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Article in *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research* · September 2020

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To cite this article: Diep Ngoc Su , Lester W. Johnson & Barry O'Mahony (2020) Will foodies travel for food? Incorporating food travel motivation and destination foodscape into the theory of planned behavior, Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 25:9, 1012-1028, DOI: [10.1080/10941665.2020.1805475](https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2020.1805475)

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2020.1805475>



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Will foodies travel for food? Incorporating food travel motivation and destination foodscape into the theory of planned behavior

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ABSTRACT

Little research exists on “foodies”, who are passionate about food and intend to travel for their special food interest. This study extended the theory of planned behavior model by adding two factors, food travel motivation and destination foodscape to understand the behavioral intentions of foodies towards food tourism. Data was collected from networks of foodies via an online survey. Findings empirically supported the motivation-attitude-behavioral intention relationship in the context of food tourism. Attitude mediated the relationship of food travel motivation and destination foodscape with behavioral intention. Implications for destination marketing organizations to promote foodies’ future food trips are presented.

KEYWORDS

Foodies; food tourism; theory of planned behavior; food travel motivation; destination foodscape; behavioral intention

Introduction

One of the distinctive elements of a destination which has been sought by international tourists in recent years is food and food-related activities (Getz et al., 2014; UNWTO, 2017). For example, culinary experiences are considered as a major attraction influencing the travel choices of travelers from countries like Australia, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, the United Kingdom, Canada, America and China (Deloitte and the Tourism Industry Association of Canada, 2012; Ennion, 2013; The Blueroom Project, 2014; Yong, 2016). As a result, food has become a strategic element that can be exploited by destinations both nationally and internationally to promote their image and brand (Henderson, 2009; Horng & Tsai, 2012; UNWTO, 2012). New tourism terms have emerged to describe the demand for and supply of this experience including; gastronomic tourism (Richards, 2002), culinary tourism (Wolf, 2006), tasting tourism (Boniface, 2003) and food tourism (Hall and Sharples, 2003). Despite different terms, these forms of tourism have the same goal, that is “... people travel to a specific destination for the purpose of finding foods” (Karim and Chi 2010, p. 532).

Food tourism has been described as one of the most dynamic segments of tourism (UNWTO 2012) which is of critical interest for both tourism academics and destination marketing organizations (DMOs). Previous studies have covered key themes in food tourism research from the perspective of tourists including the attraction of food to tourists (Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Son & Xu, 2013), factors affecting dining experiences (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2016; Chang et al., 2011; Nield et al., 2000), food-related travel preferences (Chang et al., 2010; Updhyah & Sharma, 2014), and models of food consumption on holidays (Frisvoll et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2013; Mak et al., 2012). However, these studies mainly aimed to understand food as an attraction for tourists whose food-related experiences are not a primary motivation. Little research exists on food tourists or “foodies”, who are passionate about food and have intentions to travel specifically for this special food interest (Getz et al., 2014; Getz & Robinson, 2014). The recent decade has witnessed the emergence of foodies with an explosion of food celebrities, food travel websites, TV programmes, newspaper columns, blogs, and foodies trips around the world (Hayward, 2019). This

“decade of foodie” represents a growing niche in gastronomic tourism (Balderas-Cejudo et al., 2019; Getz & Robinson, 2014; Richards, 2015), hence demand-side research into this contemporary niche market is timely to provide a better understanding about foodies and determinants of their behavioral intention towards food tourism.

In an attempt to develop a model of behavioral intention towards food tourism, the study reviewed theories of consumer behavior applied in the context of tourism. Accordingly, the theory of planned behavior (TPB) was found to be useful and efficient to predict intentions to choose a travel destination (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016). However, previous scholars have further suggested adding other critical variables in particular contexts to increase the original TPB model’s predictive power (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016). Several studies in the literature of food tourism have emphasized the significance of motivations in explaining behavior of tourists towards consuming local food while traveling (Kim et al., 2009, 2013), therefore this study involved food travel motivation in the TPB model to understand behavioral intention of foodies from the influence of a personal factor. In addition, the decade of foodie has led to the emergence of food-based critical infrastructure in many cities around the world and also created a range of new tourist destinations such as cooking classes, wineries, street food, food producers, bars, and restaurants (Burnett, 2014; Carmichael, 2005). Offers such as these are considered to make up the destination foodscape which has been conceptualized by Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2019, p. 468) as “an aggregation built on travelers’ various food experiences in a destination”. To the best of our knowledge, no studies have explored the influence of destination foodscape in forming behavior intention in a food tourism context. As a result, this study is the first to include destination scape in the TPB model to examine behavioral intention of foodies towards food tourism from the effect of situational factors.

Motivated by these research gaps, the objective of this study is to modify the TPB model by considering the influence of food travel motivation and destination scape in the formation of foodies’ behavioral intention towards food tourism. Theoretically, the research contributes to the literature by providing an understanding of how social-psychological, personal and environmental factors lead to behavioral intention in the context of food tourism. The results also

provide practical implications for Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) related to the design of food-related products/services and marketing strategies targeted at potential food tourists.

Literature review

Food travel motivation

The foundation of any effort to gain knowledge of travel behavior is travel motivation (Hsu & Huang, 2012). It has been defined as the biological/psychological needs and wants that arouse, direct and integrate a person’s behavior and activity (Dann, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1982). This understanding of tourism motivation benefits research on both travel behavior and travel choice. Motivation has been conflated with behavioral intention in classic models of consumer behavior such as the theory of reasoned actions (TRA) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). Indeed, motivational factors play a influential role as internal states that form the attitude or feelings towards a vacation destination and behavioral intention-individual readiness to perform a behavior (Hsu & Huang, 2008, 2012; Sparks, 2007). However, to the best of our knowledge, there is a lack of research investigating the relationship of motivation-attitude-behavior intention or at best few studies have tested relationships between two out of the three constructs in the context of food tourism (Duarte Alonso et al., 2015; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006).

