "to grow the tourism sector's absolute contribution to the economy"; Objective 5, "to deliver a world-class visitor experience"; and Objective 7, "to position South Africa as a globally recognised tourism destination brand" (National Department of Tourism, 2011:3, 12, 13, 19 & 20). In the quest to attain the three above-mentioned objectives, international tourists' culinary preferences become a critical point of interest.

Figure 1.1 conceptualises the critical assessment of the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa. The literature reveals a number of possible determinants of tourists' culinary preferences. For the purposes of this study, the determinants have been divided into three categories, namely: socio-demographic determinants, behavioural determinants, and external determinants. All the determinants may be useful to segment tourism markets, and this combined knowledge may result in a number of benefits.

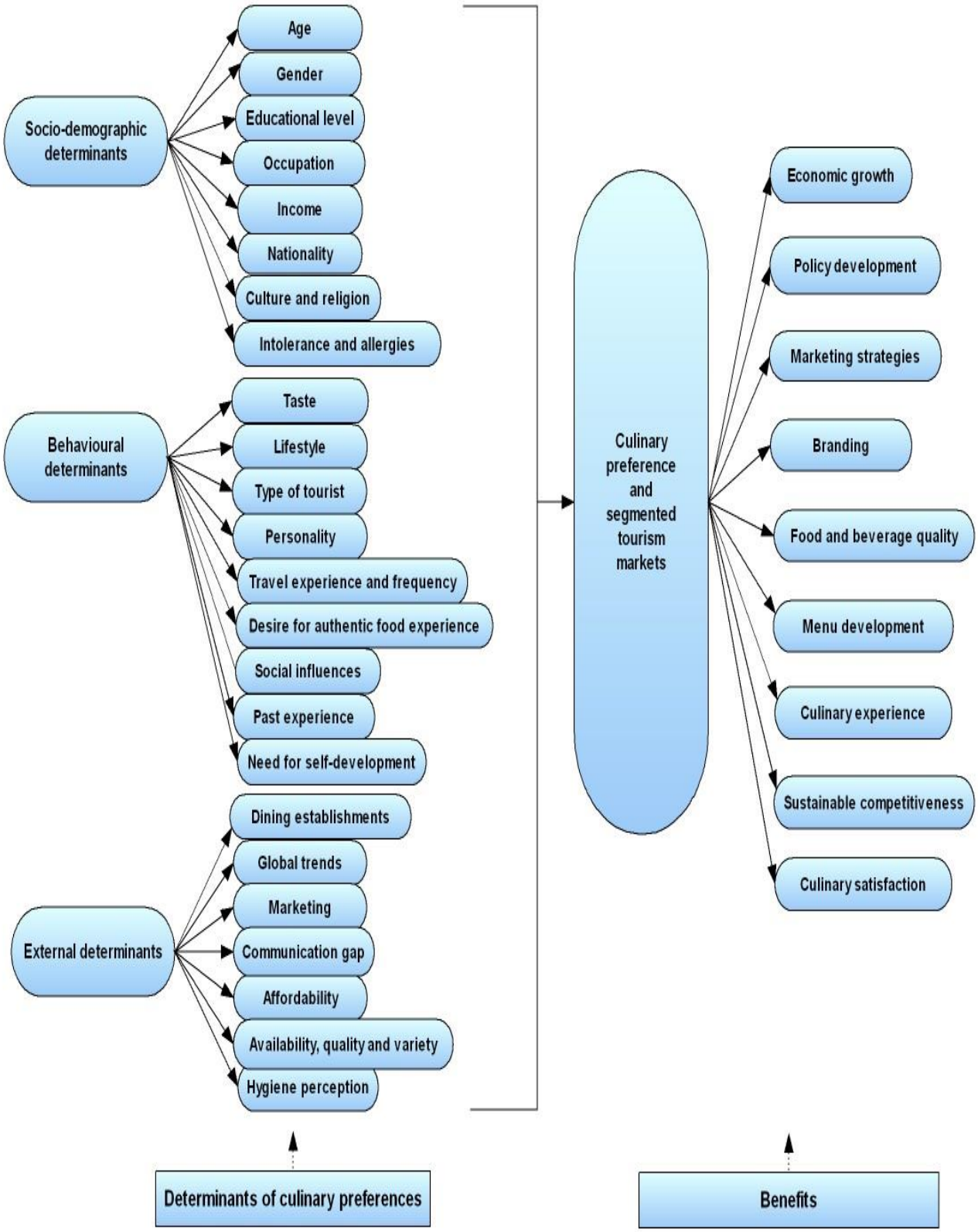

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of tourists' culinary preferences

Source: Author's own figure based on the literature review

1.2.1 **Socio-demographic determinants**

Socio-demographic variables reflect the demographic and socio-economic status of an individual, and can influence tourists' culinary preferences (Kim, Eves & Scarles, 2009:429-430; Mak, Lumbers, Eves & Chang, 2012:931). Socio-demographic variables that have been found to be determinants of culinary preferences include culture and religion (Chang *et al.*, 2010:991; Amuquandoh, 2011:7-8; Falguera, Aliguer & Falguera, 2012:275; Mak *et al.*; 2012:931), nationality (Telfer & Wall, 2000:440; Torres, 2002:300; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:775; Amuquandoh, 2011:7), intolerances and allergies (Li, 2014; Packaged Facts, 2014; Allergy UK, 2015; Sloan, 2015), income (Ayo, Bonanana-Wabbi & Sserunkuuma, 2012:6575), occupation (Li & Houston, 2001:103; Topcu 2015:37), education (Wądołowska, Babicz-Zielińska & Czarnocińska, 2008:132; Kim *et al.*, 2009:429; Ayo *et al.*, 2012:6575; Devi, Singh, Naz & Fam, 2015:117-118), gender (Wądołowska *et al.*, 2008:132; Kim *et al.*, 2009:429; Amuquandoh, 2011:3; Mak *et al.*, 2012:931) and age (McKercher, Okumus & Okumus, 2008:142; Wądołowska *et al.*, 2008:132; Kim *et al.* 2009:429; Ayo *et al.*, 2012:6575; Mak *et al.*, 2012:931; Aquilani, Laureti, Poponi & Secondi, 2015:219).

1.2.2 **Behavioural determinants**

There are a number of behavioural elements of an individual that have been found to influence culinary preferences. These behavioural determinants include past experience (Chang *et al.*, 2010:991; Amuquandoh, 2011:3; Falguera *et al.*, 2012:275; Mak *et al.*, 2012:931), the need for self-development (Tikkanen, 2007:731; Daniel, Guttmann & Raviv, 2011:90; South African Tourism, 2016a), social influences (Fields, 2002:39-40; Kim *et al.*, 2009:427, Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1599), travel experience and frequency of travel (Fields, 2002:40; McKercher *et al.*, 2008:142; Kim *et al.*, 2009:425 & 427), the type of tourist (Torres, 2002:285, 300; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:773-774; Mak *et al.*, 2012:931-932; Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1599; Chatibura, 2015:218), the desire for an authentic food experience (Burusnukul, Binkley & Sukalakamala, 2011:968; Su, 2015:18), lifestyle (Chang *et al.*, 2010:991; Amuquandoh, 2011:3; Falguera *et al.*, 2012:275), personality (Kim *et al.*, 2009:428; Burusnukul *et al.*, 2011:968; Mak *et al.*, 2012:931-933; Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1599), and taste (Kittler & Sucher, 2004:202; Batra, 2008:12 & 16; Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:1).

1.2.3 **External determinants**

The external environment can influence what people consume (Vartanian, Wansink & Herman, 2008:533). External determinants of culinary preferences include hygiene perception (Kim *et al.*, 2009:428; Amuquandoh, 2011:3; Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:18), availability (Torres, 2002:292), quality and variety (Rozin & Vollmecke, 1986:434 & 448; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:773; Aquilani *et al.*, 2015:220; Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:18), dining establishments (Kim *et al.*, 2009:428; Convenience Store News, 2014; Abraham & Kannan, 2015:145), affordability (Rozin & Vollmecke, 1986:434; Ab Karim & Chi, 2010:550; Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:18), a communication gap (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:764; Batra, 2008:12 & 16, Ab Karim & Chi, 2010:537 & 550), trends (Torres, 2002:301; Falguera *et al.*, 2012:276; Bigliardi & Galati, 2013:118-119 & 126; Napolitano, Castellini, Naspetti, Piasentier, Girolami & Braghieri, 2013:823-824; Beutler, 2014; Ozynski, 2014; Aquilani *et al.*, 2015:214 & 220; De Jonge, Van der Lans & Van Trjip, 2015:96), and marketing (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010:549-550; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:238).

1.2.4 **Benefits**

The determinants of culinary preferences differ from one person to another, and could assist in the segmentation of tourists for effective marketing. From a destination point of view, there are numerous benefits that could be derived from the critical assessment of the culinary preferences and segmentation of tourists. Some potential benefits are listed below:

- Economic growth (Torres, 2002:283; Mak *et al.*, 2012:928)
- Policy development (National Department of Tourism, 2011:13; Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:20-21)
- Enhanced marketing strategies (Torres, 2002:301; Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:97 & 103-104; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:206 & 215-216; Chatibura, 2015:210-212, 214 & 218)
- Improved branding (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:99; Quan & Wang, 2004:299; Smith, 2009:199; National Department of Tourism, 2011:20; Lin, Pearson & Cai, 2011:44; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:236-237; Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1588, 1591, 1593-1598 & 1601; Steyn, 2015:64 & 258; United Nations, 2015:11)

- Better-quality food and beverage (Torres, 2002:303; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:243; Du Plessis, Saayman & Van der Merwe, 2015:9 & 11-12)
- Assistance with menu development (Torres, 2002:286; Cohen & Avieli, 2004:767; Batra, 2008:12 & 16; Kim *et al.*, 2009:427; Amuquandoh, 2011:3)
- A more enjoyable culinary experience (Fields, 2002:39; Torres, 2002:303; Quan & Wang, 2004:299; Ignatov & Smith, 2006:236; Ivanovic, 2008:223; Chang *et al.*, 2010:1000; National Department of Tourism, 2011:19)
- Sustainable competitiveness (Hall, 2004:168; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:211 & 231; Ivanovic, 2008:xx; Amuquandoh, 2011:1)
- Culinary satisfaction (Ryan, 1994:304; Quan & Wang, 2004:300; Mak *et al*., 2012:935; Andersen & Hyldig, 2015:13; Lagerkvist, Normann & Åström, 2017:16)

These numerous benefits served as motivation for the research project.

1.3 **Problem statement**

Food consumption plays a vital role in shaping the total tourist experience (Torres, 2002:300; Quan & Wang, 2004:302; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:209; Ignatov & Smith, 2006:236; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:229), and the demand for culinary experiences among tourists is rising (Fields, 2002:37). Foreign tourists spent R7.4 billion on food in South Africa in 2013 (South African Tourism, 2014:40), and it is estimated that tourists' food expenditure around the globe is growing daily (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:230). This high expenditure on food in tourist destinations provides justification for researchers to investigate tourists' food concerns (Amuquandoh, 2011:2). Furthermore, a contribution can be made to the successful attainment of three of the National Department of Tourism's NTSS objectives by gaining knowledge of tourists' culinary preferences. The three objectives referred to are: "to grow the tourism sector's absolute contribution to the economy", "to deliver a world-class visitor experience", and "to position South Africa as a globally recognised tourism destination brand" (National Department of Tourism, 2011:13, 19 & 20).

Considering the importance of food and beverages, it is interesting to note the general scarcity of studies examining culinary tourism and visitor attitudes towards cuisine (Moulin, 2000:21; Torres, 2002:300; Ignatov & Smith, 2006:252; Chang *et al.*, 2010:990; Mak *et al.*, 2012:935; Williams *et al.*, 2014:3). To the author's knowledge, no study regarding tourists' culinary preferences has been conducted in a South African context. In addition, Du Rand *et al.* (2003:110) call attention to the fact that "South Africans need to cultivate a pride in that which is their own, and realise the advantages of promoting their local and regional food and culinary heritage". An in-depth knowledge of the determinants of tourists' culinary preferences could make an important contribution to the development of quality culinary tourism products that lead to tourist satisfaction (Fields, 2002:48; Mak *et al.*, 2012:935).

In order to reap the benefits of knowledge about culinary preference, the following questions require answers and will be addressed in the study:

- What are the existing patterns of demand in the international tourism market for South Africa?
- What are tourists' preferences for local food versus international food and beverages?
- What is the potential for stimulating a new demand for local food?
- What are the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa?
- What percentage of tourists' total expenditure is spent on food and beverages while they are in South Africa?
- Are there tourists who travel to South Africa primarily for culinary experiences?
- What are the dietary requirements of international tourists to South Africa in terms of halal, kosher, vegetarian and others?

Based on these questions, the primary question this study will be addressing is: what are the culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa?

1.4 Goal of the study

The main goal and objectives of the study are listed below:

1.4.1 Goal

To critically assess the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa.

1.4.2 Objectives

Objective 1

- To conduct an in-depth literature review on the global existing knowledge of culinary tourism, including tourists' culinary preferences and theories influencing culinary preferences.
- To investigate South African culinary tourism, focusing on the current policies and strategies utilised in the domain.

Objective 2

- To develop a taxonomy of South African tourists.
- To identify the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa.

Objective 3

- To make recommendations for the promotion of local food.

Objective 4

- To draw conclusions from the results, and to make management and policy recommendations to stimulate growth in South African culinary tourism.

1.5 Method of research

The method of research that was followed for this study is discussed, including a literature review and empirical survey.

1.5.1 Literature review

A literature review was conducted on the existing knowledge of tourists' culinary preferences. Keywords that were used included culinary tourism, culinary preferences and local food. The library catalogues of the Central University of Technology, Free State were used to acquire books. Online scientific databases were used to gather relevant scientific articles. Websites were used to gather data from an array of sources, such as Statistics South Africa and the National Department of Tourism.

1.5.2 Empirical survey

1.5.2.1 Research design and data-collection methods

A quantitative research design was better suited to this research study than a qualitative design, due to the broad research focus and numerous variables involved (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:101). The instrument used to gather the quantitative data was a newly developed, structured questionnaire based on the literature review.

1.5.2.2 Sampling

International tourists awaiting flights in the departure halls of O.R. Tambo International Airport's international terminals were the sample. In 2015, there were 2 327 439 foreign departures from O.R. Tambo International Airport. This accounts for 77.8% of all airport departures of foreigners (Statistics South Africa, 2016b:27). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014:222), if the population for a sample exceeds 5 000, the population size becomes almost irrelevant, and a sample size of 400 would be adequate. Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) calculated that for a population exceeding 1 million, a sample size of 384 is required.

To ensure that a representative sample of international tourists to South Africa was obtained, an attempt was made to obtain a larger sample than those proposed by Leedy

and Ormrod (2014:222) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608). A sample of 600 was therefore proposed. To assist in the pursuit of a representative study sample, random sampling was used to give each international tourist an equal opportunity to be selected.

1.5.2.3 Development of questionnaire

The aim of the questionnaire was to include most of the determinants of culinary preferences identified in various literary resources. The newly developed questionnaire was based on existing questionnaires, including, but not limited to, those of Torres (2002), McKercher *et al.* (2008), Amuquandoh (2011), Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012), and Chatibura (2015).

Respondents were requested to complete the three sections of the questionnaire in English. Section A captured the respondents' socio-demographic and travel profile; Section B focused on the respondents' culinary preferences; and Section C focused on the respondents' culinary satisfaction while in South Africa.

1.5.2.4 Survey

A pilot study was conducted with foreign tourists, who were approached to confirm that the questionnaire was understandable. After the pilot study, the survey was conducted at the O.R. Tambo International Airport in 2016. The questionnaire was self-administered, voluntarily and anonymously, by the respondents and returned to the data-collecting personnel prior to boarding their flights.

1.5.2.5 Data analysis

Microsoft Excel was used to capture the data and for basic analysis such as percentages, means and standard deviations. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), t-tests, Spearman's rank correlations, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and structural equation modelling (SEM) were also utilised to analyse the data. Factor analysis was used to identify groups of highly interrelated culinary preferences and culinary satisfaction determinants that revealed underlying themes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:313).

The t-test assesses the statistical difference between two sample means for a dependent variable (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010:442). The t-test was employed to reveal whether there were significant differences in tourists' determinants of culinary preference

and culinary satisfaction in terms of their socio-demographic and travel profiles (for example, were men more concerned with social influence and women more concerned with exploration?). This test was used for socio-demographic and travel profile variables, which offered only two answer categories.

Spearman's rank order correlation analyses ranked variables and was therefore used to determine whether correlations existed between the ranked socio-demographic and travel profile variables and the culinary-preference and culinary-satisfaction factors (Kline, 2016:42). ANOVA compares the differences between three or more means (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:313). ANOVA was used to compare the remaining socio-demographic and travel-profile variables that could not be analysed by means of t-tests or correlation analyses with the culinary-preference and culinary-satisfaction factors.

Lastly, SEM was used to empirically test a portion of the conceptual framework of tourists' culinary preferences to test whether it was valid (Malhotra, Baalbaki & Bechwati, 2013:711; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:313).

1.6 **Defining the concepts**

The following concepts were used in the study:

1.6.1 **Culinary tourism**

The terms culinary tourism, gastronomic tourism, gastro tourism, gourmet tourism, tasting tourism, food tourism and cuisine tourism have been used in the literature to examine the same tourism subcategory (Manolis, 2010; Williams *et al.*, 2014:4-5). According to the Ontario Culinary Tourism Advisory Council (OCTAC), there are dozens of definitions and interpretations of the concept (OCTAC, 2006:11). Culinary tourism has been defined as tourism trips during which a significant motivation is the consumption of local foods (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:238). Williams *et al.* (2014:4) define culinary tourism as the "intentional pursuit of appealing, authentic, memorable food- and beverage-related experiences of all kinds, while travelling internationally, regionally or even locally". Long (2004:20-21) coined the term culinary tourism and defines it as "the intentional, exploratory participation in the foodways of an other – participation including the consumption,

preparation, and presentation of a food item, cuisine, meal system, or eating style considered to belong to a culinary system not one's own".

OCTAC (2006:11-12) asked industry stakeholders to identify key characteristics of a definition of culinary tourism and ultimately proposed the following definition: "Culinary tourism includes any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, and/or consumes food and drink that reflects the local, regional, or national cuisine, heritage, culture, tradition, or culinary techniques." Similarly, Smith and Xiao (2008:289-290) define culinary tourism as any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes local culinary resources. The authors further elaborate by stating that the culinary resources referred to include raw ingredients, food and beverages reflective of the destination, and traditional methods of preparing these items. Lastly, the authors' definition encompasses both travel motivated for culinary reasons and travel in which the culinary experience is not the main reason for the visit. Du Rand *et al.* (2003:108) found food to be mainly a supportive tourist attraction in South Africa. Consequently, Smith and Xiao's (2008) definition is used in the current study, as it is recognised that not all international tourists to South Africa visit the country primarily for culinary purposes.

1.6.2 **Culinary tourist**

Foodies, taste- , gastronomy- and culinary tourists have been defined as tourists motivated to travel specifically to participate in culinary-tourism activities (Yun, Hennessey & MacDonald, 2011:3; Robinson & Getz, 2014:691). Long (2004:21) states that "The culinary tourist anticipates a change in the foodways experience for the sake of experiencing that change, not merely to satisfy hunger." According to the World Food Travel Association (2015a), it is very difficult to discuss culinary tourists' demographics because all tourists eat and drink. For the purposes of this study, not only culinary tourists, but all tourists' food preferences were examined since – indeed – all tourists eat and drink.

1.6.3 **Local food**

Local food can be considered as food based on domestic produce (Torres, 2002:286), or as food and beverages that are produced in the area being visited, and are promoted as such (Smith & Xiao, 2008:290). According to Martinez, Hand, Da Pra, Pollack, Ralston, Smith,

Vogel, Clark, Lohr, Low and Newman (2010:3), there is no consensus on a definition of local food in terms of distance between production and consumption. Tourists may also not be aware that what they perceive to be local food has been made using imported ingredients (Torres, 2002:293-294). Having noted the limitations, however, local food in this study refers to all food and beverage items produced in the specified country. South African local food therefore includes all food and beverage items produced in South Africa.

1.6.4 **Culinary preferences**

According to Torres (2002:300), it is commonly supposed that tourists' food consumption and preferences define the demand for food. Thus, food requirements are inherently determined by food preferences. Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434) define food preferences as the availability of at least two different items and a decision being made to choose which item to consume. Similarly, Chang *et al.* (2010:990) define food preferences to be a tourist's expressed choice between two or more food items at the destination. Since beverages are an inherent part of the tourist's food experience, they should not be ignored. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the term culinary preference was used instead of food preferences, and was defined as the tourist's decision to consume a food or beverage item over all other available items.

1.6.5 **Food consumption**

When someone uses, eats or drinks something, it is known as consumption (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2010:300). This served as the definition for food consumption in the current study. Food consumption plays a vital role in the tourist's experience of a destination (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:236; Quan & Wang, 2004:302; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:209), and contributes to the branding and competitive marketing of destinations (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:99).

1.7 Chapter classification

The study comprises five chapters, namely:

Chapter 1: Scope of the research. The introductory chapter contains the background of the study, problem statement, objectives, methodology employed, and definitions of the main concepts of the study.

Chapter 2: Investigating culinary tourism. The literature review focuses on the existing knowledge of culinary tourism, benefits of culinary tourism, theories related to tourists' culinary preferences, existing segmentation typologies and taxonomies of tourism markets, techniques used to promote local food and the current culinary-tourism environment in South Africa.

Chapter 3: Research methodology. This chapter discusses the quantitative research design followed, the sampling technique utilised, the development of the questionnaire, and the strategies used to collect and analyse the survey data.

Chapter 4: Results and discussion. The results of the analysed survey data were the basis for the chapter. The socio-demographic and travel profiles of the respondents are discussed, as well as the determinants of the culinary preferences and culinary satisfaction of the sample.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations. The PhD journey undertaken is outlined briefly. Literature, methodological and practical contributions of the study are elaborated upon and conclusions are drawn based on the findings of the study, addressing the research objectives and multiple other questions in the process. Lastly, several specific recommendations are made to facilitate growth in South African culinary tourism and improve the success thereof.

Chapter 2: Investigating culinary tourism

2.1 Introduction

Whether you go to food or food comes to you, the nature of the encounter is what defines a food experience as culinary tourism.

Kirshenblatt-Gimblett (2004:xi)

The culinary-tourism industry has something for everyone and includes everything from street vendors and food carts to one-of-a-kind restaurants and dramatic wineries (World Food Travel Association, 2015a). According to Mack, Blose and MacLaurin (2009:3), growth in the field of tourism has been fast and furious. However, little research exists in the area (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:355; Mak *et al.*, 2012:935; Williams *et al.*, 2014:3).

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate culinary tourism. This chapter begins with a brief inquiry into culinary tourism across the globe to serve as a benchmark for culinary tourism in South Africa. The benefits of culinary tourism are discussed, serving as the reason to develop strategies for local food promotion. The culinary preferences of international tourists were the main focus of this study and theories relating to the determinants of culinary preferences are examined. As segmentation allows for effective marketing, segmentation typologies and taxonomies also form an important part of the culinary-tourism investigation.

This chapter ends with a discussion of tourism in South Africa. Focus is placed on culinary tourism in the country and it is illustrated that even though South Africa is rich in culinary resources, the country has not capitalised on its culinary-tourism potential. Therefore, tourists' culinary preferences should be investigated.

2.2 **Culinary tourism**

The global tourism industry is expected to provide 296.2 million jobs and be worth 10.8 trillion American dollars by 2018 (Long, 2014:453). Destinations that lack natural or historical resources or that cannot benefit from sun, sea, and sand can use their culinary offerings to lure travellers (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:359). Culinary tourism is expected to become stronger as more tourists and providers are becoming aware of it (Long, 2014:453).

Gastronomy has often been the foundation of the revitalisation of tourism in struggling destinations. Croatia, for example, faced the gigantic task of rebuilding its tourism industry after the war of independence. Wine making, local foods, regional cuisines and food customs all formed a vital part of its rebuilding programme. Cambodia and Vietnam offer similar examples (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:359).

For all destinations, cuisine offers an important complement to the range of offerings available to tourists (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:134). For example, in a study conducted by Kivela and Crotts (2006:362), 21% of the respondents indicated that their main reason for travelling to Hong Kong was for the food. Hong Kong's culinary offerings are promoted in tourist information offices, through brochures, food and restaurant guides and annual food festivals. In India it is recognised that the Taj Mahal cannot be the pillar of Indian tourism forever, thus leaving room for an important supplement to the country's attractions. In 2012, the "Incredible Tiffin" campaign was launched by the Indian tourism sector to promote Indian cuisine (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:146).

While this "modern" field known as culinary tourism offers new opportunities, the fundamental notion of culinary tourism is actually very old. Thousands of years ago merchants travelled to foreign countries in search of exotic foods and beverages to take home or trade. Wine, spices, fruits and other foods were frequently used as currency (Wolf, cited by Yun *et al.*, 2011:1-2).

The first formal study of gastronomy was undertaken by Jean Anthelme Brillat-Savarin, was published in *La Physiologie du goutin* in 1825, and has been translated into English as *The Physiology of Taste* (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:355). Even though food has always formed part of hospitality services for tourists, the tourism industry only began emphasising food and

beverages in the late 1990s (Long, 2014:452). The first international conference on local food and tourism was held in Cyprus in 2000. The majority of papers presented at the conference concluded that local food was a unique attraction for destinations (Su, 2015:15). The World Food Travel Association (2015b) states that since the formal founding of the culinary-tourism industry in 2003, consumer and business behaviour have changed significantly.

The phrase "culinary tourism" was introduced by Long's edited volume, *Culinary Tourism* (2004). The phrase was then adapted by the American-based International Culinary Tourism Association to define tourism as featuring memorable and unique dining experiences. This shifted the domain to a professional and commercial one. By 2010, culinary-tourism projects frequently emphasised locally grown food produced with the use of sustainable farming methods (Long, 2014:452-453 & 455), and a recent travel conference emphasised culinary tourism as one of the fastest growing segments today (Grishkewich, 2012).

A number of countries' tourism industries and governments are now tying culinary tourism to economic development. One of these initiatives is growers banding together to market their farms and products as tourism destinations. They collaborate rather than compete with one another (Long, 2014:454). This can result in them becoming known as food or wine holiday destinations. Examples of culinary destinations' success stories include the Karoo's lamb, the Eastern and Western Cape's Route 62, Melbourne's restaurant and wine scene, cooking holidays in Tuscany in Italy and Lyons in France, Munich's Oktoberfest and the wine-tasting tours of Bordeaux (Kivela & Crotts, 2006:357; KDF, 2016a; South African Tourism, 2016b). France even established the Appellation d'Origine Controlee in the early 1900s in order to protect wines and cheeses with the use of geographical indicators (Long, 2014:458). In certain instances though, more than just the protection of culinary items is required, as the luau in Hawaii has shifted from having a sacred meaning within the community to merely becoming a culinary-tourism activity (O'Connor, cited in Long, 2014:457).

2.3 **Benefits of culinary tourism**

Much of the current culinary-tourism scholarship focuses on how culinary tourism can be made sustainable and beneficial to all parties involved in it (Long, 2014:453). This section delves into the benefits of gaining knowledge on culinary preferences as well as the benefits of culinary tourism in general (the benefits are stated in bold when first addressed), as listed in Figure 1.1 in Chapter 1.

The **economic growth** and benefits brought by tourist food consumption can significantly affect destinations and food-producing businesses (Manolis, 2010; Mak *et al.*, 2012:928; Abraham & Kannan, 2015:135). It has been found that customers who have had great experiences spend 140% more compared to those who have had poor experiences (Kriss, 2014). Over a decade of experience in the culinary-tourism industry has led the World Food Travel Association (2015c) to conclude that roughly 25% of tourists' spending goes to food and beverages. According to the association, the following tangible benefits (monetary and other) of culinary tourism exist:

- "More visitor arrivals
- "More sales (rooms/airplane seats/restaurant meals/wine/beer/car rentals/etc.)
- "More media coverage
- "A new competitive advantage or unique selling proposition (i.e. unique food and drink)
- "More tax revenue to government authorities
- "Increased community awareness about tourism in general
- "Increased community pride about, and awareness of, the area's food and drink resource" (World Food Travel Association, 2015c).

Traditional foods are a vital tourism resource that remains largely unexploited (Amuquandoh, 2011:1), with the relationship between cultural tourism and food representing a significant opportunity for rural diversification (Hall, 2004:168; Quan &

Wang, 2004:303). Culinary tourism can also contribute to community development (Yun *et al.*, 2011:1; Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2015) and to the **sustainable competitiveness** of a destination (Du Rand, 2006:319; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:211; Manolis, 2010). Socio-cultural attractions include a broad range of products (Visser, 2007:40), including food and beverages (Perkins, 2014).

Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:236-237) found that in terms of attractions to a Spanish city, food was the reason selected second most often (after monuments and museums) as a reason for visiting the city. A quarter of the sample stated that food was the main reason for their visit. The authors found a significant correlation between satisfaction with the food and satisfaction with the city, confirming that food plays a considerable role in how tourists perceive their overall trip. This is reiterated by Smith (2009:199), who states that a destination's popularity is not only influenced by major monuments, but also by shopping, eating, drinking and entertainment available at the destination.

International tourists are often conservative and sceptical when it comes to trying new foods, but at the same time they are attracted to these foods (Amuquandoh, 2011:3). Torres (2002:286) believes that modern-day tourists demand fewer Western foods and are more open to trying local food at their travel destination. Belisle (1984, as cited in Torres, 2002:285) concludes that it is possible to shift tourists' taste to local foods. There is also an emergence of specifically tourism-oriented culinary establishments. These establishments provide neophobic tourists with familiar food and make local food accessible and attractive to neophilic tourists (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:767).

Food and cooking styles may even serve as international **brands** (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:99; Lin *et al.*, 2011:44; Tsai & Lu, 2012:304) and knowledge of what tourists prefer may result in the development of culinary events (Mak *et al.*, 2012:935). Food festivals have been used to showcase local food and attract tourists to communities by offering experiences that cannot be found elsewhere (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1588, 1591, 1593-1598 & 1601). These events can contribute to the branding of a particular area. Løgstør, a small Danish town, markets itself as "The Town of Mussels" and hosts an annual mussel festival. The event is crucial for the town. The festival originated from a deliberate decision made by key local

stakeholders to brand the town. Branding can promote tourist visits, but the experiences of the tourists depend largely on the local businesses and the interactions with local residents.

The authors recommend that if rural communities would like to use local cultural resources to position the area as a tourist destination, they should focus on stories and events that appeal not only to external audiences, but also to internal ones. Branding often focuses on one ingredient or food to the disadvantage of others (as is possible in the Danish example mentioned), and it is important to avoid creating such a monoculture (Long, 2014:454). Although the Oktoberfest in Munich is a beer festival and 7.7 million litres of beer were enjoyed at the 2015 festival, a complete monoculture was not created, as 114 oxen and 50 calves were also consumed (Oktoberfest.de, 2016).

Knowledge on variables influencing food consumption is extremely valuable in providing appropriate **culinary experiences** (Mak *et al.,* 2012:935). Providing a great culinary experience to tourists might increase their length of stay and spending (Ignatov & Smith, 2006:236), as well as increase the number of return visits to the destination (Manolis, 2010). Torres (2002:303) found that the increased consumption of local food will enrich the "tourist experience" by strengthening a sense of unique destination identity. Similarly, Fields (2002:39) and Chang *et al.* (2010:1000) state that culinary items provide tourists with an opportunity to have an "authentic" experience of a different culture. The assumption is that if tourists consume the local residents' food and beverages, they will appreciate the local people more (Long, 2014:456). Even though the majority of respondents in Abraham and Kannan's study (2015:144-146) in India were dissatisfied with their culinary experiences, they stated that the cuisine showcased India's richness and vibrancy. It entrenched how unique the Indian culture is and how hospitable Indians are. Indians were perceived to be friendly and the food helped the tourists cope with India's hot weather.

A destination's induced image, like India's spicy food, has a direct influence on tourists' decision-making (Steyn, 2015:64) and consequently their consumption. For example, a website about local cuisine, its ingredients, recipes and food-related traditions could be used not only to provide information, but may prompt potential travellers to visit the region (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:135). The California Travel and Tourism Commission and Wine Institute launched a website to do just that (Manolis, 2010). It should be noted, however,

that campaigns to promote the consumption of local foods and beverages must be accompanied by corresponding efforts to improve the consistency, quantity and quality of local production (Torres, 2002:303). Government policies could be put in place in order to drive such efforts.

Understanding tourists' culinary preferences may result in better food **quality** (Updhyay & Sharma, 2014:31). According to Yun *et al.* (2011:11), new culinary-tourism products must be easy to consume, enjoyable and presented as connected to other cultural activities and attractions. Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:243) state that knowledge of tourists' food cultures can contribute to improving restaurant services and increasing satisfaction. Updhyay and Sharma (2014:35), in turn, mention that stakeholders can emphasise localisation and traditional and historical significance in order to increase the patronage and satisfaction of foreign tourists in India.

Government policies and investment could also enhance the effect of the other benefits mentioned. Cuisine offers opportunities that would never occur otherwise, such as for domestic cooks, who can earn a living by sharing their skills with tourists (Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2015). Culinary tourists also seek out markets, farms and family-run restaurants rather than traditional tourist attractions. This can assist in spreading tourist spending more equitably within the host community (Long, 2014:456). Abraham and Kannan (2015:146-147) suggest that investments should be made in the creative development of events and promotions surrounding culinary tourism, such as setting up regional cuisine food parks near important tourist destinations. Torres (2002:301) also states that there is a need for the local government and tourism industry to concentrate on the task of developing **marketing** and promotional programmes that will educate and expose tourists to local foods. For instance, Mexico developed its "Aromas & Flavors" marketing initiative to entice visitors (Manolis, 2010).

As culinary knowledge was used in the development of marketing policies, so it can be used in the development of food safety policies. For example, Wongprawmas and Canavari's (2015:20-21) results in Thailand suggest to producers and marketers that there is a perceived need for a higher level of food safety in the fresh produce supply chain. The authors state that there is a potential market share for fresh produce bearing food safety

labels, since consumer trust in Thailand is low. This is interesting, since the Thai Ministry of Health initiated a Clean Food Good Taste programme in 1989 in order to promote tourism and protect consumers against foodborne illnesses. Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968-969 & 978) state that an explanation of the programme and a picture of the certificate would be useful to travellers. Abraham and Kannan (2015:146-147) state that in India there is an urgent need to change the perception of cuisine and suggest investing in understanding what foreign tourists consider to be attractive, clean and hygienic in order to produce décor and ambience that induce these perceptions among foreign tourists.

Manolis (2010) and Long (2014:455-456) state that culinary tourism can bring attention to healthier eating and sustainable production methods, as tourists tend to prefer experiencing food in its native habitat and sociocultural context. If it is known what tourists prefer, establishments could cater to tourists' exact needs through product and **menu development** (Mak *et al.*, 2012:935; Updhyay & Sharma, 2014:31). For example, menus could be developed to cater to tourists seeking local and organic foods (Long, 2014:456).

Abraham and Kannan (2015:147) suggested that food served in dining establishments in India must be tailored to the tastes and tolerance levels of foreign tourists. In Bangkok, menu choice was found to be an important factor influencing the preference of respondents for eating at ethnic restaurants. The author found Western respondents to value the availability of low-fat items and vegetarian choices and having the menu explain the ingredients of the dishes in understandable English (Batra, 2008:12 & 16). Culinary images may also play a key motivational role in providing sensory pleasure to tourists (Kim *et al.*, 2009:427). In addition to communicating ingredients of dishes in English, menus could then provide clear, appealing images to attract customers.

Several factors have been found to influence **culinary satisfaction** (Andersen & Hyldig, 2015:13; Lagerkvist *et al.*, 2017:16). Cuisine can enhance the level of overall satisfaction experienced on a trip, and the knowledge gained by studying tourists' preferences can be used to increase tourist satisfaction (Quan & Wang, 2004:300; Mak *et al.*, 2012:935). Satisfaction arises when tourists' expectations are met (Ryan, 1994:304). Satisfaction is therefore dependent on the tourists' expectations before the visit, and relates to their actual experience at the destination (Fields, 2002:43). It is the tourists' satisfaction that, in

turn, results in benefits for destinations and tourism stakeholders, and knowledge on culinary preference and satisfaction gained could assist in enhancing the culinary satisfaction of future international tourists.

2.4 The tourist

As was previously mentioned, for the purposes of this chapter, all tourists' culinary preferences are examined, since all tourists eat and drink. Firstly, the theories and frameworks useful in the analysis of culinary preferences are discussed, followed by the determinants of culinary preferences and typologies and taxonomies that have been used to segment tourists on the basis of cuisine.

2.4.1 Notable theories and frameworks to study culinary preferences

Food-consumption behaviour is complex, but some theories have been proposed to assist researchers in understanding tourists' intentions to behave in a certain manner (Chatibura, 2015:11). Tourist culinary frameworks and models, motivational and consumer-behaviour theories all assist in understanding tourists' culinary decisions and are therefore discussed.

2.4.1.1 Consumer-behaviour theories

Some of the best-known consumer-behaviour theories were developed during the 1960s and 1970s (Erasmus, Boshoff & Rousseau, 2001:83). There are many existing theories on consumer behaviour. Each theory is likely to explain a certain aspect of a person's decision in a particular context. To date, however, no single theory has come into being to predict consumer decisions across disciplines, and it is unlikely that a person's decision-making processes will fit perfectly into a single consumer-behaviour theory (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005:816). The theory of reasoned action (TRA), the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and their expansions, the theory of interpersonal behaviour (TIB) and the theory of self-regulation (TSR) are discussed. The TRA and TIB have dominated research for decades (Verplanken, Aarts & Van Knippenberg, 1997:540; Tangeland, Vennesland & Nybakk, 2013:365), have been extensively used in literature to understand human behaviour (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005:816; Ryu & Jang, 2006:508; Kim *et al.*, 2009:424; Chatibura, 2015:11), and have been used in tourism research, as detailed below.

a) Theory of reasoned action (TRA)

The TRA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) investigates the relationship between normative pressure (subjective norm), attitude, intention and behaviour (Nysveen, Pedersen & Thornbjørnsen, 2005:332). A subjective norm is the influence of others when deciding to engage in a behaviour, and an attitude is considered to be the overall assessment of the behaviour (Sparks, 2007:1182). These two elements determine a person's behavioural intentions, as can be seen in Figure 2.1, and the behavioural intention, in turn, is the sole determinant of the person's behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, cited by Ryu & Jang, 2006:508).

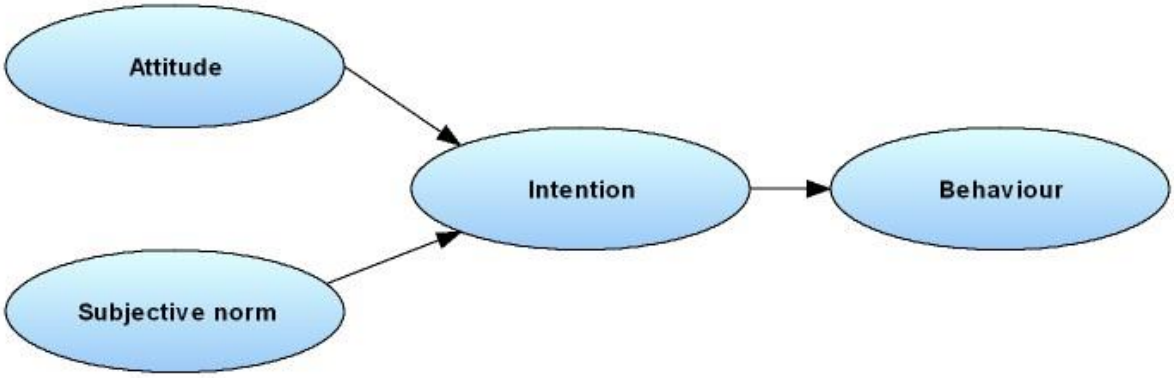

Figure 2.1: Theory of reasoned action

Source: Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), as cited in Madden, Ellen and Ajzen (1992:3-4)

Tourism research that was based on the TRA includes that by Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo and Alders (2013), Kim, Kim and Goh (2011), Ryu and Han (2010) and Ryu and Jang (2006). Ryu and Jang (2006:507 & 514-515) modified the TRA to include past behaviour and used the theory to investigate tourists' intentions to consume local food while on holiday. The authors suggested that the theory predicted tourists' intentions well and was therefore applicable to tourism and hospitality studies. Tourists' intentions to try local cuisine depended on their personal attitudinal factors rather than normative beliefs, therefore restaurateurs could direct their marketing efforts at attitudinal factors. The authors recommend that it may be effective for restaurateurs to promote adventurous and interesting authentic food in order to create positive beliefs. For example, pictures showing interesting dishes can be placed outside restaurants at tourism destinations. The authors also found that individual beliefs, attitude formation and specific behaviour might be

influenced by significant others such as family. For this reason it is essential to provide satisfactory service while tourists experience local cuisine, and marketers should pay attention to spreading positive word-of-mouth about this experience.

Ryu and Han (2010:496 & 502) further built on Ryu and Jang's (2006) modified TRA to add gender differences to the theory. The authors again found the TRA predicted tourists' intentions toward local cuisine well. They also found male tourists to be more willing to try local cuisine than female tourists, and therefore recommended that waiting staff be trained to promote local dishes to men when taking menu orders.

Kim *et al.* (2011:1159 & 1164) also utilised Ryu and Jang's (2006) modified TRA. The authors examined food tourists' behaviour and found the theory useful in predicting behaviour. Even though there is a lot of support for the TRA, it has been criticised for being unable to deal with behaviours over which people do not have complete volitional control (Ajzen, 1991:181).

b) Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)

The TPB was originally developed to overcome the TRA's limitations in dealing with behaviours over which individuals have partial volitional control (Ajzen, 1991:181). The TPB (Azjen, 1991) is an extension of the TRA (Kim *et al.*, 2009:424) and has proved robust across various domains (Sparks, 2007:1182; Chatibura, 2015:11). Rivis and Sheeran (2003:218) even go so far as to say that the TPB is feasibly the most significant theory for the prediction of social behaviours.

The TPB added perceived behavioural control to the TRA, and in 2010 descriptive norms (i.e. what significant others do) were officially added to the normative component (Rivis & Sheeran, 2003:219; Azjen, 2011:1119). In brief, the TPB proposes that performance of a behaviour can be predicted from intentions to perform the behaviour and from the perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2011:1119), as can be seen in Figure 2.2 (Ajzen, 1991:182). As in the TRA, intention is a central factor. The intention captures the motivational factors, and the stronger the intention, the more likely it is that it will result in behaviour. This is true only if the person has control over performing the behaviour. Although the importance of actual control is obvious, the perceived behavioural control and

its impact on intentions and actions are of more psychological interest than actual control (Ajzen, 1991:181-184; Ajzen, 2011:1119).

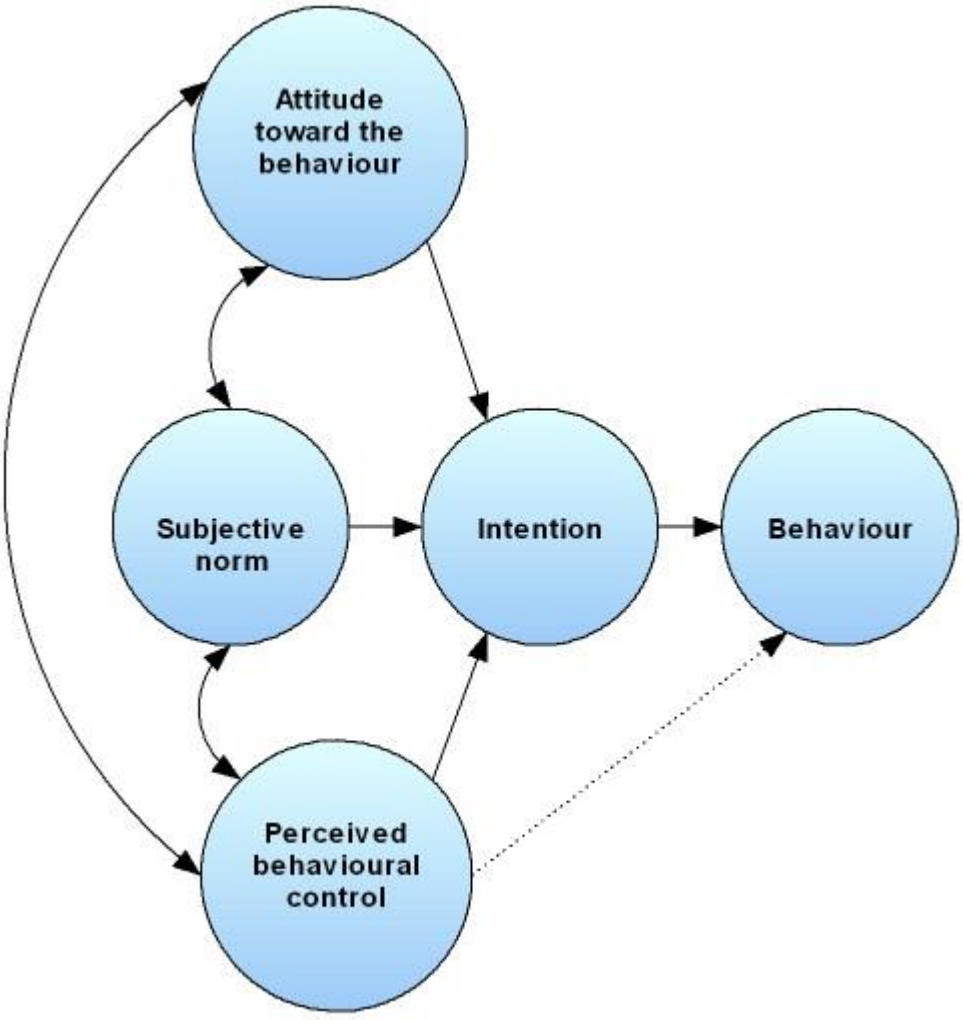

Figure 2.2: Theory of planned behaviour

Source: Ajzen (1991:182)

Lam and Hsu (2004:464; 474-475 & 477) state that the TPB has seldom been used to study international tourists' attitudes and behavioural intentions. The authors tested the fit of the TPB in a tourism context and included past experience as a predictor. Their sample was potential Mainland Chinese tourists to Hong Kong, and the TPB explained travel intention moderately well. Their findings included that the intention of revisiting Hong Kong increased with an increase in the number of previous visits to the city. Attitude and perceived behavioural control were also found to relate to the intention of selecting Hong Kong as travel destination. The authors, however, found no correlation between subjective norm

and behavioural intention, as respondents' intention to visit the city was not influenced by perceived social pressure from important referents. Other tourism studies that have utilised the TPB include Phetvaroon (2006), Han and Kim (2010), Han, Hsu and Sheu (2010), Quintal, Lee and Soutar (2010), Ramkissoon and Nunkoo (2010) and Chang, Mak and Chin (2011).

