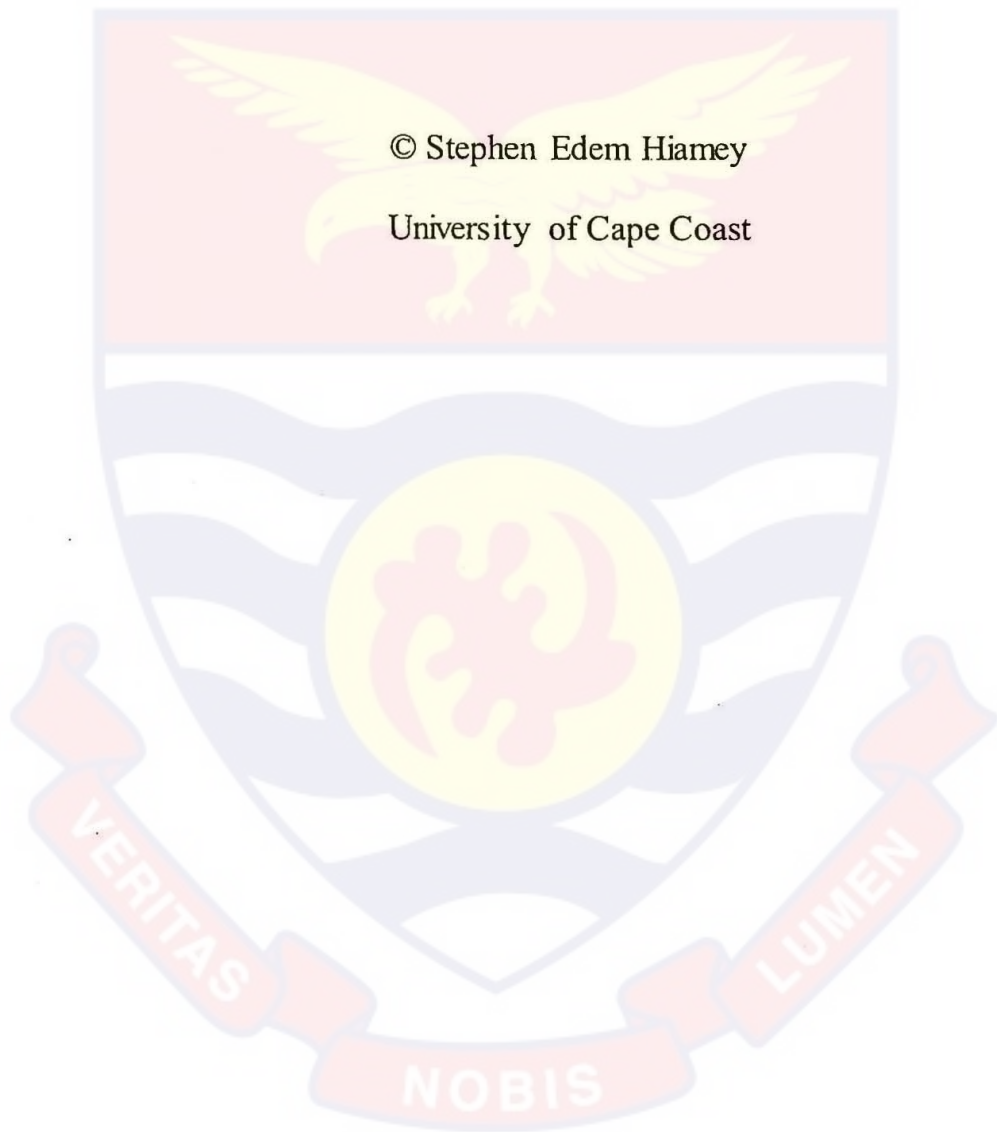




UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' EXPERIENCES WITH GHANAIAN
CUISINE: IMPLICATIONS FOR FOOD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

BY

STEPHEN EDEM HIAMEY

Thesis submitted to the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
of the Faculty of Social Sciences, College of Humanities and Legal Studies,
University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Hospitality Management

JANUARY 2017

00874
SAM JONAH LIBRARY
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
CAPE COAST

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature



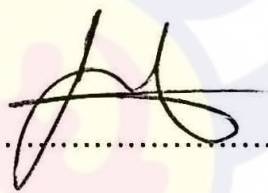
Date 20.5.17

Name: Stephen Edem Hiamey

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature



Date 22-5-17

Name: Dr. Edem Amenumey

Co-Supervisor's Signature



Date 24/05/17

Name: Prof. Ishmael Mensah

ABSTRACT

Food tourism offers a unique way of marketing the culture of a people globally. To this end, many destinations are looking for ways of promoting their food offerings for the appreciation of international tourists. This study sought to contextualise international tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine for the purpose of food tourism development in Ghana. A grounded theory approach to qualitative research was used for the study. Forty international tourists were interviewed between the months of August and December 2015. Data was analysed by employing open coding, focused coding, axial coding and selective coding. The study found among other things that tourists' motivation for consuming Ghanaian cuisine was out of cultural curiosity, there was a reasonable sense of knowledge deficit of Ghanaian cuisine among the tourists interviewed and international tourists' experiences when it comes to service related attributes were mixed. Additionally, it was found that the overriding image of Ghanaian cuisine was spicy and oily. Finally, a proposed grounded theory of transformative consumption experience of local food could explain international tourists' experiences with Ghanaian local cuisine. It is recommended that Ghana should vigorously promote its indigenous dishes using all modern means of marketing such as social media and consumer blogs. Food safety and sanitation should be encouraged and promoted especially among street food vendors and chop bar operators. There should also be sensitization on the use of pepper and oil in Ghanaian cuisine to make them more appealing to international tourists who visit Ghana.