There have been several empirical studies investigating motivation in various contexts of food tourism. For example, tourist motivations to consume local food cultural experiences, interpersonal relations, excitement, sensory appeal and health concerns (Kim & Eves, 2012; Kim et al., 2013). In addition, visitors’ motivation towards attending food events and festivals were found to be quite similar in previous studies and could be grouped into several motives such as festival and escape, fun and new experiences, socialization, and family togetherness (Kim et al., 2010; Park et al., 2008; Yuan et al., 2005). However, previous publications have only focused on tourists who considered food as a part of the whole travel experience. Little research has provided an understanding of the motivational factors of foodies who have the most propensity to travel for food or food tourists who traveled for the purpose of tasting food and enjoying food-related experiences (Su et al., 2018). Moreover,

a gap in the knowledge base is that little is known about whether motivational factors drive foodies to travel for food. As a result, in response to calls in the literature, taste of food, cultural experiences and socialization, which were found by Su et al. (2018) as the most important motives for food travel, were utilized in the current study to provide greater insight into how multi-dimensional food travel motivation leads to foodies' attitude and intention to travel for food.

Destination foodscape

Inspired by the idea of servicescape which was firstly introduced by Bitner (1992, p. 58) as "the man-made, physical surroundings as opposed to the natural or social environment" and the idea of experiencescape which was defined as a space of "pleasure, enjoyment, and entertainment" (O'Dell, 2005, p. 16), various constructs have been explored the food and wine studies such as "dinescape" (Ryu & Jang, 2008), "winescape" (Peters, 1997) or "foodscape" (Mikkelsen, 2011). Firstly, the servicescape is described as environmental or physical surroundings involving ambient conditions, signs, symbols, artifacts and spatial functionality that are built by service providers (Bitner, 1992; Mohan et al., 2012). In addition to environment dimensions, Mossberg (2007) added social dimensions such as other customers, or employee elements to formulate the experiencescape. Accordingly, the physical environment, the staff, other customers, and products or souvenirs co-creates a space in which travelers process their experiences. Based on these ideas, both servicescape and experiencescape have been considered as multi-dimensional constructs involving both physical and social setting for experience.

For a more specific context, wine tourism and food tourism which are closely interrelated fields, winescape and foodscape have been conceptualized from different perspective of servicescape and experiencescape. For example, winescape has been generally understood as "attributes of a grape wine region" by Hall et al. (2002, p. 4) that includes "physical, social and cultural dimensions" (Douglas et al., 2001, p. 313). More specifically, Telfer (2000, p. 73) indicated three major components of winescape including "the presence of vineyards, the wine-making activity and the wineries when the wine is produced and stored". Winescape was also defined as an interaction among elements "vineyards, wineries and other physical structures, wines, natural landscape and setting, people and heritage, towns and their

architecture and artefacts within them" (Johnson & Bruwer, 2007, p. 277). Similarly, scales to measure winescape were found by Thomas, Quintal, and Phau (2010a, 2010b) that were setting, atmosphere, wine quality, wine value, wine complementary product, signage and service staff. From these previous findings, it can be acknowledged that winescape has been operationalized from two approaches: macro and micro approach. While the former approach views the winescape as a wine region (Getz & Brown, 2006), the latter one considers winescape as wine tourist experiences in a specific winery environment (Carmichael, 2005).

Consistent with previous winescape research, foodscape is actually dynamic that has been understood from the viewpoint of servicescape or experiencescape or the blending of both these conceptualization (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2019). For example, in the context of a casual dining restaurant, Sulaiman and Haron (2013) examined foodscape from the perspective of physical environment that included presentation, freshness, temperature and menu variety. In this case, foodscape was viewed from the perspective of servicescape. Indeed, according to Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2019, p. 468), service environment "is a physical, organized service counter (restaurants and bars) that is staged by the service provider". However, Sage (2010) highlighted the foodscape construct as the interaction among the people, place and food that came from the experiencescape view. Mikkelsen (2011, p. 210) generalized the idea of foodscape proposed by Sage (2010) as "landscape of food" in which the food encounters are interlinked and centered on food environment. According to Wakefield and Blodgett (1999), "foodscape" involved key attributes of food tourism experience which can be expressed as "surrounding environment, ambience, atmosphere, regional culture and local food" (Bruwer & Lesschaeve, 2012, p. 617).

Foodscape has been investigated in various fields such as nutrition and health sciences, culture and sociology or marketing research (Cummins & Macintyre, 2002; Mikkelsen, 2011; Winson, 2012) and with different scales using alternative terms such as dinescape, kitchenscape, tablescape and platescape (Sobal & Wansink, 2007). However, very little research has studied foodscape in the tourism literature. In the recent study by Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2019), foodscape was introduced with respect to geographical area or types of environments in the context

of tourism. Accordingly, they uncovered a conceptualization of destination foodscape that can be defined as “the places and scapes that facilitate a wide range of food experiences, beyond just restaurants and bars” (Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2019, p. 468). Five dimensions of foodscape were explored through a qualitative approach including physical environment, social interactions, food quality value, monetary value and divergence (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2019). In addition, Richards (2015, p. 4) defined foodscape concerning foodies as “places dedicated to enticing and serving the needs of foodies” but did not indicate its key attributes. By adapting different perspectives and approaches utilized in studying foodscape in previous studies, the current research conceptualizes destination foodscape as the linkage of food, landscapes, cultures and food-service providers of a destination that co-creates quality and authentic food-related experiences. As very little research empirically investigated the dimensions of foodscape, this study builds on the measurement of winescape and qualitative and quantitative insights to identify the key dimensions and attributes of the destination foodscape construct. As a result, this study is the first to provide empirical evidence that validates the formative nature of destination foodscape.

Theory of planned behavior (TPB)

The behavioral model utilized to test foodies’ likelihood of travel for food in this study is the theory of planned behavior (TPB) introduced by Ice Ajzen (1991). The TPB is a modified theory based on the theory of reasoned action (TRA), which provides a sound foundation for predicting a dependent variable (intention) by analyzing the effects of three independent variables – attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control.