More specifically related to cuisine, Sparks (2007:1180, 1183 & 1188-1189) proposed the inclusion of "attitude to the past behaviour" and "involvement with wine activities" in the prediction of intentions to take a wine-based vacation in an Australian sample. The TPB was found to be useful in predicting wine-related vacations, but no relationship between emotional attitude and intentions was found. Past behaviour and normative influences had small effects on intentions and the major predictor of intention to take a wine-based vacation within the next 12 months was perceived control. The control variable comprised both time and money control.

Criticism of the TPB includes that not enough variance in intended behaviour is explained, and that additional predictors are required. Therefore, authors have included varying predictors of their own (Lam & Hsu, 2004:468; Sparks, 2007:1183).

c) Theory of interpersonal behaviour (TIB)

The TIB proposes that three factors will determine the probability that a certain behaviour will occur (Chatibura, 2015:47), as indicated in Figure 2.3 (Kim & Lee, 2012:2062).

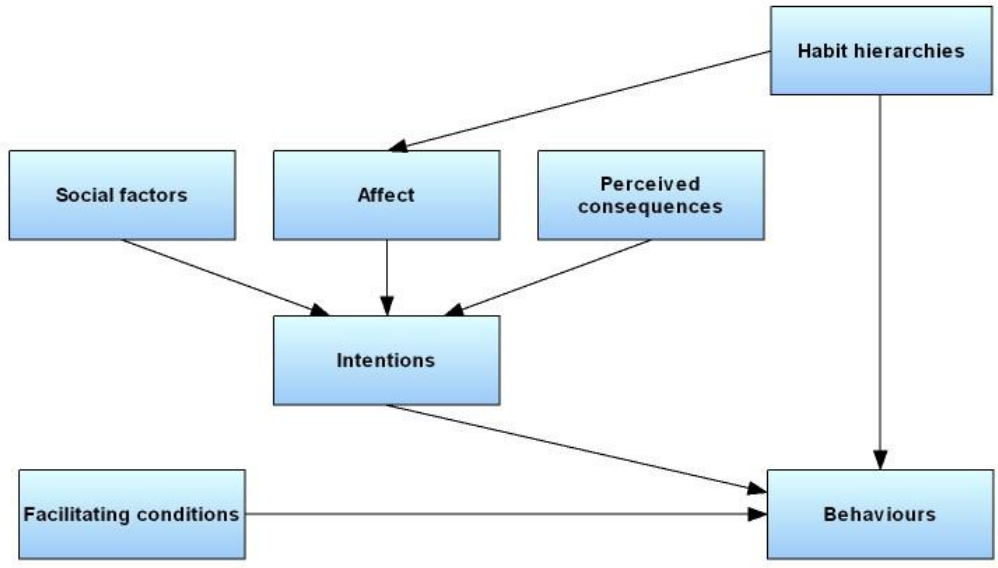

Figure 2.3: Subset of the Triandis model
Source: Triandis (1980, as cited by Kim & Lee, 2012:2062)

There is great similarity between the TPB and Triandis's (1977, 1980) TIB. Among other similarities, both theories aim to explain the intention to perform a behaviour as well as the actual performance of that behaviour. The main difference between the theories lies in the relative importance accredited to the level of awareness in predicting a given behaviour. Whereas the TPB states that the behaviour is under the person's conscious control, the TIB suggests that the level of consciousness reduces as the level of habit in performing the behaviour increases. Triandis (1977) therefore added the construct habit, in addition to perceived behavioural control (referred to as facilitating conditions) and intention (Thompson, Higgins & Howel, 1991:125-126; Bamberg & Schmidt, 2003:268).

The TIB has been found to be very effective in explaining complex behaviours that may be influenced by the social and physical environment (Verplanken *et al.*, 1997; Milhausen, Reece & Perera, 2006:98). As the TRA and TPB have served as theoretical foundation for tourism research, the TIB has also featured in tourism research, for example by Zhang (2008) and Chatibura (2015). Chatibura (2015:7 & 223-224) adapted the TIB in order to identify push and pull factors that predict local food consumption in Gaborone. The author found the factors "arousal", "social other" and "open culture" to significantly predict consumption behaviour.

d) Theory of self-regulation (TSR)

In addition to the criticisms of the TRA and TPB mentioned earlier, these theories have also been criticised for missing motivational processes as a condition for behaviour (Bagozzi, 1992:201). Therefore, Bagozzi (1992) developed the TSR, which specifically includes desire as a motivation-based variable leading to intention, as is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Tangeland *et al.* (2013:364 & 372-373) utilised the TSR to analyse second-home owners' intention to consume nature-based tourism products in Norway. The authors stated that policymakers could use information such as what motivates second-home owners to relax in nature to develop strategies to expand second-home villages. The authors, however, argued that the TSR oversimplified the concept of motivation and recommended adding push and pull factors (discussed under motivational theories) and socio-demographic variables.

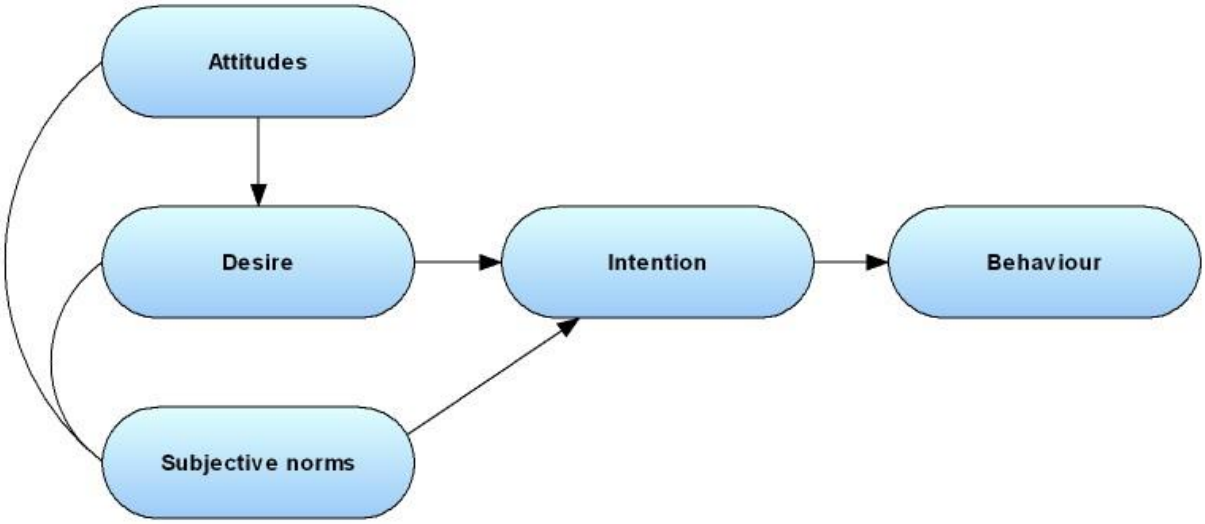

Figure 2.4: Theory of self-regulation

Source: Leone, Perugini and Ercolani (1999:163)

McCabe, Li and Chen (2016:4) conclude that tourism researchers have adapted consumer-behaviour theories in an ad hoc fashion in order to suit the context of the tourism industry. Each of the discussed theories has hypothesised its own set of variables that influence intention, but the theories all agree that intention results in behaviour. Leone *et al.* (1999:186) compared the TRA, TPB and TSR and stated that further investigations were required into the intention and motivation to perform a behaviour.

2.4.1.2 Motivational theories

Although motivation cannot be directly observed and is difficult to define (Ching, 2015), many definitions for the construct exist. Motivation can be defined as personal and environmental forces that stimulate a person to behave in a certain manner (Drafke, 2009:352). Dann (1981:202) states that "Essentially a grasp of motivation tells us why an individual or group have behaved or are about to perform an action". Kay (2003:609) is in agreement with Dann (1981), affirming that the understanding of motivation is the understanding of why people behave as they do. According to Hudson (1999:7-8) and Tangeland *et al.* (2013:366), many authors see motivation as a foremost determinant of tourist behaviour.

Many theories have been developed in order to determine what motivates people. Kay (2003:601, 603) summarised the earliest studies and reviews of tourist motivation and states that tourism motivation literature reveals four main approaches. The approaches are need-based, values-based, benefits sought or realised and expectancy-theory based. In addition to the four stated approaches, Kay (2003:608) states that the push and pull factors approach is also frequently used. It is, however, not within the scope of this study to discuss all motivational approaches or theories.

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is the best known of all motivational theories (Hudson, 1999:7). Maslow's theory has become widely influential in many applied areas, including tourism (Hudson, 1999:8; Huang & Hsu, 2009:294; UK Essays, 2013; Gisolf, 2014). Likewise, the push-and-pull theory has dominated tourism motivation literature (Crompton, 1979:410; Bansal & Eiselt, 2004:388). Motivational factors have also been found to be important variables specifically influencing tourist food preferences (Mak *et al.*, 2012:934), therefore the hierarchy of needs and push-pull factors are discussed, as they have proved fundamental in the study of tourism and have been used to examine the culinary motivation of tourists.

a) Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory

The basic suggestion of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory is that people are wanting-beings. People always require more than they have and their needs depend on what they have at present (Coughlan, 2012:31). Only unsatisfied needs will motivate people (Mullins, 1998:317-318), and all efforts are directed at fulfilling those needs (Walker & Miller, 2010:182). Maslow (1943) arranged needs in a hierarchy, indicating that some are more powerful than others. As soon as one level's needs are mostly satisfied, the next level's needs become the motivating force (Tesone, 2010:285), and the person progresses to the next level of the hierarchy. The hierarchical order in which needs become motivators is displayed in Figure 2.5.

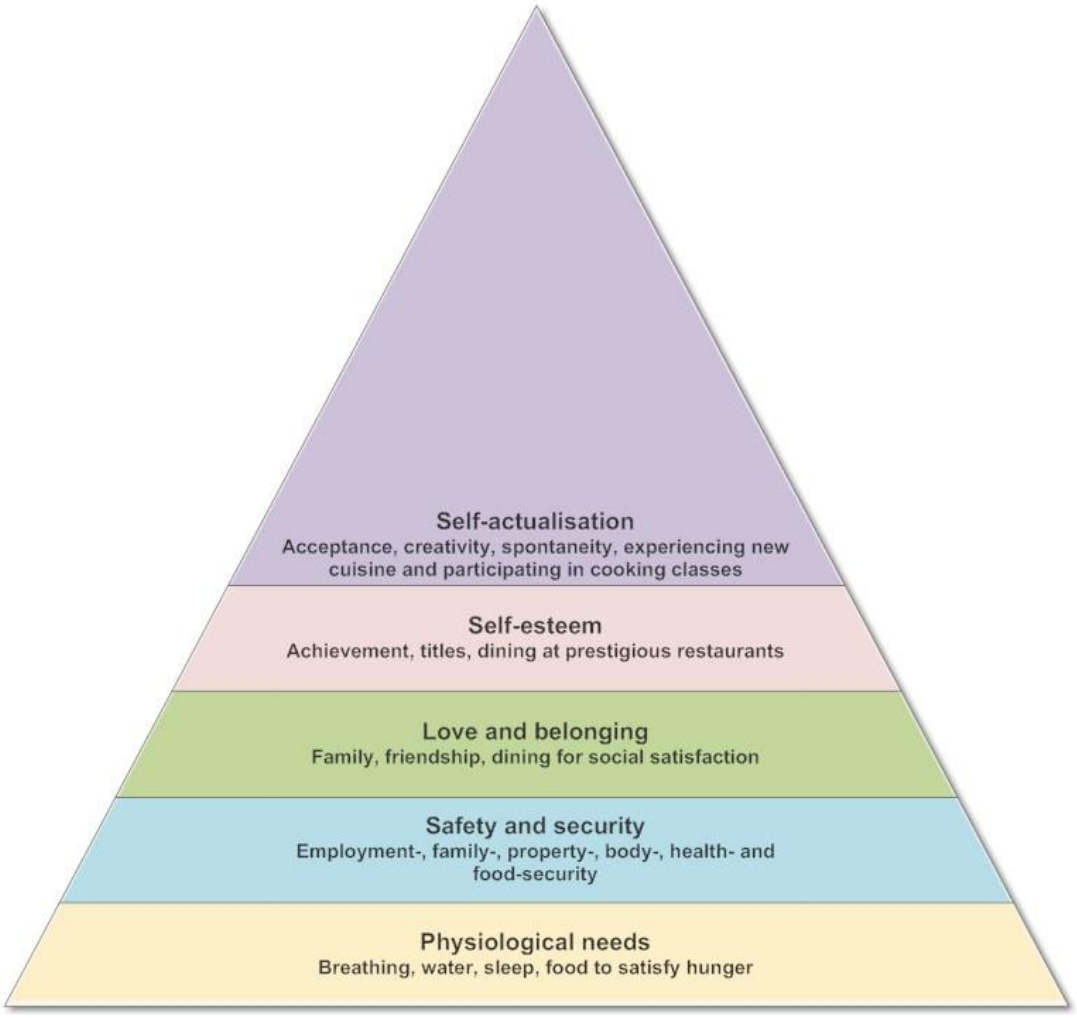

Figure 2.5: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Source: Adapted from Maslow (1943, 1971); Woods (1992:217-218); Fields (2002:39-40); Berger and Brownell (2009:299-300); Kim *et al.* (2009:427); Daniel *et al.* (2011:86, 90); Schantz (2011); Coughlan (2012:31-32); Kim and Eves (2012:1465); Blichfeldt and Halkier (2014:1599); Ellman (2014); Su (2015:18), and Pursuit of happiness (2016)

At the bottom of the hierarchy one finds a person's most basic needs, namely physiological needs. Physiological needs include breathing, water and sleep (Coughlan, 2012:31-32). Food is also part of this level of the hierarchy, as food is a basic need for survival. When an individual is hungry it is difficult to focus on or attain success in any other element in life until this basic need has been satisfied (Schantz, 2011). Examples of safety and security needs include security of employment, family, property, body and health (Pursuit of happiness, 2016). On this level, food safety may be of concern.

People at the love and belonging level of the hierarchy will be concerned with establishing and maintaining friendships. Dining facilitates the attainment of these social motivators, as

the experience is shared with strangers, family or friends (Ellman, 2014; Su, 2015:18). Self-esteem needs are achievement, titles and prestige in the eyes of others (Berger & Brownell, 2009:299-300; Woods, 1992:217-218). Various authors are in agreement that it is ego-enhancing to eat specific meals or to dine at specific restaurants (Fields, 2002:39-40; Kim *et al.*, 2009:427; Kim & Eves, 2012:1465; Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1599).

The four needs explained above, namely physiological needs, safety and security needs, love and belonging needs and self-esteem needs, are called deficiency needs or D-needs. A person may not notice if these needs are met, but feels nervous if these needs are not met (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2009:72). The final need in the hierarchy is called self-actualisation. It occurs when a person aims to be all that she or he can be in an all-encompassing sense. A self-actualised person has attained a self-perceived level of spiritual, material and personal serenity (Tesone, 2010:285). Daniel *et al.* (2011:86 & 90) utilised the hierarchy as a theoretical framework for understanding the effect of cooking on those who cook for pleasure. The authors state that for Maslow (1971), self-actualisation has to do with daring and the willingness to experience new things. They found that cooking is an opportunity to do just that, as interviewees improvised, tried new recipes and made up new experiences for themselves and others. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that people experiencing new cuisines and participating in cooking classes are on the highest level of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy.

Satter (2007:S187) applied Maslow's principles to food management and developed Satter's hierarchy of food needs. At the bottom of the proposed hierarchy is "enough food", on the next level is "acceptable food", followed by "reliable, ongoing access to food", then "good-tasting food", "novel food" and lastly "instrumental food". The author suggests that the need from each level must be satisfied before the higher level can be addressed.

Tikkanen (2007:721 & 730-731), in turn, specifically used Maslow's (1943) hierarchy to explain which sectors of food tourism satisfy each level of needs as depicted in Figure 2.6. According to the author, physiological needs are related to the food itself and are the main motivation for food tourism. Safety needs motivates people to participate in food safety conferences, and satisfying social needs motivates tourists to participate in food events. The author also argues that esteem needs are satisfied by culinary tourism, as tourists

experience new tastes of new cultures. Lastly, self-actualisation is achieved when trade fairs and culinary conferences are attended, as it increases food knowledge and competence, which in turn increases self-respect.

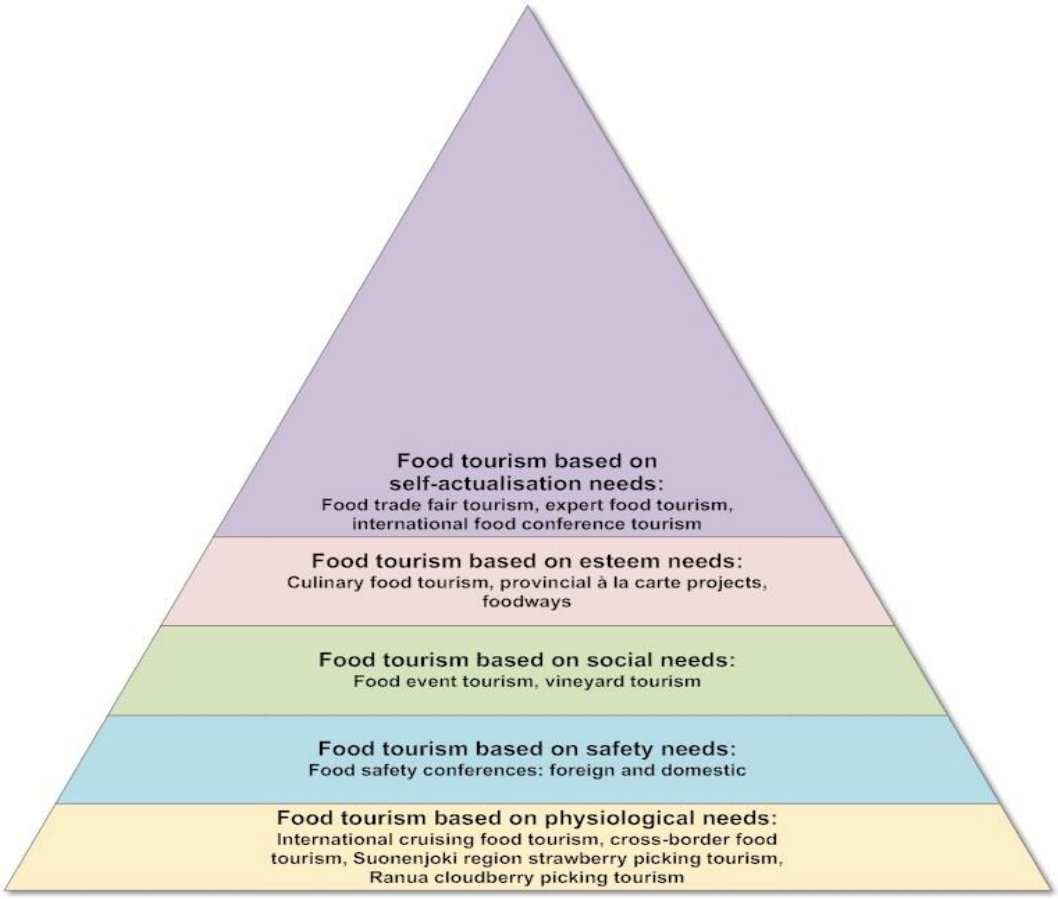

Figure 2.6: Sectors of food tourism in Finland classified by the hierarchy of needs

Source: Tikkanen (2007:731)

Maslow (1943) has been criticised for stating that only 2% of people ever achieve self-actualisation. His methodology included reading about certain individuals, talking to them and eventually drawing conclusions about what self-actualisation is. Maslow (1943), however, understood that this was a limitation and hoped that other researchers would complete the work he had begun (Boeree, 1998:9). Researchers have argued that Maslow's (1943) theory does not correspond with facts (Ventegodt, Merrick & Andersen, 2003:1055), and Boeree (1998:9) stated that many people have achieved self-actualisation in some form without all their lower order needs having been met, for example Rembrandt and Galileo, who both suffered from poverty.

b) Push-and-pull theory of motivation

When attempting to understand what motivates tourists, researchers must also consider push and pull factors (Tangeland *et al.*, 2013:272). According to Hudson (1999:9), these push and pull factors can be linked to Maslow's list of needs. The push-and-pull theory is mainly attributed to Dann (1977, 1981) and Crompton (1979). Furthermore, it has been stated that the push and pull motives can also be defined as Gray's (1970) "sunlust" and "wanderlust" which Plog (1987) developed further (Crompton, 1979:410; Seebaluck, Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurrun & Mungur, 2013:148; Hall, 2015).

Sunlust (pull factor) describes trips that are motivated by a person's desire to experience better or different amenities than are present in their normal environment. It is sometimes literally the search for the sun. Wanderlust (push factor), on the other hand, describes that basic trait in human nature to yearn for the unknown and experience first-hand the different cultures, places, relics, ruins and monuments the world has to offer (Crompton, 1979:410-411; Prayag & Ryan, 2011:122; Seebaluck *et al.*, 2013:148).

Crompton (1979) identified nine motives for travel. Seven motives were socio-psychological or push motives and two were cultural or pull motives (Hudson, 1999:9; Kay, 2003:608). The pull motives were education and novelty and the push motives were relaxation, escape from a routine environment, exploration and evaluation of self, prestige, facilitation of social interaction and enhancement of kinship relationships (Crompton, 1979:416 & 419).

According to Updhyay and Sharma (2014:30), push and pull factors encapsulate factors that affect the destination choices of tourists and motivate tourists to travel to destinations. Dann (1977:186), Hudson (1999:9) and Lam and Hsu (2004:465) state that push factors prompt people to travel, while pull factors attract people to a specific destination once they have made the decision to travel.

Fields (2002:36-37) argued that cuisine can simultaneously push people away from their familiar foods and eating patterns and pull them towards novel and exciting foods. Kivela and Crotts (2006:355) stated that the consumption of food is a pleasurable sensory experience. This pleasure factor is a pull factor and a marketing tool that must not be underestimated.

Sparks (2007:1185 & 1188-1189) conducted wine tourism research in an Australian sample. The results of the study indicated the presence of three key wine tourism factors based on expectancy-value beliefs. The author states that the three factors can be considered within the push-and-pull motivational framework. One of the factors, personal self-development, can be seen as a push motivator, whereas the core wine experience and destination experience are pull factors. The factors were good predictors of emotional attitude to wine tourism and there is evidence to suggest the push-and-pull wine tourism beliefs are linked to the formation of an attitude to participate in wine tourism.

Sparks (2007:1190-1191) also made some recommendations based on the framework. These included alerting potential tourists to the opportunity for personal development, as this can assist in nurturing tourists' push motivation toward wine tourism. Another recommendation is marketing images that highlight the uniqueness of the destination, as well as images that evoke indulgence and a sense of the undiscovered. This focus on the destination experience factor would pull tourists to the wine region. Lastly, the author recommended focusing on the core wine experience by accentuating the unique opportunities to meet wine makers and taste their wine to further pull tourists to the region.

Although there is no consensus regarding the best way to study consumer or tourist motivation (Kay, 2003:609), theories from different fields can be integrated to achieve the study objective (Kim & Eves, 2012:1466). The motivational theories discussed could assist in explaining tourists' decision-making. More importantly, these theories give insight into tourists' culinary decisions. The hierarchy of needs theory illustrates that, depending on the situation in which tourists find themselves, they have different motives for consuming food and beverages. Likewise, the push-and-pull theory gives insight into the factors on which destinations can focus in order to satisfy the culinary needs and preferences of tourists.

2.4.1.3 Tourists' culinary frameworks and models

Linking to the theories discussed, frameworks and models have been developed to specifically explain what motives lead to tourists' food consumption.

a) Drivers of culinary-tourism demand framework

Fields (2002:36-41) endeavoured to establish a framework for the drivers of culinary-tourism demand. Ultimately the question he aimed to answer was: what food-related motivations make people want to travel?

The starting point for Fields' (2002) investigation into the nature of demand for the culinary-tourism product was the motivation that tourists have to visit destinations and experience their cuisine (push and pull factors). Fields (2002:37) analysed the different motivational factors underlying the growth in culinary tourism, which he defined as being the "reflexive consumption of gastronomic experiences by tourists". Although it is recognised that types of tourism motivators are as numerous as tourists themselves, Fields (2002) examined how cuisine could be placed as a motivator in McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie's (1995) four categories of motivation, namely: physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators and status and prestige motivators.

- **Physical motivators**

Tourists may be motivated by physical experience while on holiday. Eating is a physical act and food is experienced through taste, sight and smell. The physical need behind trips to health farms, for example, may be a change in diet or the reduction of calories. Similarly, many destinations offer cuisine that is claimed to have positive impacts on health and physical condition. The appeal of such health benefits as a marketing tool should not be underestimated given the developed world's increasing concern with health.

- **Cultural motivators**

Food has always been a key element of the culture of any society. Cultural motivators are significant push factors for the growth of gastronomy and tourism in general. Fields (2002) asks what better way there can be to experience a new culture than through experiencing their local cuisine.

Many researchers have identified the search for authenticity as being central to tourism motivation, and gastronomy offers the perfect opportunity to authentically experience other cultures. Some tourism providers try to meet tourists' demand for traditional and

authentic food, while others attempt to offer altered “authentic” meals in order to meet tourists’ expectations of the dishes.

- **Interpersonal motivators**

Although there are individual travellers, most people travel in social groups. Sharing the travel and culinary experience adds pleasure to the occasion. Due to the change in the context of food consumption, holiday meals can potentially strengthen existing social bonds. At home, families might not dine together, often due to the pace of living, while on holiday more opportunities for communal dining exists. Food and beverages can also ease social interactions, even among strangers. Sundowner arrangements are prevalent in many tour packages and gala dinners or functions form part of most conferences and cruises. Club Med sells all-in holiday packages and creates a feeling of community by mixing groups during meals.

- **Status and prestige motivators**

Status and prestige form an important part of the culinary domain. Chefs and restaurants pursue Michelin stars, while some tourists collect starred attractions from the Michelin guide. Class boundaries are less distinct than ever and have placed more emphasis on lifestyle choices as an expression of status and individual identity. Culinary tourism has become an important part of the lifestyle of the new middle class and holiday destinations with distinctive cuisine are being selected in order to demonstrate the taste and therefore status of the tourist. Modern status-conscious tourists are likely to seek out traditional and local food not supplied in mass tourism resorts. Finding that “hidden” local restaurant is the goal for many tourists. A paradox can be created, however, as telling others about the experience can be status enhancing, but at the same time others will become aware of the restaurant and the distinctiveness is destroyed. Only the affluent can afford to travel great distances to taste the fruits of poverty.

After the holiday, only memories remain. These may be pleasant or unpleasant. Consider the embarrassment of wrong dishes ordered due to miscommunication. Avoiding this social embarrassment may be why many tourists stick to familiar and safe foods while travelling.

Kim *et al.* (2009:424) criticised Fields' (2002) framework, stating that it did not provide any new evidence to support the four categories for culinary tourism and was limited to existing literature. Empirical research has since been conducted based on Fields' (2002) framework. Su (2015:15-18) conducted qualitative research in China in order to explore motivational factors for local food and tourists' food preferences. The author states that motivational factors for food consumption can have a considerable effect on tourists' choices and behaviours. The research findings indicate the importance of experiencing the local culture through their food and sharing the experience with others.

b) Theoretical tourist food-consumption model

Mak *et al.* (2012:934-935) consolidated tourism, food consumption and sociological research to identify factors affecting tourist food consumption. The authors built on the food-preference model of Randall and Sanjur (1981) by classifying the factors affecting food consumption by tourists into the areas of the tourist, the food at the destination and the destination environment, as can be seen in Figure 2.7. The authors recognise that the list of factors they include is not exhaustive.

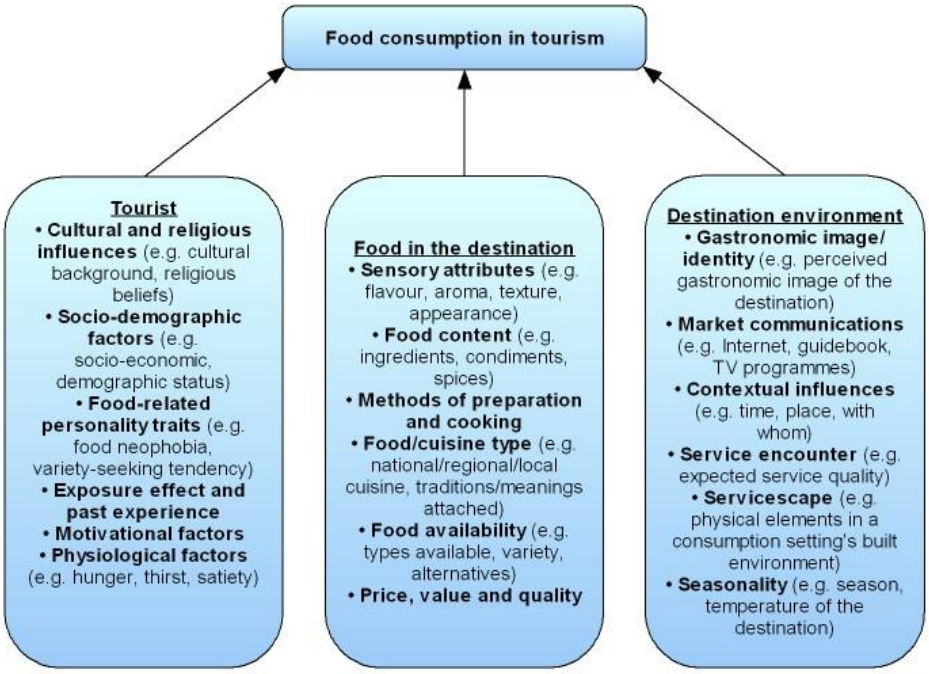

Figure 2.7: Factors affecting food consumption in tourism (adapted from a theoretical model for the study of food preferences by Randall and Sanjur (1981))

Source: Mak *et al.* (2012:930)

In addition, on the basis of their literature review, the authors propose five socio-cultural and psychological factors that are interrelated and influence food consumption (Figure 2.8). The factors are: cultural and religious influences, socio-demographic factors, motivational factors, food-related personality traits and exposure effect or past experience. Since the framework is theoretical, the validity and usability have not been guaranteed.

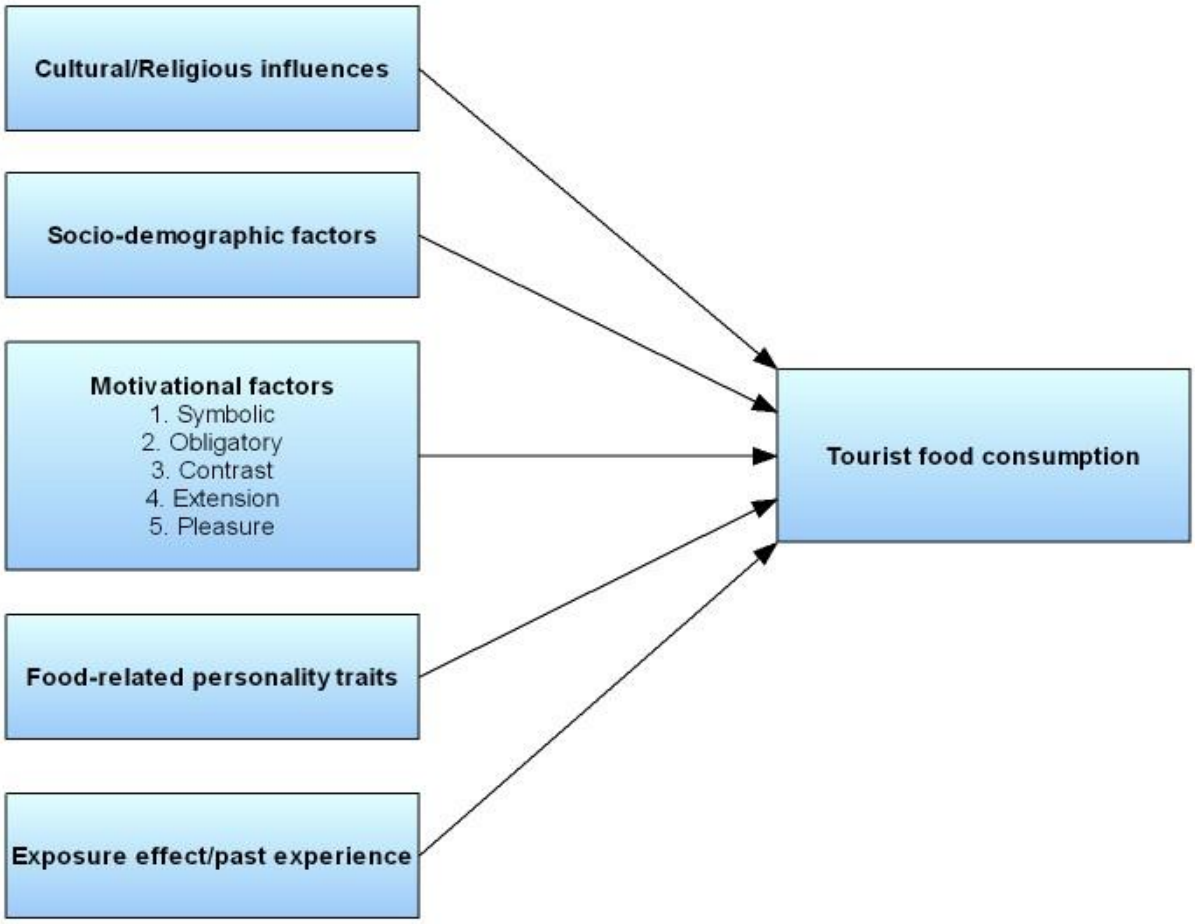

Figure 2.8: Factors influencing tourist food consumption

Source: Mak *et al.* (2012:934)

c) Local food consumption model

Kim *et al.* (2009:424-425 & 429) determined factors that influence the consumption of local food and beverages while on holiday. The authors also constructed a research model of travel motivations related to local food on the basis of existing literature and the results of their study. The aim was to obtain insight into the experiences of the respondents in their own words. A grounded theory approach was therefore used to collect the data by means of

individual interviews. Individuals who had taken a holiday in the past six months and consumed local food at their holiday destinations were interviewed.

The findings of the surveys were classified into three categories, namely motivational factors, demographic factors and physiological factors. The variables included in each factor are illustrated in Figure 2.9. The authors state that the classification was forced into a model of factors influencing food preferences and choices from Khan's (1981) perspective, which integrated psychological, biological and social effects.

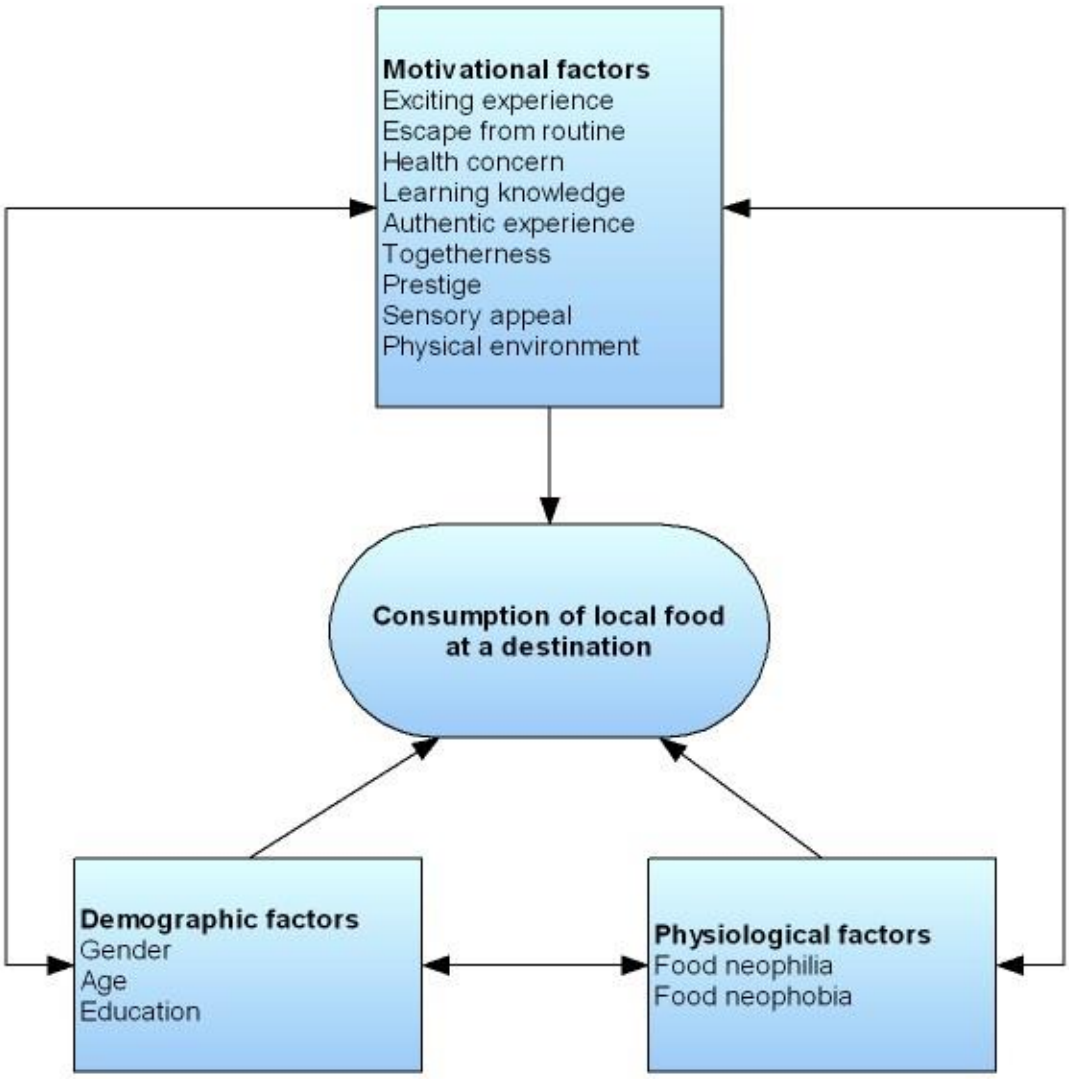

Figure 2.9: Consumption of local food at a holiday destination

Source: Kim *et al.* (2009:429)

Kim and Eves (2012:1458-1459, 1461-1462 & 1464-1466) aimed to develop a measurement scale that could be used to determine tourist motivation to taste local culinary offerings. The measurement scale was based on an extensive tourism and food literature review, including the work done by Fields (2002) and Kim *et al.* (2009), which has been discussed. Their study represents one of the first empirical efforts to propose motivational factors that encourage tourists to consume local food while on holiday.

The authors state that although Kim *et al.* (2009) did not classify their nine motivations into Fields' (2002) four categories, some of these motivations can be grouped. They proposed a mix of nominated constructs based on the work by Fields (2002) and Kim *et al* (2009) work. Thirty-seven measurement items were generated from the literature review. The items were refined by five academic faculty members to include 31 items grouped under the following constructs: exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, cultural experience, togetherness, prestige and sensory appeal. The 31-item measurement scale was presented to a convenience sample of 63 people who, in the preceding three months, had experienced local food at a holiday destination. The results were analysed by conducting an exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha (α), and 28 items remained in the following six constructs: cultural experience, excitement, sensory appeal, health concern, prestige and togetherness.

The refined measurement instrument was given to a study sample of 269 British tourists in South Korea who had eaten local food. The items were measured using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). During the final factor extraction process, another two items fell away, leaving 26 items. Further data collection was carried out among British tourists in Spain and the UK in order to test reliability and validity. The final scale comprised 26 items in the constructs: cultural experience, excitement, sensory appeal, health concern and interpersonal relations. The main limitation from their research was that the study sample was limited to the British population only, raising questions of generalisability.

The discussed framework and models all contribute to the understanding of what influences the decision of tourists to consume certain dishes and beverages while travelling. The importance of motivation is highlighted in the framework and models and, as has been

discussed, motivation is a complex construct. Not to be forgotten is the influence of the available food at the destination and other external influences.

Having considered theories, frameworks and models that assist in the analyses of the culinary preferences of tourists, the specific determinants of culinary preferences become the point of focus. Some of the determinants are based on the theories, frameworks and models discussed, while others are based on additional literature.

2.4.2 **Determinants of culinary preferences**

"A piece of bread, an apple and a piece of cheese. As long as our attitude insists that: The bread is good and fresh, the apple is ripe and the cheese mature, and we have the sense or wisdom to know that they are so. If we can add to this simple meal, a glass of wine and find a friend to share it with us, all of the important factors of gastronomy have been satisfied" (Bode, 1994:198, cited by Fields, 2002:40). The author's eloquent summary of - as he puts it – "all of the important factors of gastronomy" just scratches the tip of the iceberg of the determinants that influence culinary preferences.

Figure 1.1 (in Chapter 1) illustrates a conceptual framework of tourists' culinary preferences. Many categories of determinants have been offered in the literature, but for the purposes of this study three categories are proposed, namely: socio-demographic, behavioural and external. A discussion of each category of determinants follows (each determinant being stated in bold when first addressed).

2.4.2.1 Socio-demographic determinants

Socio-demographic variables include religion and culture, intolerances and allergies, nationality, income, occupation, education, gender and age. **Age** has been found by some to be a slightly insignificant determinant of culinary preferences (Devi *et al.*, 2015:117-118), while others have indicated the opposite (Steptoe, Pollard & Wardle, 1995:277; Wądołowska *et al.*, 2008:132; Mak *et al.*, 2012:931; Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2015). According to Manolis (2010), most culinary tourists are aged 30 to 50. Aquilani *et al.* (2015:219) found individuals aged between 42 and 49 years to be more likely to drink craft beer than individuals aged between 18 and 25 years. Ayo *et al.* (2012:6575), in turn, found an increase in age to be related to a decrease in fast-food consumption in Uganda, possibly

due to older individuals' preference for healthier food. Similarly, Kim *et al.* (2009:429) found individuals of a mature age to be more concerned with health and to have a desire to understand and experience foreign cultures through culinary experiences. In contrast, in an Italian population, respondents over the age of 65 were much less likely to try new foods than their younger counterparts (D'Antuono & Bignami, 2012:3). In Hong Kong and Australia, though, tourists considering themselves to be culinary tourists tended to be younger respondents, while non-culinary tourists were mainly older tourists (McKercher *et al.*, 2008:142; Robinson & Getz, 2014:696).

In the same Hong Kong study, no differences were found in the **gender** profile of tourists across different culinary-tourism segments (McKercher *et al.*, 2008:142). Other researchers who found similar results include Ayo *et al.* (2012:6575), Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:240), and Devi *et al.* (2015:117-118). Opposing the statement that gender and culinary preferences are unrelated, Steptoe *et al.* (1995:276-277), Amuquandoh (2011:3), Mak *et al.* (2012:931) and Robinson and Getz (2014:696) declare that a definite relationship exists.

Differences in the eating habits of men and women are present in many countries. Women are often known to be more nutrition conscious than men (Wądołowska *et al.*, 2008:132; Amuquandoh, 2011:3), and have been found to be especially excited and interested in tasting local food while on holiday (Kim *et al.*, 2009:429; D'Antuono & Bignami, 2012:6). This contradicts the findings by Ryu and Han (2010:496 & 502) who stated under 2.4.1.1.a, as the authors found male tourists more willing to try local cuisine.

Further differences in culinary preferences could result from the **educational level** of men and women (Wądołowska *et al.*, 2008:132; Ayo *et al.*, 2012:6575). In Fiji, educational level was the only variable significantly contributing to and explaining a variance in consumers' culinary preferences (Devi *et al.*, 2015:117-118). Education encourages a different set of beliefs among individuals (Worsley, 2002:583). Tourists with a higher educational level have been found to be more concerned with learning about cultures and the healthiness of culinary items (Kim *et al.*, 2009:429) and have been more open to trying new foods (D'Antuono & Bignami, 2012:3). However, education does not necessarily always affect the

importance of food during a trip (McKercher *et al.*, 2008:142; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:240).

Education relates to **occupation**, which was found not to influence culinary preferences in Uganda (Ayo *et al.*, 2012:6575) or Fiji (Devi *et al.*, 2015:117-118). Yet in Taiwan, Li and Houston (2001:103) found occupation to influence the likelihood that respondents would choose to purchase from the traditional vegetable market. Also, in Turkey, Topcu (2015:37) found occupation to have an effect on ice cream consumption. Lastly, Manolis (2010) states that culinary tourists tend to be professionals.

Occupation may influence the **income** an individual receives, which has been found to be a determinant of culinary preferences (Steptoe *et al.*, 1995:277; Ayo *et al.*, 2012:6575). Surprisingly though, income has been slightly insignificant in some consumer culinary-preference studies (Devi *et al.*, 2015:117-118).

The income people receive differs greatly from one country to another. Likewise, the culinary preferences of individuals of differing **nationalities** are a point of interest. Tourists from North America, Europe and Scandinavia have been found to be concerned with the availability of information on traditional foods in Ghana. Amuquandoh (2011:7) attributes this to the fact that most tourists from these countries may travel in search of new foods to try. On the other hand, Asian tourists have been found to shun new foods, preferring their own foods (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:775). This means that they will be averse to visiting a destination unless it features restaurants serving their national cuisine. Telfer and Wall (2000:440) put forward that Asian tourists in Indonesia may consume more local culinary items at the destination, while European tourists may prefer more imported western food. What should be noted, however, is that Indonesian local food may be quite similar to the Asian tourists' home country food, thus not indicating that these tourists were by any means more adventurous in their culinary preferences when compared to European tourists.

In addition to the above-mentioned conservative Asian tourists, American tourists have also been found to be conservative in their culinary preferences. They were less likely to try out local foods than non-American tourists in the Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico (Torres, 2002:300). These findings led the author to suggest that there is better potential for promoting local

cuisine to non-American tourists. Conversely, Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:240) found no relationship between the importance of food during the trip and nationality. These contradicting statements lead to the question: is it advisable to market culinary offerings in a different manner to different nationalities?

One could also ask whether it is worthwhile to increase the availability of food and beverages that appeal to certain nationalities, **cultures and religions**. Authors have often documented that culinary preferences are influenced by cultural dislikes for certain foods and dietary laws in religion (Steptoe *et al.* 1995:268; Chang *et al.*, 2010:991; Horng & Tsai, 2010:80; Amuquandoh, 2011:7-8; Falguera *et al.*, 2012:275; Mak *et al.*, 2012:931). What is considered unacceptable food in one culture may be considered delicious in another culture. For example, raw fish is enjoyed by most Japanese, but considered unhealthy by most Chinese (Su, 2015:16).

International tourists in Ghana have voiced concerns about traditional foods. They were particularly concerned about being served unknown meat that could be culturally unacceptable (Amuquandoh, 2011:4). Similarly, Israelis departing for Asia are commonly concerned that they may not find anything they are willing to eat there. Some of them even take along basic foodstuffs, such as instant meals and crackers. A number of these concerns and precautions are attributed to culturally unacceptable food such as cat, dog and reptile meat, as well as the Jewish dietary laws known as Kashrut or kosher (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:760). All Orthodox and some Liberal Jews follow these dietary laws. Jewish dietary laws include the following: only meat from kosher animals is permitted; the meat is permitted only if the animal was slaughtered in the prescribed manner; and meat and dairy may not be consumed simultaneously (Hattingh, 2015:127-129).

Muslims, on the other hand, consume food that is referred to as halal. Halal foods are poultry, fish, fruit, vegetables, all grains, and meat slaughtered in the prescribed manner. No shellfish, pork or alcohol is allowed (Horng & Tsai, 2010:80; Hattingh, 2015:130). Hindus also generally restrict or avoid alcohol, but are mostly vegetarian, some consuming dairy products. Some Hindus consume white fish, lamb and chicken on some non-vegetarian days. As the cow is considered a sacred animal, many orthodox Hindus do not consume beef products. Many Hindus also do not consume pork products, because pigs are considered

unclean. Furthermore, eggs are avoided by some Hindus, due to their potential source of life (Hattingh, 2015:132).

Not only Hindus are vegetarians. Some individuals prefer a vegetarian diet due to health concerns or their concern for animal rights. Vegetarianism refers to a range of diets that excludes meats and in certain instances other animal products (Hattingh, 2015:133). However, it should be noted that in Thailand and Japan, seafood is considered vegetarian (Horng & Tsai, 2010:80). There are many vegetarian variations, the strictest of which is veganism. Vegans eat only plant foods, while lacto-vegetarians include dairy products; ovo-vegetarians include eggs; and lacto-ovo vegetarians eat plant products, dairy products and eggs. Most vegetarians are lacto-ovo vegetarians (Hattingh, 2015:133). Quan and Wang (2004:302) state that learning about the cultural and religious differences in tourists' eating habits could assist in improving food service and the customer satisfaction of tourists. Information regarding culture and religion-orientated culinary offerings should also be made available to tourists. Taiwan's website offers information on vegetarian food only in Chinese, whereas Thailand's website has information available in both Chinese and English. Korea even has a dedicated vegetarian website, showcasing vegetarian, Muslim and Indian restaurants (Horng and Tsai, 2010:80).

Lastly, it is important to note that **intolerances and allergies** influence culinary preferences (Packaged Facts, 2014; Sloan, 2015). Recent studies indicate that there has been a marked increase in the prevalence of food allergies. There are many possible factors that may cause a person to develop an allergy, such as genetics, changes in what is consumed, the global focus on food hygiene and other environmental factors (Allergy UK, 2015). Whereas a food allergy causes an immune system reaction that affects numerous organs and can be life-threatening, a food intolerance is generally less serious and mainly limited to digestive problems. Food intolerances can be caused by the absence of an enzyme needed to fully digest the food, irritable bowel syndrome, food poisoning, sensitivity to food additives, recurring stress or psychological factors or celiac disease (Li, 2014).

2.4.2.2 Behavioural determinants

The link between a person's behavioural determinants and their culinary preferences requires investigation. Behavioural determinants include past experience, the need for self-

development, social influences, travel experience and frequency of travel, desire for an authentic food experience, type of tourist, personality, lifestyle, and taste. An individual's **taste** has an effect on their culinary preferences (Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:1), and, according to Kittler and Sucher (2004:202) and Updyay and Sharma (2014:35), dominates the dietary domain of tourists. Tourists in India have indicated that Indian cuisine was spicy, hot and unpalatable and consequently did not accommodate their tastes (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:144). Batra (2008:12 & 16) found that international tourists in Bangkok indicated that their taste was an important factor influencing their preference for dining at ethnic restaurants. Interestingly, the taste of food had a larger influence on the culinary preferences of Asian than Western tourists.

The **lifestyles** of tourists may also determine the culinary decisions made while on holiday (trends that impact on individuals' lifestyles, such as eating organic food, are discussed under 2.4.2.3 - external determinants of culinary preferences). Culinary preferences are often influenced by weight (Steptoe *et al.*, 1995:268) and health preoccupations (Chang *et al.*, 2010:991; Amuquandoh, 2011:3; Falguera *et al.*, 2012:275). Some people pursue a healthy lifestyle, and a health concern has been found to be a central motivational factor determining tourists' interest in local food and beverages. Some tourists believe local foods made with local ingredients are fresher and could improve their health (Kim *et al.*, 2009:426). The local food in India has been largely perceived to be detrimental to the health and well-being of tourists, preventing tourists from sampling the food (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:145).

People endeavour to improve their health by following specific diets focusing on a life-long healthy lifestyle or weight loss. Currently, a widespread interest in diets exists. The best-known diets are the Dukan diet in France, the New Atkins diet in America and the Noakes diet (or banting) in South Africa (Opie, 2014:298). Some destinations offer cuisine claiming to have a positive impact on health. These include the Mediterranean diet in Greece and Italy and the Atlantic diet in Portugal (Fields, 2002:38).

Not only chosen lifestyles, but also the different **types of tourists** influence culinary preferences. Torres (2002:285 & 300) describes types of tourists ranging from being flexible and adventurous to being highly organised and conservative mass tourists. The variety of

foods demanded by tourists, especially concerning local versus imported foods, has been found to be closely linked to the type of tourist. The author found in her study that adventurous tourists valued access to the local Yucatec food considerably more than mass tourists did. Similarly, Cohen and Avieli (2004:773-774) state that recreational tourists (tourists mainly seeking to relax) tend to show predominantly neophobic tendencies by consuming familiar food and beverages, while experiential tourists will be interested in local food, showing neophilic tendencies.

Food neophobia is a food-related **personality** trait that influences tourists' food consumption (Mak *et al.*, 2012:931-932). Food neophobia is perceived as both personality and behaviour related (Kim *et al.*, 2009:428), and the concept has also been referred to as familiarity related (Steptoe *et al.*, 1995:281). Neophobic individuals tend to avoid novel and unfamiliar food, while neophilic individuals are attracted to novel foods (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1599). Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968) and Mak *et al.* (2012:933) state that, based on this concept, persons commonly prefer foods with which they are familiar.

Mak *et al.* (2012:931) also state that **past experience** influences tourists' food consumption. This is reiterated in the literature (Chang *et al.*, 2010:991; Amuquandoh, 2011:3; Falguera *et al.*, 2012:275). It could be an experience as simple as eating similar or stereotyped food in their home country (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:141). Respondents in the study by Kim *et al.* (2009:425 & 427) mentioned that eating local food for the first time was a really exciting experience. The respondents enjoyed comparing food and beverages that they have had before with those same food and beverages consumed in the country of origin. Furthermore, the **travel experience** and **frequency of travel** might broaden the horizons of individuals beyond their general past experience. A question of interest is whether tourists' scope of international travel influences their culinary preferences. For example, if a person travels frequently, but all the trips are to the same or similar locations, they have to be considered to have less significant travel experience compared to a person who has travelled to numerous international destinations.

McKercher *et al.* (2008:142) found people classifying themselves as non-culinary tourists to be mainly first-time tourists, whereas definite culinary tourists were repeat visitors. The less experienced traveller may seek comfort in familiar foods when at an unfamiliar holiday

destination (Fields, 2002:40). Conversely, food neophobia has been found to be lower in people who have travel experience (D'Antuono & Bignami, 2012:3), and the well-travelled are more willing to try local cuisine (Ryu & Jang, 2006:513).

The **desire for an authentic experience of food** has been stated to be an attribute influencing tourists' food-consumption decisions (Burusnukul *et al.*, 2011:968). In Su's (2015:18) study, Chinese tourists were found to enjoy the local food of the destinations they visit. These Chinese group tourists may even request tour guides to arrange local dining activities.

Regarding these **social influences**, the respondents considered the tasting of local food to be an opportunity to meet with their family and others. Socialising and togetherness enriched their experience and was desirable while travelling. Kim *et al.* (2009:427) and Kim and Eves (2012:1465) state that this theme reveals that local food experience has a role in ego enhancement and self-satisfaction. Fields (2002:39-40) agrees with this statement, stating that "eating in the 'right' restaurant and being seen to eat there has always been an important means of drawing status distinctions". Social status was also found to be an important motivating factor for visiting a mussel festival, and respondents indicated that the festival drew people together (Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014:1599). A main predictor of Setswana food consumption behaviour has been found to be the presence of others (Chatibura, 2015:218).

Reference groups have also been found to be influential in deciding to travel to a wine region for tourism purposes (Sparks, 2007:1190). However, McKercher *et al.* (2008:142) found no difference in the travel party size of tourists across different culinary-tourism segments, perhaps indicating the social element to be less important in their study. Another social influence could be the ratings on travelogues such as TripAdvisor. This can certainly be imagined, as TripAdvisor has 340 million users and four million listed restaurants (Smith, 2016).

South African Tourism (2016a) states that the only thing that "foodies" love more than food itself, is food for thought. The need for **self-development** may ultimately influence tourists' culinary preferences. Cooking classes and trade shows in tourist destinations are popular as

people feel the need to be creative and better themselves. These occasions give them the opportunity to do just that (Tikkanen, 2007:731; Daniel *et al.*, 2011:90).

The last behavioural determinants to note are physiological factors, such as hunger, thirst and mood. Although these determinants most certainly influence food-consumption decisions (Steptoe *et al.*, 1995:280; Mak *et al.*, 2012:929), they are fleeting. These determinants are therefore not relevant in the culinary preferences on an overall trip, as mood, hunger and thirst would have varied across the moments (Fields, 2002:39-40; Kim *et al.*, 2009:427; Kim & Eves, 2012:1465) and days of the trip.

2.4.2.3 External determinants

Determinants of culinary preferences in the external environment include hygiene perception, availability, quality and variety, dining establishments, affordability, communication gap, trends and marketing. Tourists' culinary-image perception of a destination can help destinations decide which **marketing** programme to establish in order to appeal to potential tourists. For example, it has been found that specific culinary products are crucial to create a unique food image that would help a destination create its niche market. France and Italy have successfully established themselves as "lands of wine", drawing millions of tourists for food and wine tours. Canada and Australia are following suit, working hard to create their food and wine image, eager to become leading food destinations (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010:549-550).

Although many destinations and regions use food and beverages as a tourism marketing tool, these marketing efforts are often not optimised (Fields, 2002:36). Marketing strategies (or the lack thereof) employed at destinations could influence the culinary preferences of tourists. For example, international tourists in Ghana reported a lack of information available to identify assorted local foods, suspicion of being cheated, and difficulty in ordering local foods (Amuquandoh, 2011:4). This can be remedied, and Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:238) suggest it is necessary to make better use of internet marketing resources. According to Stanley and Stanley (2015:224), marketing should also be done via a wide range of communication tools.

Communication is a frequent cause of tourists avoiding local culinary establishments, even if they wish to visit them. They have difficulty in identifying and ordering local dishes (Cohen

& Avieli, 2004:764) and communicating with staff in general (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:145). This diminishes the culinary experience (Burusnukul *et al.*, 2011:968). Respondents in Batra's (2008:12 & 16) study indicated that an important factor influencing the decision to eat at ethnic restaurants in Bangkok was the language. Western respondents in particular stipulated that it was necessary to have the ingredients of the dishes listed in understandable English. Members of online travel communities and travel groups also value menus available in English in their decisions on the choice of a destination (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010:537 & 550).

Availability, quality and **variety** of food and beverages influence consumption (Rozin & Vollmecke, 1986:434 & 448; Steptoe *et al.*, 1995:268; Updyay & Sharma, 2014:35; Abraham & Kannan, 2015:144; Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:18). A study conducted in Cancun found that many tourists expressed a strong interest in trying local food, but did not feel that they had sufficient opportunity to do so (Torres, 2002:292). According to Torres (2002:293), research has revealed that hoteliers and restaurateurs sometimes refrain from making local food available to tourists on the assumption that they will not like it.

Cohen and Avieli (2004:773) state that while some tourists may indeed look for familiar food, they may select food of a higher quality and in larger quantities than they consume in their daily lives. The sensory appeal, involving smell, taste and appearance, is important in the decision-making process (Steptoe *et al.* 1995:280; Kim & Eves, 2012:1465). Updyay and Sharma (2014:35) found the quality of food to be the most important to foreign tourists in India. In another study, the higher respondents valued quality above other characteristics of beer, the more likely they were to prefer craft beer above commercial beer (Aquilani *et al.*, 2015:220). This illustrates the influence of quality not only in food, but also in beverage preferences.

This having been said, culinary preferences are largely determined by cost or **affordability** (Rozin & Vollmecke, 1986:434; Steptoe *et al.*, 1995:281; Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:18). A reasonable price for dining out is critical to entice tourists (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010:550), as where and what they eat will depend on their travel budget (Burusnukul *et al.*, 2011:968). Tourists may be suspicious of being cheated and overcharged and are often reluctant to enter an eatery patronised exclusively by locals. They may therefore do so only

when reassured by the presence of other tourists in the establishment (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:764).

Stanley and Stanley (2015:221) state that consumer trust is a key issue in culinary decisions. Since food safety regulations vary from one country to the next, tourists may have difficulty deciding if food is safe to consume (Burusnukul *et al.*, 2011:967). **Hygiene perception** has been found to influence tourists' confidence in food safety (Amuquandoh, 2011:3) and has been found to be a major challenge obstructing tourist motivation (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:144). Consumers are also willing to pay more to assure that food is safe (Wongprawmas & Canavari, 2015:18). Even when they do not suffer from neophobia, tourists are often hesitant to eat local food, out of health concern or disgust caused by its unhygienic appearance. Destination guidebooks can either set tourists at ease or make them warier of the safety of food and beverages. Tourists also tell stories about their unfortunate culinary experiences (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:762), tarnishing the reputation of destinations.

The international community has long questioned the wholesomeness of food from Africa (Amuquandoh, 2011:7). Amuquandoh (2011:2 & 4) found sanitation to be the main grey area in Ghana's culinary tourism. Tourists, particularly those travelling to developing countries, tend to avoid the consumption of certain local foods due to the fear of illness. Indeed, fear of illness may be the principal reason for tourists' suspicion of local foods, which may make them sick (Cohen & Avieli, 2004:761).

Not only the safety of the food itself, but also the cleanliness of restaurants seems to be key in tourists' decisions to consume local food and beverages (Kim *et al.*, 2009:428). Fields (2002:41) further states that if a **dining establishment** disappoints in its décor, lighting, air conditioning, acoustics, furnishing or the size and shape of the room they may spoil the entire experience of dining out. A pleasant atmosphere and good service are highly valued by tourists (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:237; Abraham & Kannan, 2015:145).

According to Convenience Store News (2014), key insights from a Culinary Visions Panel report include that consumers are also more likely to select dining establishments that support the community and treat their employees well. Parents also value establishments that can cater for their children, and families with children spend a significant amount of

money dining out (White Hutchinson, 2007; McDonald, 2014:41). Children have even been found to be moderately influential in choosing restaurants (Chen, Lehto, Behnke & Tang, 2013:10). Lastly, when choosing a restaurant, the location of a dining establishment is important, as many factors relating to the location may influence tourists' decision-making (Restaurant Engine, 2015; Argyle, 2016).

All these external determinants are linked to another determinant, namely **trends**. Armed with the latest guidebooks, some tourists are on the lookout for the trendiest destinations (Croce & Perri, 2010:45). Global trends in the culinary domain are numerous, and since they can alter behaviour, it is important to study them. Many of these trends can be summarised under the heading "mindful dining", which illustrates that consumers are aware that their dining decisions impact both their own health as well as the health of the environment (Stanton, 2015). A brief discussion of a number of trends follows:

- **Clean eating and whole food:** An aversion to food containing antibiotics, hormones and genetically modified organisms is increasingly demonstrated in society (Steptoe *et al.*, 1995:281; Stanton, 2015). This is closely linked to whole food. Whole food is defined as food that is considered healthy because it contains no artificial ingredients, has not been processed and is grown naturally (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2015).

- **Functional, organic and animal-welfare-oriented products:** Many consumers demand healthy food options (Getz, Robinson, Andersson & Vujicic, 2014:45), which has resulted in a growing number of functional food markets worldwide (Falguera *et al.*, 2012:276; Bigliardi & Galati, 2013:118-119 & 126). There are many terms and definitions for functional foods, most of them encapsulating the concepts of health benefits, the technological process the food underwent, and the nutritional function of the food item (Bigliardi & Galati, 2013:120-121). Individuals can use functional foods to incorporate nutrients that they do not consume through conventional foods in their diets, due to strict diets, intolerances or personal preferences. For example, lactose-intolerant individuals can drink calcium-fortified orange juice instead of obtaining the calcium through the consumption of dairy products. Due to societal changes and socio-demographic trends, it can be assumed that functional foods

represent a sustainable trend in the market (Bigliardi & Galati, 2013:125). The main motivation for the consumption of functional foods and organic products is the same, namely the potential health benefits (Falguera *et al.*, 2012:276-277). Nonetheless, the price difference between organic or functional foods and their conventional counterparts is often too great for consumers to change their food-consumption habits. De Jonge *et al.* (2015:96) found that most consumers are more willing to pay for animal-welfare-oriented production than for organic production. Still, Torres' (2002:301) study revealed a considerable demand for organic foods among all tourists. Organic products have been claimed to be more respectful to the environment than conventional products. Objective analyses of the environmental benefits of organic farming are, however, not so clear (Falguera *et al.*, 2012:277 & 280).

Napolitano *et al.* (2013:823-824) also found that consumers prefer organic items to conventional items, because of the potential positive effects of organic farming on product safety and quality. However, consumers did not have a preference between organic and conventional items when the decision was based purely on a blind tasting. This demonstrates the positive impact of information regarding organic farming techniques, including higher levels of animal welfare, a lower impact on the environment and product safety.

- **Rejection of low-cost mass-produced food:** Tourists are increasingly rejecting low-cost mass-produced food, opting for local and fresh food that reflects the authenticity of the destination. This trend has led to the failure of Starbucks in Australia, as the franchise is seen as lacking individuality (Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2015). This opinion is reiterated by Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie (2015:41), who state that global consumers aspire to find an alternative to the "sameness" of mass-produced food.

- **Buying local:** Food forms a crucial part of the "think globally, act locally" debate. Some tourists prefer supporting local businesses and protecting the environment by avoiding food that had to be transported vast distances (Barcelona Field Studies

Centre, 2015). Tourists may even expect menus to indicate exactly where the food originated (Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2015:41).

- **Environmental sustainability:** As is evident in the preceding trends, environmental sustainability is becoming increasingly important to consumers (Steptoe *et al.* 1995:282). Diners may even start requesting sustainably caught seafood or humanely raised meat (Stanton, 2015).

- **Trading up:** Wealthy consumers increasingly demand gourmet food, which influences what businesses choose to offer (Wahba, 2016). The growing riches of some populations have led to consumers spending more money on gourmet or prepared food and on eating out. They have traded up from buying food as a necessity to buying it for convenience, enjoyment and health (Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2015).

- **Celebrity chefs:** Celebrity chefs can shape tourism products in what has been referred to as the "Delia effect", as was illustrated by the 1.3 million additional eggs that were sold in Britain every day during which Delia Smith's TV series was running (Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2015). Tourists may prefer certain dishes or restaurants based on where their favourite chef cooks (Croce & Perri, 2010:45) or what their favourite chef has raved about. Governments realise this, as celebrity chef Alan Coxon was asked in 2014 to promote British food and drink around the world as part of the UK government's international GREAT Britain campaign (Food and Beverage Magazine, 2014).

- **Craft beer:** Craft beer was first produced in the seventies, and is now being sold by thousands and consumed by millions (Aquilani *et al.*, 2015:214; Elzinga, Tremblay & Tremblay, 2015:243). Craft beer has its own association, the Brewers Association, which, among other things, sponsors beer festivals, expos, conferences and even the World Beer Cup (Elzinga *et al.*, 2015:271). It has been found that the opinion on craft beer differs across cultures (Gómez-Corona, Lelievre-Desmas, Buendía, Chollet & Valentin, 2016:27). It has also been found that the majority of beer consumers who have tasted craft beer consider it to be of a higher quality than commercial beers (Aquilani *et al.*, 2015:220).

- **Garage wines:** A garagiste is "a small-scale entrepreneurial wine-maker, originally from the Bordeaux region of France, especially one who does not adhere to the traditions of wine-making" (Collins English Dictionary, 2015). The garagiste style generally includes the use of fewer sulphites and generally produces a fruitier wine that is higher in alcohol content (Gardner, 2014:143). Many believe that garage wines were a fad and that the style is not very fashionable any longer (Decanter, 2007). Nevertheless, a fair number of garage-wine enthusiasts remain (Ronco, 2015).

The successful outcome of a tourist visit depends largely on actors on the supply side having a thorough knowledge of the determinants of culinary preferences and consumer-purchasing behaviour (Croce & Perri, 2010:46). The decision process, such as deciding which food to consume or where to dine, will differ significantly between different segments of tourists (Hudson, 1999:29), thus the segmentation of tourists becomes a point of interest.

2.4.3 Taxonomies and typologies of tourists

The tourism market is made up of many different types of consumers (Croce & Perri, 2010:47). Segmentation is useful in identifying the characteristics of different types of consumers in the global tourism market (Molina, Gómez, González-Díaz & Esteban, 2015:210). A number of techniques have been utilised in the culinary-tourism domain in order to segment tourists. Typical taxonomies (segmentation based on empirical research) and typologies (conceptual segmentation) used to segment tourists based on their culinary involvement are discussed in this section (Jacić, 2015).

Hjalager (2004:195-197) outlined a theoretical tourism and gastronomy model that was inspired by the work of sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (1984). Sociology is about social constraints inducing preferences. According to the author, Bourdieu's (1984) work has affected tourism research at a theoretical level and is a stepping stone to understanding tourism lifestyles better. People are said to form part of one of four basic lifestyles based on their expressed tastes and self-determined preferences and behaviours. Hjalager (2004:198-199) also states that Dahl and Aagraard (1997) used Bourdieu's (1984) theories to show that the four lifestyles emphasise different values. People are grouped as existentialists, experimentalists, recreationalists and diversionaries. Hjalager (2004:199-200) notes that the tourism context creates new challenges for this segmentation typology. For example,

lifestyles across national borders are not identical and although the lifestyle of a person tends to be enduring, it is not static.

This having been said, there are also many practical implications of lifestyle segmentation for marketing decisions. For example, the recreational segment relies greatly on word of mouth and down-to-earth television personalities may be helpful when marketing to this segment. Fancy chefs will likely appeal only to the experimental segment. Brochures may appeal to the diversionary segment, whereas the existential segment finds information in extensive (literary) travel books and guides more reliable. Accordingly, Bourdieu's (1984) approach can be helpful in explaining why tourists' food habits cannot be treated uniformly, and why marketing strategies have to reflect the differences integrated into tourists' lifestyles.

Kivela and Crotts (2006:357-360 & 365) studied tourists at select Hong Kong restaurants. The authors used Hjalager's (2003, 2004) theoretical segmentation typology, accordingly stating that culinary tourists are either recreational, existential, diversionary or experimental. Recreational culinary tourists are conservative, seeking familiar food and beverages, and they do not regard food and beverages as important while on holiday. Diversionary culinary tourists actively seek familiar food and prefer quantity over quality. These tourists dislike exotic food and are likely to consult travel agents, tourist brochures and tour leaders. Lastly, for these tourists, sharing a beverage or meal is an excellent way to get together with others.

Existential culinary tourists actively seek opportunities to be involved in culinary activities, such as harvesting grapes and other fruits and vegetables, taking a cooking class or engaging with food producers. These tourists pay little attention to claims made by travel brochures. Finally, experimental tourists symbolise their lifestyle through food and beverages. They actively seek designer restaurants and keep up to date with the latest fashionable food. Prestige is gained by keeping up with culinary trends. To highlight: in this taxonomy, existential and experimental tourists take cuisine very seriously, with the consumption of good food being the main reason for their travels.

In another Hong Kong study, McKercher *et al.* (2008:141-142) categorised respondents into one of five food-tourist segments. The participants were categorised on the basis of their

response to the statement, “I would consider myself to be a culinary tourist, someone who travels to different places to try different foods”. The participants were categorised as being definite culinary tourists, likely culinary tourists, possible culinary tourists, unlikely culinary tourists, or non-culinary tourists.

Still in Asia, Updhyay and Sharma (2014:31 & 33-35) conducted a study on foreign tourists at restaurants in India in order to understand trends among them, with the aim of ensuring that efficient and effective marketing can be done. The authors state that the study of Kivela and Crotts (2006) partially supports their evoked segmentation structure. They segmented tourists into three groups on the basis of their preferences, namely localisation seekers, taste seekers and experience seekers. Localisation seekers enjoyed experiencing the local ingredients and dining etiquette and were value conscious. They comprised the largest number of tourists. Taste seekers were interested in cuisine, but indifferent to the cuisine’s traditional and historical connection. Variables relating to taste seekers were quality, method of cooking, ambience and taste. Experience seekers enjoyed learning about the historical connections of cuisine, appreciated the nutrition, aroma and flavour of meals and were concerned with hygiene and health.

According to Mack *et al.* (2009:4-7), an established approach to market segmentation is based on consumer values. Their list of values has been utilised in several tourism studies. The authors aimed to develop the profile of culinary tourists in terms of their most important social values and to compare their profile to that of general tourists. No significant differences in the social value structures of culinary tourists and general tourists were observed in Australia or America, but once the culinary-tourism segment was further divided into non-innovators and innovators, social value structures became useful. Culinary tourists were divided into innovators and non-innovators on the basis of culinary-tourism innovativeness items included in the survey. Innovators were those respondents who displayed the highest level of innovativeness. Culinary-tourist innovators in America rated values of excitement and warm relationships with others to be significantly more important to them than the non-innovators did. These aspects of the travel experience could easily be used as the focal point in destination marketing. These values could also be focused on during the actual consumer travel experience to enhance the attractiveness of new

destination offerings to those persons most likely to try them first - the innovators in the culinary-tourism market.

Kim, Duncan and Jai (2014:461 & 465-466) also conducted research in America. The authors studied attendees at an Oxford, Mississippi food festival. Tourists were segmented on the basis of their demographics, their satisfaction with the event and the nature of their visit to the festival, including the motivation for their attendance and their previous attendance. Apathetic attendees mainly stated that their purpose for attending the food festival was business or task related. These attendees reported medium levels of expenditure and the lowest levels of perceived value and satisfaction.

The largest segment was called satisfied spenders, as these tourists reported the highest satisfaction, perceived value and spending. The satisfied spenders were likely to have been motivated by experiencing the event and to have decided to attend the event at the previous year's food festival. Tentative tag-a-longs indicated perceived value and satisfaction levels that were between those of the apathetic attendees and satisfied spenders. Tentative tag-a-longs spent the least, were also mainly motivated by experiencing the event and had recently decided to attend.

Yun *et al.* (2011:2-5 & 9-10), like Kim *et al.* (2014), were of the opinion that the past should be taken into consideration when studying tourists. Respondents were individuals who had requested a visitor information package from Tourism Prince Edward Island (Canada). Culinary tourists were segmented on the basis of their past culinary experiences at travel destinations. The authors used two different segmentation techniques to categorise taxonomies of culinary tourists. For the first segmentation, an analysis was performed on the basis of past culinary experiences. The analysis considered participation in 13 food-related activities and whether these activities had served as motivation for travel over the preceding two years. Firstly, respondents were categorised into two groups on the basis of whether the food-related activities were their primary reasons for travel. The group for whom food-related activities served as travel motivator was termed to be deliberate culinary tourists. These culinary tourists are often identified as foodies and participate in a lot of food-related activities. Secondly, the group to whom food-related activities were not

travel motivators was divided further into three clusters on the basis of their degree of participation in food-related activities.

The cluster that reported high involvement in food-related activities when travelling was termed opportunistic culinary tourists. Even though culinary experiences do not motivate this group to travel, they participate in food-related activities at a frequency similar to that of the deliberate culinary tourists. Participation in activities such as dining at highly rated restaurants, dining at restaurants known for offering local ingredients, attending farmers' markets, visiting farms/orchards and attending country fairs was higher for both groups when compared to the other groups.

The next cluster reported fairly low participation in food-related activities when travelling. This was the largest segment and was termed accidental culinary tourists. This segment occasionally participated in food-related activities, but without making an active effort to do so. The final and smallest cluster was uninterested culinary tourists. These tourists had not engaged in any food-related activities while travelling in the preceding two years.

For the second segmentation method, factor-cluster analysis was performed using 25 items relating to attitudes toward food-related activities. These were based on food-related behaviour at home and when travelling and included preference for organic and local food, interest in cooking, preference for familiar food at travel destinations, the importance of food-related experiences at destinations and interest in beer and wine-related experiences. Based on this, the three clusters identified were termed culinary-balanced, culinary-oriented, and familiarity-oriented tourists. The authors found culinary-balanced tourists likely to be opportunistic and accidental culinary tourists. Culinary-oriented tourists, on the other hand, tended to be deliberate and opportunistic culinary tourists, and familiarity-oriented tourists were likely to be accidental and uninterested culinary tourists.

Ignatov and Smith (2006:243 & 252-253) also conducted a study on segmenting Canadian culinary tourists. The authors segmented the tourists into three groups: food tourists, wine tourists, and food and wine tourists. Findings from the research included that the culinary-tourism segment was more than six times larger than the wine segment, the demographic profile of the segments differed, and different marketing strategies should be employed in

order to appeal to each segment. The authors recommended that much more research was required on the food aspect of culinary tourism.

Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:230, 241 & 243) analysed the profile of tourists visiting a city in Spain. Based on these profiles, the tourists were grouped into three categories. The first was individuals who regarded food as a fundamental aspect of their trip; the second group regarded food as an important, but not as the main reason for their trip; while the third group regarded food as the secondary reason for the visit. Significant differences in each segment were found on the appreciation of attractions in the city, knowledge of local wine, satisfaction with the food, and satisfaction with the overall visit.

Molina *et al.* (2015:207-208 & 213-216) specifically segmented wine tourists who visited Spanish wineries. The authors established four segments on the basis of the tourists' interest in and knowledge of wine, types of tourism, prior visits, frequency of wine consumption and demographic information. The segments were interested, experts, potentials and novices. The interested group had great knowledge of and interest in wine. They had experience in wine tourism and enjoyed wine on holiday. The experts main type of tourism was wine tourism, followed by culture, and then by cuisine. They had the highest expenses, enjoyed wine and were generally not part of an organised trip. Potentials were less active in wine tourism, had the lowest expenses and their experience of wine tourism was low. Even though these tourists did not have vast knowledge of or interest in wine and wine tourism, they did state that wine-related activities served as good motives for travel and that it was important to promote wine culture in Spain. Novices also did not have a great knowledge of and interest in wine and wine tourism. They generally had not engaged in wine tourism before and many did not consume wine while on holiday.

Croce and Perri (2010:50-51) proposed that the food and wine tourism market can be broken down into many different segments or types of tourists, as can be seen in Figure 2.10. The authors considered variables such as specialisation of interests and knowledge and awareness of the food and wine sector.

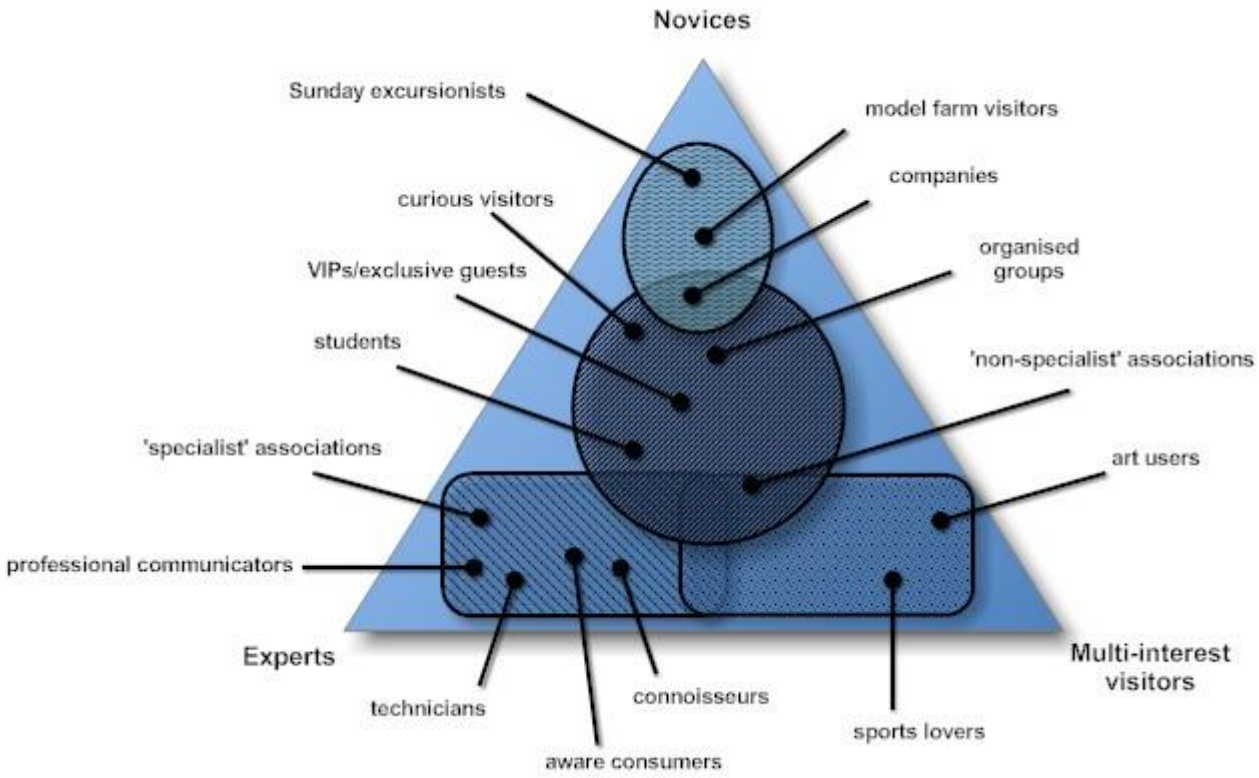

Figure 2.10: Food and wine tourists: a pyramid of different types

Source: Croce and Perri (2010:50-51)

Taxonomies were created on the basis of observations and surveys conducted in many international destinations with different tourism stakeholders. In the pyramid, three very different profiles mark the extreme points, while the inside area holds virtually all the different segments of the food and wine sector. Each segment is positioned in relation to the three extreme profiles. The extreme profiles can be explained as follows:

- Novices: These tourists have no specific culinary knowledge, are often unaware of opportunities offered by a multifaceted tourism experience and are not particularly driven to explore on their own.

- Experts: These tourists are exceptionally knowledgeable about the culinary domain and tend to refrain from combining their food and wine interest with other activities.

- Multi-interest visitors: These tourists predominantly enjoy combining different elements into their holiday, such as combining food with sport or art. They may have expertise in one of the activities, but not necessarily in food or wine.

Continual market segmentation is pivotal for most businesses and destinations and is a source of knowledge for practical action (Hjalager, 2004:196). Stanley and Stanley (2015:223) predict that in the future there will be three types of culinary tourists, based on their preferred communication method. Traditionally communicating tourists are influenced by traditional marketing, rely on word of mouth and rarely use the internet. The number of this type of tourists is likely to decline. Digitally communicating tourists mainly source online information while cross-referencing it with traditional marketing material. Finally, connected tourists are the generation maturing in the next few years and are connected all the time. They expect marketing information to come to them online. It will be interesting to see where the future of tourists' segmentation on culinary involvement and preferences leads.

2.5 **Local food promotion**

The tourism industry frequently attempts to satisfy perceived tourist preferences, even if it results in a high import bill (Torres, 2002:283). However, tourists often want to support local businesses that appeal to their values (Stanley & Stanley, 2015:220-221). Okumus and Cetin (2015:73) state that the use of local food in destination marketing has gone unnoticed. On a positive note, countries such as France, Italy, Taiwan and Thailand have demonstrated the potential of culinary tourism. These countries have actively promoted local food, which has resulted in local food becoming a distinct market segment, a supplement to other tourist attractions and a point of differentiation from other countries (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:133-134). In a study conducted in England, 60% of tourists interviewed stated that they deliberately chose local food and beverages while on holiday because they felt it would give them insight into the destination and its people (Sims, 2009:326 & 329).

These examples indicate the importance of local food. Dudensing, Hughes and Shields (2011:1455) state that many factors paving the success of tourism-based economic development strategies, including local food promotion, are outside the control of businesses and should rather be embedded in a country's overall economic development policy. Horng and Tsai (2010:74 & 83) similarly suggest that the first step in marketing local food and culinary tourism is constructing effective government tourism websites. After analysing and integrating six Asian government websites, the authors found a number of

dimensions to be essential for the promotion of culinary tourism in the East Asian context. These dimensions were cuisine culture, featured foods and recipes, table manners, culinary tourism, restaurant certification and a restaurant guide.

Stanley and Stanley (2015:221) state that governments and tourist organisations should take more interest in developing the local food sector and developing strict food-tourism accreditation and legislation. For example, the Canadian Tourism Commission has included the promotion of local cuisine to tourists as a key part of their tourism policy (Shenoy, 2005:3). In order to promote consumer trust and transparency with respect to local food, visualised traceability systems, such as Germany's "Bio mit Gesicht", have been developed. This initiative shares information about the farmer, farm and family who produced the food. "Nature and More" is another initiative where consumers can enter the number stamped on the product into a website and obtain information on the sustainability and origin of the product (Stanley & Stanley, 2015:220-221).

Horng and Tsai (2010:83) recommend that government tourism authorities' marketing strategies need to combine local culinary cultures along with the wider environment. The authors state that a humane and holistic approach will reinforce the country's image. Slow Food is an international association that works across the world in order to save endangered foods, defending gastronomic traditions and addressing themes such as animal welfare. Slow Food (2015a) has 1 500 convivia (local Slow Food chapters) across the world. Su (2015:18) states that destinations should focus on the preservation of local food cultures and specialties. The author also recommends using interesting local stories and legends in food festivals to enhance the appeal of destinations. Through storytelling, destinations' food cultures can be further connected to their natural environments and traditions, each promoting the other.

Gastronomic tour packages can also be designed to help tourists understand local culinary traditions, and cooking classes can be arranged to teach tourists how to prepare local dishes (Horng & Tsai, 2010:83). Another local food promotional strategy is the development of food routes (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:107). Chatibura (2015:1-2 & 13) further states that travel and lifestyle media such as the Food Network are vital in encouraging local-cuisine-based tourism. The author suggests that the presentation of local cuisine in commercial

establishments acts not only to preserve the cuisine-based heritage of a country but can also be a long-term strategy for tourism diversification.

Food-tourism operators need to ask what the experience is that local food stakeholders would like the tourist to have. Based on that, a strategy can be put in place. The strategy should be based on how prospective culinary tourists can be convinced to visit the establishment, what products will add value to the culinary tourist's experience and how the tourist will be convinced to make return trips (Stanley & Stanley, 2015:223).

OCTAC developed a 2005-2015 culinary-tourism strategy and action plan to be implemented in the industry in Ontario and supported by government. OCTAC based their action plan on the following 10-year goals and objectives and the input of industry stakeholders. Specific strategies identified are (OCTAC, 2006:3, 8, 41 & 45):

- Establishing strong industry and leadership linkages.
- Enhancing and strengthening communication.
- Encouraging education, training and research.
- Supporting established culinary-tourism products and developments and promoting new ones.
- Establishing mechanisms for funding and support.

Chaney and Ryan (2012:315-316), on the other hand, proposed a push-pull framework for gastronomic-tourism development (Figure 2.11). The push factors relate to the tourist and include physiological and demographic traits, as well as various motivations for travel. The pull factors illustrate what the destination should focus on in order to attract tourists and satisfy their needs. These include brand, experiences, communication, environmental and capability development. The framework also illustrates the mediating effects of the media and the importance of the re-evaluation of the market and destination.

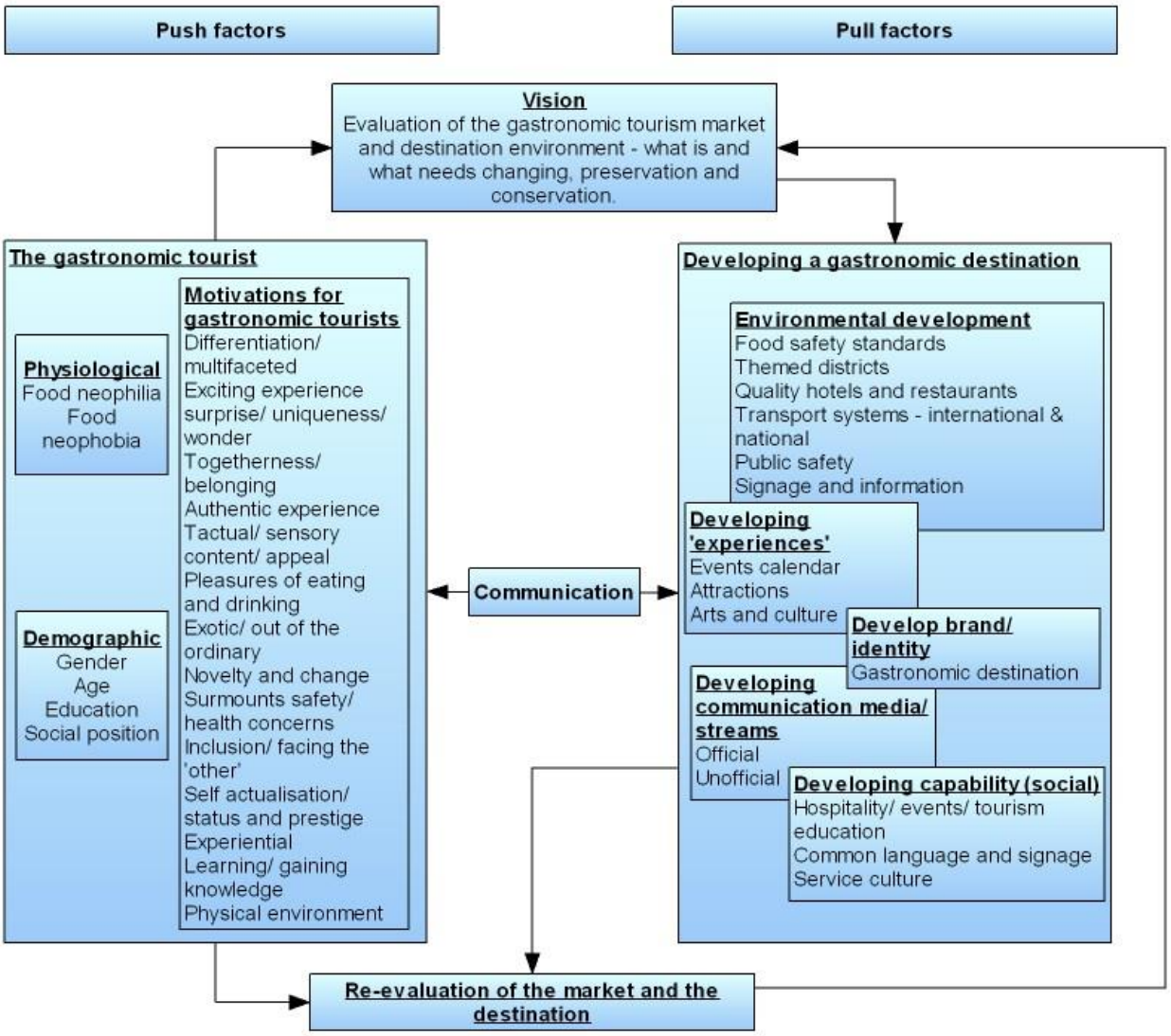

Figure 2.11: Framework for gastronomic-tourism development

Source: Adapted from Chaney and Ryan (2012:316)

Stanley and Stanley (2015:223) agree with Chaney and Ryan's (2012:316) figure in that communication is central to tourism. The authors predict that future culinary tourists will become more empowered due to the available technology. This means that negative and positive experiences are communicated immediately and tourism operators should listen better and adapt faster. Focus should be placed on the zero moment of truth (ZMOT), which occurs when potential tourists search for a destination through their social discovery. The ZMOT should make them want to pursue the trip.