Since the TPB model was developed, a large number of researchers have attempted to modify or extend the theory to suit their study contexts. A meta-analytic review of over 180 independent studies adopting the TPB model concluded that the TPB is capable predicting both intentions and actual behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001). To date, at least 16 peer-reviewed studies published in high-quality journals have applied TPB to predict travel behavioral intention. In different research contexts of travel destinations, the TPB was modified with the addition of one new construct such as past behavior (Lam &

Hsu, 2004, 2006), information source (Sparks & Pan, 2009), perceived risks (Hsieh et al., 2016), electronic word of mouth (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012), destination image (Park et al., 2017), environmentally friendly activities (Han et al., 2010), or expectation of tourist visa exemption (Han et al., 2011). The TPB was also extended with additional constructs such as past behavior and cultural tour involvement (Shen et al., 2009), perceived risk and perceived uncertainty (Quintal et al., 2010), or authentic perception and environmental concerns (Meng & Choi, 2016b). Apart from the past behavior construct, Han and Kim (2010) proposed two more constructs (service quality and customer satisfaction). The expectancy-value dimensions, food and wine involvement, and past behavior were also added to the extended TPB by Sparks (2007) to predict intentions to visit a wine tourism destination. The literature shows that variables added to the TPB model found in previous studies were mainly socio-psychological (e.g. perception and attitude) and environmental variables (Decrop, 2006). In the context of food tourism, food travel motivation and destination foodscape are important to understand about foodies and food tourism from the demand and supply side (Getz et al., 2014; Getz & Robinson, 2014). It could be expected that foodies would have a tendency to travel for food if the internal motives and external forces of the destination are simultaneously activated. As a result, an extended theory of planned behavior model was proposed for this study with two new predictors, food travel motivation and destination foodscape to understand foodies’ intentions towards food tourism.

Previous scholars have identified various reasons for travel based on the analysis of motivational factors (Dann 1977, Crompton 1979, Baloglu & Uysal 1996, Uysal & Jurowski 1994, Jang & Cai 2002, Kim & Lee, 2002). Similarly, there has been an extensive body of research on travel motivation in the context of food tourism (Mak et al., 2012, Park et al., 2008, Smith et al., 2010, Su et al., 2018, Yuan et al., 2005). Motivation can be divided into push factors, which are linked to intrinsic desires of people and pull factors, which are related to certain features of a destination (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Dann, 1977; Klenosky, 2002). In the context of tourism, correlations between push and pull factors were empirically investigated in previous studies into tourists’ motivation towards travel destinations (Uysal & Jurowski 1994, Baloglu & Uysal 1996, Kim et al., 2003, Prayag 2012). Therefore,

as discussed above, although the relationship between travel motivation and destination scape has not yet uncover, in this study, it can be supposed that there is likelihood for food travel motivation (intrinsic motives) to change with variations in destination-based foodscapes. The reason is that foodscapes have been discussed above from the supply-side and can be viewed as destination's attributes related to food experiences which can be considered as pull factors. As a result, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Food travel motivation has a direct effect on destination foodscape towards travel for food

Within the original TPB model, an attitude is the function of behavioral beliefs that are one's beliefs in performing a specific behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This implies that cognitive motivation may influence affective attitude (Ajzen, 1991). Attitude was also explained by behavioral beliefs in understanding customers' decision making (Han & Kim, 2010; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006). Although motivation plays an important role in the formation and changing of attitude, the relationship between travel motivation and attitude in forming tourists' behavior has mainly been investigated in the wine tourism literature. For example, in a study conducted by Sparks (2007), three wine expectancy-value dimensions, namely personal self-development, destination experience and core wine experience, were found to affect wine tourists' behavior. In particular, while personal development related more to a push motivator, other factors (destination experience and wine experience) were experience-related attributes which could be referred as destination foodscape. All these factors had a significant effect on emotional attitude to take a wine-based vacation (Sparks 2007). In the context of food tourism, the interrelationships between motivation, attitude behavioral intention has also been identified from the perspective of tourists who considered food as an element of their vacation experiences (Duarte Alonso et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2013; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006). Consequently, in this study, food travel motivation and destination foodscape are hypothesized to directly affect the attitudes of foodies who might travel for food as a main motivation:

Hypothesis 2: Food travel motivation has a direct effect on attitude towards travel for food

Hypothesis 3: Destination foodscape has a direct effect on attitude towards travel for food

The study conducted by Hsu and Huang (2012) initially provided an understanding of the influence of travelers' motivation on behavioral intention toward visiting a destination (Hong Kong) that had not been well documented before. In another study on senior travelers' motivation and future intention for visiting a city destination, Nice – France, Prayag (2012) confirmed that motivational factors have a direct influence on future behavior. In the context of food and wine tourism, Smith et al., (2010) found indirect relationships between these constructs via tourist satisfaction in a culinary tourism event. Sparks (2007, p. 1189) also implied that three wine components, which fell into motivation and foodscape, were "related to attitude formation and to future intention to partake in wine tourism". In addition, foodscape was found to have significant influence on future behavioral intentions in a casual dining restaurant (Sulaiman & Haron, 2013). Therefore, in this study, the two hypotheses are proposed for the links from food travel motivation and destination foodscape to future intention of foodies to travel for food:

Hypothesis 4: Food travel motivation has a direct effect on behavioral intention towards travel for food

Hypothesis 5: Destination foodscape has a direct effect on behavioral intention towards travel for food

Many previous studies provided the empirical evidence that attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control all had a direct and positive impact on behavioral intentions (Han et al. 2010, Han & Kim 2010, Han et al. 2011, Hsieh et al. 2016, Hsu & Huang 2012, Jalilvand & Samiei 2012, Lee et al., 2012, Martin et al., 2011, Meng and Choi 2016a, Park et al. 2017). In the food and wine tourism literature, the most recent research by Hsu (2014) conducted through on-site surveys in Taiwan, found that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control were significant variables in the formation of purchase intentions of traditional Taiwanese food. Perceived control and normative influences also contribute to predict intention to visit a wine region (Sparks 2007). In addition, attitude was an important predictor of tourist behavioral intentions to experience local cuisine in a travel destination in the study by K. Ryu and Jang (2006). From the literature review, the three following hypotheses were developed to investigate travel decision-making of foodies:

Hypothesis 6: Attitude has a direct effect on behavioral intention towards travel for food

Hypothesis 7: Subjective norms have a direct effect on behavioral intention towards travel for food

Hypothesis 8: Perceived behavior control has a direct effect on behavioral intention towards travel for food

Tourist motivation refers to individuals' needs and desires that lead to their engagement in tourism activities (Clements & Josiam, 1995; Moutinho, 1987). When making decisions on travel, people primarily depend on cognitive evaluations of the behavior that is understood in terms of attitude (Ryu & Jang 2006). While food travel motivation and destination foodscape may have direct effects on behavioral intention toward visiting a food tourism destination, as stated in the above hypotheses (H4 and H5), two constructs were also found to affect tourist's attitude (Hsu & Huang 2012; Lee et al., 2015; Quintal et al., 2010; Sparks, 2007). As a result, attitude was proposed to be a mediator of the relationships between food travel motivation, destination foodscape and behavioral intention:

Hypothesis H9: Food travel motivation indirectly influences behavioral intention towards travel for food, mediated by attitude.

Hypothesis H10: Destination foodscape indirectly influences behavioral intention towards travel for food, mediated by attitude.

Research methodology

Figure 1 shows the research procedure adopted in this study including identification of research gaps and objectives, literature review, research instrument development, pilot study and data collection, data analysis (by applying PLS-SEM approach), research findings and discussion and conclusion. While the prior sections present research gaps, objectives and the development of the research model and hypotheses, details of other steps are described in the following sections.

Research instrument

In this study, a questionnaire that included five sections was employed. The first and fourth sections collected information related to food travel experiences, future food trips as well as socio-demographic information. The second section included two parts. The first sought respondents' level of agreement on 15 indicators of intrinsic motivation toward a future food trip (Kim et al., 2013; Park et al., 2008; Su et al., 2018) using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly

disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The second assessed the level of importance respondents rated on 10 measurement items of destination foodscape using a seven-point scale (1 = very unimportant, 7 = very important) (Sparks, 2007, Su et al., 2018). The third section gathered respondents' evaluation, using a seven-point Likert scale on items of attitude (4 items), subjective norms (3 items), perceived behavioral control (3 items), and behavioral intention (4 items). All were adopted from scales validated in previous studies (Getz & Robinson, 2014, Hsu & Huang, 2012; Lee et al., 2015; Sparks, 2007). The measurement items were revised based on a content analysis of food travel blogs (e.g. The Travel Bite, Misadventures with Andi, The Funnelogy Channel) which were awarded the best food travel blogs in 2014 and 2015. Due to the rise of social media such as Foursquare, Foodspotting, Facebook, Twitter, OpenTable, TripAdvisor and others contributing to open new reference resources for tourists (Getz et al., 2014), these gateways that directly connect with foodies were found to influence tourist's perceptions. Consequently, one item, "I want to visit a food tourism destination that is suggested by many foodies on social media", was added to the construct subjective norms. The content validity of measures was reviewed by six tourism academic experts before being finalized. A pilot study with a sample of 50 foodies in online food travel groups was then conducted to check the reliability of measurement scales. The results found that the content validity and reliability of the research instrument was adequate.

Data collection and analysis

In this study, respondents, who had planned to travel in the future where food-related experiences were the primary reason for travel, were targeted. A self-administered online survey was conducted using a non-probability convenience sampling technique to collect data from the large online social networks of foodies on social media. The criteria to choose groups of foodies for the survey were (1) the number of members were at least 1000 members; (2) the groups' description were provided on their homepages as platforms for exchanging dining experiences or food-related travel experiences; and (3) the language used to discuss in groups was English. Accordingly, five foodies groups were chosen on LinkedIn (Foodies, World Gourmet Society, Foodies!!, Food & Drink Tourism, Wine & Culinary