2.6 **Culinary tourism in South Africa**

In 2014, South Africa was listed as the 30th most popular tourism destination with regard to its international tourism arrivals (United Nations, 2015:11). Ivanovic (2008:xviii) states that South Africa's heritage and cultural resource base is among the most diversified in the world and this potential should be exploited. Former Minister of Tourism, Derek Hanekom, similarly states that "Africa is a continent of unparalleled opportunity, and tourism is where the greatest untapped opportunity lies" (Moodley, 2016). More specifically, Du Rand and Heath (2006:206 & 207) state that although South Africa is rich in culinary resources and opportunities, the country has not capitalised on its culinary-tourism potential. According to Du Rand and Heath (2006:219), there has been a lack of awareness of the tourism potential of local food in the country, hence food has not been promoted as a tourism attraction. This seems true, even ten years later, and these statements demonstrate that there is currently no strong focus on culinary tourism in South Africa.

This is confirmed by the International Culinary Tourism Association and the International Culinary Tourism Development Organisation in the State of the Culinary Tourism Industry Report and Readiness Index they developed. They ranked South Africa as the least-prepared culinary travel destination and the travel destination with the greatest potential for growth (Phillips, 2010).

South Africa has an abundance of fertile soil, the rivers and oceans bring forth plenty of seafood and the plant biodiversity is greater than in any other country in the world, providing a great variety of food (South African Tourism, 2016c). Virtually any fruit and vegetable can be grown in South Africa. The subtropical east coast and Mpumalanga are ideal for subtropical fruit such as bananas, pawpaws, mangos and avocados. Cold, dry areas like the mountain ranges of Ceres, on the other hand, offer the perfect terrain for apple growth. The Western Cape produces a number of grape varieties. South Africa is also becoming one of the biggest nut-producing countries in the world, with macadamia nut farms flourishing along the coast, and pecan nuts grow abundantly in the central region and Northern Cape (Weppenaar, 2016).

At most destinations, cuisine is likely to be considered as a supporting resource (Fields, 2002:42). This having been said, some tourists' primary motive for travel is food (Getz & Robinson, 2014:664), and South Africa's unique and diverse foods offer an opportunity to add to the brand of South Africa as a tourism destination. Du Plessis *et al.* (2015:9 & 11-12) found the quality and variety of food to be a major contributor to South Africa's competitiveness as a tourism destination. Likewise, Steyn's (2015:258) framework for optimisation of the image of South Africa as a tourism destination illustrates that experiences such as the consumption of food can have either a positive or a negative effect on the image of South Africa from the tourist's perspective. An example of the positive impact food has had on tourists can be seen in a video entitled "Food safari Cape Town – where food lovers dreams come true". This video, made by Swiss tourists, captures the staggering culinary offer (as stated by Stefan, the filmmaker) of the Western Cape. Stefan even goes as far as describing Cape Town as "*Essen, Essen, Essen*", which means "Eating, Eating, Eating" in German (Lombard, 2015a).

Du Rand and colleagues studied the utilisation of food in destination marketing in South Africa (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:97, 101 & 103-104; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:206 & 215-216) and determined that food was a vital supportive tourism attraction in South Africa. Nonetheless, very few destinations and tour operators at present promote local food, its cultural heritage and culinary tourism in South Africa. This further confirms that culinary tourism in the country lacks a focused marketing strategy. A possible reason for this is that food is a product that has to be consumed irrespective of whether it is promoted or not, therefore if funds are lacking, this element of a destination will be excluded from marketing campaigns (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:107). Funding, promotion and market-orientated strategies can optimise a destination's culinary-tourism potential (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:107; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:219). The authors' recommendations include creating a "proud of local food" campaign, developing an identification system for locally produced food and empowering local small businesses to establish food services using locally produced food products.

There are certain initiatives in South Africa that promote local food. Genuine South African products can be identified by the Proudly South African logo. The logo can be identified by a circle and a tick in the colours of the South African flag. It shows that the product is local, of top quality, and adheres to environmental standards and fair labour practices (Proudly

South African, 2015a). Proudly South African has relationships with various government departments, but works mainly with the Department of Trade and Industry (Proudly South African, 2015b:11). According to the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa White Paper, there is a very real potential for South Africa to influence tourists' tastes and generate permanent export markets (South African Government, 1996).

The Observatory of Economic Complexity (OEC) states that South Africa is the 36th largest export economy in the world, mostly exporting gold, diamonds, platinum, coal briquettes and iron ore (OEC, 2016a). Based on 2014 figures, popular food and beverage exports include citrus fruit, grapes, wine, raw sugar, apples, pears and corn (OEC, 2016b). To be more specific, fruits and nuts were the seventh most valuable export product group in 2015, and alcoholic beverages the tenth most valuable (Workman, 2016). Wines of South Africa (WOSA) is an inclusive body that represents all South African wine producers exporting their products. WOSA is a not-for-profit company and is totally independent from producers, wholesalers and the government. It is, however, recognised by government as an export council. Their mandate is to promote the export of all South African wines and they have over 500 producers on their database (WOSA, 2016). Liqueur is also a popular export, with Amarula Cream being sold in over 100 countries worldwide and having won numerous international awards (Amarula, 2016).

Roughly 7 000 tons of rooibos tea are exported annually, with Japan being the largest consumer country. Marmite, a sticky brown yeast-extract paste is a result of South Africa's booming beer industry and known by the world. Even chewy flavoured Fizzers are one of the country's most prolific exports (Radium, 2016). Mrs H.S. Ball's chutney, again, is a household name abroad and is exported to the UK, Germany, New Zealand and Australia (Stern, 2009). Similarly, the chain Nando's, which originated in 1987 in Rosettenville, South Africa, can today be found around the world (Nando's, 2014).

Biltong is also among popular culinary exports (Saayman, Van der Merwe & Rossouw, 2011:2). Saayman (2015) states that "South Africa's sales and export of venison is a small business with a lot of potential". Even more examples of iconic South African products being exported to foreign markets include Iwisa Maize Meal, Simba Niknaks, All Gold Tomato Sauce, Sparletta Cream Soda and Nola Ouma Rusks (Muscleman, 2011).

In addition to the local food and beverages, there are also numerous expos and festivals hosted annually in South Africa that promote both local goods and culinary tourism. South African Tourism (2016a) states that "food and wine expos are a delicious learning experience". These expos offer opportunities to engage one-on-one with culinary experts, learn from the best in the business and meet others who share a similar keen interest in food and beverages. Shows and expos like A Taste of Jo'burg, RMB (Rand Merchant Bank) Winex, Agri-Expo Cheese Festival, the Swartland Show and the Good Food & Wine Show bring together chefs, winemakers, food producers and industry experts, making it a one-stop-shop for food lovers (South African Tourism, 2016a).

There is also fun and flavour to be experienced at culinary festivals, for example, the Wacky Wine Weekend hosted by Robertson Wine Valley showcases wines from many of the local producers. The festival offers live music, outdoor activities, food and wine pairings, educational presentations, fine dining events and master tastings (Greeff, 2016). Other South African culinary festivals include the Prickly Pear Festival, Lambert's Bay Kreeffees, Tonteldoos Festival, Philippolis Witblits Festival, Prince Albert Town and Olive Festival, Riebeek Valley Olive Festival, Calitzdorp Port and Wine Festival, Hantam Vleisfees, Cellar Rats Wine Festival, Clarens Craft Beer Festival, the Knysna Oyster Festival, Franschhoek's Uncorked Festival and the Ficksburg Cherry Festival (McLagan, 2014; Brand South Africa, 2015).

Many more festivals exist, often branded as music, art and crafts or other types of festivals. Even though many festivals are not branded as culinary festivals, they often contain a strong culinary focus. This may be considered to be problematic, as tourists may not realise that the event is also an opportunity to explore culinary offerings. Festival organisers could increase the attendance of these festivals by placing more focus on the foods and beverages that will be available at the festival, and festival organisers could encourage the availability of locally produced culinary consumables, which may generate more income for the local area. With an annual calendar packed full of culinary events, it may be possible to link these culinary event-hosting destinations to become a South African food route.

Strangely, none of these event-hosting destinations is branded as a culinary destination. In fact, no destination in South Africa is currently branded as a culinary destination. Even

though no area is branded as such, quite a few have a strong culinary focus. Examples of such areas in the country include Melrose Arch, Nelson Mandela Square and Newtown in Johannesburg, and the Victoria and Alfred Waterfront, Long Street and Woodstock in Cape Town (Kariwo, 2014; Travelstarter, 2014; Melrose Arch, 2016; Cape Town Tourism, 2016).

According to Stanley and Stanley (2015:224), food trails will become the fastest-growing sector of culinary tourism. No established food routes exist in South Africa. Figure 2.12 illustrates the amazing distribution of culinary attractions in South Africa. Du Rand (2006:197) states that the majority of the country's regions have culinary attractions that can be used in the development of culinary tourism and food routes.

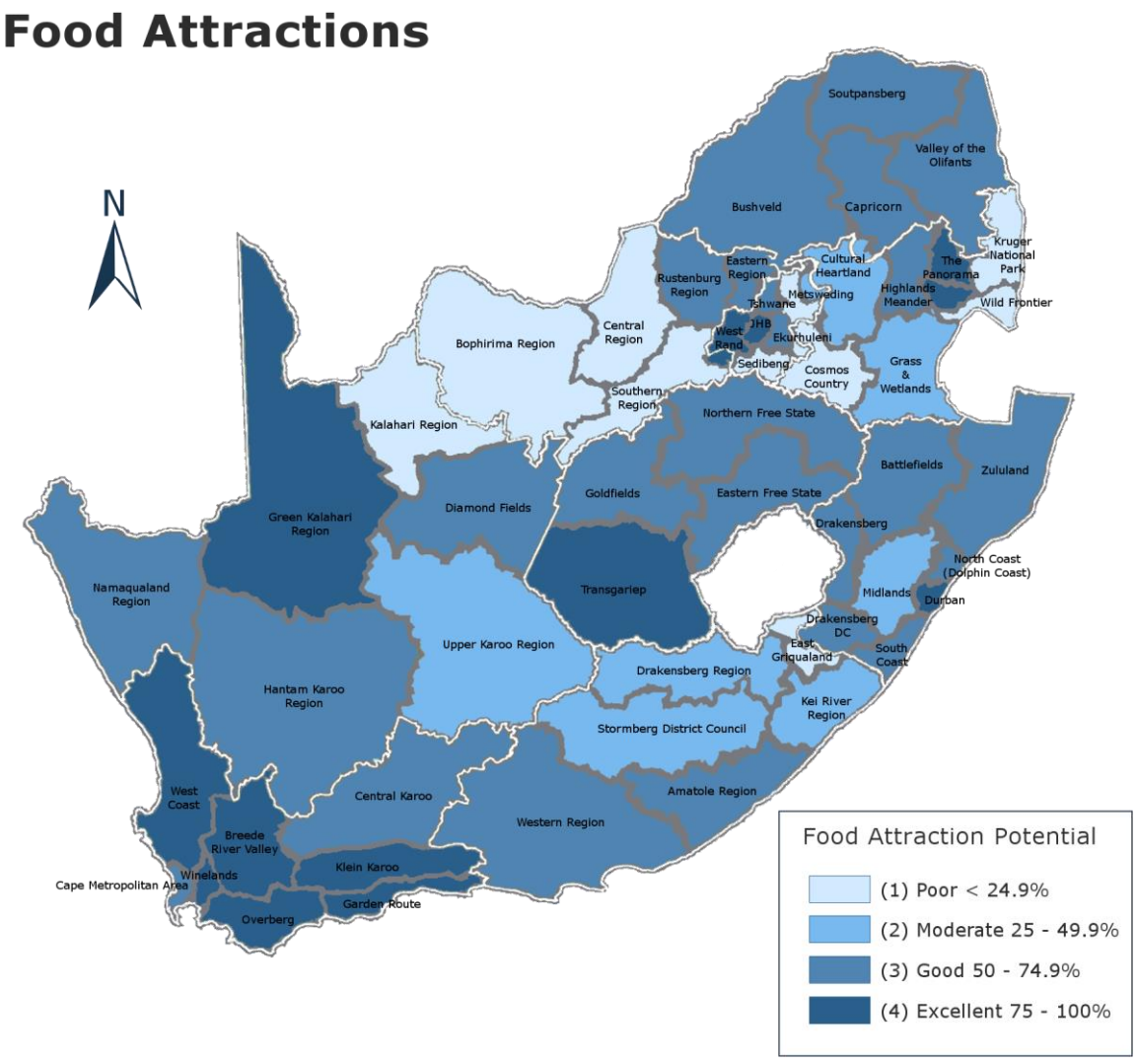

Figure 2.12: The presence and concentration of food attractions in the tourism regions of South Africa

Source: Du Rand (2006:197)

The founders of South African company, Food Routes, recognised a niche market for unique culinary destinations for the "food loving traveller" (News24, 2013). The company caters for domestic and international tourists and is the first online platform to showcase the country's finest accommodation establishments offering culinary experiences (Food Routes, 2014).

Not only elite establishments can benefit from culinary tourism. Communities across South Africa have the capability to reap the benefits of this opportunity, as culinary tourism is principally dependent on community cultural resources (Ivanovic, 2008:xx). South African Tourism (2016c) asks tourists to be epicurean adventurers when visiting South Africa, to eat in restaurants showcasing the country's diverse food heritage and support locally made food and beverages in order to promote and sustain the local food culture.

In 2011, the Former Minister of Tourism, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, launched a programme to train 800 young South Africans to become professional chefs. This was partially due to the fact that the South African government understands the value of a designer bunny chow and a perfectly cooked Cape Malay curry. There is so much more to South African cuisine than the old-fashioned braai (South African Tourism, 2011).

According to an article written for the British Broadcasting Corporation, the top ten foods to try in South Africa are: braai, biltong and droëwors, Cape Malay curry, malva pudding, chakalaka and pap, Amarula Don Pedro, bobotie, melktert and bunny chow (Best, 2016). In addition to bunny chow, other South African street foods include Gatsby, samosas, amagwinya, walkie talkies, masala pineapples, shawarmas, sosaties and Kota loaf (Lee, 2014). Tourists may also wish to experience other food for which South Africa is known, such as kudu, springbok, ostrich, snoek, waterblommetjiebredie and Karoo Lamb.

The Karoo Development Foundation (KDF) is a non-profit organisation that achieved a notable milestone with the protection of Karoo Lamb as a Geographic Indicator in terms of the Merchandise Marks Act in 2013 (KDF, 2016b). Relatedly, Certified Karoo Meat of Origin is a certification that guarantees the origin of the lamb, and top South African chefs are already seeing the benefit of offering the certified product to their customers (KDF, 2016a). Du Rand and Heath (2006:231) state that it is crucial to identify the local food produced in

each area of South Africa in order to promote the products according to locality, which can contribute to sustainability and competitiveness in the area (Du Rand & Heath, 2006:231).

The eight South African Slow Food convivia (Slow Food, 2015b) are also an indication that South Africa is on the right track, but considering the size of the country there is still a lot more needed to ensure local food sustainability and promotion. Nature and More is a trademark given to fresh organic and fair-trade fruits and vegetables globally and there are currently five South African growers registered with the initiative. These products are guaranteed to be genetically modified organism, pesticide and artificial fertiliser free. Full transparency regarding sustainability practices as well as the grower's story are available to the consumers (NatureandMore, 2014a; NatureandMore, 2014b).

South Africa has achieved great feats in the international culinary domain. For example, Test Kitchen, a Cape Town restaurant, was declared to be the 28th best restaurant in the world in 2015 (Sutton, 2015). Also in Cape Town, the Royal Eatery has been named as one of the best places in the world to eat a gourmet burger (Lombard, 2015b), Truth Coffee Roasting shop as the very best coffee shop in the world (Traveller24, 2015a) and Charly's Bakery as one of the Top 25 "cupcake shops you need to visit before you die" (Traveller24, 2015b). Stellenbosch brewery Stellenbrau's Craven Craft Lager won the prize for the best lager at the 2014 Global Craft Beer Awards in Germany. It is no surprise, then, that craft beers are becoming increasingly popular in South Africa (Ozynski, 2014). In 2013, a total of 63 licensed craft breweries were recorded in the country. Their geographical spread in the country can be seen in Figure 2.13 (Rogerson, 2016:234 & 236).

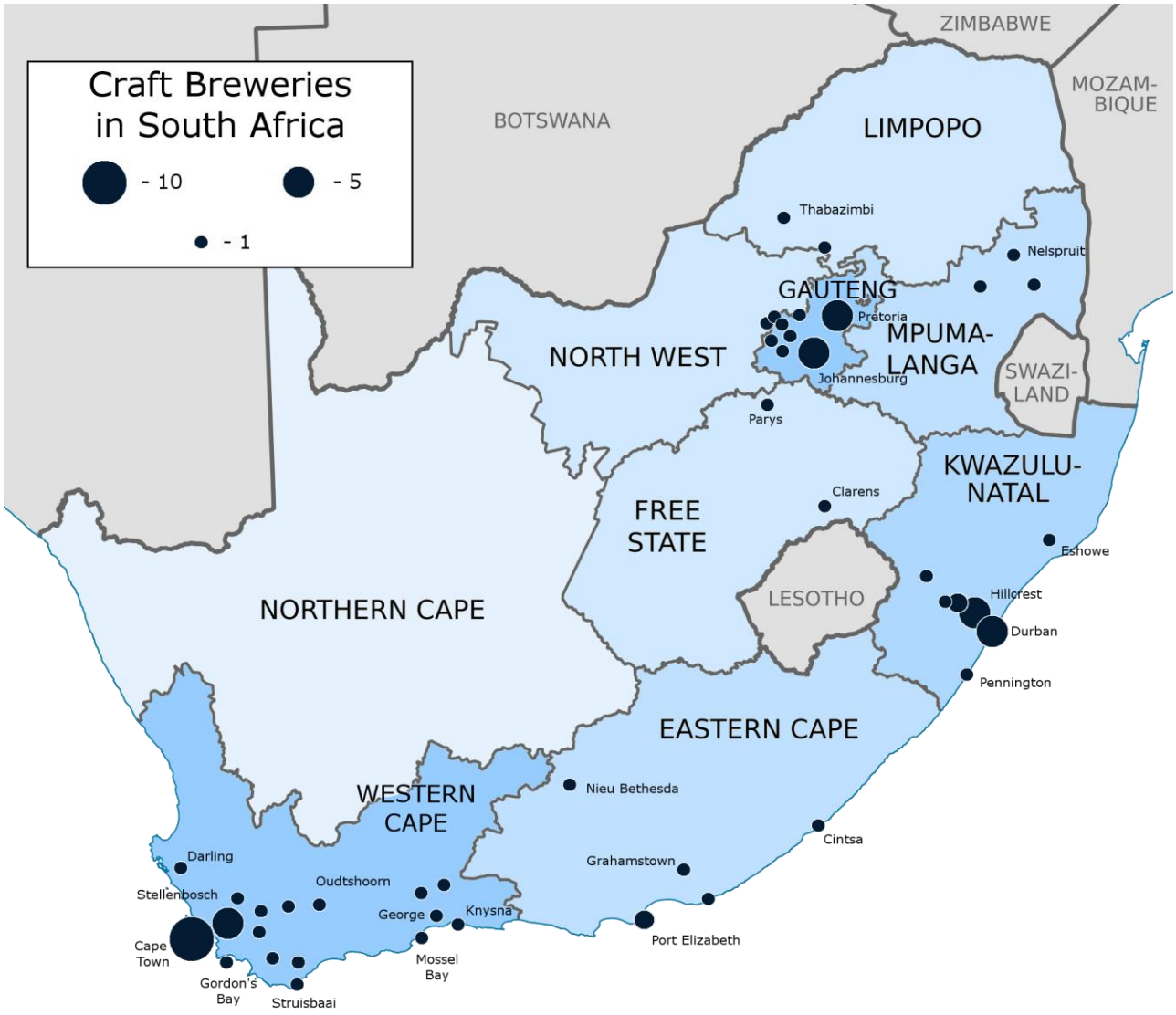

Figure 2.13: The location of craft breweries in South Africa 2013: urban scale

Source: Rogerson (2016:236)

Rogerson (2016:236) states that this network of craft breweries provides an anchor for craft beer tourism with brewery visits, brew pubs and restaurants centred on craft beer. Craft beer tours are available to tourists who want to delve deeper into South Africa's tasty beers (The Craft Beer Project, 2014). Enjoying similar international exposure to craft beer are South African garage wines. Some garagiste or garage wines were presented to a number of the world's top journalists (Beutler, 2014).

There are currently 17 official wine routes that have been registered with the South African Wine Routes Forum. The majority of wine routes in the country fall under the Wine of Origin scheme, which is an origin-control system safeguarding the diversity and uniqueness of

South African wine (South African Tourism, 2016b). The Wine of Origin scheme was established in 1972 with legislation that was formulated. The control function of this scheme falls under the Wine and Spirit Board. The board is appointed by the Minister of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, with three members of the 12-man board being officers of the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (The Wine and Spirit Board, 2012:3). Unique routes include the Cape Route 62 wine route, which is said to be the longest wine route in the world, and the Green Mountain Eco Route, which is the world's first biodiverse wine route (South African Tourism, 2016b).

The cost or affordability of South African wine and other culinary offerings should not deter tourists, as South Africa remains one of the most affordable countries in the world (Writer, 2015). The South African rand offers great value for money against the British pound, the yen, euro and dollar (SA Specialist, 2015). Likewise, even though South Africa is home to 11 official languages, communication is unlikely to be a hindrance to the food consumption of international tourists in the country, as the majority of food and beverage outlets provide menus in English.

Nevertheless, tourism in South Africa has recently been affected by a few challenges, one being new visa regulations. These rules required international visitors to apply for visas in person at South African embassies and children could not travel in and out of South Africa without an unabridged birth certificate stating the details of both parents. These controversial visa regulations were blamed for a 6% decrease in tourist arrivals into the country and have since been overhauled (Brophy, 2015). In December 2015 it was reported that an average of 10 families a day were being denied boarding from Heathrow International Airport in London to South Africa for failing to adhere to the visa requirements (Lombard, 2015c). Former Minister of Tourism, Derek Hanekom, has also stated that the in-person visa application requirement had a massive impact on Chinese tourism. Chinese visitors to South Africa dropped by 30% in the first six months of 2015 when compared to 2014 (Freeman, 2015).

Another challenge for South Africa is food conservation. Tourism in general as well as culinary tourism can lead to the degradation and depletion of environmental resources. Travelling to China to consume shark fin soup is one such example. As the industry grows,

more tourists and businesses are becoming aware of the impacts and are willing to work at ensuring the sustainability of resources (Long, 2014:455). Conserving South Africa's food resources, native ingredients and traditional cooking methods is pivotal to ensuring that tourists get a true taste of the country's seas, land, cultures and history (South African Tourism, 2016c). The recent drought has caused an increase in food prices of approximately 30%. The effects are expected to be felt until 2017 and the increase in food prices will ultimately result in more pricey menus in restaurants and other food service enterprises (Weppenaar, 2016).

Rossouw (2015) states that, "amidst its challenges it is sometimes easy to forget that South Africa has the prestigious reputation of being the most beautiful country in the world". With almost 3 000 km of coastline, terrains ranging from desert to forest, mountains, caves, exciting wildlife and unique food, South Africa has a lot to offer to local and international tourists alike (Travelstarter, 2014).

More research into culinary tourism in South Africa is needed – especially to determine the culinary preferences of visitors to the country. Culinary knowledge obtained can assist in the possible development of culinary destinations and routes in South Africa. Strategies to empower and educate the South African tourism and hospitality industry and international tourists could result from knowledge on determinants of culinary preferences. Menus compiled by hotels, restaurants and other food and beverage providers could be developed on the basis of the culinary requirements of international tourists to South Africa.

Benefits that may result from the study of actual tourist preferences are the attainment of objectives of the NTSS: growth of the South African economy, positioning South Africa as a globally recognised tourism destination brand, and delivering a world-class visitor experience to tourists in South Africa (National Department of Tourism, 2011:19). More and more international tourists are now looking for an authentic African experience (Ivanovic, 2008:223). Food can provide tourists with additional opportunities to create this authentic experience, resulting in a more enjoyable and memorable holiday than they may have expected (Quan & Wang, 2004:299), and consequently a world-class experience.

2.7 **Chapter summary**

The purpose of this chapter was to investigate culinary tourism. From this chapter it is clear that globally, culinary tourism plays a pivotal role in destination attractiveness and economic development. This is understandable when the numerous benefits of culinary tourism are considered. Economic growth, sustainable competitiveness, branding, enhanced culinary experiences, improved food and beverage quality, policy development, marketing strategies, menu development and improved culinary satisfaction may result from the study of international tourists' culinary preferences.

Studying tourists' culinary preferences is a complex task. Many theories could be considered. Therefore, this chapter examined key consumer-behaviour theories (TRA, TPB, TIB and TSR) and fundamental motivational theories, namely Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the push-and-pull theory. Likewise, this chapter did not overlook the contribution to be made by frameworks and models that have been developed for culinary tourism. The theories, frameworks and models provided guidance in establishing the determinants of culinary preferences. The reviewed literature indicated an extensive list of determinants of culinary preferences, ranging from socio-demographic to behavioural and external determinants.

This chapter also revealed that many different segmentation typologies and taxonomies have been used to describe culinary tourists in different contexts and countries across the world. The literature was scoured to source methods that have been used to specifically promote local cuisine, as this could ultimately assist in directing the promotion of local cuisine in the current study's context. Lastly, this chapter set forth the impressive culinary landscape of South Africa with its numerous culinary festivals, unique wine routes and award-winning products and restaurants. Notwithstanding its challenges, the country has immense culinary potential for the interested tourist. Chapter 3 details the methods used to gather the applicable data on the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

3.1 Introduction

Research is formalized curiosity. It is poking and prying with a purpose.

Hurston (1942:143)

Following the review of literature, the next step is to poke and pry with a purpose to address the research problem (Coughlan, 2012:90). Research originates due to a question or a problem (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:2), with the main question in this case being: what are the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa? Many sub-questions require answering, as has been stated in Sections 1.3 and 1.4.2. This chapter therefore examines the methodology used to address these questions, commencing with the philosophical underpinning of the study. This is followed by the study design, which describes the study location, population and sample. Next, the tool used to collect the data is detailed, as are the data-gathering techniques employed. The chapter concludes with the statistical techniques applied in the analysis of the data.

3.2 Philosophical underpinning of the study

Research philosophy is a vast topic and reflects a researcher's assumptions that form the basis for the research approach. There are two main contrasting research philosophies known as positivism and phenomenology (Dudovskiy, 2016). The term positivism was coined by French philosopher Auguste Comte. Positivism believes that the basis for knowledge should depend on scientific method. The positivist does not use a subjective approach or let feelings cloud his or her judgement (Botteril & Platenkamp, 2012:147 & 149). Even though the approach has been labelled as inflexible, benefits of positivism include that it provides wide coverage for a range of situations and helps to generalise research findings (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:70-71). This study is therefore based on the theory of positivism.

Further, positivism relies on quantitative data, which is more scientific than qualitative data and hence more trustworthy (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). This is reiterated by Altinay and

Paraskevas (2008:75), who state that in general, the phenomenological research philosophy is linked to induction and qualitative research, while the positivist philosophy is associated with deduction and a quantitative research design.

Deduction can be defined as taking general statements and theories about consistencies in nature, and on the basis of these, drawing conclusions and making predictions about individual experiences (Botterill & Platenkamp, 2012:50). Stated differently, deduction is used to apply theories to specific situations (Herr, 2007), as is the case in the current study. Existing theories have been used to establish possible determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa. This has led the researcher to select a quantitative research design.

Strengths of quantitative research include being able to generalise research findings, often being regarded as having higher credibility than qualitative research, and being useful for studying large numbers of people (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). As was stated in Chapter 1, a quantitative research design was also better suited to this research study due to the broad research focus and numerous variables involved (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:101). Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:75) state that there are two main types of quantitative research, namely experimental and descriptive research. This study is descriptive, as the goal was to study a sample without imposing conditions on the sample.

3.3 **Study design**

The study was designed to address the goal of the study, namely to critically assess the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa. Therefore, the four study objectives of the study have to be considered. The first objective was to conduct an in-depth literature review on the existing knowledge on culinary tourism globally, including tourists' culinary preferences, and theories, models and frameworks influencing culinary preferences. This objective further included an investigation of South African culinary tourism, focusing on the current policies and strategies utilised in the domain.

Books from South African libraries, local and international websites, South Africa's national tourism website and government websites, databases and e-journal aggregators such as

Ebscohost, SAGE, Science Direct, Emerald and Google Scholar were used to source the literature.

The second objective was to identify the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa and develop a taxonomy of South African tourists on the basis of these determinants. This objective was addressed through the empirical study.

The empirical study focused on international tourists departing from South Africa via the O.R. Tambo International Airport in Johannesburg, with the population of the study all being international tourists to South Africa. Estimating a definite population size is impossible, as at any given moment tourists are arriving and departing from South African soil. However, recent statistics can give a broad indication as to the size of the population. South African Tourism (2016d) reports that in January 2016 the total tourist arrivals to South Africa were 1 012 641. O.R. Tambo International Airport is Africa's biggest and busiest airport, handling 19 million passengers a year. More than half of South Africa's air passengers make use of this airport (Airports Company South Africa, 2016).

As was discussed in Chapter 1, due to the large population, the proposed sample size was 600. In order to select the most suitable sampling technique, one should consider the available options. Two main categories of sampling exist, namely non-probability and probability sampling. Non-probability sampling does not involve a random selection of respondents and therefore it is difficult to determine whether the sample is representative of the population (Trochim, 2006a). Probability sampling utilises some form of random selection of respondents. Various probability sampling methods exist, such as stratified random sampling, systematic random sampling, cluster random sampling, multi-stage sampling and simple random sampling. Simple random sampling is a fair way to select a sample and the results can be generalised back to the population (Trochim, 2006b). Simple random sampling is also known as probability sampling's purest form (Steyn, 2015:97). In order to give each tourist an equal opportunity to be included, simple random sampling was the preferred sampling method in the current research. It is, however, noted that with simple random sampling there is a risk of over or under sampling some subpopulation (Smith, 2010:89-90).

The last two study objectives were centred on drawing conclusions and making recommendations. These were addressed after the results from the study was analysed and concluded the critical assessment of culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa.

3.4 **Measuring instrument**

A popular technique to gather quantitative data is to distribute questionnaires (Jennings, 2010:22). Within tourism research specifically, questionnaires are seen as the most important tool for data collection (Steyn, 2015:101). A newly developed questionnaire (Appendix A), based on the literature review set out in Chapter 2, was therefore used to gather the data in the current study.

The aim of the questionnaire was mainly to address the questions in the problem statement (What are the existing patterns of demand in the international tourism market for South Africa? What are tourists' preferences for local food versus international food and beverages? What is the potential for stimulating a new demand for local food? What percentage of tourists' total expenditure is spent on food and beverages while in South Africa? Are there tourists who travel to South Africa primarily for culinary experiences? What are the dietary requirements of international tourists to South Africa in terms of halal, kosher, vegetarian and others?) and to achieve Objective 2 of this research project, namely:

- To develop a taxonomy of South African tourists.
- To identify the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa.

The aim was therefore to include determinants of culinary preferences identified in the theories, existing questionnaires, models and literature, as well as to include questions that could be useful in the development of tourist taxonomies. The newly developed questionnaire was based on several existing questionnaires, including the questionnaires of Torres (2002), McKercher *et al.* (2008), Amuquandoh (2011), Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012), Updhyay and Sharma (2014) and Chatibura (2015).

The first part of the questionnaire detailed the purpose of the questionnaire and requested respondents to voluntarily participate in the research. The researcher's name and email address were included, enabling the respondents to contact the researcher if they had any queries regarding the research. There were three sections to the questionnaire. Section A contained questions relating to the socio-demographic and travel profile of the respondents, and Section B contained questions relating to culinary-preference variables. Section C requested respondents to rate their satisfaction with their culinary experience in South Africa. The questionnaire concluded with a brief thank you note.

3.4.1.1 Section A: Socio-demographic and travel profile

The questions asked in Section A required tourists to provide information regarding their educational level, gender, dining habits, travel experience among others as specified in Table 3.1. This section was mainly based on the socio-demographic and behavioural categories of determinants of culinary preferences, with the exception of Questions 11, 16 and 17, which were required to address the problem statement, and Question 15 which related to behavioural as well as external determinants of culinary preferences. Questions 9 and 10 also did not relate to any determinant of culinary preferences, but have been used by Ignatov and Smith (2006:243 & 250) to develop a taxonomy of tourists, which is relevant to the current study.

Table 3.1 details the specific variables to which the question relates, as well as the supporting literature for each variable, as was discussed in Chapter 2. On occasion, one question may have fully or partially addressed multiple variables. In these cases the references were separated to indicate this. These questions were Questions 6, 15, 18 and 19.

The majority of questions in Section A were closed-ended questions with unique answer categories for each individual question. Simple answer categories included male or female for Question 2, "Gender?", and secondary school or less, vocational training or university degree for Question 3, "What is your highest educational qualification?". There were also more complex answer categories that were based on the literature. Examples include Question 6, "I consider myself to be":

- Adventurous when I travel, because I always try local cuisine.
- Slightly adventurous when I travel, because I occasionally try local cuisine.
- Not at all adventurous when I travel, as I prefer cuisine that I am used to.

Another example of a complex answer category was in Question 15, “If you did not try local cuisine, please select all the applicable reasons”:

- I did not know which items are local.
- I was not sure about the health and safety of the local cuisine.
- I was not sure which ingredients the local dishes and beverages contain.
- I was not interested in trying local cuisine.
- The local cuisine did not look appetising.
- Other (please specify).

Table 3.1: Section A questions

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Socio-demographic and travel profile questions (details regarding some categories given from which the answer could be selected)	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
1	Socio-demographic	Age	In what year were you born?	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:277); McKercher *et al.* (2008:142); Wądołowska *et al.* (2008:132); Kim *et al.* (2009:429); Manolis (2010); Ayo *et al.* (2012:6575); D'Antuono and Bignami (2012:3); Mak *et al.* (2012:931); Robinson and Getz (2014:696); Aquilani *et al.* (2015:219); Barcelona Field Studies Centre (2015)
2	Socio-demographic	Gender	Gender?	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:276-277), Wądołowska *et al.* (2008:132); Amuquandoh (2011:3), Mak *et al.* (2012:931); Robinson and Getz (2014:696)
3	Socio-demographic	Educational level	What is your highest educational qualification?	Wądołowska *et al.* (2008:132); Kim *et al.* (2009:429); Ayo *et al.* (2012:6575); D'Antuono and Bignami (2012:3); Devi *et al.* (2015:117-118)
4	Socio-demographic	Nationality	What is your nationality?	Telfer and Wall (2000:440); Torres (2002:300); Cohen and Avieli (2004:775); Amuquandoh (2011:7)
5	Behavioural	Past experience	How often do you normally dine out?	Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Amuquandoh (2011:3); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931)
6	Behavioural	Type of tourist and personality	I consider myself to be: (note: options given were adventurous when I travel, because I always try local cuisine, slightly adventurous when I travel, because I occasionally try local cuisine, and not at all adventurous when I travel, as I prefer cuisine that I am used to)	Type of tourist: Torres (2002:285 & 300) Personality: Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968); Mak *et al.* (2012:931-932); Blichfeldt and Halkier (2014:1599)

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Socio-demographic and travel profile questions (details regarding some categories given from which the answer could be selected)	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
7	Behavioural	Travel experience and frequency	How many times have you travelled internationally in the past five years, including this trip?	Fields (2002:40); Ryu and Jang (2006:513); McKercher *et al.* (2008:142); D'Antuono and Bignami (2012:3)
8	Behavioural	Travel experience and frequency	How many times (including this trip) have you visited South Africa?	Fields (2002:40); Ryu and Jang (2006:513); McKercher *et al.* (2008:142); D'Antuono and Bignami (2012:3)
9	Not applicable	Taxonomy question	During this trip, how many nights did you stay in South Africa?	Ignatov and Smith (2008:243)
10	Not applicable	Taxonomy question	What type of accommodation did you make use of during this trip?	Ignatov and Smith (2008:250)
11	Not applicable	Problem statement question	Approximately how much did you spend on this trip in South African rand (ZAR) on each of the following? (Note: categories given included accommodation, transport, food and beverages for example)	Not applicable
12	Behavioural	Type of tourist	What was the main purpose of this trip?	Cohen and Avieli (2004:773-774)
13	Behavioural	Past experience	Are you familiar with South African cuisine?	Abraham and Kannan (2015:141)
14	Behavioural	Personality	Did you try local cuisine during this trip?	Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968); Mak *et al.* (2012:931-932); Blichfeldt and Halkier (2014:1599)
15	Behavioural and external	Marketing, hygiene perception, personality, availability, quality and variety, global	If you did not try local cuisine, please select all the applicable reasons: (note: reasons given included I did not know which items are local, I was not sure about the health and safety of the local cuisine, I was not sure which ingredients the local dishes contain, I was not interested in trying local	Personality: Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968); Mak *et al.* (2012:931-932); Blichfeldt and Halkier (2014:1599) Marketing: Fields (2002:36); Amuquandoh (2011:4); Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:238); Stanley and Stanley (2015:224) Hygiene perception: Cohen and Avieli (2004:761); Amuquandoh (2011:2-4 & 7); Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:967); Abraham and Kannan (2015:144) Availability, quality and

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Socio-demographic and travel profile questions (details regarding some categories given from which the answer could be selected)	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
		trends: buying local	cuisine, and the local cuisine did not look appetising)	variety: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:280); Kim and Eves (2012:1465) Global trends: buying local: Barcelona Field Studies Centre (2015); Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie (2015:41)
16	Not applicable	Problem statement question	What was your favourite meal during this trip? (please specify)	Not applicable
17	Not applicable	Problem statement question	What was your favourite beverage during this trip? (please specify)	Not applicable
18	Socio-demographic and behavioural	Cultures and religion, intolerances and allergies and lifestyle	Are you currently following any religious, health- or weight-related diet?	Cultures and religion: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Cohen and Avieli (2004:760); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931) Intolerances and allergies: Packaged Facts (2014); Sloan (2015) Lifestyle: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Kim *et al.* (2009:426); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Amuquandoh (2011:3); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Abraham and Kannan (2015:145)
19	Socio-demographic and behavioural	Cultures and religion, intolerances and allergies and lifestyle	If you answered yes, please specify which diet you are following:	Cultures and religion: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Cohen and Avieli (2004:760); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931) Intolerances and allergies: Packaged Facts (2014); Sloan (2015) Lifestyle: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Kim *et al.* (2009:426); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Amuquandoh (2011:3); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Abraham and Kannan (2015:145)

There were also eight open-ended questions that were specifically formulated, as they either had too many possible answers (e.g. Question 4 “What is your nationality?”) or to allow respondents to answer the question without leading them to a desired response (e.g. Question 16 “What was your favourite meal during this trip? (please specify)”), as leading questions should be avoided in research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:203).

The only socio-demographic variables from the literature that were not tested in the questionnaire were occupation and income. For the purposes and context of this study it was deemed not necessary to test the occupation of respondents. There has also been mixed reviews in the literature regarding whether occupation influences culinary preferences (Ayo *et al.*, 2012:6575; Devi *et al.*, 2015:117-118; Topcu, 2015:37). Regarding income, it is difficult to compare incomes in an international study due to the fact that personal income differs greatly from one country to another. It can be assumed, however, that when travelling internationally a person is at least moderately wealthy. Income is also often a question which respondents may be reluctant to answer, due to it being considered to be very personal (Survio, 2013).

3.4.1.2 Section B: Culinary preferences

Section B made use of closed-ended rating-scale questions. The questions were based on a five-point ordinal scale. According to the scale, respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which the items were important to them while they travelled, ranging from not important to very important. A similar scale was used to collect data on international tourists’ culinary preferences in India (Updhyay & Sharma, 2014:32).

This section of the questionnaire contained 32 questions, as reflected in Table 3.2. The questions related mainly to the behavioural and external categories of determinants of culinary preferences. However, Questions 9 to 12 all related to the variable **culture and religion**, which is a socio-demographic variable. These questions were included here, rather than in Section A, as they could be answered on the same rating scale as the rest of Section B’s questions. When one question fully or partially addressed multiple variables, the references were separated to indicate this. These questions were Questions 7, 26 and 30.

Table 3.2: Section B questions

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Questions on culinary preferences (starting with: "when you travel, how important is each of the following?")	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
1	External	Communication gap	Being able to order from a menu that is easily understandable	Cohen and Avieli (2004:764); Batra (2008:12 & 16); Ab Karim and Chi (2010:537 & 550); Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968)
2	Behavioural	Social influences	Dining mostly where friends or family recommend	Sparks (2007:1190)
3	Behavioural	Social influences	Dining mostly at establishments with good ratings on travelogues (e.g. TripAdvisor)	Fields (2002:39-40); Kim *et al.* (2009:427); Kim and Eves (2012:1465)
4	External	Global trends: buying local	Supporting local culinary stakeholders (e.g. outlets, producers and businesses)	Barcelona Field Studies Centre (2015); Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie (2015:41)
5	External	Marketing	The availability of information about local cuisine	Fields (2002:36); Amuquandoh (2011:4); Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:238); Stanley and Stanley (2015:224)
6	External	Marketing	The availability of pictures of cuisine outside businesses (e.g. menus)	Fields (2002:36); Amuquandoh (2011:4); Stanley and Stanley (2015:224)
7	Behavioural and external	Taste and availability, quality and variety	The availability of cuisine that appeals to my senses (smell, taste, appearance)	Taste: Kittler and Sucher (2004:202); Batra (2008:12 & 16); Updyay and Sharma (2014:35); Abraham and Kannan (2015:144); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:1) Availability, quality and variety: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:280); Kim and Eves (2012:1465)
8	Behavioural and socio-demographic	Lifestyle and culture and religion	The availability of cuisine that is allowed in my diet (normal eating habits)	Lifestyle: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Kim *et al.* (2009:426); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Amuquandoh (2011:3); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Abraham and Kannan (2015:145) Culture and religion: Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931)

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Questions on culinary preferences (starting with: "when you travel, how important is each of the following?")	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
9	Socio-demographic	Culture and religion	The availability of kosher cuisine	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Cohen and Avieli (2004:760); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931); Hattingh (2015:127-129)
10	Socio-demographic	Culture and religion	The availability of halal cuisine	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931); Hattingh (2015:130)
11	Socio-demographic	Culture and religion	The availability of vegetarian cuisine	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931); Hattingh (2015:133)
12	Socio-demographic	Culture and religion	The availability of vegan cuisine	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931); Hattingh (2015:133)
13	External	Global trends: functional, organic and animal-welfare-oriented products	The availability of organic cuisine	Torres (2002:301); Falguera *et al.* (2012:276-277); Napolitano *et al.* (2013:823-824)
14	External	Global trends: functional, organic and animal-welfare-oriented products	The availability of cuisine that is orientated towards animal welfare	De Jonge *et al.* (2015:96)
15	External	Global trends: clean eating and whole food	The availability of cuisine that is 100% natural	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:281); Stanton (2015)

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Questions on culinary preferences (starting with: "when you travel, how important is each of the following?")	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
16	External	Global trends: environmental sustainability	The availability of cuisine that is produced using sustainable methods (i.e. with a low environmental impact)	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:282); Stanton (2015)
17	External	Global trends: environmental sustainability	The availability of sustainably caught seafood	Steptoe *et al.* (1995:282); Stanton (2015)
18	External	Affordability	The availability of cuisine that is reasonably priced	Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434); Steptoe *et al.* (1995:281); Ab Karim and Chi (2010:550); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:18)
19	External	Availability, quality and variety	The availability of a wide variety of cuisine	Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434 & 448); Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Updyay and Sharma (2014:35); Abraham and Kannan (2015:144); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:18)
20	External	Global trends: rejection of low-cost mass-produced food	The availability of well-known international food and beverage franchises (e.g. McDonalds; Burger King; KFC)	Barcelona Field Studies Centre (2015); Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie (2015:41)
21	External	Global trends: trading up	The availability of gourmet cuisine	Barcelona Field Studies Centre (2015); Wahba (2016)
22	External	Global trends: craft beer	The availability of craft beer	Aquilani *et al.* (2015:214 & 220); Elzinga *et al.* (2015:243); Gómez-Corona *et al.* (2016:27)
23	External	Global trends: garage wine	The availability of garage wines (i.e. wine produced on a small scale)	Decanter (2007); Ronco (2015)
24	External	Availability, quality and variety	The availability of food routes	Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434 & 448); Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Updyay and Sharma (2014:35); Abraham and Kannan (2015:144); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:18)
25	External	Availability, quality and variety	The availability of wine routes	Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434 & 448); Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Updyay and Sharma (2014:35); Abraham and Kannan (2015:144); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:18)

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Questions on culinary preferences (starting with: "when you travel, how important is each of the following?")	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
26	Behavioural	Social influences and self-development	The availability of culinary events or festivals	Social influences: Blichfeldt and Halkier (2014:1599) Self-development: Tikkanen (2007:731); Daniel *et al.* (2011:90); South African Tourism (2016a)
27	Behavioural	Self-development	The availability of culinary activities (e.g. cooking classes or trade shows) to enhance my knowledge	Tikkanen (2007:731); Daniel *et al.* (2011:90); South African Tourism (2016a)
28	External	Dining establishments	The availability of child-friendly restaurants	White Hutchinson (2007); Chen *et al.* (2013:10); McDonald (2014:41)
29	External	Dining establishments	The availability of restaurants close to attractions	Restaurant Engine (2015); Argyle (2016)
30	Behavioural and external	Social influences and global trends: celebrity chefs	The availability of esteemed restaurants	Social influences: Fields (2002:39-40); Kim *et al.* (2009:427) and Kim and Eves (2012:1465) Global trends: celebrity chefs: Croce and Perri (2010:45)
31	Behavioural	Desire for authentic food experience	The availability of traditional cuisine	Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968); Su (2015:18)
32	Behavioural	Desire for authentic food experience	The opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine	Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968); Su (2015:18)

3.4.1.3 Section C: Culinary satisfaction in South Africa

As it can be assumed that all respondents would declare variables such as quality and hygiene to be important, it was concluded that it would be more valuable to include these variables on a separate scale than on the importance scale of Section B. Section C therefore aimed to determine whether respondents were satisfied with an array of external variables as well as whether their socio-demographic needs were met. Question 9 also addressed a behavioural variable. These variables have all been found to be important in previous literature.