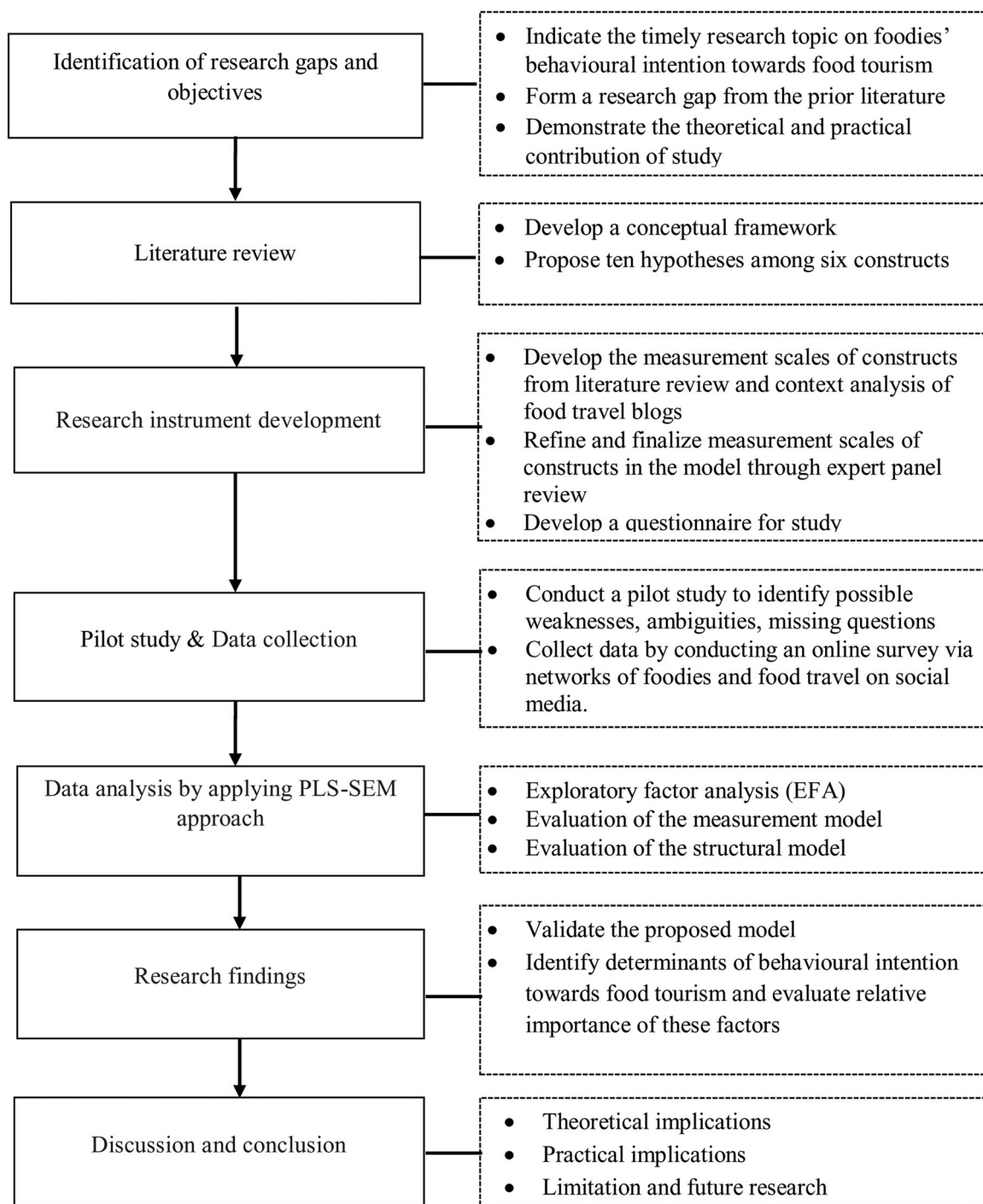


Figure 1. The research procedure of study.

Tourism Worldwide) and five others from Facebook (Foodie Love, FOODIE, Fun for Foodies, Foodies Around the World and Foodies WorldWide). The

survey was conducted over a period of five months from October 2017. During the first month, the link to the questionnaire attached to an invitation was

uploaded on the homepages of target online foodies groups. A reminder invitation was posted every week in the second month. After that, in order to attract more participants into the survey, an invitation of connection was sent to each member in the groups. The survey link was then directly sent to those who accepted the connection via instant messenger. This work was carried out continuously over three months to February 2018. Finally, at the end of the data collection period, there were 510 completed surveys, but 352 surveys were valid for this study as the screening question "Do you plan to travel in the future where food-related experiences are the primary reason for travel" was answered by "Yes". Furthermore, after data screening, only 335 were used for data analysis.

Due to the complexity of the proposed model, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed for data analysis. There are two forms of SEM, covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and least squares-based SEM (PLS-SEM). While CB-SEM should be applied to assess how well-established theories fit reality, PLS is used "for exploratory analysis and for testing developmental theories" (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982, 451). As a result, with two newly added constructs, food travel motivation and destination foodscape to the TPB model, PLS-SEM lends itself well for the purpose of theory development in this research. Accordingly, SPSS 23.0 and SmartPLS 3.0 were utilized to analyze the data. A systematic procedure for data analysis included analysis of demographic information, exploratory factor analysis, evaluation of measurement model and evaluation of structural model.

Findings

Demographic profile

The sample of 335 respondents, who plan to travel for food-related experiences as the primary reason in the future, represented a diversity of demographic backgrounds in terms of age group, marital status, occupation, educational and economic levels and living country (Table 1).

Measurement model evaluation

In the PLS-SEM approach, the evaluation of measurement constructs is based on the assessment of internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity recommended by Hair et al. (2014). First, the composite reliability is used as a

means to measure internal consistency. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) reported that satisfactory composite reliability was higher than 0.7. Accordingly, results show that the composite reliability values of all constructs ranged from 0.849 to 0.935 that were statistically accepted (Table 2)

Second, two criteria are used to assess convergent validity including the outer loadings, and the average variance extracted (AVE). It is a requirement that all indicators' outer loadings should be statistically significant. A standard for the outer loadings should be above the cut-off point of 0.7 (Hulland, 1999). Six items with outer loadings lower than 0.7 were deleted from the model. Another criterion to establish convergent validity is the average variance extracted, which is equivalent to the communality of a variable. It is used as a measure of common variance in a construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As a common rule of thumb, the AVE value should be at least 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014), indicating that a latent variable explains more than half of its indicators' variance. Results show that the AVE values of all constructs were higher than 0.5, ranging from 0.586 to 0.783 (Table 2). Therefore, the measures of all constructs were concluded to have high levels of convergent validity.

Third, two methods of evaluating discriminant validity are to examine the cross-loadings of the indicators and to compare the square root of the AVE

Table 1. Socio-demographic profile (*n* = 335).

	<i>n</i>	%		<i>n</i>	%
<i>Gender</i>			<i>Marital status</i>		
Female	201	60.0	Single	107	31.9
Male	134	40.0	Married	164	49.0
<i>Age</i>			In a relationship	53	15.8
18–24	31	9.3	Prefer not to say	11	3.3
25–35	147	43.9	<i>Occupation</i>		
36–44	53	15.8	Employed	175	52.2
45–54	49	16.6	Unemployed	11	3.3
55–64	42	12.5	Retired	9	2.7
65 or above	13	3.9	Self-employed	72	21.5
<i>Origin by continent</i>			Student	57	17.0
Europe	69	20.6	Other	11	3.3
America	76	22.7	<i>Annual income (USD)</i>		
Oceania	67	20.0	<5000	56	16.7
Asia	118	35.2	5000–9999	24	7.2
Africa	5	1.5	10,000–19,999	30	9.0
<i>Education</i>			20,000–29,999	28	8.4
Primary/Elementary	0	0.0	30,000–39,999	27	8.1
Secondary/High school	20	6.0	40,000–49,999	16	6.8
Undergraduate university degree	219	65.3	>=50,000	73	21.8
Postgraduate university degree	96	28.7	Would rather not to say	81	26.2

values with construct's correlations using the Fornell-Larcker criterion. In the first method, the outer loading of each indicator on the associated construct were carefully examined and reported to be higher than all of its cross loadings with other constructs. In addition, the square root of AVE for each construct

were highest compared to its correlation values with other factors, indicating an adequate level of discriminant validity (Table 3).

After the evaluation of measurement constructs, food travel motivation and destination foodscape were found as second-order constructs. The

Table 2. Evaluation of first-order construct.

Constructs/Dimensions	Outer loading	Composite reliability (CR)*	Average variance extracted (AVE)*
Food travel motivation's dimension 1: Learning and connection (LC)		0.905	0.614
To develop cooking skills	0.733		
To develop food knowledge	0.525		
To increase friendship	0.798		
To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	0.821		
To meet celebrity chefs	0.735		
To exchange with local chefs	0.837		
To share food experiences	0.749		
Food travel motivation's dimension 2: Cultural experiences (CE)		0.874	0.635
To understand the local culture	0.808		
To see how other people live in a food tourism destination	0.789		
To increase my knowledge about different cultures	0.802		
To have an authentic food experiences	0.788		
Food travel motivation's dimension 3: Taste of food (TF)		0.860	0.754
To taste local food	0.802		
To experience different types of food	0.738		
To find special food	0.652		
To develop an interest in food	0.608		
Destination foodscape's dimension 1: Core foodscape (CF)		0.849	0.586
Fine dining and gourmet restaurants	0.584		
Food tours	0.781		
Cooking classes	0.775		
Food festivals and events	0.709		
Celebrity chefs and knowledgeable food producers	0.730		
Destination foodscape's dimension 2: Complementary scape (CS)		0.855	0.664
Cultural events featuring food and other traditions	0.737		
Traditional farmers' markets	0.823		
Specialty shops and markets selling local farm produce	0.770		
Local artwork and crafts for sale	0.600		
Authentic rural environment	0.643		
Attitude (AT)		0.934	0.780
The food trip will be enjoyable	0.874		
The food trip will be worthwhile	0.901		
The food trip will be satisfying	0.903		
The food trip will be rewarding	0.854		
Behavioral intention (BI)		0.935	0.783
I intend to take a food trip in the next two years	0.883		
I want to take a food trip in the next two years	0.892		
I will make an effort to take a food trip in the next two years	0.913		
I am willing to save money to take a food trip in the next two years	0.851		
Subjective norms (SN)		0.901	0.696
I want to take a food trip that I have heard about from friends/family	0.833		
I want to take a food trip that is popular among friends/ family	0.860		
I want to take a food trip that has been recommended by most people who are important to me	0.855		
I want to take a food trip that is suggested by many foodies on social media	0.787		
Perceived behavioral control (BC)		0.890	0.733
I have enough money to take a food trip in the next two years	0.920		
I have enough time to take a food trip in the next two years	0.933		
Nothing prevents me from travel for food if I want to	0.693		

Note: *Composite reliability (CR) and Average variance extracted (AVE) were calculated after deleting the measurement items with outer loading below 0.7

Table 3. Correlations among latent constructs (Fornell- Larcker Criterion)

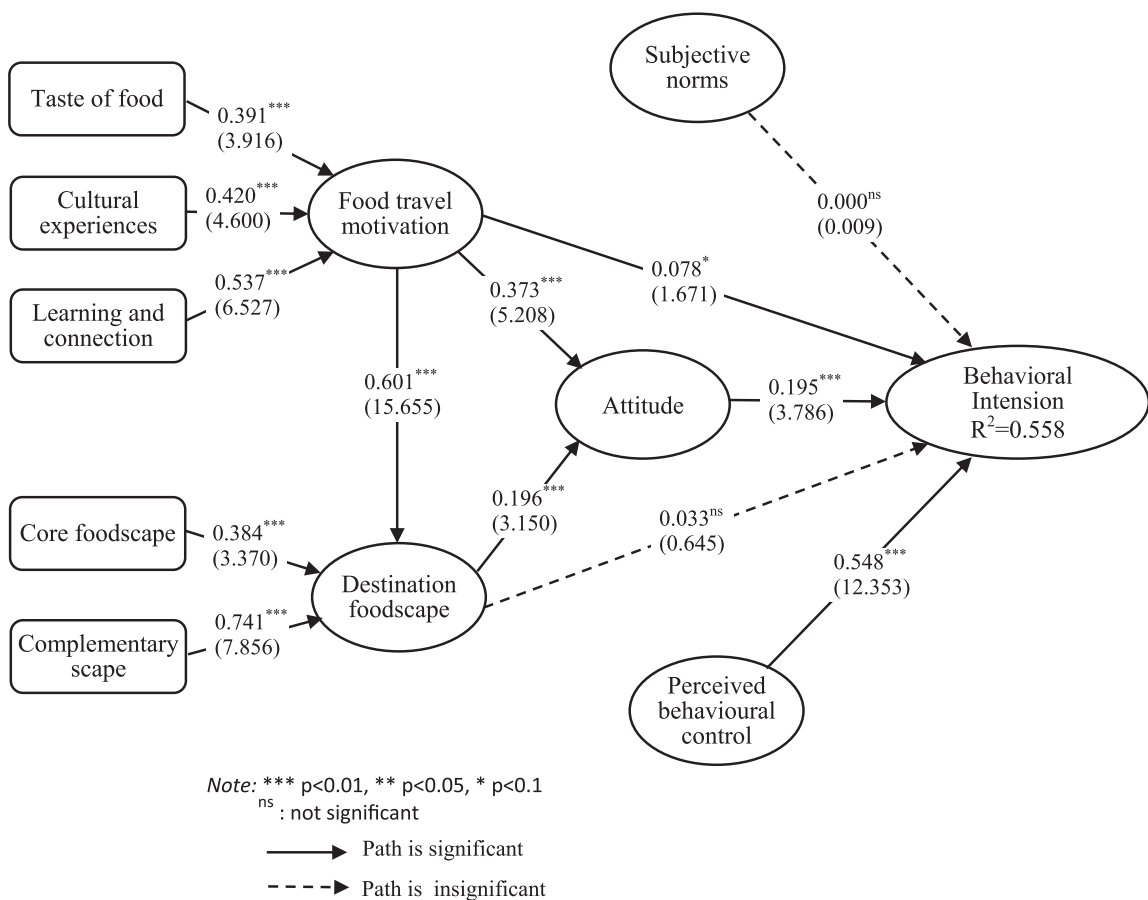
Construct	AVE	AT	BC	BI	CE	CF	CS	LC	SN	TF
AT	0.780	0.883								
BC	0.732	0.512	0.856							
BI	0.783	0.528	0.685	0.885						
CE	0.635	0.416	0.281	0.330	0.797					
CF	0.586	0.302	0.295	0.288	0.261	0.765				
CS	0.664	0.410	0.376	0.358	0.474	0.533	0.815			
LC	0.614	0.271	0.237	0.233	0.352	0.613	0.416	0.784		
SN	0.696	0.315	0.271	0.253	0.275	0.428	0.291	0.330	0.834	
TF	0.754	0.436	0.211	0.280	0.508	0.129	0.346	0.135	0.201	0.868

Note 1: The bold diagonal elements are calculated by the square root of the AVEs and non-diagonal elements are latent variable correlations, AVE = Average variance extracted.