Questions 8 and 9 addressed more than one variable and the references have been separated to indicate this. The answer categories from which respondents could choose for this section of the questionnaire ranged from very dissatisfied to very satisfied on a 5-point ordinal scale.

Table 3.3 details the 11 questions asked regarding culinary satisfaction during this trip to South Africa. The variables relating to each question, as well as the supporting references indicating that these variables are important determinants of culinary preferences, were also included in the table. The final question in the questionnaire, Question 11, was "Overall, how satisfied were you with the food and beverages during this trip?". This was included in order to establish the overall culinary satisfaction of international tourists to South Africa.

Table 3.3: Section C questions

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Questions on culinary preferences (starting with: "when you travel, how important is each of the following?")	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
1	External	Affordability	The value for money of food purchased	Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434); Steptoe *et al.* (1995:281); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:18)
2	External	Affordability	The value for money of beverages purchased	Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434); Steptoe *et al.* (1995:281); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:18)
3	External	Availability, quality and variety	The quality of the cuisine	Cohen and Avieli (2004:773); Updyay and Sharma (2014:35); Aquilani *et al.* (2015:220)
4	External	Availability, quality and variety	The variety of the cuisine	Rozin and Vollmecke (1986:434 & 448); Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Updyay and Sharma (2014:35); Abraham and Kannan (2015:144); Wongprawmas and Canavari (2015:18)
5	External	Global trends: buying local	Menus indicating which culinary items are local	Barcelona Field Studies Centre (2015); Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie (2015:41)
6	External	Dining establishments	The level of service in restaurants	Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:237); Abraham and Kannan (2015:145)
7	External	Hygiene perception	The health and safety of food	Cohen and Avieli (2004:761); Amuquandoh (2011:2-4 & 7); Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:967); Abraham and Kannan (2015:144)
8	Socio-demographic	Intolerance and allergies, and culture and religion	The preparation of food in terms of dietary requirements (kosher, halal, vegan, vegetarian)	Intolerances and allergies: Packaged Facts (2014); Sloan (2015) Cultures and religion: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Cohen and Avieli (2004:760); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931)

Question number	Variable category	Variable/s	Questions on culinary preferences (starting with: "when you travel, how important is each of the following?")	Supporting references from the literature, as was discussed in Chapter 2 under point 2.4.
9	Socio-demographic and behavioural	Cultures and religion and lifestyle	The opportunity to still be able to follow your diet	Cultures and religion: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Cohen and Avieli (2004:760); Quan and Wang (2004:302); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Horng and Tsai (2010:80); Amuquandoh (2011:7-8); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Mak *et al.* (2012:931) Lifestyle: Steptoe *et al.* (1995:268); Kim *et al.* (2009:426); Chang *et al.* (2010:991); Amuquandoh (2011:3); Falguera *et al.* (2012:275); Abraham and Kannan (2015:145)
10	External	Global trends: buying local	The availability and quality of local cuisine	Barcelona Field Studies Centre (2015); Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie (2015:41)
11			Overall, how satisfied were you with the food and beverages during your trip?	

3.4.1.4 Ethical aspects

Ethical aspects regarding confidentiality and anonymity were clearly stated on the questionnaire. At the time of data collection, respondents were also verbally informed that participation in the research was voluntary.

3.4.1.5 Validity

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014:91), the validity of a questionnaire is the degree to which the questionnaire measures what it aims to measure. Although many different types of validity exist, the four most important types are considered to be criterion-related validity, construct validity, face validity, and content validity (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006:156). Construct and content validity were proved for the newly developed questionnaire.

Construct validity can be defined as the degree to which an instrument measures a characteristic that is presumed to exist, even though it cannot be directly observed, based on patterns in people's behaviour (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:92). Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole (2013:233) define it as the degree to which scores on an instrument reflect the desired construct rather than an alternative construct. Construct validity can be proven by ensuring that a questionnaire has convergent validity. Convergent validity is the relationship between the current instrument and other instruments intending to measure the same construct. A high correlation between such instruments would prove high convergent validity and consequently high construct validity. The questionnaire in this case is based on measurement instruments determining, for example, the culinary preferences of foreign tourists in India (Updhyay & Sharma, 2014:29), measuring the characteristics and motivations of culinary tourists and determining whether gastronomy is an important aspect of the trip or whether it is perceived as a secondary activity (Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:229), and evaluation of the utilisation and promotion of local cuisine as a tourism resource (Chatibura, 2015:275). Since the current questionnaire is based on measurement instruments measuring similar constructs, the likelihood of construct validity is high.

The degree to which the measurement instrument covers the range of meanings included within a concept is called content validity (Babbie, 2013:192). According to Bless *et al.* (2013:231), if a questionnaire is based on the literature of the relevant research field and measures all the different components of the topic in question (in this case culinary preferences), the instrument is sure to have high content validity. The content validity of the questionnaire in this case was proven by being founded on literature, consumer behaviour and motivational theories, tourists' culinary frameworks and models.

3.5 **Pilot study**

Prior to the pilot study, the questionnaire was submitted to a language practitioner who linguistically revised the questionnaire in English. The questionnaire was again proofread to ensure that no questions had been altered in a manner that could be misunderstood by respondents. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine the amount of time respondents would require to complete the questionnaire; to determine the feasibility of the questionnaire, and to identify any possible difficulties with the materials or method used for data collection, such as confusing guidelines on the questionnaire (Bless *et al.*, 2013:109; Coughlan, 2012:97; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:114).

A two-step pilot study was conducted. Firstly, two international students studying at the North-West University were asked to check if the questionnaire was understandable and to comment on the questionnaire. After the international students' feedback had been received, it was concluded that too many questions remained unanswered as the students were not tourists to South Africa at the time of the pilot study.

It is always advisable to pilot a questionnaire with respondents who are broadly representative of the main study respondents (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:127). The questionnaire therefore had to be piloted in the same environment as that in which the data collection would take place. A second pilot study was conducted during May 2016 with international tourists in the departure halls of O.R. Tambo International Airport's international terminals. Minor adjustments were made to the questionnaire after the pilot study and it was established that approximately 10 to 15 minutes were required to

complete the questionnaire. The results obtained in the pilot study were not used in the final study.

3.6 Data gathering

Due to the strict rules and regulations of O.R. Tambo International Airport regarding police clearance and access, there are only three research companies that are allowed to collect data at the airport. No individual or other organisation is allowed to collect data directly at the airport (Sebola, 2016a). The three research companies permitted to collect data at the airport are Ratile Research, Market Decisions and Plus 94 Research (Sebola, 2016b). Ratile Research collected the required data for the present study.

Data was gathered over a period of three months: data collection commenced at the end of May 2016 and concluded in the first week of August 2016. As can be seen in Figure 3.1, with the exception of December, on average there is no great monthly variation as to the percentage of foreign departures from South Africa, with only a 1.3% variation between the month with the most departures and the month with the least (Statistics South Africa, 2016b:9).

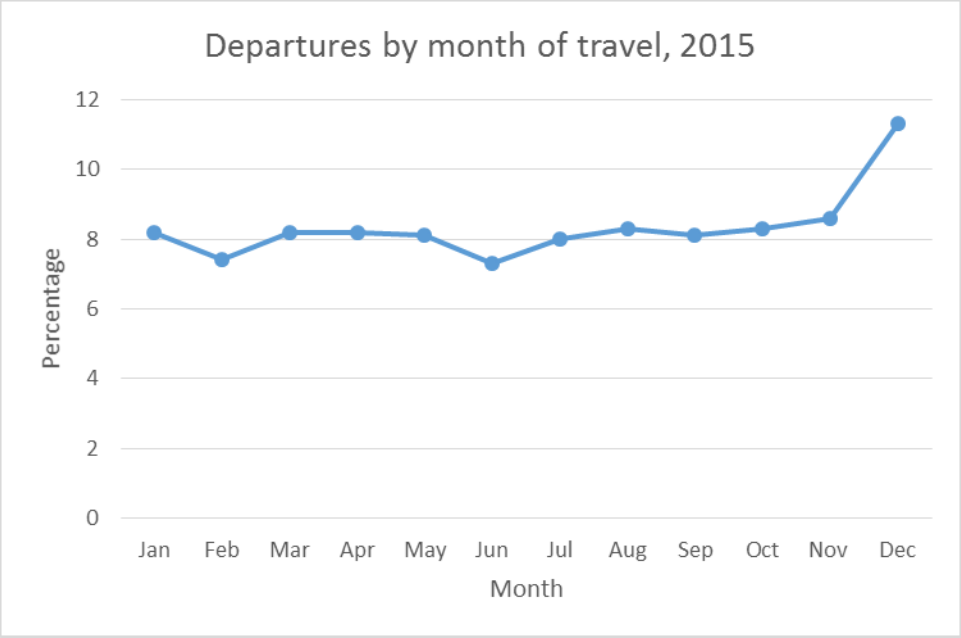

Figure 3.1: International departures from South Africa

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2016b:9)

No preference was therefore given to a particular month for data collection. It was, however, important for data collection to take place over a number of months to ensure no specific event in the country would skew the data collected. Events that took place in South Africa during the data collection period included: the Southern Africa Transport Conference, the Logic, Algebra and Truth Degrees Conference, the Oppikoppi music festival, the Good Food & Wine Show and the Comrades Marathon (Elsevier, 2016a, Elsevier, 2016b; Fiera Milano Exhibitions Africa, 2016; Oppikoppi, 2016; World Marathons News, 2016).

The researcher communicated clear guidelines to the fieldworkers prior to the commencement of the data gathering. Experienced and senior field workers were deployed to collect the data (Sebola, 2016c). Fieldworkers introduced themselves to travellers in the departure halls of the O.R. Tambo International Airport's international terminals. The fieldworkers explained to potential respondents the overall objectives of the research and requested the travellers' permission to conduct the study. A series of questions were used to determine whether or not participants met the inclusion criteria, namely being over the age of 18, understanding English, being non-residents of South Africa and having stayed in South Africa overnight. Those who were eligible were asked to voluntarily participate in the study by completing the self-administered questionnaire. Fieldworkers remained with the respondents while they completed the questionnaire in case the respondent required clarity on any of the questions or preferred to complete the questionnaire in a face-to-face interview manner. Fieldworkers took care not to influence the respondents' answers in any way.

The researcher requested Ratile Research to collect 600 questionnaires. Ratile Research hence requested that 720 blank questionnaires be provided to them, as they required 20% additional questionnaires in case of spoilage of forms for any reason. A total of 706 questionnaires were distributed, of which 664 questionnaires were completed. Of these 664 questionnaires, 627 questionnaires were useable for the final analysis, as 37 questionnaires were incomplete or could not be used for other reasons (e.g. respondents did not meet the inclusion criteria). This figure represents an 87.08% (if based on the 720 questionnaires) response rate. The 627 completed questionnaires far exceed the suggested sample sizes for large populations of 384 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970:608) and 400 (Leedy & Ormrod,

2014:222). According to Steyn (2015:109), the number of questionnaires is therefore representative of the target population.

3.7 Statistical analysis

The software used to analyse the acquired data included Microsoft Excel (2013) and Statistical Package of the Social Sciences (SPSS version 23). Descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted. A statistician assisted the researcher with conducting the statistical tests of the data. The types of analyses employed included exploratory factor analysis, Cronbach α, Spearman's rank correlations, t-tests, ANOVA and SEM.

3.7.1 Descriptive statistics

Microsoft Excel version 2013 was used to analyse Section A of the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies (in percentage format), means and standard deviations were computed. Descriptive statistics are useful in providing simple summaries about the study sample and their responses to questions (Fink, 2009:78).

3.7.2 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

EFA was conducted in order to group the variables and to determine a factor structure for both the culinary-preference variables as well as the culinary-satisfaction variables. EFA is used to determine how many factors are present. Since the researcher did not know how many factors were present, a confirmatory factor analysis could not be performed and the EFA was preferred.

With a factor analysis the correlations between variables are examined and interrelated variables that reveal underlying themes (or factors) are grouped together (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:313). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates the overall significance of all the correlations in the correlation matrix (Hair *et al.*, 2010:92). Benefits of factor analyses include that it is an effective method of ascertaining predominant patterns among variables and it presents data in a form that can easily be interpreted (Babbie, 2013:484).

In order to apply a factor analysis, a sample size of at least 300 is required (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:613). It is also important to consider the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of

sampling adequacy. Values of between 0.5 and 1.0 indicate that a factor analysis is appropriate (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:624).

Within a factor analysis, each item is given a score or factor loading. The factor loading reflects how much the item belongs to each of the underlying factors (Bernard, 2013:295). The higher the loading, the stronger the relationship is between the item and the factor (Bradley, 2013:321). Preferably, each item would only load onto one factor, with a loading of more than 0.4 (Wille, 1996:25-26; Raubenheimer, 2004:61). Bradley (2013:321) again states that 0.6 and above indicates a very high factor loading, 0.3 and above indicates a high factor loading and loadings below 0.3 should be ignored, as this indicates a low loading. Loadings can be either positive or negative. A positive loading indicates a positive relationship between the variable and the factor, and a negative loading indicates an inverse relationship of the variable with the factor (Bradley, 2013:321).

3.7.3 **Reliability**

Reliability is the consistency with which a questionnaire produces a certain result when the object being measured has not changed (Coughlan, 2012:100; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:93). One technique to measure reliability is to scrutinise the degree of internal consistency of the questions in a survey (Fink, 2009:42). When diverse items are formulated to measure a specific construct, in this case each of the culinary-preference and culinary-satisfaction factors, a high degree of similarity should exist between the items (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:216). Cronbach's α is an estimate of internal consistency or, stated otherwise, the degree of similarity between items (Bless *et al.*, 2013:229). McMillan and Schumacher (2006:186) believe the Cronbach α coefficient to be the best method to confirm the reliability of a survey when dealing with a series of possible answers.

According to Fink (2009:43), when comparing groups, a reliability coefficient of 0.50 or above is acceptable, but when the aim of the research is to make decisions about individual health or education needs, the reliability coefficient should be 0.90 or above. Maree and Pietersen (2007:216) state that a Cronbach α coefficient of 0.70 or higher is adequate.

As Cronbach's α was designed to apply to statements measuring a single concept and not multiple concepts, Cronbach's α coefficient was used to determine the reliability of each of

the culinary-preference and satisfaction factors of the current questionnaire rather than on the questionnaire as a whole (Smith, 2010:247).

3.7.4 *t*-tests

This test assesses the statistical difference between two sample means for a dependent variable (Hair *et al.*, 2010:442). The questions analysed with t-tests were Question 2: "gender", Question 15: "if you did not try local cuisine, please select all the applicable reasons", and Question 18: "are you currently following any religious, health- or weight-related diet". Question 15 was included here as respondents were able to select all of the applicable reasons for not trying local cuisine and as they could select one of two options per statement, they either agreed or disagreed with each individual statement (see Appendix A). This resulted in the t-test being the applicable statistical test to employ for data analysis.

Typically, p-values below an alpha (α) of 0.05 are regarded as being statistically significant (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:498). Once it has been determined that a statistically significant relationship exists, the effect size of the relationship should be analysed. According to Ellis and Steyn (2003:52), the effect size (*d*) is the practical significance of the relationship. The guidelines for interpretation of the effect sizes are $d = 0.2$ is a small effect, $d = 0.5$ is a medium effect and $d = 0.8$ is a large effect (Cohen, cited by Ellis & Steyn, 2003:52).

3.7.5 Spearman's rank order correlations

Spearman's rank order correlation or Spearman's rho is the test used to analyse variables that are ranked (Kline, 2016:42). The Spearman correlation coefficient ranges from -1.0 to 1.0. A correlation coefficient of 0 indicates no correlation at all. A correlation coefficient near 1.0 indicates a strong positive correlation, and a correlation coefficient near -1.0 indicates a strong negative correlation. When a negative correlation exists, it indicates that as the one variable increases, the other decreases. Likewise, when a positive correlation exists, an increase in the one variable will cause an increase in the other variable (Williams, Sweeney & Anderson, 2012:140 & 881).

Spearman's rank order correlations were used to determine whether correlations exist between the ranked socio-demographic and travel-profile variables and the culinary-

preference and culinary-satisfaction factors. The ranked questions were Question 1: “in what year were you born”, Question 3: “what is your highest educational qualification”, Question 5: “how often do you normally dine out”, Question 6: “I consider myself to be...” (level of adventurousness when dining), Question 7: “how many times have you travelled internationally in the last 5 years, including this trip”, Question 8: “how many times (including this trip) have you visited South Africa”, Question 9: “during this trip, how many nights did you stay in South Africa” and Question 11: “approximately how much did you spend on this trip in South African Rand (ZAR)”. This analysis was also used to analyse the correlation between the identified factors.

3.7.6 **Analysis of variance (ANOVA)**

ANOVA illustrates how a factor (independent variable) influences a dependent variable (Smith, 2010:245). ANOVA is done by comparing the variances (s2) within and across groups in order to examine the differences between three or more means (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:313). If these variances are larger than expected, there is a statistically significant difference between the groups (Smith, 2010:456).

The ANOVA *F*-test examines the overall difference in means. As the differences between specific means may be of more interest, the post hoc Tukey test may be conducted in order to provide more information (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:537). Effect size may again be used in order to replace the Tukey results, as these effect sizes give a practical effect useful to industry. The effect sizes (*d*) interpretation remains the same as detailed for t-tests, and $d = 0.2$ is a small effect, $d = 0.5$ is a medium effect and $d = 0.8$ is a large effect (Cohen, cited by Ellis & Steyn, 2003:52).

ANOVA was used to compare the remaining socio-demographic and travel-profile variables that offered respondents more than two different answering options that were not ranked, with the culinary-preference and culinary-satisfaction factors. The questions addressed were Question 4: “what is your nationality”, Question 10: “what type of accommodation did you make use of during this trip”, Question 12: “what was the main purpose of this trip”, Question 13: “are you familiar with South African cuisine” and Question 14: “did you try local cuisine during this trip”.

3.7.7 **Structural equation modelling (SEM)**

SEM is typically used to test a hypothesised model and to determine if it is valid (Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:711; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:313). SEM has been defined as a theory-driven, data-analytical approach to evaluate the causal relationship between variables (Kruger, Saayman & Ellis, 2014:657). An advantage of this statistical modelling tool is that it makes use of multiple measures, which avoids the risk of measure-specific error (Weston & Gore, 2006:723).

SEM is commonly explained in stages (Hair *et al.*, 2010:653-677; Malhotra, 2013:715). Kline (2016:117-120) explains SEM in the following six steps (as depicted in Figure 3.2):

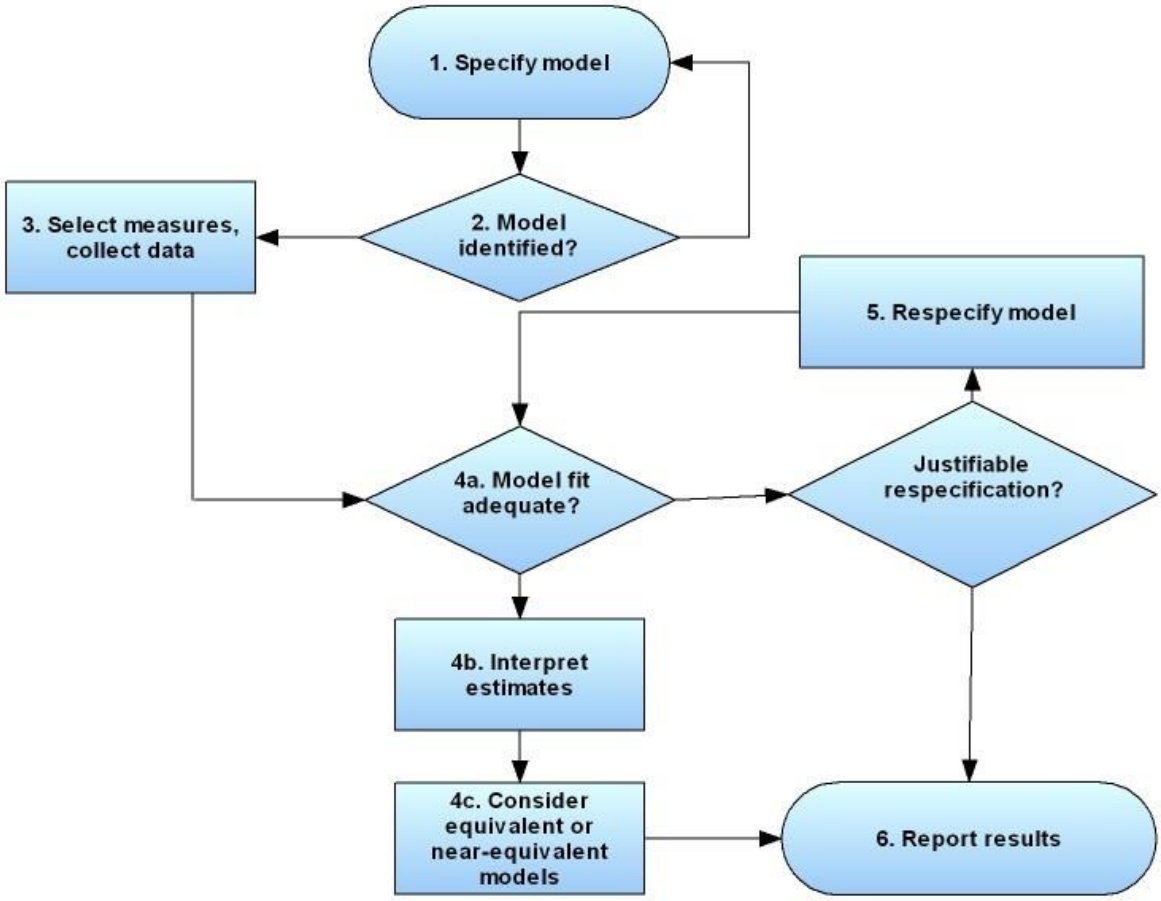

Figure 3.2: Flowchart of the basic steps of structural equation modelling

Source: Kline (2016:118)

- **Step 1: Specify the model**

Specification is the most important stage. Based on the literature review, the research hypotheses are expressed graphically as a conceptual model. Independent variables in SEM are referred to as exogenous variables, and the dependent variables as endogenous variables (Kline, 2016:119).

- **Step 2: Evaluate model identification (if not identified, return to step 1)**

Graphic conceptual models should eventually translate into statistical models that can be analysed. A statistical model must respect certain rules and regulations, one being identification. Statistical models are described by a series of equations that define the model parameters. These model parameters and the presumed relations between the variables are analysed with the data acquired from the study sample. A model is said to be have been identified if it is theoretically possible for the statistical program to derive a distinctive estimation of each model parameter (Kline, 2016:119). Stated differently, identification deals with whether enough information exists in order to identify a solution for the structural equations (Hair *et al.*, 2010:698 & 701).

- **Step 3: Select the measures (operationalise the constructs) and collect, prepare, and screen the data**

The measurement instrument used to collect the data should be reliable and valid (Kline (2016:89-90). In order to apply an SEM, a sample size of at least 300 is required (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:613 & 659).

- **Step 4: Estimate the model:**

    a. Evaluate model fit; if poor, specify the model, but only if doing so is justifiable (skip to Step 5); otherwise, retain no model (skip to Step 6)

    b. Assuming a model is retained, interpret the parameter estimates

    c. Consider equivalent or near-equivalent models (skip to Step 6)

This step involves using a statistical computer tool to conduct an SEM analysis. Once an SEM has been conducted, it is important to assess the model fit. The objective of the model fit is to determine whether the associations between the variables in the hypothesised model sufficiently illustrate the associations observed in the data obtained (Kline, 2016:120). Multiple indices may be used to assess the model fit, including the comparative fix index (CFI) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). CFI ranges from 0 to 1, and values closer to 1 show a better model fit (Weston & Gore, 2006:741-742). CFI values above 0.90 are generally associated with a good model fit (Hair *et al.*, 2010:669). With RMSEA, a value of 0.00 indicates an exact model fit (Weston & Gore, 2006:742). RMSEA values of 0.08 or less are generally regarded as demonstrating a good fit (Stevens, 2009:567; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718). RMSEA is one of the most widely used measures and it is a good representation of how well a model fits not only a study sample, but also a population, as it includes both model complexity and sample size in its computation (Hair *et al.*, 2010:667).

Another widely used method to test the model fit is the normed chi-square (CMIN/DF). The greater the sample size, the more the higher value may be seen as acceptable (Hair *et al.*, 2010:668). According to Mueller (1996:84), no absolute standard has been (and should be) set for the CMIN/DF, and values up to 5 are still interpreted by some to represent a good model fit.

Both the RMSEA and CMIN/DF are known as absolute fit indices, meaning they are direct measures of how well the conceptual model reproduces the observed data. CFI, on the other hand, is known as an incremental fit index, which assesses how well the conceptual model fits relative to some alternative baseline model (Hair *et al.,* 2010:666-668).

More often than not, an initial statistical model does not fit the data very well. Should this be the case, complete Step 4.a. If a satisfactory model fit has been achieved, complete Step 4.b. by interpreting the parameter estimates of the model. Lastly, complete Step 4.c. There may be many models that fit the data and an explanation should be given as to why the selected model is the preferred one (Kline, 2016:120).

- **Step 5: Respecify the model, which is assumed to be identified (return to Step 4)**

If the initial model fit was poor, it should be respecified. Respecification should be guided by rational and statistical considerations. A theoretical explanation is required to justify any changes in the model. It is also important to indicate the specific statistics used to respecify the model (such as correlations) and to indicate how many and which paths were added or dropped. Ensure that the respecified model is identified (Kline, 2016:120 & 463).

- **Step 6: Report the results**

The last step is to accurately describe the analysis conducted.

3.8 Chapter summary

This chapter examined the methodology used to address the problem statement and Objective 2 of the study. Focus was placed on the measurement instrument, which was newly designed for these purposes. Data-gathering techniques employed to obtain a representative sample of international tourists in South Africa were described. The chapter concluded with the statistical techniques applied to critically analyse the culinary preferences of these tourists. The following chapter contains the empirical results and discussion of these results.

Chapter 4: Results and discussion

4.1 Introduction

There is nothing like looking, if you want to find something. You certainly usually find something, if you look, but it is not always quite the something you were after.

Tolkien (1978:55)

The purpose of this chapter is to outline and discuss the results obtained by means of the methodology described in Chapter 3. The questionnaires were distributed at the busiest airport on the African continent (Writer, 2016), where international tourists departing South Africa were randomly approached to participate in the research. Six-hundred-and-twenty-seven questionnaires were included in the data analysis. The data was captured in Excel and analysed in SPSS. Mainly, this chapter addresses Objective 2 of the research: to identify the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa. The chapter also addresses many of the questions posed in the problem statement and literature review. To begin with, however, the chapter investigates the respondents in terms of their socio-demographic profiles as well as their travel profiles.

4.2 Socio-demographic and travel profile

This section of the questionnaire contained 19 questions. As not all 627 respondents had answered all the questions, unique sample totals were found for each question.

4.2.1 Socio-demographic profile

Table 4.1 shows the socio-demographic profile of the sample. This socio-demographic data was captured in Questions 1 to 4, 6, 18 and 19 of the questionnaire. If the characteristic and the variable to which each characteristic related were not identical, the variable was stated in brackets in the first column. The sample (n) who answered each specific question is also stated in the first column.

Table 4.1: Socio-demographic frequencies

Characteristic	Detail	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age (n = 614)	18-25	159	25.90%
	26-35	169	27.52%
	36-45	155	25.24%
	46-55	68	11.07%
	56+	63	10.26%
Gender (n = 624)	Male	365	58.49%
	Female	259	41.51%
Educational level (n = 611)	Secondary school or less	82	13.42%
	Vocational training	70	11.46%
	University degree	459	75.12%
Nationality (n = 615)	Africa	309	49.28%
	Americas	117	18.66%
	Australia and Oceania	15	2.39%
	Europe	109	17.38%
	Asia	66	10.53%
Neophilic versus neophobic tendency (type of tourist and personality) (n = 575)	Adventurous	290	50.43%
	Slightly adventurous	209	36.35%
	Not at all adventurous	76	13.22%
Following any religious, health- or weigh-related diet (cultures and religion, intolerances and allergies and lifestyle) (n = 616)	Yes	78	12.66%
	No	538	87.34%
If following a diet, which diet (cultures and religion, intolerances and allergies and lifestyle) (n = 40)	Vegan	5	7.35%
	Halal	10	14.71%
	Vegetarian	17	25.00%
	Low carb	4	5.88%
	Weight	4	5.88%

4.2.1.1 Age

Table 4.1 shows that most (78.66%) of the respondents were under the age of 46 years, as 25.90% were between the ages of 18 and 25, 27.52% between 26 and 35 and 25.24% between 36 and 45. In 2015, 89.5% of tourists to South Africa were between the ages of 15 and 64 (Statistics South Africa, 2016b:21). This indicates that in general, tourists to South Africa are relatively young. For the present study only 11.07% of the respondents were between the ages of 46 and 55 and 10.26% were 56 or older. The average age of respondents who visited South Africa between May and August 2016 and completed the survey was 35 years.

4.2.1.2 Gender

In 2015 as well as in the current study there were more male than female international tourists to South Africa. In 2015, 55.7% of tourists were male and 44.3% were female (Statistics South Africa, 2016b:21). In the present study (as is seen in Table 4.1), 58.49% were male and 41.51% female.

4.2.1.3 Educational level

As Table 4.1 indicates, an overwhelming majority of 75.12% of the respondents indicated that they held a university degree. This is similar to the findings of Steyn (2015:127), who found 86% of tourists to South Africa to be well educated. The remaining respondents were almost equally divided between having completed school and having completed vocational training. Respondents who indicated their educational level to be secondary school or less were 13.42%, and 11.46% indicated having completed vocational training.

4.2.1.4 Nationality

According to Statistics South Africa (2016b:2 & 12), 75.8% of international tourists to South Africa in 2015 were Africans. Their sample, however, included tourists who entered and departed South Africa by land and sea as well. Slightly less than half (49.28%) the respondents from the current study were from African countries. The difference in the results of the current study and Statistics South Africa is most likely due to the fact that the current sample included only tourists who departed South Africa by air.

The other half of the respondents in the current study were mainly divided between Americans (18.66%), Europeans (17.38%) and Asians (10.53%), with only a few respondents from Australia and Oceania (2.39%), as can be seen in Table 4.1. Since there were only two respondents from South America, it was decided to group South and North America together, and this group is referred to as the Americas. The individual country with the most visitors to South Africa by far was the United States of America, with 108 respondents being American. There were no respondents from Antarctica.

4.2.1.5 Neophilic versus neophobic tendency

In order to determine whether tourists display neophilic or neophobic tendencies, they were requested to state whether they would consider themselves to be adventurous while

travelling in terms of whether they choose to try local cuisine. Half (50.43%) the respondents displayed neophilic tendencies and chose to "always" try local cuisine. Just over a third (36.35%) were neither neophilic nor neophobic, as they occasionally tried local cuisine, and 13.22% were neophobic, preferring cuisine they were used to. This finding differs from the assumptions of Burusnukul *et al.* (2011:968) and Mak *et al*. (2012:933) that people commonly prefer cuisine they are used to. Due to the neophilic tendencies of international tourists to South Africa it is very important that dining establishments cater for the needs of international tourists by offering local South African food and beverages.

4.2.1.6 Following any religious, health- or weight-related diet

When asked whether they were following any religious, health- or weight-related diets, 87.34% of the respondents stated that they were not. The 12.66% who were following diets were following a great variety of different diets for different reasons. The diets and reasons most frequently cited included vegetarian (25% of the respondents following a diet), halal (14.71%) and vegan (7.35%). Other noteworthy diets were low carbohydrate (5.88%) and weight-loss diets (5.88%). It should be noted that the diet cited most often in this study, namely vegetarianism, made out only 2.76% of the total sample. This finding is useful, as dining establishment managements might have assumed more international tourists to be vegetarians, since there is an estimated 375 million vegetarians worldwide (Figus, 2014).

Regarding religious diets, in addition to halal, two respondents cited in this study that they followed a Christian diet, one a Catholic diet and one a Hindu diet. Five respondents also indicated that they consumed only certain meats. One respondent noted that they suffered from allergies and one suffered from avoidant food intake disorder.

4.2.2 Travel profile

The travel profiles of tourists were captured in Questions 5 and 7 to 17 and the results are summarised in Table 4.2. Like in Table 4.1, the first column in Table 4.2 details the specific characteristics as well as the specific variables each question addressed. The sample (n) who answered each specific question is also stated in the first column.

Table 4.2: Travel profile frequencies

Characteristic	Detail	Frequency	Percentage (%) and ZAR
Frequency of dining out (past experience) (n = 551)	More than once a week	150	27.22%
	Once a week	191	34.66%
	Once a month	132	23.96%
	Less than once a month	34	6.17%
	Seldom	44	7.99%
Number of international trips in the past five years (travel experience and frequency) (n = 605)	1-5	325	53.72%
	6-10	142	23.47%
	11-15	40	6.61%
	16-20	46	7.60%
	21-25	14	2.31%
	26-30	11	1.82%
	31+	27	4.46%
Times visited South Africa (travel experience and frequency) (n = 607)	1-5	518	85.34%
	6-10	60	9.88%
	11-15	12	1.98%
	16-20	8	1.32%
	21+	9	1.48%
Length of stay (taxonomy question) (n = 617)	1-7	317	51.38%
	8-14	179	29.01%
	15-21	64	10.37%
	22+	57	9.24%
Type of accommodation (taxonomy question) (n = 517)	Hotels	251	48.55%
	Resorts	15	2.90%
	Homes of friends and relatives	138	26.69%

Characteristic	Detail	Frequency	Percentage (%) and ZAR
	Campgrounds	15	2.90%
	Bed and breakfasts	41	7.93%
	Other	57	11.03%
Average spending (problem statement question) (n = 563)	Accommodation	342	R8 863.54
	Sight-seeing tours	148	R3 516.14
	Transport	251	R2 802.31
	Food and beverages	382	R3 080.22
	Packaged tours	96	R25 430.84
	Other	243	R6 201.37
Main purpose of trip (type of tourist) (n = 541)	Leisure	112	20.70%
	Business	204	37.71%
	Visiting friends or relatives	112	20.70%
	Other	113	20.89%
Familiar with South African cuisine (past experience) (n = 616)	Yes	272	44.16%
	No	253	41.07%
	Not sure	91	14.77%
Consumed local cuisine during trip (personality) (n = 607)	Yes	418	68.86%
	No	147	24.22%
	Not sure	42	6.92%
Reasons for not trying South African local cuisine (marketing, hygiene perception, personality, availability, quality and variety, global trends: buying local) (n = 232)	I did not know which items are local (marketing)	125	53.88%
	I was not sure about the health and safety of the local cuisine (hygiene perception)	17	7.33%
	I was not sure which ingredients the local dishes or beverages contain	40	17.24%
	I was not interested in trying local cuisine (personality, global trends: buying local)	29	12.50%
	The local cuisine did not look appetising (availability, quality and variety)	6	2.59%
	Other	15	6.47%
Favourite meal during the trip (note: only most popular listed here) (problem statement question)	Chicken	82	14.29%
	Pap (also referred to as ugali)	50	8.71%
	Steak	47	8.19%

Characteristic	Detail	Frequency	Percentage (%) and ZAR
(n = 574)	Indian/curry	40	6.97%
	Fish	33	5.75%
	Braai (also referred to as barbeque or BBQ)	31	5.40%
Favourite beverage during the trip (note: only most popular listed here) (problem statement question) (n = 542)	Tea	40	7.38%
	Coffee and coffee-related drinks (e.g. latte and cappuccino)	55	10.15%
	Water	68	12.55%
	Wine	92	16.97%
	Soft drinks	71	13.10%
	Beer	125	23.06%
	Juice	73	13.47%

4.2.2.1 Frequency of dining out

This question related to the past experience variable. The logic was that the more frequently the respondents dined out, the more experienced they were, and this experience has been found to influence food consumption (Chang *et al*., 2010:991; Amuquandoh, 2011:3; Falguera *et al*., 2012:275; Mak *et al*., 2012:931). The answer category most frequently selected in this study was once a week (34.66%). Secondly, quite a few respondents stated that they dined out more than once a week (27.22%). Almost the same number of respondents (23.96%) dined out once a month, while a few (6.17%) dined out less than once a month or seldom (7.99%).

In a study conducted among tourists in Gaborone, 40% of respondents indicated that they dined out a few times a month, but less than once a week (Chatibura, 2015:157-158). The difference between the findings of this study and the Gaborone study may be due to the fact that the Gaborone sample included not only international, but also 82% local tourists. It may therefore represent the dining habits of Botswana tourists rather than the dining habits of international tourists from a variety of countries.

4.2.2.2 Number of international trips in the past five years

For 9.88% of respondents, this was their first trip abroad ever. Furthermore, Table 4.2 shows that the majority of respondents were not frequent international travellers. More than half (53.72%) had travelled five or fewer times in the past five years and another 23.47% had travelled internationally between six and ten times.

4.2.2.3 Times visited SA

Table 4.2 indicates that 85.34% of respondents had travelled to South Africa between one and five times (including this trip). This trip had been the first visit to South Africa for 43% of the respondents. This was similar to the findings by Steyn (2015:129) for international tourists to South Africa, as the author found 39% of respondents to be first-time visitors. In the present study, almost 10% (9.88%) had been to the country between six and ten times, while very few (4.78%) had visited South Africa more than that. South African Tourism

(2016e:22) found 50.6% of air tourists in South Africa to be first timers in 2015, while 6.5% had visited South Africa more than 10 times.

4.2.2.4 Length of stay

The majority of respondents (51.38%) stayed for a week or less. Similar results were found by Statistics South Africa (2016b:17 & 19), as the average stay of international tourists in South Africa in 2015 was between three and six days. In the current study, another 29.01% stayed between one and two weeks, 10.37% stayed between two and three weeks and 9.24% stayed longer than three weeks (see Table 4.2).

4.2.2.5 Type of accommodation

As can be seen in Table 4.2, 48.55% of the respondents stayed in hotels. This was followed by 26.69% staying in the homes of friends and family, 11.03% staying in "other" accommodation, and 7.93% staying in bed and breakfasts. Research previously conducted among international tourists at O.R. Tambo International Airport revealed similar results, as 53% of respondents had stayed in hotels and 34% had stayed with friends and family (Steyn, 2015:129).

As only six respondents in the current study stayed in motels and three in country inns, these categories were too small to analyse statistically and were consequently added to the category labelled "other". Some of the "other" accommodation stated by respondents included private apartments, hostels and university and school campuses.

4.2.2.6 Average spending

The average spending on food and beverages per respondent was R3 080.22, which amounted to 6.17% of total spending. It should, however, be noted that some respondents bought packaged tours (50.97% of total spending), and the amount spent would likely also have included some food and beverages. Likewise, some accommodation rates (17.76% of total spending) may have included breakfast or breakfast and dinner. Therefore, the figure for total food and beverage expenditure would likely be elevated by these other factors. Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 illustrate the effect of including and excluding packaged tours respectively when analysing the spending of international tourists while they are in South Africa.

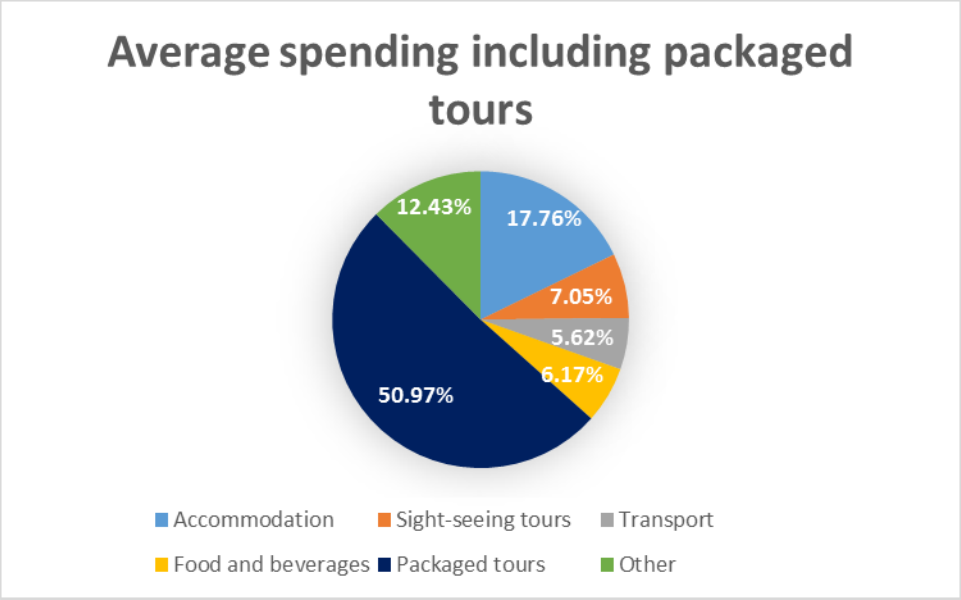

Figure 4.1: Average spending, including packaged tours

As can be seen (especially in Figure 4.2), food and beverages constitute a fair amount of the total spending (12.59% of total spending when packaged tours are omitted), with respondents spending more on food and beverages than they do on transport (11.46%). Almost equal amounts were spent on sight-seeing tours (14.37%) and on cuisine. In 2013 international tourists spent just over 10% on food during their stay in South Africa (South African Tourism, 2014:1), indicating results similar to those of the current study.

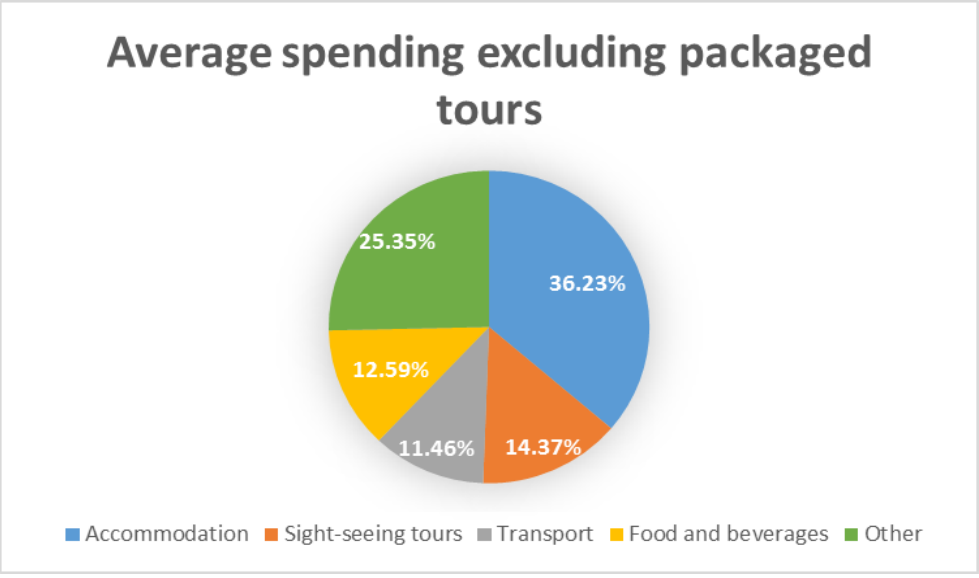

Figure 4.2: Average spending, excluding packaged tours

In total, the average amount spent by each respondent on this trip to South Africa was R18 239.76. When calculating this average, it was decided to omit total spending values below R1 000, as this was seen as highly unlikely to be true when factoring in the current rates for food, beverages, transport and accommodation in South Africa. This amount is quite similar to South African Tourism's (2016e) findings with respect to international tourists who departed South Africa by air. It was found that these tourists spent an average of R17 100 on their trips to South Africa in 2015.

4.2.2.7 Main purpose of trip

According to Statistics South Africa (2016b:9), in 2015, 93.8% of international visitors to South Africa stated that the main purpose of their trip was holidaying. However, South African Tourism (2016e:21) found a decline in leisure tourists in 2015 when compared to 2014. They found leisure tourists to comprise 65.1% of their sample and business tourists comprised 23.8% of the sample. The samples of these two national statistics clearly differed.

Interestingly, as can be seen in Table 4.2, for this study only 20.7% of the respondents indicated that they were in South Africa for leisure purposes. An equal percentage of respondents (20.7%) were visiting friends or relatives, while 37.71% of respondents indicated that they were in South Africa on business. Reasons given for the 20.89% of respondents who were visiting the country for other reasons included volunteering and educational purposes such as studying, research, attending workshops and conferences. The main reasons for the great difference in research findings may include that the given research categories differed, and that this study took place only in Johannesburg, which is the business Mecca of South Africa. The Statistics South Africa (2016b) and South African Tourism (2016e) research took place across the whole of South Africa. Another reason for the decreased level of leisure visitors in this study may be that this study took place only in the South African winter (May-Aug).

4.2.2.8 Familiar with South African cuisine

This question related to the past experience variable, as Abraham and Kannan (2015:141) state that tourists' culinary preferences can be influenced by a past experience as simple as eating similar or stereotyped food in their home country. This question was important, since South African cuisine is not as world renowned as Chinese, Indian or Italian cuisine, for

example. Surprisingly, 44.16% of respondents indicated that they were in fact familiar with South African cuisine. This is a very positive finding. Nevertheless, more can be done, as 41.07% were not familiar with South African cuisine and 14.77% were not certain whether they were familiar with the cuisine or not.

4.2.2.9 Consumed local cuisine during trip

Torres (2002:286) believes that the contemporary tourist is more open to trying local food at their travel destination. A great number (68.86%) of tourists consumed local food during this trip to South Africa (see Table 4.2). Similarly, in an English study, 60% of tourists intentionally chose to consume local food and beverages while on holiday (Sims, 2009:326 & 329).

The rest of the respondents who either did not consume local food (24.22%) or were not sure whether they had consumed local food or not (6.92%) stated a variety of reasons for this. These included mainly not knowing which items were local (53.88%), not being sure about the health and safety of the local cuisine (7.33%), not knowing which ingredients the local dishes or beverages contained (17.24%), not being interested in trying the local cuisine (12.50%), and not finding the local cuisine appetising (2.59%). Some respondents (6.47%) stated other reasons than the categories given, with the most notable reasons cited including having dietary requirements, such as being vegetarian, or not having had an opportunity to try local cuisine.

According to Cohen and Avieli (2004:761), tourists, particularly those travelling to developing countries, tend to avoid the consumption of certain local foods due to the fear of illness. As was mentioned, however, in the current study only 7.33% of respondents stated that they did not consume local food because of health and safety considerations.

4.2.2.10 Favourite meal during the trip

It should be noted that for this question, when tourists stated that a chicken burger was their favourite dish, the answer was captured under both “chicken” and “burger”. Tourists’ favourite meal was widely distributed across different meal options. Chicken was a favourite for many (14.29%). Some of the chicken dishes mentioned were chicken curry, chicken wings, chicken with pap or chips and braai chicken. Braai is the Afrikaans word for barbeque,

and pap is the Afrikaans word for maize porridge. These terms are well known and frequently used in South Africa. Pap was the second most favourite dish, with 8.71% of respondents mentioning it. Steak (8.19%), Indian or curry (6.97%), fish (5.75%) and braai (5.4%) were all also popular.

Other uniquely South African foods mentioned included kudu, springbuck, boerewors (sausage), biltong (salted and dried meat), Nando's (mainly a chicken-serving franchise), bobotie (a baked dish of minced curried meat and a savoury custard), potjiekos (traditional food prepared in a cast-iron pot outdoors), Shishanyama (mostly flame-grilled and traditional South African food), bunny chow (a hollowed-out half loaf of bread filled with curry), ostrich, vetkoek (deep-fried dough), malva pudding (a baked caramelised pudding), and chakalaka (spicy vegetable relish).

4.2.2.11 Favourite beverage during the trip

Alcoholic beverages in the form of beer (23.06%) and wine (16.97%) were the most popular. The most popular brand of beer was Castle, a South African brand, followed by the Namibian beer, Windhoek. As Table 4.2 indicates, juice (including Appletiser and Grapetiser) was also popular, with 13.47% of respondents stating it to be their favourite beverage consumed during this trip to South Africa. This was followed closely by soft drinks (13.10%), with popular soft drinks being Coke, Fanta and Cream Soda. Water (12.55%), coffee and coffee-related products (10.15%) and tea (7.38%) are all also worth a mention.

4.3 Determinants of culinary preferences and culinary satisfaction

For both Section B and Section C, some responses had to be omitted, since the respondents answered in a sequence. For example, if the respondent answered very important to all the questions in Section B, their responses were omitted from the analysis of Section B, but included in the analysis of Section A and Section C. Likewise, if the respondent answered all Section C's questions in the same way, such as stating that they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with any variable, their answers for the section were regarded as missing from data analysis, but their responses for the other sections were still included.

4.3.1 **Importance of the different determinants of culinary preferences**

Respondents were asked to rate a number of items relating to their culinary preferences on a 5-point scale to indicate their importance, ranging from not at all important (1) to extremely important (5). The items and their corresponding variables have been emphasised in italics from this point onwards and for the rest of this chapter. From the 32 items tested, it can be seen in Table 4.3 that respondents regarded being able to order from a *menu that is easily understandable* (*communication gap*) to be the most important, with a mean rating of 3.708. The availability of menus in English was found by Ab Karim and Chi (2010:550) in previous research to be an important factor for avid foodies and travellers in previous research. These findings confirm that it may be frustrating for tourists to order food and beverages if they cannot understand the language or are not provided with clear pictures of the cuisine on offer at dining establishments (Cincan, 2014). For example, international tourists in Ghana raised concerns that there was a lack of available information to identify local foods and difficulty in ordering local foods (Amuquandoh, 2011:4).

The second most important item for respondents in this study was the availability of cuisine that was reasonably *priced* (mean = 3.620). Ab Karim and Chi (2010:550) similarly found a reasonable *price* (*affordability*) for dining out to be important to tourists. In Thailand specifically it has been found that when tourists considered different types of dining establishments, they were most likely to select dining from street vendors or locally owned restaurants when only considering the *price* of these establishments compared to the price of international franchised restaurants and eating establishments at accommodation facilities (Burusnukul *et al.*, 2011:973).

The third most important item was that the food had to *appeal to the respondents' senses* (mean = 3.596). *Taste* has been found to dominate the dietary domain of tourists (Kittler & Sucher, 2004:202; Updyay & Sharma, 2014:35). *Taste* has also been found to specifically influence the preference for local food among international tourists (Batra, 2008:12 & 16; Abraham & Kannan, 2015:144). Some of the other important items noted by tourists in the current study include the availability of a wide *variety* of cuisine (mean = 3.519), the availability of information about local cuisine (mean = 3.426) that forms part of *marketing* and the opportunity to *experience a new culture through their cuisine* (mean = 3.424).

Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics of Section B

Rank	Question number	Item	Variable	Level of importance					Mean	Std. deviation
				Not at all important	Slightly important	Important	Very important	Extremely important		
1	1	Understandable menu	Communication gap	2.05%	8.21%	27.80%	40.49%	21.46%	3.708	.946
2	18	Reasonably priced	Affordability	3.38%	8.07%	34.33%	32.83%	21.39%	3.620	.995
3	7	Appeal to senses	Taste and availability, quality and variety	2.45%	8.49%	35.85%	34.53%	18.68%	3.596	.952
4	19	Variety of cuisine	Availability, quality and variety	3.23%	9.13%	38.97%	32.32%	16.35%	3.519	.963
5	5	Availability of information	Marketing	3.78%	10.02%	41.78%	32.70%	11.72%	3.426	.942
6	32	Experience a new culture	Desire for authentic food experience	7.59%	8.89%	37.22%	29.26%	17.04%	3.424	1.070
7	8	Allowed in diet	Lifestyle and culture and religion	9.27%	12.93%	35.91%	26.06%	15.83%	3.320	1.123
8	6	Pictures of cuisine	Marketing	6.94%	16.14%	37.71%	28.14%	11.07%	3.269	1.046
9	31	Traditional cuisine	Desire for authentic food experience	9.46%	10.76%	41.37%	28.20%	10.20%	3.249	1.049
10	2	Friends recommended	Social influences	8.21%	15.67%	37.31%	28.73%	10.07%	3.239	1.059
11	16	Sustainable methods	Global trends: environmental sustainability	8.57%	15.81%	38.10%	26.29%	11.24%	3.230	1.075
12	4	Supporting local	Global trends: buying local	5.86%	14.93%	44.80%	27.22%	7.18%	3.224	.964
13	3	Good ratings	Social influences	7.74%	16.79%	38.87%	26.98%	9.62%	3.216	1.046
14	15	100% natural	Global trends: clean eating and whole food	12.92%	16.10%	33.90%	22.10%	14.98%	3.180	1.193
15	17	Sustainable seafood	Global trends: environmental sustainability	13.99%	10.96%	37.24%	26.84%	10.96%	3.179	1.148
16	29	Close to attractions	Dining establishments	14.68%	15.61%	35.32%	23.98%	10.41%	3.085	1.161

Rank	Question number	Item	Variable	Level of importance					Mean	Std. deviation
				Not at all important	Slightly important	Important	Very important	Extremely important		
17	30	Esteemed restaurants	Social influences and global trends: celebrity chefs	13.73%	16.51%	40.82%	20.96%	7.98%	3.026	1.104
18	20	Availability of franchises	Global trends: rejection of low-cost mass-produced food	19.43%	18.30%	26.60%	23.58%	12.08%	3.013	1.269
19	14	Animal welfare	Global trends: functional, organic and animal-welfare-orientated products	21.95%	15.20%	33.40%	21.20%	8.26%	2.910	1.229
20	21	Gourmet cuisine	Global trends: trading up	17.74%	18.68%	39.43%	17.17%	6.98%	2.896	1.146
21	26	Culinary events	Social influences and self-development	19.51%	19.32%	36.59%	18.20%	6.38%	2.858	1.166
22	24	Food routes	Availability, quality and variety	20.60%	19.10%	35.58%	18.16%	6.55%	2.844	1.182
23	28	Child-friendly	Dining establishments	32.34%	13.75%	25.65%	18.03%	10.22%	2.742	1.350
24	23	Garage wines	Global trend: garage wine	28.95%	17.33%	30.10%	15.81%	7.81%	2.719	1.279
25	25	Wine routes	Availability, quality and variety	27.53%	17.79%	32.21%	15.73%	6.74%	2.718	1.247
26	13	Organic	Global trends: functional, organic and animal-welfare-orientated products	31.45%	14.88%	29.76%	13.75%	10.17%	2.716	1.329
27	22	Craft beer	Global trends: craft beer	29.80%	16.95%	29.05%	15.64%	8.57%	2.716	1.299
28	27	Enhance my knowledge	Self-development	25.93%	21.46%	32.84%	13.81%	5.97%	2.684	1.211
29	11	Vegetarian	Culture and religion	40.97%	15.64%	22.91%	10.61%	9.87%	2.514	1.381
30	10	Halal	Culture and religion	48.11%	11.13%	22.45%	10.75%	7.55%	2.394	1.379
31	12	Vegan	Culture and religion	46.34%	13.70%	23.26%	10.32%	6.38%	2.377	1.341
32	9	Kosher	Culture and religion	46.29%	13.52%	24.76%	10.86%	4.57%	2.356	1.307

The four items of least importance were the availability of kosher cuisine (with a mean of 2.356), the availability of vegan cuisine (mean = 2.377), the availability of halal cuisine (mean = 2.394) and the availability of vegetarian cuisine (mean = 2.514). This may be due to the fact that you are either 100% affected by dietary laws in *culture and religion* or 0% affected by them, and very few respondents stated that they were following any of these diets in the socio-demographic section of the questionnaire. The standard deviations of these four items are all quite high, ranging from 1.307 to 1.381.

4.3.2 **Culinary satisfaction descriptive analysis**

Respondents were requested to rate their satisfaction during this visit to South Africa with a number of items, ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). Table 4.4 illustrates that respondents were highly satisfied with their overall culinary experience while in the country (mean = 4.112). Respondents also displayed satisfaction with the value for money of food (mean = 4.079) and beverages (mean = 4.043) purchased (both relating to *affordability*). This is great, since almost half the respondents were Africans, and the South African rand is stronger than most other African currencies (Bolashodun, 2016). This means that many of the respondents did not necessarily come from countries with exponentially stronger economies than that of South Africa, but still regard South Africa's food and beverages to be good value for money.

The findings from Section C are very positive, as the lowest mean value recorded for the 11 items tested was 3.649. Since respondents were the least satisfied with menus indicating which items are local (mean = 3.649), which relates to the *global trend* of buying local, this is a matter that could easily be corrected by individual culinary establishments if they were aware of international tourists' opinions.

Table 4.4: Descriptive statistics of Section C

Rank	Question Number	Item	Variable	Level of satisfaction					Mean	Std. deviation
				Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied		
1	11	Overall culinary satisfaction		0.24%	0.94%	10.59%	59.76%	28.47%	4.112	0.675
2	1	Value for money of food	Affordability	0.24%	0.47%	17.02%	53.19%	29.08%	4.079	0.703
3	2	Value for money of beverages	Affordability	0.95%	0.47%	19.39%	50.83%	28.37%	4.043	0.746
4	3	Quality	Availability, quality and variety	0.71%	1.65%	17.22%	57.78%	22.64%	4.008	0.723
5	6	Service	Dining establishment	1.43%	1.90%	20.67%	50.59%	25.42%	3.985	0.782
6	4	Variety	Availability, quality and variety	0.24%	2.62%	22.38%	56.67%	18.10%	3.939	0.721
7	7	Health and safety	Hygiene perception	1.18%	1.42%	23.17%	55.32%	18.91%	3.936	0.741
8	10	Availability and quality of local cuisine	Global trends: buying local	0.71%	2.38%	24.23%	55.82%	16.86%	3.911	0.737
9	9	Follow diet	Cultures and religion, and lifestyle	1.42%	3.31%	32.15%	48.23%	14.89%	3.817	0.787
10	8	Dietary requirements	Intolerance and allergies, and culture and religion	1.89%	2.60%	39.72%	44.21%	11.58%	3.743	0.791
11	5	Menus indicating local	Global trends: buying local	3.08%	7.58%	39.34%	39.10%	10.90%	3.649	0.879

4.3.3 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

A principal component-analysis factor analysis with oblique rotation (Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation) was undertaken for both the culinary-preference factors and the culinary-satisfaction factors.

4.3.3.1 Culinary-preference factors

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.886, which is exceedingly acceptable according to Field (2013:695) and indicates an adequate sample size for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant ($p<0.000$). The items and their loadings onto each of the five culinary-preference factors are displayed in Table 4.5. The five factors explained 60.74% of the variance.

Each item was assigned to the factor on which it showed the strongest loading. Upon inspection of the item content, it was decided to name the five factors: **social influence**, **culture and religion**, **exploration**, **the culinary experience** and **environmental sensitivity**. For the rest of the thesis, when the factors are referred to they are emphasised in bold.

Table 4.5: Loadings of culinary-preference factors

Question Nr	Item	Variable	Factors and loadings				
			Social influence	Culture and religion	Exploration	The culinary experience	Environmental sensitivity
5	Availability of information	Marketing	0.702				
1	Understandable menu	Communication gap	0.653				
6	Pictures of cuisine	Marketing	0.651				
3	Good ratings	Social influences	0.651				
2	Friends recommended	Social influences	0.650				
7	Appeal to senses	Taste and availability, quality and variety	0.620				
8	Allowed in diet	Lifestyle, and culture and religion	0.538				
4	Supporting local	Global trends: buying local	0.492				

Question Nr	Item	Variable	Factors and loadings				
			Social influence	Culture and religion	Exploration	The culinary experience	Environmental sensitivity
20	Availability of franchises	Global trends: rejection of low-cost mass-produced food	0.320				
12	Vegan	Culture and religion		-0.827			
11	Vegetarian	Culture and religion		-0.795			
10	Halal	Culture and religion		-0.751			
9	Kosher	Culture and religion		-0.729			
13	Organic	Global trends: functional, organic and animal-welfare-oriented products		-0.663			
25	Wine routes	Availability, quality and variety			-0.893		
22	Craft beer	Global trends: craft beer			-0.872		
23	Garage wines	Global trends: garage wine			-0.858		
24	Food routes	Availability, quality and variety			-0.763		
26	Culinary events	Social influences and self-development			-0.731		
27	Enhance my knowledge	Self-development			-0.685		
21	Gourmet cuisine	Global trends: trading up			-0.599		
31	Traditional cuisine	Desire for authentic food experience				-0.827	
32	Experience a new culture	Desire for authentic food experience				-0.777	
29	Close to attractions	Dining establishments				-0.775	
30	Esteemed restaurants	Social influences and global trends: celebrity chefs				-0.694	
28	Child-friendly	Dining establishments				-0.644	
17	Sustainable seafood	Global trends: environmental					0.735

Question Nr	Item	Variable	Factors and loadings				
			Social influence	Culture and religion	Exploration	The culinary experience	Environmental sensitivity
		sustainability					
16	Sustainable methods	Global trends: environmental sustainability					0.734
15	100% natural	Global trends: clean eating and whole food					0.696
18	Reasonably priced	Affordability					0.657
14	Animal welfare	Global trends: functional, organic and animal-welfare-oriented products					0.619
19	Variety of cuisine	Availability, quality and variety					0.516
	Cronbach α reliability coefficient		0.824	0.898	0.919	0.842	0.834
	Inter-item correlations		0.351	0.638	0.616	0.525	0.453
	Mean value (standard deviation)		3.281 (0.677)	2.290 (1.112)	2.631 (0.988)	3.022 (0.916)	3.205 (0.829)

Details of each factor can be summarised as follows:

- **Factor 1: Social influence**

Factor 1 consists of nine items, including two relating to the variable marketing (loadings of 0.702 and 0.651), and two relating to the variable social influences (loadings of 0.651 and 0.650). The other items related to the variables communication gap (0.653), taste and availability, quality and variety (0.620), lifestyle and culture and religion (0.538), global trends: buying local (0.492), and rejection of low-cost mass-produced food (0.320). The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.824, with an inter-item correlation of 0.351, a mean of 3.281 and a standard deviation of 0.677. **Social influence** was the factor with the highest mean value, which indicates the importance of influences such as recommendations by friends' and family, good ratings of establishments, effective marketing and taste. Overall, these influences were even more important than the factor of **culture and religion**. These findings

support Triandis' (1977; 1980) TIB, which states that social factors influence intentions to perform a behaviour, and the statements by Sucher (2004:202) and Updyay and Sharma (2014:35), who state that taste dominates the dietary domain of tourists.

- **Factor 2: Culture and religion**

Factor 2 contains five items, four of which relate to the variable of culture and religion (vegan = -0.827; vegetarian = -0.795; halal = -0.751 and kosher = -0.729). The last item, organic cuisine, with a factor loading of -0.663, relates to the variable global trends: functional, organic and animal-welfare-oriented products, and clearly links with the other items captured in this factor. The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.898, with an inter-item correlation of 0.638, a mean of 2.290 and a standard deviation of 1.112.

- **Factor 3: Exploration**

Factor 3 contains seven items, with three items (craft beer = -0.872, garage wines = -0.858 and gourmet cuisine = -0.599) relating to different global trends. The other items were wine routes, with a factor loading of -0.893, food routes, with a loading of -0.763 (both part of the availability, quality and variety variable), culinary events, with a loading of -0.731 (linking to the social influence and self-development variables), and culinary activities to enhance my knowledge, with a loading of -0.685 (self-development variable). The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.919, with an inter-item correlation of 0.616, a mean of 2.631 and a standard deviation of 0.988.

- **Factor 4: The culinary experience**

The culinary experience factor comprised items such as the availability of traditional cuisine, the opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine (both relating to the desire for an authentic food experience variable, with respective factor loadings of -0.827 and -0.777), the availability of restaurants close to attractions, and the availability of child-friendly restaurants (both derived from the variable dining establishments, and with respective factor loadings of -0.775 and -0.644). The last item that loaded onto the factor was the availability of esteemed restaurants (-0.694), which relates to the variables social influences and global trends: celebrity chefs. The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.842, with an inter-item correlation of 0.525, a mean of 3.022 and a standard deviation of 0.916.

- **Factor 5: Environmental sensitivity**

The last factor, **environmental sensitivity**, contained six items, four linking to different global trend variables, one to affordability and one to availability, quality and variety (see Table 4.5). The items were the availability of sustainably caught seafood (0.735), availability of cuisine that is produced using sustainable methods (0.734), that is 100% natural (0.696), that is reasonably priced (0.657), that is orientated towards animal welfare (0.619), and a wide variety of cuisine (0.516). The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.834, with an inter-item correlation of 0.453, a mean of 3.205 and a standard deviation of 0.829.

4.3.3.2 Culinary-satisfaction factors

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy for the second factor analysis was 0.802, which is also highly acceptable (Field, 2013:695). This indicates a satisfactory sample size for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant ($p<0.000$). Table 4.6 displays the 11 items and their loadings onto each of the three factors. The three factors explained 61.83% of the variance.

Upon consideration of the item content, it was decided to name the three factors: **dining environment, affordability** and **personal preference**. Like the culinary-preference factors, for the rest of the thesis, when the culinary-satisfaction factors are referred to they are emphasised in bold.

Details of the factors have been summarised below:

- **Factor 1: Dining environment**

Dining environment contained items such as variety (0.825) and quality (0.772), both items being part of the availability, quality and variety variable. Health and safety (0.561), which relates to the variable hygiene perception, also loaded onto this factor. The variable of global trends: buying local was represented in this factor by the items on menus, indicating which culinary items are local (0.620), and availability and quality of local cuisine (0.578). The level of service (0.442) of dining establishments also featured, as did the overall culinary satisfaction (0.553). The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.794, with an inter-item correlation of 0.362, a mean of 3.890 and a standard deviation of 0.512.

- **Factor 2: Affordability**

The factor **affordability** contained two items. The items were the value for money of food (-0.865), and beverages (-0.887), which both related to the variable of affordability. The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.813, with an inter-item correlation of 0.688, a mean of 4.079, and a standard deviation of 0.671. **Affordability** had the highest mean of the three culinary-satisfaction factors, indicating that respondents were most satisfied with the **affordability** of cuisine in South Africa. This was followed by the **dining environment**, and the respondents were the least satisfied (although still satisfied) with their culinary **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa. This is likely due to the fact that South Africa remains one of the most affordable countries in the world (Writer, 2015).

- **Factor 3: Personal preference**

The opportunity to still be able to follow your diet (0.859), and the preparation of food in terms of dietary requirements (0.796) formed the factor of **personal preference**. Both items relate to the culture and religion variable, with the first-mentioned item also linking to the variable of lifestyle, and the second item also linking to intolerance and allergies. The Cronbach α for this factor is 0.716, with an inter-item correlation of 0.557, a mean of 3.633 and a standard deviation of 0.709.

Table 4.6: Loadings of culinary-satisfaction factors

Question Number	Item	Variable	Factors and loadings		
			Dining environment	Affordability	Personal preference
4	Variety	Availability, quality and variety	0.825		
3	Quality	Availability, quality and variety	0.772		
5	Menus indicating local cuisine	Global trends: buying local	0.620		
10	Availability and quality of local cuisine	Global trends: buying local	0.578		
7	Health and safety	Hygiene perception	0.561		
11	Overall culinary satisfaction		0.553		
6	Service	Dining establishments	0.442		

Question Number	Item	Variable	Factors and loadings		
			Dining environment	Affordability	Personal preference
2	Value for money of beverages	Affordability		-0.887	
1	Value for money of food	Affordability		-0.865	
9	Follow diet	Cultures and religion, and lifestyle			0.859
8	Dietary requirements	Intolerance and allergies, and culture and religion			0.796
	Cronbach α reliability coefficient		0.794	0.813	0.716
	Inter-item correlations		0.362	0.688	0.557
	Mean value (standard deviation)		3.890 (0.512)	4.079 (0.671)	3.633 (0.709)

Since the Cronbach α of the eight factors (five culinary-preference factors and three culinary-satisfaction factors) ranged from 0.716 to 0.919, both Section B and C of the current measurement instrument were reliable according to Maree and Pietersen (2007:216) and Fink (2009:43).

4.3.4 **t-tests**

Three t-tests were conducted to compare the culinary-preference factors and culinary-satisfaction factors with socio-demographic and travel-profile questions that offered only two answer categories. The questions analysed by means of this test were Question 2: "gender", Question 15: "if you did not try local cuisine, please select all the applicable reasons" and Question 18: "are you currently following any religious, health- or weight-related diet". The statistically significant differences ($p<0.05$) between the variables and factors have been marked in grey in Table 4.7, Table 4.8 and Table 4.9.

There were no significant differences between *gender* and any of the culinary-preference factors. This finding supports the findings of McKercher *et al*. (2008:142), Ayo *et al*. (2012:6575), Sánchez-Cañizares and López-Guzmán (2012:240) and Devi *et al*. (2015:117-118), who all found *gender* to have no relationship with culinary preferences. Some authors have, however, found a relationship between *gender* and culinary preferences. These

include Steptoe *et al*. (1995:276-277), Amuquandoh (2011:3), Mak *et al*. (2012:931) and Robinson and Getz (2014:696).

In Table 4.7 it can be seen that *gender* displayed statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between both satisfaction with **affordability** ($p = 0.033$) and satisfaction with **dining environment** ($p = 0.004$). There was a practically significant difference (Cohen's *d* value = 0.21; small effect) between *gender* and **affordability**, with women being more satisfied (mean = 4.169) with the **affordability** of cuisine in South Africa. This finding is of interest, since *gender* has on occasion been found to have no relationship with people's satisfaction with **affordability** of items, both within the tourism industry and in the broader environment (Han & Hyun, 2015:27; Krishnan, Das & Subramani, 2015:26).

Women were also more satisfied (mean = 3.980) with the **dining environment** (*d* = 0.29; small effect). The **dining environment** concerned, among other things, menus indicating which items are local and the quality and variety of local cuisine. Women have been found to be especially excited about and interested in tasting local food while on holiday (Kim *et al*., 2009:429; D'Antuono & Bignami, 2012:6). In contrast, a modified version of the TRA has found that male tourists are more willing to try local cuisine than female tourists. The authors therefore recommended that waiting staff be trained to promote local dishes to men when taking menu orders (Ryu & Han, 2010:496 & 502). This recommendation might be useful given the results of the current study, as it is possible that men's satisfaction with the **dining environment** may increase if more focus is placed on promoting local dishes to men.

Table 4.7: t-test comparing gender (Question 2) and the factors

Factors		Male / female	Gender			
			Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Effect size
Culinary-preference factors	Social influences	Male	3.273	0.679	0.809	0.02
		Female	3.287	0.678		
	Culture and religion	Male	2.323	1.137	0.286	0.09
		Female	2.220	1.067		
	Exploration	Male	2.648	0.972	0.527	0.06
		Female	2.592	1.006		
	The culinary experience	Male	3.042	0.906	0.531	0.05
		Female	2.992	0.924		
	Environmental sensitivity	Male	3.220	0.817	0.518	0.06
		Female	3.172	0.847		
Culinary-satisfaction factors	Affordability	Male	4.025	0.656	0.033	0.21
		Female	4.169	0.680		
	Personal preference	Male	3.634	0.717	0.335	0.09
		Female	3.702	0.703		
	Dining environment	Male	3.831	0.510	0.004	0.29
		Female	3.980	0.508		

Table 4.8 details that there were statistically and practically significant differences between being on a *diet* or not and the factors of **culture and religion** (p = 0.001; *d* = 0.43; small effect) and **personal preference** (p = 0.036; *d* = 0.28; small effect). Respondents who at the time of data collection were following a *religious, health- or weight-related diet* regarded the factor of **culture and religion** to be a more important (mean = 2.684) influence on their culinary preferences than those not following a diet (mean = 2.212). This makes sense, as one of the main reasons for being on a *diet* is cultural or religious reasons (Steptoe *et al*. 1995:268; Chang *et al*., 2010:991; Horng & Tsai, 2010:80; Amuquandoh, 2011:7-8; Falguera *et al.*, 2012:275; Mak *et al*., 2012:931).

Table 4.8: t-test comparing following a diet (Question 18), reasons for not consuming local cuisine (Question 15) and the factors

Factors			Currently following any diet				The local cuisine did not look appetising				I was not interested in trying local cuisine			
		Yes / No	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Effect size	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Effect size	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Effect size
Culinary-preference factors	Social influences	Yes	3.287	0.682	0.878	0.02	2.578	0.655	0.072	1.05	3.106	0.691	0.206	0.27
		No	3.274	0.672			3.287	0.674			3.289	0.676		
	Culture and religion	Yes	2.684	1.088	0.001	0.43	1.920	0.769	0.341	0.33	2.197	0.933	0.62	0.09
		No	2.212	1.096			2.293	1.114			2.294	1.120		
	Exploration	Yes	2.491	1.054	0.247	0.14	2.143	0.714	0.199	0.50	2.704	0.869	0.67	0.08
		No	2.641	0.959			2.635	0.989			2.627	0.994		
	The culinary experience	Yes	3.134	1.011	0.285	0.13	2.840	0.932	0.683	0.20	2.848	0.954	0.359	0.19
		No	3.002	0.898			3.024	0.916			3.030	0.914		
	Environmental sensitivity	Yes	3.286	0.857	0.384	0.11	2.873	0.619	0.295	0.40	3.010	0.834	0.254	0.24
		No	3.193	0.824			3.208	0.830			3.214	0.828		
Culinary-satisfaction factors	Affordability	Yes	4.015	0.626	0.321	0.13	4.300	0.671	0.499	0.33	3.881	0.805	0.257	0.26
		No	4.100	0.676			4.076	0.672			4.089	0.663		
	Personal preference	Yes	3.833	0.709	0.036	0.28	3.100	0.652	0.122	0.80	3.333	0.856	0.082	0.40
		No	3.632	0.710			3.669	0.708			3.680	0.698		
	Dining environment	Yes	3.893	0.456	0.953	0.01	3.314	0.765	0.164	0.76	3.578	0.598	0.022	0.55
		No	3.890	0.524			3.897	0.506			3.906	0.503		

Further, as detailed in Table 4.8, respondents who at the time of data collection were following a *religious, health- or weight-related diet* were more satisfied with their culinary **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa (mean = 3.833) than respondents who were not following any *diet* (mean = 3.632). International tourists in Ghana have been found to be concerned about being served food that could be culturally unacceptable (Amuquandoh, 2011:4). This seems to differ for the current study, as it seems South African culinary establishments offer cuisine to accommodate a variety of cultures and religions, which results in the satisfaction of respondents following *diets*.

Table 4.8 and Table 4.9 summarise the t-test findings for Question 15. There were no statistically significant differences between the *local cuisine looking appetising, being uncertain about the ingredients used to produce local dishes* and any of the factors.

In Table 4.8 it can be seen that there was a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) and a practically significant difference ($d = 0.55$; medium effect) between not being interested in *trying local cuisine* and the **dining environment** ($p = 0.022$). Respondents who were not interested in *trying local cuisine* were less satisfied (mean = 3.578) with the **dining environment** in South Africa than respondents who were interested in *trying local cuisine* (mean = 3.906). Communication barriers have been found to diminish the culinary experience (Burusnukul *et al*., 2011:968). It is therefore positive that the respondents who wanted to consume local cuisine were satisfied with the **dining environment**, which includes menus indicating which items are local.

The current study's findings indicate that South African cuisine is in line with Torres' (2002:303) recommendation that the promotion of local foods and beverages must be accompanied by corresponding efforts to improve the consistency, quantity and quality of local production. These elements were also included in the **dining environment** factor and it is possible that the respondents who were not interested in trying local cuisine were dissatisfied with the availability and quality of the local cuisine.

Table 4.9: t-test comparing reasons for not consuming local cuisine (Question 15) and the factors

Factors		Yes / No	I did not know which items are local				I was not sure about the health and safety				Uncertain about ingredients of local dishes			
			Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Effect size	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Effect size	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value	Effect size
Culinary-preference factors	Social influences	Yes	3.328	0.704	0.403	0.09	2.989	0.676	0.089	0.45	3.305	0.732	0.838	0.04
		No	3.268	0.670			3.290	0.676			3.279	0.674		
	Culture and religion	Yes	2.436	1.091	0.12	0.16	2.162	1.102	0.633	0.12	2.336	1.107	0.795	0.04
		No	2.252	1.115			2.294	1.113			2.286	1.113		
	Exploration	Yes	2.471	0.981	0.057	0.20	2.515	0.625	0.46	0.12	2.569	0.903	0.675	0.07
		No	2.672	0.986			2.634	0.997			2.635	0.994		
	The culinary experience	Yes	2.844	1.020	0.035	0.22	2.776	0.824	0.231	0.28	3.009	0.925	0.933	0.01
		No	3.068	0.882			3.030	0.918			3.023	0.916		
	Environmental sensitivity	Yes	3.253	0.743	0.457	0.07	3.103	0.668	0.535	0.13	3.147	0.732	0.632	0.07
		No	3.192	0.850			3.208	0.834			3.209	0.836		
Culinary-satisfaction factors	Affordability	Yes	3.929	0.716	0.031	0.26	4.107	0.626	0.866	0.04	4.038	0.546	0.705	0.06
		No	4.116	0.656			4.078	0.674			4.081	0.679		
	Personal preference	Yes	3.708	0.655	0.487	0.08	2.964	0.634	0.001	1.03	3.423	0.758	0.106	0.34
		No	3.652	0.723			3.686	0.700			3.678	0.704		
	Dining environment	Yes	3.820	0.506	0.159	0.17	3.579	0.598	0.068	0.54	3.711	0.463	0.053	0.37
		No	3.907	0.513			3.900	0.507			3.901	0.514		

Still with regard to culinary satisfaction, it can be seen in Table 4.9 that there were statistically significant differences between *knowing which items are local* and **affordability** (p = .031), as well as questioning the *health and safety of cuisine* in South Africa and **personal preference** (p = .001). The practically significant difference between *knowledge* and **affordability** was small (*d* = .26) and respondents who did not know which items were local were less satisfied (mean = 3.929) with the **affordability** of cuisine in South Africa than respondents who did not try local cuisine in South Africa, but who knew which items were local (mean = 4.116). In general, local cuisine is more affordable than international cuisine. It may be that because the respondents did not know which items were local, they frequented more international eateries and consequently ended up paying more for their food and beverages than they would have if they had dined at local culinary establishments.

The practically significant difference between questioning the *health and safety* of South African local cuisine and **personal preference** was large (*d* = 1.03). Respondents who stated that they did not consume local cuisine because they questioned the *health and safety* of local South African cuisine were less satisfied (mean = 2.964) with their culinary **personal preferences** being met while in the country than respondents who did not consume local cuisine, but who were also not troubled by the *health and safety* of the local items (mean = 3.686). In India, the local food has been largely perceived to be detrimental to the health and well-being of tourists, also preventing tourists from sampling the food (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:145), and most likely resulting in dissatisfaction.

Lastly, *knowledge of which items are local* had a statistically significant (p = .035) and a practically significant (*d* = .22; small effect) relationship with **the culinary experience** (as seen in Table 4.9). Respondents who did not consume local cuisine but *knew which items were local*, regarded **the culinary experience** to be more important (mean = 3.068) than respondents who did *not know which items were local* (mean = 2.844). This finding displays contradictory responses, as **the culinary experience** factor included items such as the availability of traditional cuisine and the opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine. One explanation might be that these respondents regarded the other items (the availability of child-friendly restaurants, esteemed restaurants and restaurants close to attractions) in the factor to be extremely important.

4.3.5 **Spearman's rank correlations**

Spearman's rank correlations were conducted in order to assess the direction and strength of the linear relationship between the ranked variables and factors. Significant correlations ($p<0.05$) between the socio-demographic and travel-profile variables and the factors have been highlighted in Table 4.10, Table 4.11 and Table 4.12. Small correlations (rho = 0.10 – 0.19) were marked in light grey, medium correlations (rho = 0.20 – 0.39) were marked in dark grey, and strong correlations (rho = 0.40 – 1.0) were marked in black.

The variable *age* correlated with only one factor, namely **affordability** (see Table 4.10). The older the respondent, the less satisfied (rho = -0.151; small correlation) they were with the **affordability** of food and beverages in South Africa. Krishnan *et al.* (2015:28), however, found no relationship between the age of respondents and factors of satisfaction in their study. Likewise, Gargano and Grasso (2016:57) also found no relationship between the age of tourists in Italy and price satisfaction.

As can be seen in Table 4.10, neither the *level of education* nor the *number of times of international travel* correlated with any factors. This is interesting to note, as *education* has been found to influence culinary preferences in numerous studies (Wądołowska *et al.*, 2008:132; Kim *et al.*, 2009:429; Ayo *et al*., 2012:6575; D'Antuono & Bignami, 2012:3, Devi *et al*., 2015:117-118). However, similar findings to those of the current study have been found in Hong Kong and Spain (McKercher *et al*., 2008:142; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012:240).

As was mentioned, *travel experience* (*number of times of international travel*) did not have a relationship with any factor in the current study. D'Antuono and Bignami (2012:3) differ from the current findings, as the authors found food neophobia to be lower in people who had travel experience. Ryu and Jang (2006:513) found the well-travelled in their study to be more willing to try local cuisine.

Table 4.10: Spearman's rank correlations for socio-demographic and travel profile variables and the factors

Socio-demographic and travel-profile variables															
Factors		**Age**	**Education**	**Frequency of dining out**	**Adventurous**	**International travel**	**Visits to South Africa**	**Length of stay**	**Spending on accommodation**	**Spending on sights**	**Spending on transport**	**Spending on food and beverages**	**Spending on packaged tours**	**Spending on others**	**Total spending**
Social influence	rho	0.043	0.066	0.083	0.100*	0.028	0.109*	-0.082	0.024	0.121	-0.070	-0.089	0.133	0.067	0.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.331	0.129	0.068	0.025	0.531	0.013	0.058	0.677	0.157	0.293	0.096	0.216	0.353	0.911
Culture and religion	rho	0.044	-0.007	0.126**	0.133**	-0.008	0.036	-0.066	-0.065	0.045	-0.071	-0.016	0.033	-0.017	-0.056
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.311	0.864	0.005	0.003	0.855	0.410	0.127	0.260	0.599	0.288	0.768	0.764	0.814	0.240
Exploration	rho	0.050	0.017	0.022	0.036	0.075	0.081	-0.075	0.086	0.279**	0.124	0.168**	0.065	0.084	0.164**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.253	0.693	0.636	0.420	0.088	0.065	0.083	0.137	0.001	0.062	0.002	0.547	0.247	0.001
The culinary experience	rho	-0.010	0.033	-0.023	-0.008	0.044	0.090*	-0.005	0.170**	0.113	0.016	0.104	0.262*	0.040	0.095*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.815	0.452	0.611	0.853	0.322	0.039	0.904	0.003	0.187	0.813	0.051	0.014	0.579	0.047

Socio-demographic and travel-profile variables															
Factors		**Age**	**Education**	**Frequency of dining out**	**Adventurous**	**International travel**	**Visits to South Africa**	**Length of stay**	**Spending on accommodation**	**Spending on sights**	**Spending on transport**	**Spending on food and beverages**	**Spending on packaged tours**	**Spending on others**	**Total spending**
Environmental sensitivity	rho	0.056	0.036	0.062	0.047	0.084	0.051	-0.045	-0.066	-0.045	0.036	0.003	-0.094	0.092	-0.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.201	0.412	0.170	0.292	0.056	0.247	0.297	0.250	0.598	0.595	0.950	0.382	0.201	0.882
Affordability	rho	-0,151**	0.009	-0.131**	-0.119*	-0.074	-0.186**	0.141**	-0.023	-0.151	0.164*	-0.041	0.079	0.000	0.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.856	0.010	0.016	0.136	0.000	0.004	0.732	0.099	0.025	0.485	0.499	0.997	0.474
Personal preference	rho	-0.033	-0.021	0.127*	0.082	0.032	0.006	0.001	0.042	0.036	0.002	0.054	0.169	0.105	0.076
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.507	0.667	0.012	0.098	0.523	0.908	0.985	0.527	0.697	0.982	0.354	0.147	0.211	0.159
Dining environment	rho	-0.067	-0.029	0.003	-0.092	-0.033	-0.097*	0.060	0.004	-0.048	0.032	0.020	-0.026	0.010	0.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.169	0.549	0.953	0.064	0.507	0.048	0.223	0.954	0.604	0.668	0.725	0.822	0.909	0.605

As can be seen in Table 4.10, the less often *respondents dined out*, the more satisfied they were with South African cuisine catering to their **personal preferences** (rho = 0.127; small correlation), the less satisfied they were with the **affordability** of food and beverages in South Africa (rho = -0.131; small correlation), and the more important they regarded **culture and religion** (rho = 0.126; small correlation) to be. These findings allude to the fact that respondents who have dietary requirements due to their cultural and religious affiliations may find it easier to cook for themselves than find restaurants that cater to their needs, causing them to dine out infrequently. It also makes sense that the price-conscious tourist is the same frugal person who does not dine out often in their general lives. The *past experience* gained by dining out is another element to consider. Past experience assists people to determine an acceptable price range for items (Shank & Lyberger, 2015:520), which may be the reason that tourists who do not dine out often are less satisfied with the **affordability**. The respondents' lack of dining out and consequent lack of *past experience* may also result in them having low expectations, making it easy to satisfy their **personal preferences**.

The less *adventurous* respondents considered themselves, the more important they regarded **social influence** (rho = 0.100; small correlation) and **culture and religion** (rho = 0.133; small correlation), and the less satisfied they were with the **affordability** of cuisine in South Africa (rho = -0.119; small correlation). Torres (2002:285 & 300) and Cohen and Avieli (2004:773-774) found *adventurous* tourists to value access to the local food more than other tourists did. It seems logical that people restricted by dietary customs and religious laws would be less *adventurous* eaters. Likewise, it is no surprise that less *adventurous* tourists would attach great value to **social influence**. It indicates that these tourists rely on the recommendations of others in order to make safe and informed culinary decisions.

Respondents who *had visited South Africa* a number of times also regarded **social influence** to be important to their culinary preferences (rho = 0.109; small correlation). It is possible that these tourists either have friends or family in the country or have built relationships with South African colleagues. Either way, they likely value the recommendations of local South Africans when making culinary decisions.

The more respondents *had visited South Africa*, the less satisfied they were with the **affordability** of cuisine in the country (rho = -0.186; small correlation). The drought gripping South Africa, the weak rand in the face of necessary grain imports, as well as rising electricity and water and labour costs in recent years have all caused food prices to spike in the country (Sunday Times, 2016; Weppenaar, 2016). This means that it is highly likely that tourists would have to spend a lot more on food in South Africa now than they had to a few years or visits ago.

In contrast, the *longer respondents stayed in South Africa during this trip* (taxonomy variable), the more satisfied they were with the **affordability** of cuisine (rho = 0.141; small correlation). It is possible that the longer one visits a country the more likely you are to cook for yourself or eat at local restaurants than tourists who visit for a short period. Tourists who visit for a short period are likely to frequent restaurants, eat in hotel dining establishments or "touristy" establishments, which are costlier than local restaurants or self-catering.

Spending on the different elements of the trip had numerous correlations with the factors. Total spending had a positive correlation (rho = 0.164; small correlation) with the importance of **exploration** as a culinary-preference factor. It seems that tourists who valued exploring spent more. Implications for this and other findings are discussed in Chapter 5.

The correlations between the factors have been tabled in Table 4.11 and 4.12. All duplicated correlations were highlighted only once. In Table 4.11 it can be seen that there were medium to large positive correlations between all the culinary-preference factors. There were also positive correlations between all the culinary-preference factors and satisfaction with **personal preference** and the **dining environment**, with the exception of there being no statistically significant correlation between **culture and religion** and **dining environment**. **Culture and religion** was, however, the only culinary-preference factor that had had a negatively statistically significant correlation with satisfaction with **affordability** (rho = -0.162; small correlation).

Table 4.11: Spearman's rank correlations between the culinary-satisfaction and culinary-preference factors

Factors		Culinary-preference factors				
		Social influence	**Culture and religion**	**Exploration**	**The culinary experience**	**Environmental sensitivity**
Social influence	Correlation coefficient	1.000	0.400**	0.397**	0.455**	0.461**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Culture and religion	Correlation coefficient	0.400**	1.000	0.383**	0.280**	0.525**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000
Exploration	Correlation coefficient	0.397**	0.383**	1.000	0.425**	0.359**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
The culinary experience	Correlation coefficient	0.455**	0.280**	0.425**	1.000	0.311**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000
Environmental sensitivity	Correlation coefficient	0.461**	0.525**	0.359**	0.311**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Affordability	Correlation coefficient	-0.034	-0.162**	-0.028	0.058	0.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.486	0.001	0.572	0.232	0.571
Personal preference	Correlation coefficient	0.270**	0.310**	0.248**	0.165**	0.192**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000
Dining environment	Correlation coefficient	0.113*	0.054	0.106*	0.159**	0.132**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.020	0.267	0.030	0.001	0.007

Table 4.12 denotes the positive correlations between the three culinary-satisfaction factors. The **dining environment** had strong correlations with both **affordability** (rho = 0.419) and **personal preference** (rho = 0.433). The correlation between **personal preference** and **affordability** was, however, small (rho = 0.108).

Table 4.12: Spearman's rank correlations between the culinary-satisfaction factors

			Culinary-satisfaction factors		
			Affordability	**Personal preference**	**Dining environment**
Culinary-satisfaction factors	**Affordability**	Correlation coefficient	1.000	0.108*	0.419**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.027	0.000
	Personal preference	Correlation coefficient	0.108*	1.000	0.433**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.027		0.000
	Dining environment	Correlation coefficient	0.419**	0.433**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	

All the data from the questionnaire that could not be analysed by means of t-tests and correlation analyses were addressed with ANOVA and are discussed in the following section.

4.3.6 **Analysis of variance (ANOVA)**

ANOVA was used to draw the comparison between five socio-demographic and travel-profile questions and the culinary-preference and culinary-satisfaction factors. Results are depicted in Table 4.13 to 4.17. The tables indicate the mean scores for each group, as well as the differences between these means. It also shows which of those differences were statistically significant. Post hoc Tukey tests were conducted but will not be reported on as effect sizes replaces the test and indicate the practical effect in industry. The statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) have been highlighted in grey in the tables. Noteworthy effect sizes have also been highlighted. Small effects (d = 0.2 -0.5) have been highlighted in light grey, medium effects (d = 0.5 - 0.8) in dark grey and strong effects (d = 0.8 >) in black.

The first table, Table 4.13, illustrates the differences between the different *nationalities* and the importance of the different culinary-preference factors in their decision-making as well as the differences in the culinary satisfaction they experienced while in South Africa.