Note 2: AT: Attitude; BC: Perceived behavioral control; BI: Behavioral intention; CE: Cultural experiences; CF: Core foodscape; CS: Complementary foodscape; LC: Learning and connection; SN: Subjective norms; TF: Taste of food.

evaluation of these two constructs was to assess the significance of the outer weight, which is the outcome of multiple regression of formative indicators and the latent variable in the role of independent variables and the dependent variable, respectively (Hair

et al. 2010). Figure 2 presents the evaluation results, which indicate that the three dimensions of food travel motivation (learning and connection, cultural experiences and taste of food) had significant path weights, with all the t-values above the critical t-

**Figure 2.** Structural model evaluation.

value 2.57 at significant level of 1% (Hair et al. 2014). In addition, results also indicate the significant path weights of two destination foodscape's dimensions, core food-tourism products, authentic and cultural attractions which had the t -value of 3.370 and 7.856, respectively (Hair et al., 2014). In summary, the evaluation of measurement model confirmed that all constructs in the proposed model were reliable and valid for the next stage of the structural model evaluation.

Structural model evaluation

The assessment of the structural model includes the examination of relationships between measurement constructs as well as the examination of predictive capability of the proposed model. By adapting a procedure of PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2014), Figure 2 presents the results of the structural model evaluation.

Evaluation of path relationships

Each path relationship was examined through regression coefficients (β). The evaluation of significance of β values is based on t -value, which was obtained using the Bootstrap procedure with 335 cases and 5000 resamples. The path coefficient is considered significant if the empirical t -value is greater than 1.65 at a significance level of 10% (Hair et al., 2014). As shown in Figure 2, food travel motivation (MOT) had a positive influence on destination foodscape (DFS) ($\beta_{MOT \rightarrow DFS} = 0.601, t = 15.655, p < 0.01$), supporting Hypothesis 1. Both food travel motivation and destination foodscape were statistically significant predictors of attitude (AT), $\beta_{MOT \rightarrow AT} = 0.373, t = 5.208, p < 0.01$ and $\beta_{DFS \rightarrow AT} = 0.196, t = 3.150, p < 0.01$, respectively. As a result, Hypotheses 2 and 3 were supported.

While Hypothesis 4 was supported as there was a significant positive effect of food travel motivation on behavioral intention (BI) ($\beta_{MOT \rightarrow BI} = 0.078, t = 1.671, p < 0.1$), destination foodscape failed to predict behavioral intention with a t -value lower than 1.65, rejecting Hypothesis 5. Similarly, Hypothesis 8 was also rejected because subjective norms (SN) was also not a predictor of behavioral intention ($\beta_{SN \rightarrow BI} = 0.000, t = 0.009, p > 0.1$). By contrast, both attitude and perceived behavioral control (BC) served as antecedents in predicting behavioral intention towards travel for food, particularly attitude ($\beta_{AT \rightarrow BI} = 0.195, t = 3.786, p < 0.01$) and perceived behavioral control ($\beta_{BC \rightarrow BI} = 0.547, t = 12.353, p < 0.001$). The results supported Hypotheses 6 and 7.

A test of mediating effect of attitude was conducted by applying a bootstrapping method suggested by Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010). Accordingly, the indirect effects of the relationships of food travel motivation and pull factor with behavioral intention were significant with t -values of 2.836 and 2.552 ($p < 0.01$). Results also indicated that attitude partially mediated the causal link between food travel motivation and behavioral intention while the relationship between destination foodscape and behavioral intention was fully mediated by attitude toward travel for food. Hypotheses 9 and 10 were empirically supported.

Evaluation of predictive capability

Two criteria were used to evaluate predictive capability of model including the predictive accuracy and predictive relevance. The first one was evaluated based on the coefficient of determination (R^2) which presents the amount of explained variance of each endogenous latent variable Hair et al. (2014). Accordingly, behavioral intention was explained by the modeled constructs, with 51.3% and 55.8% of the total variance in the original and extended TPB model, respectively. Following the rule of thumb suggested by Henseler et al. (2009), the R^2 -value of behavioral intention reported a moderate level of predictive accuracy. Results also indicate that the moderated mediation TPB model had the higher predictive accuracy than the original one.

Second, applying the blindfolding procedure in SmartPLS3.0, the value of Q^2 greater than 0 was used to assess the predictive relevance associated with the endogenous variable in the extended model. Accordingly, the Q^2 of behavioral intention was 0.380, demonstrating the sufficient relevance of the proposed model. In conclusion, the proposed model achieved the predictive capability.

Discussion

Due to the lack of studies investigating the formation of travel behavioral intention from the influence of personal and environment factors, this study aimed to provide an understanding of foodies' behavioral intention towards food travel by incorporating two new constructs (food travel motivation and destination foodscape) as independent variables into the original TPB framework.

Theoretical implications

From a theoretical perspective, the extended TPB model developed for this research is empirically supported, meeting the criteria for theory modification by Ajzen (1991). Accordingly, food travel motivation and destination foodscape, which are conceptually distinguishable from existing constructs added in TPB in previous studies (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016), explain 55.8% of the variance in behavioral intention towards food tourism. This study's results demonstrate the appropriateness of the proposed model for predicting behavioral intention in the context of food tourism, providing a theoretical foundation for further research about consumer behavior in food tourism in the following ways.

First, the study provides the empirical evidence to validate the formative nature of two multi-dimensional constructs, food travel motivation and destination food scape. Three dimensions of internal motives for food travel including taste of food, cultural experiences and learning and connection are found to be consistent with motives for local food consumption while traveling and motives for food & wine festivals (Kim & Eves, 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Park et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2005). However, the attributes of destination foodscape is initially found in this study with two dimensions, core foodscape and complementary scape, providing measurement scales for further research. This study is also the first to explore the causal link between food travel motivation and destination foodscape. This finding seems to be suitable with the implication that travel motivation have potential to produce changes of destination-related pull forces (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Indeed, this study contributes to clarify that motivation for food travel is higher and higher, foodies would have better perceptions of what food-related services/ activities they want to experience during their food trip.

Second, considering the effects of food travel motivation and destination foodscape in the TPB model, our study demonstrates their indirect effects on behavioral intentions, which are mediated by attitude towards food travel. Indeed, motivations and food-related scapes are likely to increase foodies' evaluation of future food trips. The significant causal link from attitude to behavioral intention indicates that foodies are more likely to travel for food if they perceive their food trips to be enjoyable, worthwhile, satisfying and rewarding. This result shares some of

the findings found in the context of wine tourism that motivation and winescape were better predictors of emotional attitude than of intention (Quintal et al., 2015; Sparks, 2007). Indeed, this study indicates the role of motivation and foodscape in the formation of attitude and behavioral intention in food travel. While tasting food, learning and connection, and cultural experiences are motivations of foodies that were also found in the hospitality literature on dining experiences (Kim et al., 2013; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006), the study initially found the direct influence of destination foodscape (core foodscape and complementary scape) on attitudes and their indirect effect on behavioral intention. These results contribute to understand the potential market of food tourism from both perspectives of internal and external motivation.

Third, there was no direct relationship between subjective norms and behavioral intention. Understandably, as food tourism is considered one type of special interest tourism, food tourists can be less influenced by reference groups in decision-making for their own food trips (Getz et al., 2014). However, two other constructs, attitude and perceived behavioral control were significant predictors of behavioral intention to food trips. These findings are consistent with some previous studies employing TPB in predicting behavioral intention toward a tourism destination (Hsieh et al., 2016; Hsu & Huang, 2012; Meng & Choi, 2016a, Park et al., 2017). Unlike other studies, however, of the two antecedents, perceived behavioral control was found to better predict tourists' behavioral intention than attitude in the context of food tourism. In fact, the study found that prospective food tourists place greater importance on money and time control and potential barriers than their positive emotional feelings about a food trip to a destination. This finding contributes to reveal that food tourists also feel similar constraints with other tourists when making a travel decision to a destination. As the food tourist market represents high-yield tourists who are willing to spend more on high-quality and diverse food-related experiences (Getz et al., 2014, UNWTO 2012), their food trips are frequently decided on budget. As a result, the study highlights the importance of time and financial resources (money) for foodies in their food travel decision-making. In addition to these two obstacles, another statement, "nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a food tourism destination if I want", given by respondents made an assumption in this study. That is, if potential food tourists have the

capability to deal with travel constraints, what factors would make them “want” to travel to a food tourism destination.

Practical implications

From a practical perspective, the study recommends some implications for destination management organizations (DMOs). First, the validated relationship of food travel motivation-attitude-behavioral intention requires DMOs to promote a marketing strategy that has the capacity to improve tourists positive feelings of future food trips. For example, DMOs can seek potential food tourists through online networks of foodies such as food blogs, Facebook, LinkedIn groups of foodies and other offline foodie meet-up groups in the target market of their destination. Through the discussion about topics related to food among foodies, DMOs can analyze and evaluate the needs, demand and travel preferences of potential food tourist markets. Besides the core experiences such as markets, festivals, regional cuisines, highly-involved foodies expect more opportunities to attend cooking classes, meet chefs and food producers. Therefore, advertising images need to convey the diversity and attractiveness of food-related activities so that foodies can feel involved in and access more experiences at a food tourism destination. In summary, it is important for destination organizations to increase recognition of the benefits associated with food tourism such as opportunities for tasting food, socialization, and authentic and cultural experiences through a food trip.

Second, as perceived behavioral control was found to have the strongest effect on foodies’ intention to travel for food, the study recommends that destination managers should develop strategies to deal with the possible barriers (e.g. time and traveling cost). The solutions to reduce the barriers of time can be that food-related services and activities should be organized as rural clusters or urban clusters. Therefore, tourists can spend time in areas where there are lots of choices and plenty of activities. The food events, festivals or cooking classes should be programmed during the same season. In addition, it providing widespread publicity about the information (time, location, cost, and detailed programs) of these food-related activities at a destination is critical so that tourists can organize their future food trip within their capability of time and budget. In terms of the monetary barrier, destination managers

should have policies to control the rip-off from restaurants, shops or services to dispel tourist’s fear of money loss. An advertisement of a destination marketing themselves towards food tourism should highlight value for time and money to prompt potential tourists to plan for a trip to a food tourism destination.

Third, the references of social groups have no direct influence on behavioral intention, but directly affect the emotional evaluation about a future food trip. Therefore, it is still important to pay attention to the channel of “word-of-mouth” (WOM) from relevant groups such as friends and families as a communication tool because this source of destination information can make or break a food tourism destination (Bussell & Roberts, 2014; Hall et al., 2004). In order to generate positive WOM, it is essential to provide high-quality experiences for the current market of food tourists when they visit a destination. A tourist is willing to recommend a travel destination to their relatives or friends when he/she feel satisfaction with it (Hui et al., 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Limitations and future research

Like all research, this study has some limitations and should be addressed in future research. First, the sample of the study came from five different continents was not balanced. Therefore, future research should collect a more adequate and reasonably representative sample for each cultural background with the purpose of examining the effect of cultural differences on the formation of tourists’ behavior toward a food tourism destination. Second, as the respondents were asked to evaluate their intention related to a future food trip, it is not certain that the actual trip will happen. Hence, the gap between tourist’ intention and actual behavior offers guidance for future research. A longitudinal study of tourists’ behavior toward food tourism would, therefore, make a significant contribution to the literature of food tourism. Finally, as Getz et al. (2014, p. 197) stated that “foodies can be examined in different ways, related to their cooking and eating, behavior, self and social identities, values and attitudes, lifestyle and travel”, it would be interesting for future research to include other constructs in an extended behavior model to further explain food travel behavior.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

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