Table 4.13: ANOVA for comparison of factors by nationalities

Factors	Nationality	Mean	Standard deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes			
						Africa	Americas	Australia	Europe
Social influence	Africa	3.371	0.709	2.480	0.043				
	Americas	3.152	0.630			0.309			
	Australia	3.278	0.551			0.132	0.199		
	Europe	3.193	0.664			0.251	0.061	0.128	
	Asia	3.286	0.639			0.120	0.209	0.013	0.140
	Total	3.282	0.678						
Culture and religion	Africa	2.415	1.045	10.460	<0.001				
	Americas	1.822	1.085			0.547			
	Australia	2.400	1.150			0.013	0.503		
	Europe	2.130	1.128			0.253	0.273	0.235	
	Asia	2.843	1.107			0.387	0.923	0.385	0.633
	Total	2.295	1.117						
Exploration	Africa	2.646	0.969	0.541	0.706				
	Americas	2.508	1.073			0.128			
	Australia	2.714	1.233			0.055	0.167		
	Europe	2.690	0.961			0.045	0.169	0.020	
	Asia	2.666	0.955			0.021	0.147	0.039	0.025
	Total	2.631	0.993						
The culinary experience	Africa	3.074	0.966	2.489	0.042				
	Americas	2.877	0.854			0.204			
	Australia	2.557	0.757			0.536	0.374		
	Europe	3.014	0.838			0.062	0.160	0.545	
	Asia	3.216	0.936			0.147	0.363	0.705	0.216
	Total	3.028	0.918						
Environmental sensitivity	Africa	3.245	0.816	2.387	0.050				
	Americas	2.994	0.854			0.294			
	Australia	3.452	0.916			0.226	0.500		
	Europe	3.251	0.799			0.007	0.301	0.220	
	Asia	3.291	0.861			0.053	0.345	0.176	0.046
	Total	3.208	0.833						
Affordability	Africa	3.929	0.669	7.942	<0.001				
	Americas	4.343	0.633			0.617			
	Australia	4.250	0.672			0.477	0.138		
	Europe	4.187	0.534			0.384	0.246	0.094	
	Asia	3.942	0.591			0.019	0.632	0.458	0.413
	Total	4.082	0.648						
Personal preference	Africa	3.777	0.721	3.018	0.018				
	Americas	3.517	0.713			0.361			
	Australia	3.821	0.668			0.062	0.428		
	Europe	3.542	0.712			0.326	0.035	0.393	
	Asia	3.712	0.589			0.091	0.273	0.164	0.239
	Total	3.667	0.707						

Factors	Nationality	Mean	Standard deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes			
						Africa	Americas	Australia	Europe
Dining environment	**Africa**	3.874	0.517	1.044	0.384				
	Americas	3.980	0.536			0.199			
	Australia	3.859	0.384			0.029	0.227		
	Europe	3.900	0.471			0.051	0.150	0.088	
	Asia	3.821	0.447			0.103	0.298	0.086	0.169
	Total	3.895	0.500						

Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were found for six of the eight factors and *nationalities*. **Social influence** was on average rated the most important by Africans (mean = 3.371) and the least important by Americans (mean = 3.152; $d = 0.309$; small effect). Americans also rated **culture and religion** on average as the least important (mean = 1.822), and Asians rated it on average as the most important (mean = 2.843), with an effect size of 0.923 (large effect) between the two nationalities. Practically significant differences did, however, exist between all the *nationalities*, except that there was no difference between Africans and Australians concerning **culture and religion**.

Cohen and Avieli (2004:775) found Asian tourists to prefer their own foods and shun new foods. The authors went as far as to say that they may be averse to visiting destinations not serving their national cuisine. In contrast, in the current study, **the culinary experience** (which includes the desire for an authentic food experience) was on average the most important to Asians (mean = 3.216), and on average the least important to Australian tourists (mean = 2.557). There were practically significant differences between Australian responses and all other *nationalities*. There were medium effects with Australian responses and African, European, Asian responses (0.536; 0.545 and 0.705 respectively) and a small effect with American responses (0.374).

These findings may mean that it is not important to market local South African cuisine and related culinary experiences to Australians. These findings are curious, however, as 46% of Australians consider themselves to be foodies (Hovenden, 2015). Sparks (2007:1185 & 1188-1189) conducted wine tourism research in an Australian sample and identified three wine tourism factors that can be considered within the push-and-pull motivational framework. Personal self-development was a push motivator (in the current study **exploration**, which includes self-development, did not present a statistically significant difference between

nationalities), whereas the core wine experience and destination experience were pull factors for the tourists. This very fact may, however, be why South African esteemed or local cuisine is not too important to Australian tourists – their culinary curiosity can be satisfied at home.

However, Australians did rate **environmental sensitivity** (mean = 3.452) on average as the most important of all the respondents. Americans rated it on average as the least important, compared to respondents from any other continent (mean = 2.994). The practical difference between these two *nationalities* was medium (*d* = 0.500).

Australians were on average the most satisfied with their culinary **personal preferences** being met (mean = 3.821), while Americans were on average the least satisfied (mean = 3.517), with a small practical difference between the groups (0.428). Americans were the most satisfied with the **affordability** of cuisine (mean = 4.343), while Africans were on average the least satisfied (3.929), with a medium practical difference between them (0.671). All these differences illustrate the importance of marketing culinary offerings differently to the different *nationalities* and increasing the availability of cuisine that appeals to the different *nationalities* visiting South Africa.

The importance and satisfaction of the factors also differed between respondents who made use of different *types of accommodation* (taxonomy variable), as can be seen in Table 4.14. The biggest statistical and practical difference (1.092; large effect) was between respondents who stayed in resorts and in campgrounds. **Environmental sensitivity** was on average much more important (mean = 3.667) to respondents who stayed in campgrounds. Similar differences existed between these respondents when the importance of **culture and religion** was considered. Respondents staying in campgrounds again on average valued **culture and religion** as more important (2.831) than respondents who stayed in resorts (1.587), with a large practical difference (0.943). Large practical differences also existed between respondents staying in resorts and those staying in the homes of friends or relatives (0.801) and in bed and breakfasts (0.994) when the importance of **culture and religion** was considered.

Regarding the importance of **exploration**, the largest practical difference (0.615) was again displayed between respondents who stayed in campgrounds (mean = 3.088) and

respondents who stayed in resorts (2.267). To summarise, respondents who camped while in South Africa regarded **environmental sensitivity**, **culture and religion** and **exploration** as important when making culinary decisions. In an Australian tourism study, it was found that international tourists who stayed in caravans or campgrounds enjoyed dining out the most of all the activities on offer (Tourism Victoria Research Unit, 2014:4).

Table 4.14: ANOVA for comparison of factors by type of accommodation

Factors	Accommodation	Mean	Std. deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes				
						Hotel	Resort	Friend	Camp	B&B
Social influence	Hotels	3.348	0.673	1.753	0.121					
	Resorts	3.003	0.542			0.513				
	Home of friends	3.336	0.813			0.014	0.410			
	Campgrounds	3.590	0.743			0.326	0.790	0.312		
	Bed and breakfasts	3.332	0.578			0.024	0.569	0.006	0.347	
	Other	3.151	0.586			0.292	0.253	0.228	0.590	0.308
	Total	3.315	0.693							
Culture and religion	Hotels	2.397	1.094	4.717	<0.001					
	Resorts	1.587	0.867			0.741				
	Home of friends	2.453	1.082			0.052	0.801			
	Campgrounds	2.831	1.319			0.329	0.943	0.286		
	Bed and breakfasts	2.687	1.107			0.262	0.994	0.211	0.109	
	Other	1.888	1.197			0.426	0.252	0.473	0.715	0.668
	Total	2.355	1.129							
Exploration	Hotels	2.740	0.948	2.423	0.035					
	Resorts	2.267	0.826			0.499				
	Home of friends	2.631	1.020			0.107	0.357			
	Campgrounds	3.088	1.336			0.260	0.615	0.342		
	Bed and breakfasts	2.661	0.887			0.084	0.444	0.029	0.320	
	Other	2.344	0.990			0.400	0.078	0.281	0.557	0.320
	Total	2.653	0.983							
The culinary experience	Hotels	3.041	0.907	0.896	0.484					
	Resorts	2.707	0.904			0.369				
	Home of friends	3.117	1.007			0.075	0.408			
	Campgrounds	3.246	1.135			0.180	0.475	0.114		
	Bed and breakfasts	2.880	1.032			0.156	0.168	0.230	0.323	
	Other	2.985	0.733			0.062	0.308	0.131	0.230	0.102
	Total	3.034	0.929							
Environmental sensitivity	Hotels	3.251	0.789	2.837	0.016					
	Resorts	2.640	0.700			0.775				
	Home of friends	3.242	0.911			0.010	0.661			
	Campgrounds	3.667	0.940			0.442	1.092	0.451		
	Bed and breakfasts	3.304	0.763			0.067	0.870	0.067	0.386	
	Other	3.054	0.814			0.242	0.509	0.206	0.651	0.306

Factors	Accommodation	Mean	Std. deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes				
						Hotel	Resort	Friend	Camp	B&B
	Total	3.221	0.831							
Affordability	**Hotels**	3.979	0.681	2.251	0.049					
	Resorts	3.731	0.563			0.364				
	Home of friends	4.079	0.617			0.147	0.565			
	Campgrounds	4.136	0.452			0.231	0.720	0.093		
	Bed and breakfasts	3.960	0.691			0.027	0.332	0.172	0.255	
	Other	4.281	0.750			0.403	0.734	0.270	0.193	0.428
	Total	4.039	0.675							
Personal preference	**Hotels**	3.747	0.727	2.546	0.028					
	Resorts	3.500	0.620			0.339				
	Home of friends	3.747	0.599			0.000	0.398			
	Campgrounds	4.045	0.568			0.410	0.880	0.498		
	Bed and breakfasts	3.720	0.647			0.037	0.340	0.041	0.503	
	Other	3.438	0.616			0.425	0.101	0.502	0.988	0.437
	Total	3.701	0.678							
Dining environment	**Hotels**	3.864	0.515	0.544	0.743					
	Resorts	3.724	0.450			0.270				
	Home of friends	3.884	0.476			0.040	0.336			
	Campgrounds	3.987	0.431			0.240	0.584	0.216		
	Bed and breakfasts	3.960	0.531			0.182	0.444	0.143	0.051	
	Other	3.845	0.548			0.033	0.220	0.071	0.259	0.209
	Total	3.871	0.506							

From Table 4.14 it can also be seen that respondents making use of different types of *accommodation* displayed varying degrees of satisfaction with the **affordability** of cuisine and their culinary **personal preferences** being met. Respondents who stayed in "other" *accommodation* were on average the most satisfied (mean = 4.281) with the **affordability** of cuisine among all the respondents, while they were on average the least satisfied with their culinary **personal preferences** being met (mean = 3.438). The largest practical difference for satisfaction was displayed between "other" and "campgrounds" (0.988; large effect) and their satisfaction with their **personal preferences** being met.

Table 4.15 depicts that of the five culinary-preference factors, only **exploration** had a statistically significant relationship with the respondents' *purpose for their visit* (*purpose of trip* indicating what *type of tourist* they were). Respondents who visited South Africa for leisure purposes on average rated **exploration** as the most important (mean = 2.757). These tourists likely allocate the most time to participating in activities such as wine and food

routes, culinary events or other culinary activities that could enhance their knowledge. The other respondents have to dedicate the majority of their time to their primary reason for being in the country, such as business or visiting friends or family. Respondents who visited South Africa for reasons other than leisure, business or visiting friends or family on average rated **exploration** as the least important (mean = 2.346), with a small practical difference of *d* = .401 from leisure tourists. This group was on average the most satisfied with the **affordability** of cuisine in South Africa (4.278). The practically significant differences between this group (other) and the business travellers were 0.596 (medium effect) and 0.338 (small effect) compared to those visiting friends and relatives. There was no practically significant difference between this group's satisfaction and the satisfaction experienced by leisure tourists.

Table 4.15: ANOVA for comparison of factors by purpose of trip

Factors	Purpose of trip	Mean	Standard deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes		
						Leisure	Business	Friends
Social influence	**Leisure**	3.195	0.618	1.926	0.124			
	Business	3.347	0.670			0.226		
	Friends	3.250	0.734			0.075	0.132	
	Other	3.170	0.658			0.038	0.263	0.109
	Total	3.256	0.670					
Culture and religion	**Leisure**	2.124	1.128	1.028	0.380			
	Business	2.302	1.074			0.157		
	Friends	2.373	1.055			0.221	0.066	
	Other	2.189	1.187			0.055	0.095	0.155
	Total	2.250	1.109					
Exploration	**Leisure**	2.757	1.022	4.294	0.005			
	Business	2.710	0.905			0.046		
	Friends	2.499	0.994			0.253	0.213	
	Other	2.346	1.024			0.401	0.356	0.149
	Total	2.601	0.986					
The culinary experience	**Leisure**	3.017	0.912	0.062	0.980			
	Business	2.993	0.908			0.026		
	Friends	2.975	0.969			0.044	0.019	
	Other	3.025	0.878			0.009	0.035	0.052
	Total	3.002	0.911					
Environmental sensitivity	**Leisure**	3.151	0.814	0.609	0.609			
	Business	3.215	0.783			0.078		
	Friends	3.213	0.900			0.069	0.002	
	Other	3.087	0.850			0.075	0.150	0.140
	Total	3.172	0.826					

Factors	Purpose of trip	Mean	Standard deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes		
						Leisure	Business	Friends
Affordability	**Leisure**	4.179	0.652	6.902	<0.001			
	Business	3.900	0.635			0.428		
	Friends	4.055	0.661			0.188	0.234	
	Other	4.278	0.615			0.153	0.596	0.338
	Total	4.087	0.654					
Personal preference	**Leisure**	3.510	0.764	1.903	0.129			
	Business	3.732	0.703			0.290		
	Friends	3.708	0.631			0.258	0.035	
	Other	3.625	0.763			0.150	0.140	0.108
	Total	3.646	0.725					
Dining environment	**Leisure**	3.912	0.497	1.656	0.176			
	Business	3.822	0.514			0.175		
	Friends	3.837	0.480			0.151	0.030	
	Other	3.967	0.546			0.100	0.265	0.237
	Total	3.882	0.513					

Mak *et al*. (2012:931) state that *past experience* influences tourists' food consumption. This *past experience* could be an experience as simple as eating stereotyped or similar food in your home country, with this familiarity with the cuisine forming part of your *past experience* (Abraham & Kannan, 2015:141). From the results depicted in Table 4.16 it can be seen, however, that there were no statistical or practical differences between respondents who were *familiar with South African cuisine* (*past experience*), those who were not sure whether they were familiar with South African cuisine or not, and those who were not familiar with South African cuisine and any of the factors.

Table 4.16: ANOVA for comparison of factors by familiarity with South African cuisine

Factors	Responses	Mean	Standard deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes	
						Yes	No
Social influence	**Yes**	3.308	0.684	0.401	0.670		
	No	3.254	0.678			0.079	
	Not sure	3.306	0.662			0.002	0.078
	Total	3.286	0.677				
Culture and religion	**Yes**	2.298	1.109	0.222	0.801		
	No	2.314	1.121			0.014	
	Not sure	2.219	1.112			0.071	0.084
	Total	2.292	1.112				
Exploration	**Yes**	2.728	0.976	2.167	0.116		
	No	2.589	1.009			0.137	
	Not sure	2.490	0.959			0.244	0.099
	Total	2.635	0.989				

Factors	Responses	Mean	Standard deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes	
						Yes	No
The culinary experience	**Yes**	3.097	0.881	2.065	0.128		
	No	2.931	0.957			0.174	
	Not sure	3.087	0.883			0.012	0.163
	Total	3.028	0.915				
Environmental sensitivity	**Yes**	3.226	0.857	0.186	0.830		
	No	3.179	0.868			0.054	
	Not sure	3.190	0.659			0.042	0.013
	Total	3.202	0.833				
Affordability	**Yes**	4.054	0.626	0.291	0.748		
	No	4.104	0.729			0.069	
	Not sure	4.104	0.666			0.076	0.000
	Total	4.081	0.672				
Personal preference	**Yes**	3.662	0.689	0.013	0.987		
	No	3.666	0.776			0.004	
	Not sure	3.649	0.628			0.019	0.021
	Total	3.662	0.713				
Dining environment	**Yes**	3.904	0.497	1.031	0.358		
	No	3.912	0.543			0.015	
	Not sure	3.809	0.499			0.189	0.189
	Total	3.892	0.515				

Kim *et al*. (2009:425 & 427) state that eating local food for the first time is a really exciting experience for tourists. Respondents in the current study who were not sure whether they had *consumed local cuisine* (relating to their *personality*) while in South Africa valued **the culinary experience** as the most important (mean = 3.232), as depicted in Table 4.17.

There were practically significant differences between respondents who did not consume local cuisine and those who did (0.318; small effect) and those who were not sure (0.452; small effect). According to the literature, food neophobia results in persons commonly preferring foods with which they are familiar (Burusnukul *et al*., 2011:968; Mak *et al*., 2012:931-933). This seems to relate to the results displayed in the current study, as tourists who did not consume local food regarded **the culinary experience** (which contained the variable *desire for authentic food experience*) as the least important culinary-preference factor among the three groups.

Table 4.17: ANOVA for comparison of factors by having tried local cuisine during the trip

Factors	Responses	Mean	Standard deviation	F-value	p-value	Effect sizes	
						Yes	No
Social influence	Yes	3.271	0.662	0.794	0.453		
	No	3.253	0.713			0.026	
	Not sure	3.408	0.693			0.198	0.219
	Total	3.276	0.677				
Culture and religion	Yes	2.215	1.108	2.586	0.076		
	No	2.459	1.103			0.220	
	Not sure	2.420	1.084			0.185	0.035
	Total	2.289	1.108				
Exploration	Yes	2.690	0.962	2.410	0.091		
	No	2.488	0.977			0.207	
	Not sure	2.486	1.151			0.177	0.002
	Total	2.626	0.983				
The culinary experience	Yes	3.093	0.852	7.368	0.001		
	No	2.764	1.036			0.318	
	Not sure	3.232	0.917			0.152	0.452
	Total	3.022	0.916				
Environmental sensitivity	Yes	3.218	0.823	2.067	0.128		
	No	3.106	0.906			0.123	
	Not sure	3.409	0.570			0.232	0.334
	Total	3.204	0.831				
Affordability	Yes	4.117	0.646	1.776	0.171		
	No	3.969	0.721			0.206	
	Not sure	4.077	0.744			0.054	0.145
	Total	4.080	0.672				
Personal preference	Yes	3.649	0.673	0.090	0.914		
	No	3.675	0.820			0.032	
	Not sure	3.615	0.605			0.050	0.073
	Total	3.653	0.705				
Dining environment	Yes	3.927	0.495	3.854	0.022		
	No	3.761	0.552			0.301	
	Not sure	3.874	0.535			0.101	0.204
	Total	3.885	0.515				

Respondents who *consumed local cuisine* were on average the most satisfied with the **dining environment** (mean = 3.927), with respondents who did not consume local cuisine being on average the least satisfied (3.761). The practically significant difference between these groups was 0.301 (small effect). It is likely due to their lower level of satisfaction with the quality and variety of local cuisine, the health and safety and menus indicating which items are local that this group decided not to consume local cuisine during this trip.

With the socio-demographic and travel profiles having been analysed and compared to the culinary-preference and culinary-satisfaction factors, segmentation is considered.

4.3.7 Taxonomy of international tourists to South Africa

The variety of foods demanded by tourists has been found to be closely linked to the type of tourist (Torres, 2002:300). Quan and Wang (2004:302) state that it is necessary to segment tourism markets in terms of their different food habits and preferences. The factor analysis was used to determine five segments to which international tourists to South Africa belong to on the basis of their culinary preferences. It was decided to refer to groups who valued **environmental sensitivity** as **C**onservationists, **the culinary experience** as **E**xperience seekers, those for valued **culture and religion** as **D**evotees, likewise **exploration** as **E**xplorers and **social influence** as **S**ocialisers. The CEDES taxonomy (ceding to one's culinary preferences) was thus formed.

Although each respondent would definitely not fall clearly into one segment, the data was used to draft broad profiles for the different segments according to culinary preference. Each segment was described in terms of their socio-demographic and travel profile, which was determined with the use of Spearman's rank correlations, t-tests and ANOVA calculations. Only statistically significant relationships were drawn from. Therefore, even though *length of stay* was asked of respondents with the taxonomy in mind, since no statistically significant relationships emerged between *length of stay* and any of the culinary-preference factors, it could not be used for the taxonomy. Each segment can be described as follows:

4.3.7.1 Conservationists

Conservationists value a variety of cuisine, the availability of sustainably caught seafood, cuisine produced using sustainable methods, the availability of cuisine that is orientated towards animal welfare, cuisine that is 100% natural and is reasonably priced. Conservationists often made use of campgrounds and bed and breakfasts and many Australians were conservationists. Conservationists were satisfied with their **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa, as well as with the **dining environment**.

4.3.7.2 Experience seekers

Experience seekers value the availability of traditional cuisine, the opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine, restaurants close to attractions, esteemed and child-friendly restaurants. Updhyay and Sharma (2014:34) identified a cluster of tourists who valued the traditional and historical relevance of the cuisine. This cluster had hygiene and health concerns. Their cluster was also named experience seekers. Experience seekers in the current study were mostly Asians, Africans and Europeans. They tended to spend a lot of money on packaged tours. Experience seekers were mostly not sure whether they had consumed local food in South Africa, but many also had local food during this trip. The tourists who valued **the culinary experience** but did not consume local food did so because they did not know which items were local. Experience seekers were satisfied with their **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa, as well as with the **dining environment**.

4.3.7.3 Devotees

Devotees value the availability of vegan, vegetarian, halal, kosher and organic cuisine. Devotees often stayed in the homes of friends and relatives, campgrounds and bed and breakfasts, did not dine out frequently or consider themselves to be adventurous eaters. Devotees often followed a religious, health- or weight-related diet. Many Asians were devotees. This is not surprising, as half the Asian population is either Hindu or Muslim (Keck, 2014). Devotees were satisfied with their **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa, but dissatisfied with the **affordability** of cuisine in South Africa.

4.3.7.4 Explorers

Explorers value the availability of craft beer, garage wines, wine routes, food routes, culinary events, gourmet cuisine and the opportunity to enhance their knowledge. Explorers generally visited South Africa for leisure purposes, often stayed in campgrounds or hotels and spent a lot of money during their stay in South Africa. They especially spent a lot of money on sightseeing. Explorers were satisfied with their **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa. They were also satisfied with the **dining environment**.

Hjalager's (2004:198 & 200) experimentalists displayed similar characteristics to the explorers in the current study. They valued achievement and prestige and the authors state

that fancy chefs will likely appeal to this group of tourists. Kivela and Crotts (2006:358 & 365-366) agree that experimental tourists gain prestige by keeping up with culinary trends. They seek fashionable food, boutique wines, the latest ingredients and innovative menus. The authors state that these tourists' main purpose for the trip is to experience and savour exquisite gastronomy.

4.3.7.5 Socialisers

Socialisers value the availability of information, an understandable menu, the availability of pictures of cuisine, dining mostly at establishments with good ratings on travelogues, dining mostly where friends or family recommend, supporting local culinary stakeholders, the availability of franchises, cuisine that appeals to their senses and cuisine that is allowed in their diets. Hjalager's (2004:198 & 200) recreational segment was quite similar to the current study's socialisers, relying on word of mouth in order to make decisions. The authors recommended the use of down-to-earth television personalities in order to market to this segment. Kivela and Crotts (2006:358) further state that recreational tourists seek out familiar cuisine, take pleasure in eating together with family, often stay in self-catering establishments and tend to be Australian and European.

Socialisers in the current study tended to be Africans, respondents who did not regard themselves as adventurous eaters and respondents who had visited South Africa before. They tended to purchase packaged tours. Socialisers were satisfied with their **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa, as well as with the **dining environment**.

To conclude, it is possible to use culinary preferences to segment international tourists to South Africa. The segments show similarities with certain points, especially considering accommodation, as conservationists, devotees and explorers frequently make use of campgrounds and all the segments were satisfied with their culinary personal preferences being met while in South Africa. This having been said, numerous differences exist and therefore the CEDES taxonomy assists with the formulation of clear guidelines to the industry. These guidelines are given in Chapter 5.

4.3.8 **Structural equation modelling (SEM)**

SEM was used to empirically test a portion of the conceptual framework of tourists' culinary preferences (Figure 1.1). The data gathered was used to compile a model to assess the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa, as well the effect of these preferences on their culinary satisfaction while in South Africa. The steps to conduct SEM were discussed under Section 3.7.7 and, based on these, the steps followed in the current analysis are detailed below.

- **Step 1: Specify the model**

The main purpose of this study was to critically assess the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa. Very limited research in the culinary domain in South Africa exists. Through the literature review a list of 24 potential culinary-preference variables was compiled (see Section 2.4.2). These variables can be seen in the conceptual model (Section 1.2). The exogenous variables were the culinary-preference variables, and the endogenous variable was the culinary-satisfaction variable. Since the culinary-satisfaction variable has been stated to ultimately result in the other benefits for tourism stakeholders (see Figure 1.1) and could be empirically tested with the study sample, it was selected as the endogenous variable. Although it is stated in the conceptual model as one variable, it was determined through the EFA that there are three factors that form culinary satisfaction. The hypotheses to be tested though SEM are stated in Step 3, as these were determined after the EFA has been conducted. However, it can be noted here that it was hypothesised through the literature review that all the culinary-preference variables will have a direct relationship with culinary satisfaction.

- **Step 2: Evaluate model identification**

The model was identified and the researcher could proceed with the subsequent steps.

- **Step 3: Select the measures and collect, prepare, and screen the data**

A thorough discussion of the measure and data-collection techniques employed can be found in Chapter 3. A new scale was developed in order to test the 24 variables. The variables were tested in all three sections of the questionnaire. For this analysis the 32 items

in Section B and the 11 items in Section C of the questionnaire were used (the items in both sections were based on the 24 variables). Validity of the questionnaire was also addressed in Section 3.4.1.5. The number of questionnaires that formed part of the study was 627, exceeding the requirement of 300 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:613 & 659).

EFA were conducted in order to compile five culinary-preference factors and three culinary-satisfaction factors. All 43 items in the questionnaire loaded onto the eight factors. The factors were tested and were all found to be reliable (see Section 4.3.3). Spearman's rank correlations were used to test the correlations between the factors. The hypotheses, based on the factors, to be tested through SEM are listed in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Hypotheses to be tested with SEM

Hypothesis number	Hypotheses tested with SEM
H1	There is a direct relationship between social influence and dining environment
H2	There is a direct relationship between social influence and personal preference
H3	There is a direct relationship between social influence and affordability
H4	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and dining environment
H5	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and personal preference
H6	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and affordability
H7	There is a direct relationship between exploration and dining environment
H8	There is a direct relationship between exploration and personal preference
H9	There is a direct relationship between exploration and affordability
H10	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and dining environment
H11	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and personal Preference
H12	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and affordability
H13	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and dining environment
H14	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and personal preference
H15	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and affordability

- **Step 4: Estimate the model**

SPSS was used to analyse the data. The structural model compiled (Figure 4.3) tested the relationship between all five culinary-preference constructs (exogenous) and the three culinary-satisfaction constructs (endogenous), thus testing all 15 hypotheses stated in Step 3. The measured variables are indicated by squares in the figure, whereas the curved

double-headed arrows signify co-variation between the culinary-satisfaction factors and the one-headed arrows point from causes (culinary preference) to effects (culinary satisfaction).

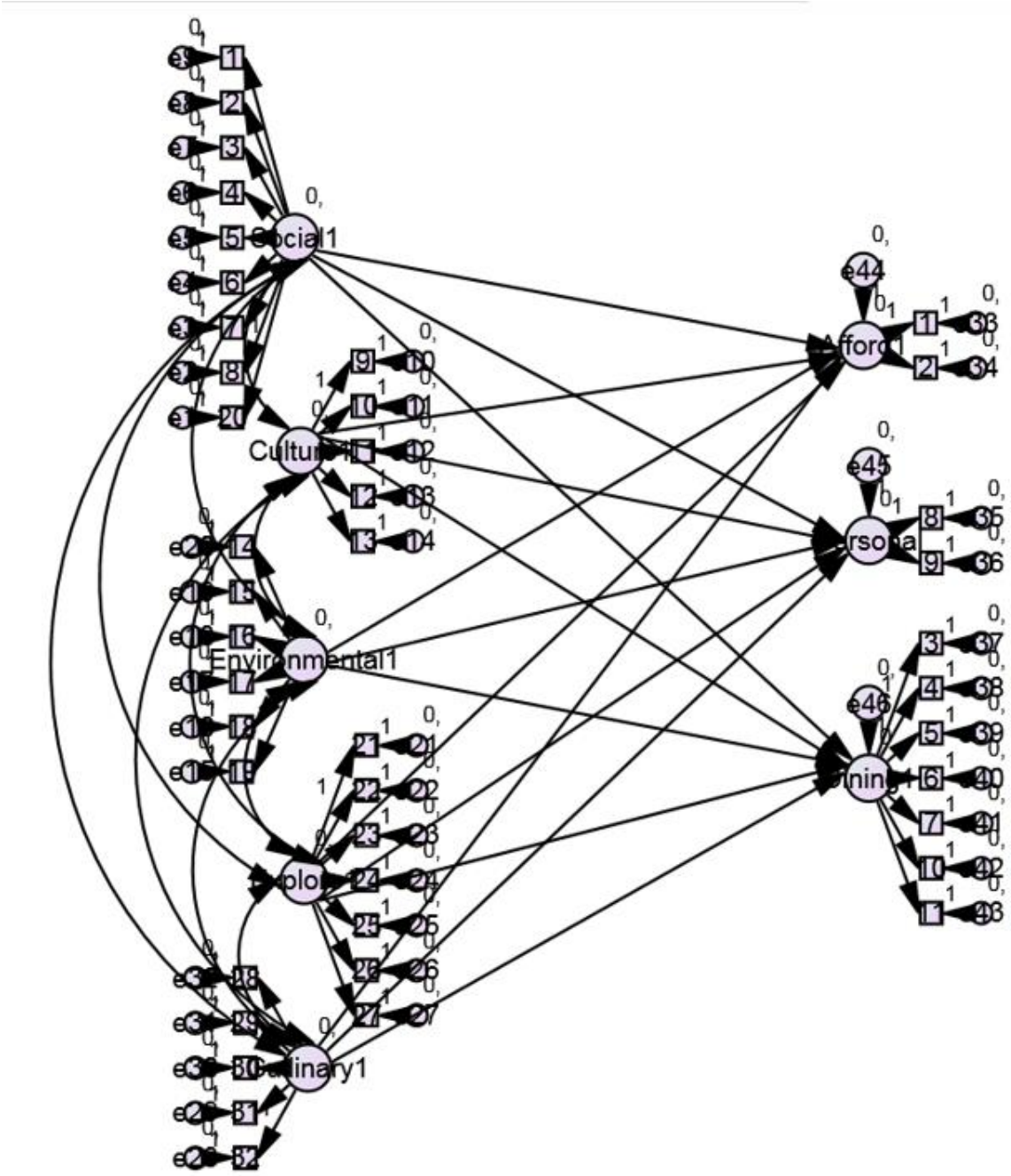

Figure 4.3: Model A: The effect of social influence, culture and religion, environmental sensitivity, exploration and the culinary experience on satisfaction with affordability, personal preference and the dining environment

For the structural Model A, six statistically meaningful effects ($p < 0.10$) of the culinary-preference factors on the culinary-satisfaction factors were found and have been marked in bold in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Standardised regression weights of the structural Model A

Items			Hypotheses	Estimate	p-value
Affordability	<-	Social influence	H3	-0.05	0.562
Personal preference	<-	Social influence	H2	**0.24**	**0.007**
Dining environment	<-	Social influence	H1	0.10	0.226
Personal preference	<-	Culture and religion	H5	**0.21**	**0.005**
Affordability	<-	Culture and religion	H6	**-0.18**	**0.015**
Dining environment	<-	Culture and religion	H4	-0.05	0.474
Affordability	<-	Environmental sensitivity	H15	0.06	0.42
Personal preference	<-	Environmental sensitivity	H14	-0.03	0.747
Dining environment	<-	Environmental sensitivity	H13	0.03	0.687
Affordability	<-	Exploration	H9	-0.07	0.318
Personal preference	<-	Exploration	H8	**0.14**	**0.053**
Dining environment	<-	Exploration	H7	-0.02	0.803
Affordability	<-	The culinary experience	H12	**0.25**	**0.002**
Personal preference	<-	The culinary experience	H11	-0.01	0.87
Dining environment	<-	The culinary experience	H10	**0.20**	**0.01**

After comparing the results of Model A with the Spearman correlation matrix (in Section 4.3.5), it was found that there was suppression and the model could consequently not be used.

- **Step 5: Respecify the model, which is assumed to have been identified (return to Step 4)**

Due to the suppression it was determined to omit all relationships between constructs that were not supported by correlations. Therefore, five relationships and their corresponding hypotheses were omitted from the second statistical model. The Spearman correlations between these constructs were all smaller than 0.06, as depicted in Table 4.20 and Table 4.11.

Table 4.20: Rejected hypotheses

Hypothesis number	Hypotheses not supported by Spearman's correlation matrix	rho
H3	There is a direct relationship between social influence and affordability	-0.03
H4	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and dining environment	0.05
H9	There is a direct relationship between exploration and affordability	-0.03
H12	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and affordability	0.06
H15	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and affordability	0.03

There was no direct relationship between **social influence, exploration, the culinary experience** or **environmental sensitivity** and **affordability**. Therefore, rating **social influence** (rho = -0.03), **exploration** (rho = -0.03), **the culinary experience** (rho = 0.06) and **environmental sensitivity** (rho = 0.03) as important had no influence on satisfaction with the **affordability** of food and beverages while in South Africa. Rating **culture and religion** as important was the only factor that displayed no significant relationship with satisfaction with the **dining environment** (rho = 0.05) at this stage of the analysis. The model that was respecified was also identified.

- **Step 4: Estimate the model**

Model B (Figure 4.4) was compiled via SPSS to test only the structural effects that were supported by correlations. Thus it tested only the effect of the culinary-preference factors on some of the culinary-satisfaction factors. Model B tested the remaining ten hypotheses as tabled below (Table 4.21) and to be seen in Figure 4.4.

Table 4.21: Hypotheses tested with Model B

Hypothesis number	Hypothesis
H1	There is a direct relationship between social influence and dining environment
H2	There is a direct relationship between social influence and personal preference
H5	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and personal preference
H6	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and affordability
H7	There is a direct relationship between exploration and dining environment
H8	There is a direct relationship between exploration and personal preference
H10	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and dining environment
H11	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and personal preference
H13	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and dining environment
H14	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and personal preference

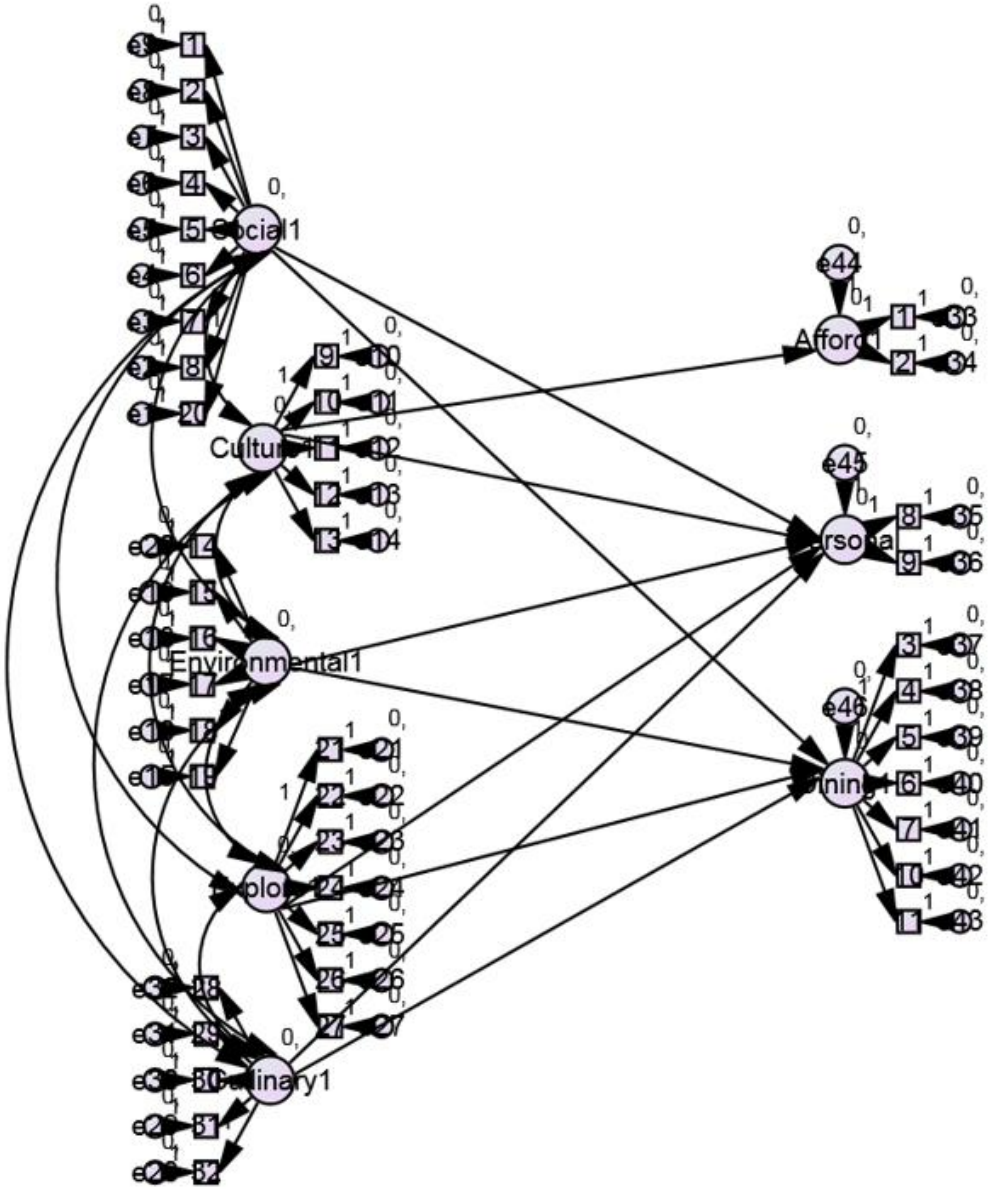

Figure 4.4: Model B: The effect of social influence, culture and religion, environmental sensitivity, exploration and the culinary experience on satisfaction with affordability, personal preference and the dining environment (refined Model)

a. Evaluate model fit; if poor, specify the model, but only if doing so is justifiable (skip to Step 5); otherwise, retain no model (skip to Step 6)

The validity of Model B was assessed by considering the values obtained for CMIN/DF, CFI and RMSEA. The values obtained were CMIN/DF = 4.494, CFI = 0.755 and RMSEA = 0.075, with a 90% confidence interval (CI). As was discussed in Section 3.7.7, CFI values above 0.90

are generally associated with a good model fit (Hair *et al.,* 2010:669). In this case, the CFI value of 0.755 does not meet the criteria. This having been said, the RMSEA value of 0.075, with a 90% CI of [0.072; 0.077], is less than the recommended 0.08, demonstrating a good fit (Stevens, 2009:567; Malhotra *et al.*, 2013:718). Likewise, the CMIN/DF of 4.494 is below the recommended 5, also representing a good model fit (Mueller, 1996:84).

b. Assuming a model is retained, interpret the parameter estimates

Maximum likelihood estimation was the technique used for the data interpretation. Figure 4.5 depicts a simplified version of Model B. This figure differs from Figure 4.4 mainly because it omits the variables that formed part of each of the factors as well as the interrelationships between the culinary-preference factors (for ease of reading). Although it is key to remember these elements, this simplified figure contains the main results of interest for the rest of the discussion.

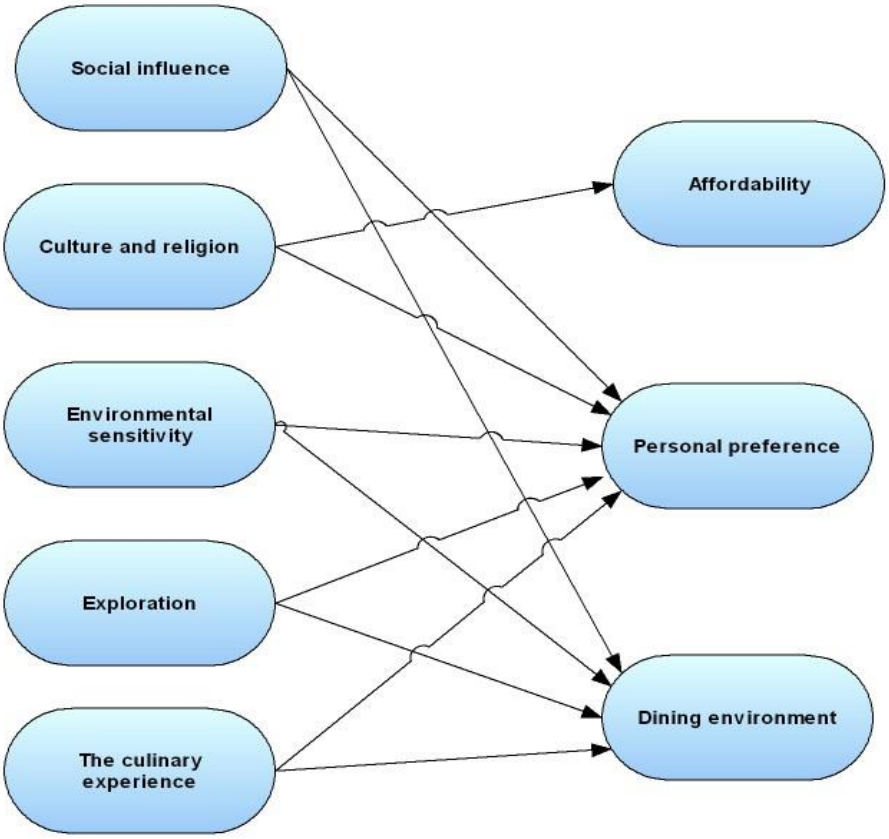

Figure 4.5: Simplified Model B

The following constructs (from the structural model) had significant relationships with one another. This is evident by the statistical significance ($p < 0.1$), as can be seen in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Standardised regression weights of the structural Model B

Items			Hypotheses	Estimate	p-value
Personal preference	<---	Social influence	H2	**0.26**	**0.004**
Dining environment	<---	Social influence	H1	0.13	0.131
Personal preference	<---	Culture and religion	H5	**0.22**	**0.004**
Affordability	<---	Culture and religion	H6	**-0.11**	**0.08**
Personal preference	<---	Environmental sensitivity	H14	-0.04	0.658
Dining environment	<---	Environmental sensitivity	H13	0.00	0.983
Personal preference	<---	Exploration	H8	**0.15**	**0.042**
Dining environment	<---	Exploration	H7	-0.01	0.928
Personal preference	<---	The culinary experience	H11	-0.04	0.638
Dining environment	<---	The culinary experience	H10	**0.14**	**0.061**

The positive standardised regression weights indicate that the importance of **social influence, culture and religion** and **exploration** as culinary-preference factors had significantly positive effects on satisfaction with **personal preference** being met while in South Africa ($\beta = 0.26$, $\beta = 0.26$ and $\beta = 0.15$ respectively). In contrast, **culture and religion** had a negative effect (with a standardised regression weight of $\beta = -0.11$) on satisfaction with **affordability**. Lastly, the standardised regression weights indicate that **the culinary experience** as a factor influencing culinary preference had a statistically significant positive effect on satisfaction with the **dining environment** ($\beta = 0.14$). Therefore, the higher the importance of **the culinary experience** to international tourists to South Africa, the greater their satisfaction with the **dining environment**.

In this discussion, only the structural model was reported on, as the measurement model has already been validated and reported on in Section 4.3.3 (EFA). All the standardised regression estimates between the variables and factors were statistically significant ($p<0.001$).

Table 4.23 illustrates that there are medium to large correlations (all with a p-value of less than 0.001) between all the culinary-preference factors, showing evidence of construct validity. These relate to the curved arrows between the different culinary-preference factors in Figure 4.4 (complete Model B).

Table 4.23: Correlations between culinary-preference factors

Culinary-preference factor		Culinary-preference factor	Estimate	p-value
Social influence	<-->	Culture and religion	0.43	*** <0.001
Social influence	<-->	Environmental sensitivity	0.49	*** <0.001
Social influence	<-->	Exploration	0.47	*** <0.001
The culinary experience	<-->	Social influence	0.56	*** <0.001
Culture and religion	<-->	Environmental sensitivity	0.57	*** <0.001
Culture and religion	<-->	Exploration	0.42	*** <0.001
The culinary experience	<-->	Culture and religion	0.32	*** <0.001
Environmental sensitivity	<-->	Exploration	0.43	*** <0.001
The culinary experience	<-->	Exploration	0.48	*** <0.001
The culinary experience	<-->	Environmental sensitivity	0.32	*** <0.001

As can be seen in Table 4.24, Model B explains 1.3% of the variance for **affordability**, 5.5% of the variance for **dining environment** and 20.7% of the variance for **personal preference**.

Table 4.24: Squared multiple correlations

Culinary-satisfaction factors	Estimate
Dining environment	0.055
Personal preference	0.207
Affordability	0.013

c. Consider equivalent or near equivalent models (skip to Step 6)

Model B is certainly not the only suitable model that could have been compiled from the available data. This model was, however, selected as it corresponds with the correlations and the literature.

- **Step 6: Report the results**

Of the 15 hypotheses that were tested with SEM, 10 were found to be unsupported, and in the end five hypotheses were supported by Model B (see Table 4.22 and Table 4.25). The supported hypotheses were H2, H5, H6, H8 and H10. Recommendations based on these findings are discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 4.25: Final results of SEM hypotheses testing

Hypothesis number	Hypotheses tested with SEM	Supported or not supported
H1	There is a direct relationship between social influence and dining environment	Not supported
H2	There is a direct relationship between social influence and personal preference	Supported
H3	There is a direct relationship between social influence and affordability	Not supported
H4	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and dining environment	Not supported
H5	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and personal preference	Supported
H6	There is a direct relationship between culture and religion, and affordability	Supported
H7	There is a direct relationship between exploration and dining environment	Not supported
H8	There is a direct relationship between exploration and personal preference	Supported
H9	There is a direct relationship between exploration and affordability	Not supported
H10	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and dining environment	Supported
H11	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and personal preference	Not supported
H12	There is a direct relationship between the culinary experience and affordability	Not supported
H13	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and dining environment	Not supported
H14	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and personal preference	Not supported
H15	There is a direct relationship between environmental sensitivity and affordability	Not supported

Smith, Costello and Muenchen (2008:463) found that the push factor (to attend a culinary event) of socialisation influences the satisfaction of respondents. For the current study, only satisfaction with **personal preference** had a direct relationship with **social influence** (H2). As Hypothesis 5 and 6 were supported, the current study is in agreement with Quan and Wang (2004:302), who state that culture and religious differences in tourists' eating habits have an effect on the satisfaction experienced by tourists.

It is positive to note that Hypothesis 10 was supported by the data, as respondents to whom **the culinary experience** was important were satisfied with the **dining environment** in South

Africa. It has been stated in the literature that the availability of local and traditional food could increase satisfaction (Kim *et al*., 2009:427; Kim & Eves, 2012:1465; Updhyay & Sharma, 2014:35). The importance of traditional cuisine and experiencing a new culture formed part of **the culinary experience** factor, and satisfaction with menus indicating which items were local and the availability and quality of local cuisine formed part of the **dining environment** factor.

The support of Hypothesis 8 also indicates that tourists who value exploring gourmet cuisine, culinary events and other opportunities to enhance their knowledge were satisfied with culinary **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa. This is a finding to be explored by tourism developers and other tourism stakeholders.

In conclusion, even though it can be seen from the literature that all the culinary-preference constructs influence culinary preference in some or other situation, the same cannot be said for the current study and the effect of these constructs on culinary satisfaction. The culinary preference constructs tested did not all influence the different culinary-satisfaction constructs for international tourists to South Africa. **Environmental sensitivity** did not influence culinary satisfaction at all, while three relationships existed between the culinary-satisfaction constructs and satisfaction with culinary **personal preferences** being met while in the country. **Culture and religion** was the only influence on satisfaction with **affordability** of cuisine, and **the culinary experience** was the only influence on satisfaction with the **dining environment**. Therefore, to ensure culinary satisfaction, the supported hypotheses should be focused on.

4.4 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the results of the study, acquired by means of the survey completed by 627 international tourists departing South Africa from the O.R. Tambo International Airport, were put forth. The chapter addressed questions posed in the study objectives, problem statement and literature review. Each question and their answers will be summarised in Chapter 5.

This chapter started off with an investigation of the respondents' socio-demographic and travel profiles. This was followed by an in-depth examination of the determinants of the

culinary preferences and culinary satisfaction of international tourists to South Africa. This examination made use of descriptive statistics, EFA, t-tests, Spearman's rank correlations, ANOVA and SEM. The most important determinants of culinary preference included being able to order from a menu that was easily understandable (communication gap), the availability of cuisine that was reasonably priced (affordability) and the availability of cuisine that appealed to my senses (taste and availability, quality and variety).

Five culinary-preference and three culinary-satisfaction factors were extracted from the data. On the basis of the results of the EFA it was decided to refer to the five identified tourist segments as conservationists, experience seekers, devotees, explorers and socialisers. The CEDES taxonomy was thus created. The characteristics of each of the segments were given.

SEM was used to empirically test a portion of the conceptual framework of tourists' culinary preferences and of the 15 hypotheses tested, five hypotheses were supported by the final model. Some of the findings reported in this chapter were supported by the literature and others were contrasted. Conclusions for the study as well as recommendations emanating from the findings follow in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The outcome of any serious research can only be to make two questions grow where only one grew before.

Veblen (s.a.)

The main question in the current study was: what are the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa? Four objectives stemmed from this question. Objective 1 was to conduct an in-depth literature review on the global existing knowledge on culinary tourism, including tourists' culinary preferences and theories influencing culinary preferences. Objective 1 further included investigating South African culinary tourism, focusing on the current policies and strategies utilised in the domain. These were addressed in Chapter 2. Objective 2 was to develop a taxonomy of South African tourists and to identify the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa. These aspects were addressed in Chapter 4. Objective 3 was to make recommendations for the promotion of local food, and Objective 4 was to draw conclusions from the results, and to make management and policy recommendations to stimulate growth in South African culinary tourism. The last two objectives are addressed in this chapter.

The purpose of this chapter is furthermore to summarise the answers to the questions posed throughout the research, to state the contributions made by this research and to make recommendations for future research. The chapter, however, commences with the author's journey.

5.2 My PhD journey

Even though this research was conducted with a positivist philosophical underpinning and a positivist does not use a subjective approach or let feelings cloud his or her judgement,

please allow me this opportunity to briefly detail my personal PhD journey (Botteril & Platenkamp, 2012:147 & 149).

The first time I truly grasped what postgraduate research entailed was when my older brother enrolled to do his M.Tech. in Electrical Engineering. I do not know if I would ever have thought of being an academic as a career path if it had not been for his example. He made such a success of it, even getting a distinction for his degree, that it made me fall in love with the idea of research. After the successful completion of my own M.Tech. it took a while before I seriously started thinking of undertaking the big D. I finally ended up driving to two of the country's prestigious academic tourism departments and found my inspiration to dive in and undertake this study.

Deciding on a topic was the most difficult part of the journey for me. I had read numerous articles and was dead set on researching "voluntourism", but could not find an appropriate topic and was very discouraged! After a simple conversation with my study promoter-to-be, we became intrigued with international tourists' culinary preferences. Do they prefer local food? How many tourists eat halal food? Do tourists want to visit food routes? From here, this study was born – in order to answer these questions. It is wonderful to be able to study something that I truly love and have a passion for experiencing: travelling and cuisine! Sometimes, while reading an article or a tourist's responses, I smile when I remember that this is my "job" – what a privilege to be able to do something I love.

As any PhD candidate would say of this journey: it has been a rollercoaster! During this time, I was blessed with a beautiful baby boy (and many sleepless nights), I had to change job positions at my institution, five months after having moved into our dream home a hail storm wreaked havoc and the ceilings of our entire house had to be replaced - in addition to other repairs. Even though all these life-changing events occurred, I would be lying if I did not say that this has been such a blessed time!

The support and encouragement I received have been overwhelming. At work I received the SoAR fellowship and was granted sabbatical leave against all odds. I was humbled by the support I received from my superiors in order to make this happen. At home, my husband would babysit, do the chores and cook in order to give me time to work, and my parents went above and beyond in order to assist where they could. They took us in when our home

was in disrepair, my mother quit her job in order to take care of our son full time, and there are just a million other things they have done for my little family.

Studying at NWU has been a wonderful blessing in itself. Never in my wildest dreams would I have expected the swift progress of quality research and the passion for the tourism industry that I have witnessed. The excitement when new discoveries are made is palpable and as a result I have loved my studies. I have also loved my sabbatical leave and every free hour I have been able to spend on this project. I am certainly grateful that this huge task has almost reached its end, but I am also excited by the work and rewards that might stem from this project. As you conclude reading this thesis, I would like to say that my journey has truly been a reflection of God's grace and I thank you for taking the time to read it.

5.3 **Contributions**

This study made three types of contributions, namely literature, methodological and practical contributions.

5.3.1 **Literature contribution**

The study contributed towards the scarce literature in terms of offering greater insight into culinary tourism and the role it plays in a developing country. A South African perspective of the determinants of international tourists' culinary preferences was provided, as well as a taxonomy of international tourists to South Africa. The CEDES taxonomy (see Section 4.3.7) put forth that five different types of tourists can be identified on the basis of their culinary preferences, namely conservationists, experience seekers, devotees, explorers and socialisers.

South Africa has a greater variety of different cultures and cuisines than most countries, and thus provided an interesting environment for a culinary-preference study. A conceptual framework was proposed to critically assess the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa (Figure 1.1 in Section 1.2). Although the current research findings loosely support the TIB, TSR, push-and-pull theory of motivation, drivers of culinary-tourism demand framework, theoretical tourist food-consumption model and the local food-consumption model, they do not fit 100% with any of these theories and models. Existing

theories and theoretical aspects were thus contributed to by means of the conceptual framework, which provided a comprehensive overview of the determinants of tourists' culinary preferences. The determinants were derived from the literature and divided into three categories, namely socio-demographic determinants, behavioural determinants and external determinants. The model proposed that the culinary-preference determinants be used to segment tourism markets, and this combined knowledge may result in a number of benefits to the tourists, industry stakeholders and government.

Lastly, the empirical model developed through the SEM analysis (Figure 5.1) details which culinary-preference-factors have relationships with satisfaction with culinary **personal preferences** being met, satisfaction with the **affordability** of cuisine and satisfaction with the **dining environment**.

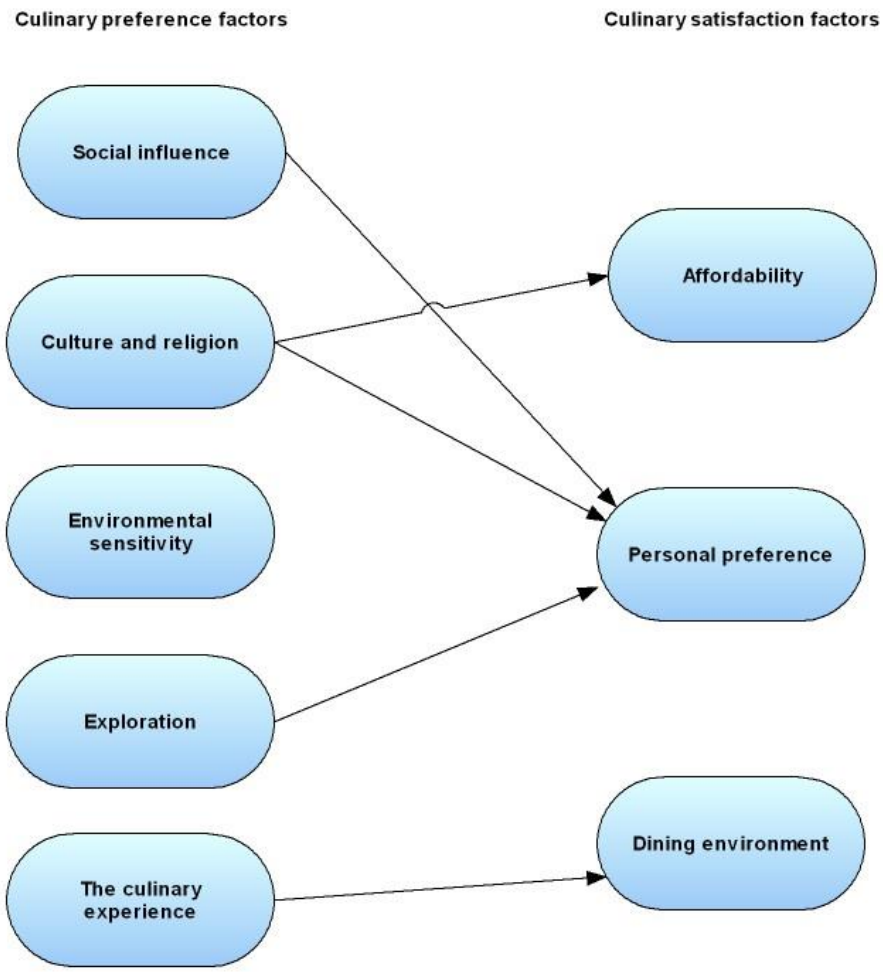

Figure 5.1: Hypotheses supported through SEM

How the hypotheses were tested and, subsequently the model that was formed were thoroughly discussed in Section 4.3.8. The main findings include that not all the culinary-preference constructs have influence all three the culinary satisfaction constructs, and the importance of **environmental sensitivity** did not have a relationship with any of the three culinary-satisfaction factors. Of the 15 proposed relationships, five were confirmed by the model. The importance of **social influence**, **culture and religion** and **exploration** had direct relationships with satisfaction with culinary **personal preferences** being met while in South Africa. The importance of **culture and religion** had a direct relationship with satisfaction with the **affordability** of South African cuisine, and the importance of **the culinary experience** had a direct relationship with satisfaction with the **dining environment** in South Africa.

5.3.2 **Methodological contribution**

The formulation of research outcomes, techniques used for data collection, the analysis and interpretation thereof were all based on a thorough examination of existing literature, theories and empirical observation. The newly developed quantitative questionnaire adds methodological value and can be used in similar studies in the future.

5.3.3 **Practical contribution**

Clear guidelines, based on the findings of this study, have been provided in Section 5.5.1 and can be used to stimulate economic growth, for policy development, marketing strategies, branding, improving the quality of food and beverages, menu development, enhancing tourists' culinary experience and satisfaction, and to contribute to the sustainable competitiveness of destinations within South Africa. The study provides insight into how to achieve three of the NTSS objectives (National Department of Tourism, 2011:13, 19 & 20). The next section (Section 5.4) also includes useful strategies to assist in the successful achievement of the above-mentioned benefits of knowledge on culinary preferences.

5.4 Conclusions

In this section all the objectives and questions stated throughout the project are addressed. It is stated where in the thesis each one was thoroughly addressed and a concise summary of the findings is given.

5.4.1 Research objectives

Objective 1

- **To conduct an in-depth literature review on the global existing knowledge of culinary tourism, including tourists' culinary preferences and theories influencing culinary preferences**

Outcome of Objective 1: An international, multi-disciplinarily literature review was conducted (Sections 2.2 – 2.4.2.3). The history, vast potential and benefits of culinary tourism were detailed and many global success stories of culinary tourism put forth. Multiple consumer behaviour (TRA, TPB, TIB and TSR) and motivational theories (Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and the push-and-pull theory of motivation) were analysed, as were culinary frameworks and models that have been proposed in the tourism industry (drivers of culinary-tourism demand framework, theoretical tourist food-consumption model and a local food-consumption model).

Based on these theories, models and frameworks as well as additional literature, a list of tourists' culinary-preference determinants was compiled. The determinants were grouped under the headings of socio-demographic, behavioural and external determinants.

- **To investigate South African culinary tourism, focusing on the current policies and strategies utilised in the domain**

Outcome of Objective 1: South African culinary tourism was discussed in Section 2.6. It was found that South Africa has a great untapped culinary-tourism potential with the most diversified cultural resource base in the world (Du Rand & Heath, 2006:206 & 207; Ivanovic, 2008:xviii). South Africa was found to be the least prepared culinary travel destination and the travel destination with the greatest potential for growth (Phillips,

2010). Food was found to be a vital supportive tourism attraction in South Africa (Du Rand *et al.*, 2003:97, 101 & 103-104; Du Rand & Heath, 2006:206 & 215-216).

Current policies and strategies utilised in the domain include the KDF's protection of Karoo Lamb, the Proudly South African campaign, the international Nature and More trademark, eight South African Slow Food convivia, WOSA's exports of South African wine, the Wine of Origin scheme, numerous other culinary exports, official wine routes with the South African Wine Routes Forum, culinary festivals, shows and expos (Muscleman, 2011; The Wine and Spirit Board, 2012:3; McLagen, 2014; NatureandMore, 2014b; Brand South Africa, 2015; Proudly South African, 2015a; Slow Food, 2015b; KDF, 2016b; OEC, 2016b; Radium, 2016; South African Tourism, 2016b; South African Tourism, 2016a; WOSA, 2016).

Challenges faced by South African tourism include visa regulations and the conservation of South African food resources, native ingredients and traditional cooking methods. Lastly, it was determined that more research into culinary tourism in South Africa is needed, as are further strategies to increase the benefits of culinary tourism.

Objective 2

- **To develop a taxonomy of South African tourists**

Outcome of Objective 2: A number of taxonomies of tourists based on culinary elements were discussed under Section 2.4.3. The CEDES taxonomy developed from the current research findings was discussed under Section 4.3.7. The culinary-preference factors were used to determine five different segments of international tourists to South Africa on the basis of culinary preferences. These were conservationists, experience seekers, devotees, explorers and socialisers. The elements valued by each segment, their socio-demographic and travel profiles were included in the discussion.

- **To identify the determinants of the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa**

Outcome of Objective 2: The literature was tested in a newly developed questionnaire in order to determine the determinants of culinary preferences of international tourists to

South Africa. All the determinants tested loaded onto the five identified culinary-preference factors. The identified culinary-preference factors were **social influence**, **culture and religion**, **exploration**, **the culinary experience** and **environmental sensitivity** (see Section 4.3.3.1).

The importance of each of the determinants was detailed under Section 4.3.1. From the 32 items tested, international tourists regarded being able to order from a menu that is easily understandable to be the most important. The second most important item was the availability of cuisine that is reasonably priced, and the third most important item was that the food had to appeal to the respondents' senses. Some of the other important items noted by tourists in the current study included the availability of a wide variety of cuisine, the availability of information about local cuisine and the opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine. The four items of least importance were the availability of kosher cuisine, the availability of vegan cuisine, the availability of halal cuisine and the availability of vegetarian cuisine.

Objective 3

- **To make recommendations for the promotion of local food**

Outcome of Objective 3: Food has not been promoted as a tourism attraction in South Africa, as a lack of awareness of the tourism potential of local food in the country exists (Du Rand & Heath, 2006:219). Recommendations for the promotion of local food in South Africa are made under Section 5.5.1.

Objective 4

- **To draw conclusions from the results, and to make management and policy recommendations to stimulate growth in South African culinary tourism**

Outcome of Objective 4: The current chapter serves to draw conclusions from the results of this research. Management and policy recommendations to stimulate growth in South African culinary tourism are given under Section 5.5.1.

5.4.2 Additional questions from the problem statement

In order to reap the benefits of knowledge on culinary preferences, questions were posed in addition to the study objectives. These questions are addressed in this section. The first six questions were posed in the problem statement and the rest of the questions were posed throughout the literature review:

- **What are the existing patterns of demand in the international tourism market for South Africa?**

  Outcome of the question: The importance of each of the determinants of culinary preference was detailed under Section 4.3.1, as discussed under Objective 2.

- **What are tourists' preferences for local food versus international food and beverages?**

  Outcome of the question: When the neophilic versus neophobic tendencies of international tourists to South Africa were analysed, half (50.43%) the tourists had indicated that they always tried local cuisine when travelling, 36.35% occasionally try local food, and only 13.22% regarded themselves as neophobic (see Section 4.2.1.5). All the variables relating to local cuisine were regarded as more important to tourists than the availability of well-known international food and beverage franchises, which was ranked 18th (see Section 4.3.1). These variables were the availability of information about local cuisine (ranked 5th), the availability of traditional cuisine (ranked 9th), the opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine (ranked 6th), and supporting local culinary stakeholders (ranked 12th). Therefore it can be concluded that international tourists to South Africa prefer local cuisine to international cuisine.

- **What is the potential for stimulating a new demand for local food?**

  Outcome of the question: Many (68.86%) international tourists consumed local cuisine during this trip to South Africa. The 24.22% who did not consume local cuisine and the 6.92% who were not sure whether they had consumed local cuisine all stated a variety of reasons for this. The main reason by far was that they did not know which items were local (see Section 4.2.2.9). With this in mind, and the fact that tourists were the least satisfied with South African menus currently indicating which items are local (see Section 4.3.2), it can be seen that there is definite potential to stimulate a new demand for local food and beverages.

- **What percentage of tourists' total expenditure is spent on food and beverages while in South Africa?**

Outcome of the question: Average spending was discussed under Section 4.2.2.6. International tourists spent R3 080.22 or 6.71% of their total trip expenditure on food and beverages. It should, however, be remembered that packaged tours and some accommodation rates include food and beverages and the values of these two elements were considered separately from expenditure on food and beverages.

- **Are there tourists who travel to South Africa primarily for culinary experiences?**

Outcome of the question: Only 20.7% of tourists indicated the main reason of this trip to be for leisure purposes, which included food and drink, although this aspect requires more research in the future (see Section 4.2.2.7).

- **What are the dietary requirements of international tourists in South Africa in terms of halal, kosher, vegetarian and others?**

Outcome of the question: As can be seen in Section 4.2.1.6, only 12.66% of international tourists were following any religious, health- or weight-related diet. The diets cited most often were vegetarian, halal, vegan, low carbohydrate and weight-loss diets. Only one respondent suffered from allergies and another from avoidant food intake disorder.

- **Is it advisable to market culinary offerings in a different manner to different nationalities?**

Outcome of the question: The answer to this question is a resounding yes! Six of the eight factors displayed significant differences between the different nationalities (see Section 4.3.6). To summarise: Europeans displayed significant differences from the other nationalities on occasion, but did not value any of the factors the most or the least among the nationalities. On average, Africans valued **social influence** the most among all the nationalities, and on average, Americans valued **social influence**, **culture and religion** and **environmental sensitivity** the least of any of the nationalities.

On average, Australians valued **environmental sensitivity,** but did not value **the culinary experience** as much as the other nationalities. On average, Asians valued **culture and religion** and **the culinary experience** the most of any of the nationalities. Therefore, the aspects that are valued by each nationality should be focused on in marketing

campaigns on those specific continents. It can also serve as guideline for product development that appeals to different nationalities.

- **Is it worthwhile to increase the availability of food and beverages that appeal to certain nationalities, cultures and religions?**

Outcome of the question: This question was answered in the preceding two questions. Another reference to the findings of this study worth making is that of the 32 culinary-preference variables, the importance of culturally and religiously acceptable food and beverages ranked the lowest (rank 29 to 32). Therefore, it can be concluded that it may be worthwhile to increase the availability of food and beverages that appeal to certain nationalities (for example when Europeans visit your establishment, the cuisine that appeals to them is different from the cuisine that appeals to Africans), but it may not be worthwhile to increase the availability of food and beverages that appeal to different cultures and religions.

As was stated in Section 4.3.4, respondents who at the time of data collection were following a religious, health- or weight-related diet were more satisfied with their culinary personal preferences being met while in South Africa than respondents who were not following any diet. It therefore seems that South African culinary establishments offer cuisine to accommodate a variety of cultures and religions, which results in the satisfaction of respondents following diets. The availability of cuisine that is allowed in their diets was relatively high on the importance list for international tourists in the current study (ranked 7th, see Section 4.3.1) and should consequently not be completely ignored.

- **Do tourists' scope of international travel influence their culinary preferences?**

Outcome of the question: There were no significant differences between the number of international trips international tourists had taken in the preceding five years and any of the culinary-preference factors (see Section 4.3.5). The number of times that the tourists had visited South Africa did, however, have a statistically significant relationship with **social influence**. The more respondents had visited South Africa, the more important they regarded **social influence** in their culinary decision-making. It can therefore be concluded that the scope of international travel does influence culinary preferences.

5.5 Recommendations

The findings and conclusions from this research result in a number of recommendations for government and industry in order to ultimately grow the South African culinary-tourism industry, as well as for future research that could benefit the domain.

5.5.1 Recommendations for government and industry

In 2008, Ivanovic (2008:223) stated that more and more international tourists are now looking for an authentic African experience. This still seems to be the case, as the availability of information about local cuisine and the opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine were among the most important culinary preferences in the current study (ranked 5th and 6th most important, respectively – refer to Section 4.3.1). As South Africa has been ranked as the least-prepared culinary travel destination in the world and the travel destination with the greatest potential for growth, it truly is time to make some changes (Phillips, 2010). The following recommendations are therefore made to government and industry to, among other things, promote local cuisine:

- The findings of the study could serve as a guideline to tourism and hospitality businesses, who could adjust their food and beverage offerings in order to cater for the needs of international tourists, thereby increasing their sales and profit. Hotels, restaurants and other eateries can develop products and plan menus according to the established preferences of international tourists. This could be done in terms of local versus international cuisine or culinary preferences based on religious dietary laws, to name only a few options.

- Tourism marketers and tourism establishments could enhance strategies because they know what each segment of international tourists to South Africa values when making culinary decisions. For example, in bed and breakfasts, the availability of sustainably caught seafood, cuisine produced using sustainable methods and the availability of cuisine that is orientated towards animal welfare could be marketed, as conservationists often stay in bed and breakfast establishments. In hotels, craft beer, garage wines, wine routes, food routes, culinary events, gourmet cuisine and

the opportunities to enhance culinary knowledge can be advertised, as explorers often stay in hotels (see Section 4.3.7).

- Since Australians tended to be conservationists (see Section 4.3.7), tourism marketing campaigns directed at Australians could focus on South Africa's eight Slow Food convivia (Slow Food, 2015b), as well as other sustainable and animal-welfare-oriented cuisine. Conserving South Africa's food resources, native ingredients and traditional cooking methods is pivotal to ensuring that tourists get a true taste of the country's seas, land, cultures and history (South African Tourism, 2016c), and the development of more culinary products geared towards this conservation may draw even more tourists to the country.

- Since explorers tend to be big spenders (see Section 4.3.7), the development of more activities for these tourists to explore may be of economic benefit to specific areas.

- Since the importance of **culture and religion** had a negative effect on satisfaction with **affordability** (see Section 4.3.8), establishments should not inflate the prices of culinary items that are suitable for the consumption of religious tourists, such as vegetarian dishes. The ingredients of these dishes are often less expensive than meat dishes and even considering the fact that religious and culturally acceptable meals may require more skill and time to prepare (López-Alt, 2016), it is important for the customer to still perceive the meal to provide value for money. If this is achieved, it may ultimately result in a more satisfied and larger tourism market and an enhancement of the South African tourism offering. Tourists who regard culture and religion as important may currently avoid South Africa because they find acceptable food to be inaccessible due to the price.

- An understandable menu was rated as the single most important determinant of culinary preferences among international tourists in the current study. For this reason, menus can be translated into various languages (Cincan, 2014). Offering pictures on menus, perhaps including pictures of the individual ingredients as is done at Vietnamese Noodles (Figure 5.2), can assist tourists to identify the dish they would prefer, even if they do not understand the language used on the menu.

Figure 5.2: Tourists' menu at Vietnamese Noodles
Source: W M (2013)

- The availability of pictures of cuisine outside businesses (ranked 8th) was also considered important by tourists and is an easy addition to culinary outlets in order to satisfy the needs of international tourists (see Section 4.3.1). Complete menus or pictures of popular, signature or local dishes could be considered.

- The Department of Trade and Industry, which is one of the main drivers of the Proudly South African campaign, could expand to make their logo available for use in menus (Proudly South African, 2015b:11). Policies such as the use of the "Proudly South African" logo (Figure 5.3) to identify local dishes and beverages on menus in restaurants in order to clearly identify and promote local cuisine are therefore recommended. The availability of information and the identification of local cuisine were found to be the element international tourists were least satisfied with in South Africa and the element of 5th most importance to tourists (see Section 4.3.1 and 4.3.2). South African Tourism (2016c) asks tourists to be epicurean adventurers when visiting South Africa, to eat in restaurants showcasing the country's diverse food heritage and support locally made food and beverages in order to promote and sustain the local food culture. However, it does not help if tourists struggle to identify local cuisine. Fields (2002:43) states that the lack of pre-consumption

knowledge should be addressed in marketing cuisine, which is supported by the current research.

Figure 5.3: Proudly South African logo

Source: Proudly South African (2015a)

- If the Proudly South African initiative is not a viable option, printing a small South African flag next to traditional dishes in menus will also assist international tourists to identify local cuisine.

- Culinary mobile applications can be used to further increase the marketing of South African cuisine as well as unique culinary establishments in the country. Foodspotting is a global mobile application which also lists dishes of South African establishments, making it easier for tourists to find specific dishes they would like to try (Foodspotting, 2017). Examples of other culinary mobile applications available for use in specific countries include France Food Travel Guide, Korean Food Travel, Halal Trip Korea and Australian Good Food Guide (Aptiode, 2017; Google Play, 2017a, 2017b, 2017c). The development and promotion of such mobile applications should be considered by government and tourism bureaus.

- Instead of it being a voluntary programme, it should be considered to make it compulsory for food and beverages to be clearly labelled when products have been produced in South Africa. In Australia, the government has recently implemented mandatory "Made in Australia" food labelling (Figure 5.4), which goes as far as stating the percentage of Australian ingredients in a product (Charlton & Carrad,

2016). This added detail could also benefit South African food and beverage products.

Figure 5.4: Made in country of origin labels

Source: Terlato (2015)

- Local traditions and their accompanying cuisine should be protected so that they can be enjoyed by many and for many years to come. National departments, such as the Department of Arts and Culture, could put policies in place in order to ensure the protection of the South African culinary heritage.

- More initiatives similar to the protection of Karoo Lamb should be considered. The identification and protection of additional iconic culinary items may be beneficial. Examples of these include Knysna oysters and Ficksburg cherries.

- Visualised traceability systems, such as Germany's "Bio mit Gesicht" and "Nature and More" have benefitted countries and food-producing businesses (Stanley & Stanley, 2015:220-221). It is therefore worth considering adding information about the farmer, farm and family who produced the food, or information on the sustainability and origin of the product, to the Proudly South African repertoire. If this is not possible, individual South African businesses still have the option to form part of international initiatives such as "Nature and More". This will also serve to satisfy the needs of international tourists to South Africa (the availability of information about local cuisine and the availability of cuisine that is produced using sustainable methods). The origins and brief stories behind local food and beverages could also be included in tourism brochures. This may intrigue tourists to experience these dishes and beverages first hand.

- Since the availability of cuisine that is produced using sustainable methods (ranked 11th) is of relative importance to international tourists to South Africa (see Section 4.3.1), the development of cell phone applications should be considered, such as the Australian application Fair Food Forager. Tourists and locals alike can use such an application to find local food for each region that has been produced in an ethical and sustainable manner (Charlton & Carrad, 2016; Fair Food Forager, 2016).

- International tourists in the current study rated cuisine that appeals to their senses as the third most important variable when making culinary decisions. It has been stated that there is a very real potential for South Africa to influence tourists' tastes and generate permanent export markets (South African Government, 1996). Servers could therefore be trained to promote local cuisine when serving international customers.

- Relatedly, as was mentioned in Section 4.3.4, in the current study, men were less satisfied with the dining environment than women. Waiting staff can therefore focus on promoting local dishes especially to men in order to increase their satisfaction with the dining environment.

- Accommodation establishments can compile a list of the restaurants serving the great variety of different versions of traditional South African cuisine in their surrounding area.

- National and provincial tourism organisations can run awareness campaigns to make culinary business owners aware of the factors that influence culinary satisfaction, and of which variables are the most important to international tourists.

- Unique marketing strategies for different countries could be developed, as different nationalities value different aspects of cuisine (see Section 4.3.6).

- Tourism bodies and destination marketers can further use the research findings to market South Africa using the specific culinary items that tourists enjoyed the most, for example chicken and other curries, chicken wings, pap and braai (see Section 4.2.2.10).

- The Department of Tourism can strengthen the brand of South Africa through a culinary-focused marketing strategy. Cuisine, especially local cuisine, could play a more prominent role in international South African tourism marketing campaigns, similar to the UK government's GREAT Britain campaign, where one of their celebrity chefs promotes British cuisine around the world (Food and Beverage Magazine, 2014). South African award-winning chefs, restaurants and wineries, as well as available cooking courses, culinary festivals and expos, could be marketed.

- Stanley and Stanley (2015:224-225) state that the future will include the past. The authors believe that tourism operators could pick an era and create traditional food preparation and cooking experiences on the basis of the era. Even though, as can be seen in Section 4.3.1, the opportunity to enhance their own knowledge was not rated as very important (ranked 26th and 28th) by international tourists in the current study, the opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine was rated among the most important culinary-preference variables (ranked 6th). This illustrates that it may be beneficial to apply Stanley and Stanley's (2015:224-225) recommendation to the South African context. There seem to be South African traditional cooking courses only in the Western Cape (Cape Fusion Tours, 2011; Leopard's Leap, 2015; ExpatCapeTown, 2016). This does not do justice to South African cuisine as "each part of the country bears evidence of its own type of traditional cuisine" (Pluke, Emond & Gielink, 2014). Durban curry classes and classes on other areas' traditional dishes and beverages may benefit the area and the country's tourism.

- Local tourism departments should consider branding particular areas as culinary destinations. This may assist with providing a sustainable income to these destinations and positioning South Africa as a globally recognised tourism-destination brand.

- As food routes were rated as more important than wine routes by tourists in the current study, it is definitely worth considering developing such routes in the country. The National Department of Tourism can drive such initiatives. A Johannesburg-based tourist might, for example, indulge in a food route that could

include a visit to one of the country's top 10 restaurants, namely Restaurant Mosaic at The Orient, enjoy a traditional feast at Lesedi African Lodge and Cultural Village after experiencing the sights and sounds of their authentic African villages, indulge in further hearty traditional food at Die Waenhuis, which specialises in Afrikaner cuisine, pick some strawberries, prune some olive trees, enjoy a tour and cold beer at the South African Breweries (SAB) World of Beer or the mini-brewery at Copperlake Brewing Co., and walk around one of the numerous weekend food markets, such as 1 Fox Market Shed, Blubird Whole Food Market or Fourways Farmers Market (Buxton, Emond & Ryder, 2016; Eat Out, 2016; Els, 2016; Mkholo Olive Farm, 2012; Pluke *et al.*, 2014; SAB, 2016; South African Tourism, 2016f; The Strawberry Farm, 2016). Figure 5.5 illustrates the percentage distribution of food events and activities in the country. An updated version can be used as a basis for deciding what to include in a food route in each of the provinces.

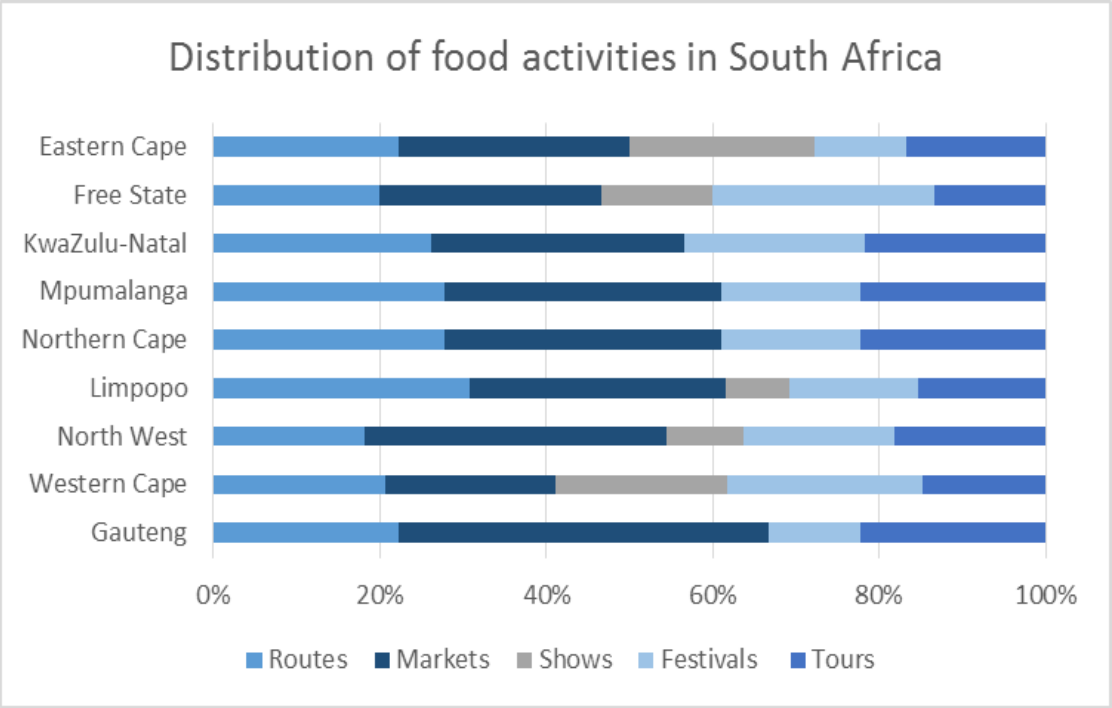

Figure 5.5: The percentage distribution of food events and activities within the provinces

Source: Adapted from Du Rand (2006:201)

- According to Stanley and Stanley (2015:224), food trails will become the fastest-growing sector of culinary tourism. The establishment of a South African Food Routes Forum, similar to the South African Wine Routes Forum, should therefore be considered.

- **Social influence**, **culture and religion** and **exploration** as culinary-preference factors had significantly positive effects on satisfaction with **personal preference** being met while in South Africa (see Section 4.3.8). A few recommendations can therefore be implemented in order to benefit from these positive relationships. For example, more opportunities to explore will increase satisfaction with personal preferences. Specific food routes, culinary events and other activities, such as cooking classes designed specifically for health-conscious tourists or tourists following religious or culturally acceptable diets, may consequently improve satisfaction with personal preferences. South Africa can thus be marketed and positioned as a destination that caters to the needs of tourists with cultural and religious dietary requirements. Enhanced marketing strategies by national and provincial tourism bodies could also improve satisfaction with personal preferences due to the positive relationship between social influence and satisfaction with personal preferences. Lastly, restaurants can focus on these aspects in order to further improve tourists' satisfaction with personal preferences being met by improving marketing and information regarding their dishes and ingredients.

- Since the higher the importance of the **culinary experience** for international tourists to South Africa the greater their satisfaction would be with the **dining environment** (see Section 4.3.8), restaurants should focus on aspects such as offering traditional cuisine and offering opportunities to experience a new culture in order to ensure tourists are satisfied with the dining environment. Aspects such as restaurants that are child-friendly, close to attractions and esteemed are also important to ensure satisfaction with the dining environment. Therefore, these aspects should be taken into account in the planning phase of new restaurants targeting international tourists. This finding offers restaurants insight into their clientele and illustrates the importance of the experience of dining out.

Many of the stated recommendations in this section may assist in growing the tourism sector's absolute contribution to the economy and in delivering a world-class visitor experience, as the main aim of the recommendations is to cater to the needs of international tourists to South Africa.

5.5.2 **Recommendations for future research**

The following recommendations for future research are proposed:

- Additional research into culinary preferences may increase the impact of the findings and the successful implementation of real change to the benefit of all. Qualitative research among dining establishment owners, international tourists and policy makers could be considered. Interview questions can be compiled on the basis of the findings that came to light in the present study.

- International tourists' culinary expectations, knowledge of South African cuisine and the level of travel motivation that cuisine serves are of interest. This information may be sourced as tourists arrive in South Africa, and this may provide additional insight into the culinary domain of international tourists.

- Research into the viability and establishment of food routes should be considered.

- Research into products that could benefit the most from protection similar to that of Karoo Lamb should also be considered.

- Since the empirical model in the current study predicts only 27.5% of the variance in culinary satisfaction (see Section 4.3.8), future research could consider identifying further factors that help to explain the variance.

5.6 **Chapter summary**

This chapter served to summarise the critical assessment of the culinary preferences of international tourists to South Africa. Several conclusions and recommendations were outlined. As a final analogy, if the South African government and industry were to investigate and cater for the culinary needs of international tourists, resulting in culinary satisfaction, they may exploit the country's great potential for growth, become a more

prepared culinary travel destination, reap the numerous benefits associated with knowledge on culinary preferences and satisfaction, assist in growing the tourism sector's absolute contribution to the economy, deliver a world-class visitor experience, and position South Africa as a globally recognised tourism destination brand – all contributing to the successful attainment of the NTSS (Phillips, 2010; National Department of Tourism, 2011:13, 19 & 20).

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Appendices

Appendix A

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY ®
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Thank you for visiting our beautiful country! We hope you enjoyed your stay and will return to our sunny shores in the future! It is of utmost importance to us that we cater to the needs of our visitors. Please assist us to do so by completing the following questionnaire regarding your culinary preferences (it should not take longer than ten minutes to complete). The purpose of this research is to critically assess the culinary preferences of international tourists in South Africa.

This survey is for research purposes only, and anonymity and confidentiality are guaranteed.

Participation is voluntary.

Queries may be directed to Lisa-Mari Coughlan at lcoughlan@cut.ac.za

SECTION A: Socio-demographic and travel profile

	These questions relate to your visit to South Africa.	Please tick the box that best applies to you, or answer in the space provided.					
1	**In what year were you born?**						
2	**Gender?**	Male	Female				
3	**What is your highest educational qualification?**	Secondary school or less		Vocational training		University degree	
4	**What is your nationality?**						
5	**How often do you normally dine out?**	More than once a week	Once a week	Once a month	Less than once a month	Seldom	
6	**I consider myself to be:**	Adventurous when I travel, because I always try local cuisine					
		Slightly adventurous when I travel, because I occasionally try local cuisine					
		Not at all adventurous when I travel, as I prefer cuisine that I am used to					
7	**How many times have you travelled internationally in the last 5 years, including this trip?**						
8	**How many times (including this trip) have you visited South Africa?**						
9	**During this trip, how many nights did you stay in South Africa?**						
10	**What type of accommodation did you make use of during this trip?**	Hotels	Resorts	Country inns	Homes of friends and relatives	Motels	Campgrounds
		Bed and breakfasts	Other (please specify):				
11	**Approximately how much did you spend on this trip in South African Rand (ZAR), on each of the following?**	Accommodation	R		Food and beverages	R	
		Sight-seeing tours	R		Packaged tours	R	
		Transport	R		Other	R	
12	**What was the main purpose of this trip?**	Leisure	Business	Visiting friends or relatives	Other (please specify):		
13	**Are you familiar with South African cuisine?**	Yes		No		Not sure	
14	**Did you try local cuisine during this trip?**	Yes		No		Not sure	
15	**If you did not try local cuisine, please select all the applicable reasons:**	I did not know which items are local					
		I was not sure about the health and safety of the local cuisine					
		I was not sure which ingredients the local dishes or beverages contain					
		I was not interested in trying local cuisine					
		The local cuisine did not look appetising					
		Other (please specify):					
16	**What was your favourite meal during this trip? (please specify)**						

17	**What was your favourite beverage during this trip? (please specify)**		
18	**Are you currently following any religious, health- or weight-related diet?**	Yes	No
19	**If you answered yes, please specify which diet you are following:**		

	SECTION B: Culinary preferences					
	These questions relate to your preferences.	**When you travel, how important is each of the following?**				
		Not at all important (NI)	**Slightly important (SI)**	**Important (I)**	**Very important (VI)**	**Extremely important (EI)**
1	**Being able to order from a menu that is easily understandable**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
2	**Dining mostly where friends or family recommend**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
3	**Dining mostly at establishments with good ratings on travelogues (e.g. TripAdvisor)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
4	**Supporting local culinary stakeholders (e.g. outlets, producers and businesses)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
5	**The availability of information about local cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
6	**The availability of pictures of cuisine outside of businesses (e.g. menus)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
7	**The availability of cuisine that appeal to my senses (smell, taste, appearance)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
8	**The availability of cuisine that is allowed in my diet (normal eating habits)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
9	**The availability of Kosher cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
10	**The availability of Halal cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
11	**The availability of vegetarian cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
12	**The availability of vegan cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
13	**The availability of organic cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
14	**The availability of cuisine that is orientated towards animal welfare**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
15	**The availability of cuisine that is 100% natural**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
16	**The availability of cuisine that is produced using sustainable methods (i.e. with a low environmental impact)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
17	**The availability of sustainably caught seafood**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
18	**The availability of cuisine that is reasonably priced**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
19	**The availability of a wide variety of cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
20	**The availability of well-known international food and beverage franchises (e.g. McDonalds; Burger King; KFC)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
21	**The availability of gourmet cuisine**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
22	**The availability of craft beer**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
23	**The availability of garage wines (i.e. wine produced on a small scale)**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
24	**The availability of food routes**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
25	**The availability of wine routes**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
26	**The availability of culinary events or festivals**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
27	**The availability of culinary activities (e.g. cooking classes or trade shows) to enhance my knowledge**	NI	SI	I	VI	EI

	SECTION B: Culinary preferences (continued)					
	These questions relate to your preferences.	When you travel, how important is each of the following?				
		Not at all important (NI)	Slightly important (SI)	Important (I)	Very important (VI)	Extremely important (EI)
28	The availability of child-friendly restaurants	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
29	The availability of restaurants close to attractions	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
30	The availability of esteemed restaurants	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
31	The availability of traditional cuisine	NI	SI	I	VI	EI
32	The opportunity to experience a new culture through their cuisine	NI	SI	I	VI	EI

	SECTION C: Satisfaction					
	These questions relate to your satisfaction during this trip.	Whilst in South Africa, how satisfied were you with the following?				
		Very dissatisfied (VD)	Dissatisfied (D)	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (N)	Satisfied (S)	Very satisfied (VS)
1	The value for money of food purchased	VD	D	N	S	VS
2	The value for money of beverages purchased	VD	D	N	S	VS
3	The quality of the cuisine	VD	D	N	S	VS
4	The variety of the cuisine	VD	D	N	S	VS
5	Menus indicating which culinary items are local	VD	D	N	S	VS
6	The level of service in restaurants	VD	D	N	S	VS
7	The health and safety of food	VD	D	N	S	VS
8	The preparation of food in terms of dietary requirements (Kosher, Halaal, vegan, vegatarian)	VD	D	N	S	VS
9	The opportunity to still be able to follow your diet	VD	D	N	S	VS
10	The availability and quality of local cuisine	VD	D	N	S	VS
11	Overall, how satisfied were you with the food and beverages during your trip?	VD	D	N	S	VS

Thank you for completing the questionnaire and safe travels home!