KEY WORDS

Cultural curiosity

Food image

Food tourism

Ghanaian cuisine

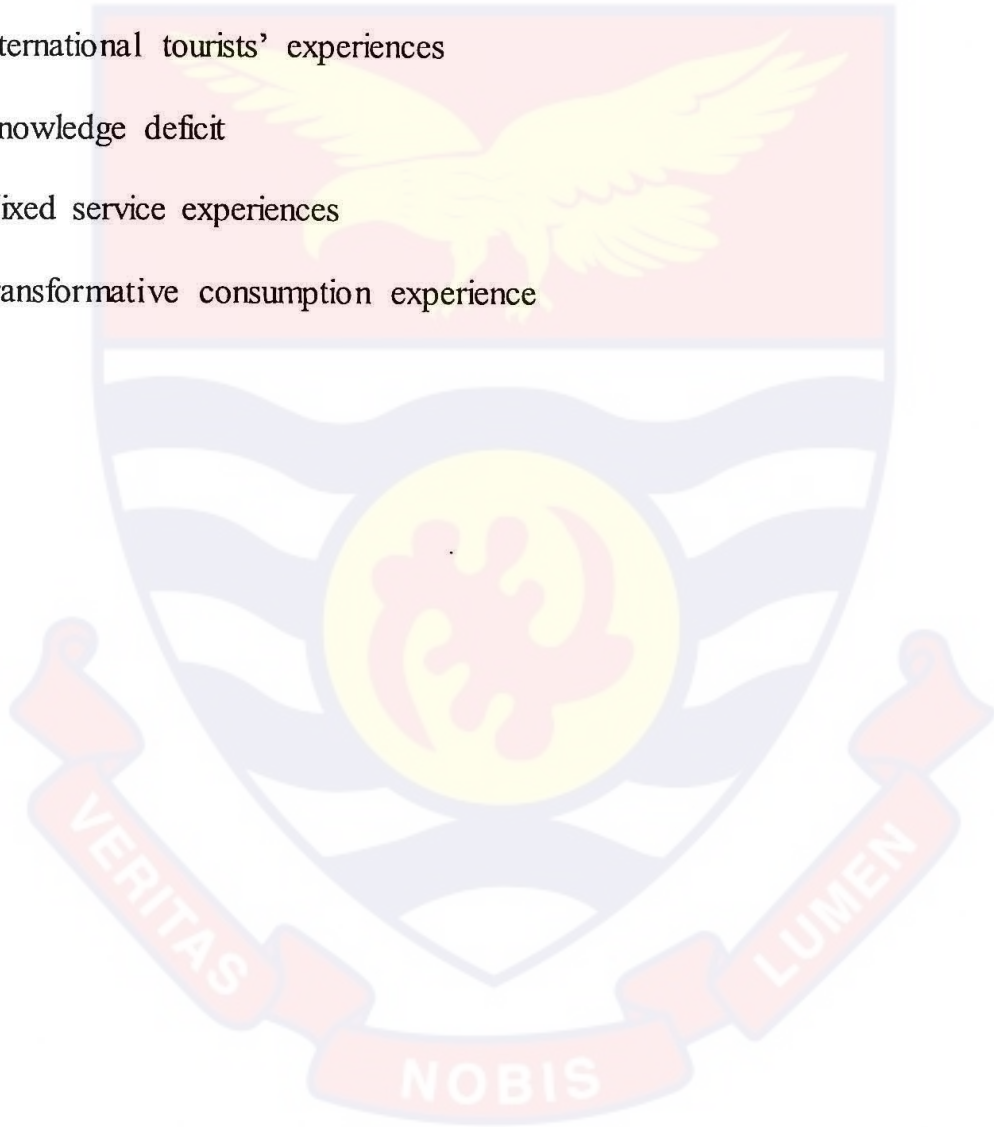
Grounded theory

International tourists' experiences

Knowledge deficit

Mixed service experiences

Transformative consumption experience



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my profound appreciation to all the people who contributed in diverse ways towards nurturing this dream and helping to make it a reality. I would first like to express my unfathomed gratitude to my supervisors, Dr. Edem Amenumey and Prof. Ishmael Mensah for their insights and the time they invested into supervising this thesis.

I also extend my of appreciation to Prof. Kwaku Boakye, Prof. Kofi Awusabo Asare, Prof. Francis Amuquandoh and Prof. Oheneba Akyeampong, Dr. Kwame Adu-Frimpong, Dr (Mrs.) Alberta Bondzi-Simpson, Dr. Eunice Fay Amissah, my most senior colleagues at the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management and Dr. Yankhomlmes and Dr. Anita Eves for their encouragement during some of the difficult moments in this journey of Ph.D thesis writing. To the people I can call brothers and sisters instead of friends, Dr. Adam, Ewoenam, Evelyn, Dr. Adjei-Mensah, Dr. Otuo-Serebour, Ernest, Osman, Frederick and Nana Ama, I say thank you for being there for me. I am also indebted to all the tourists who availed themselves to be interviewed.

Finally, I would like to appreciate the support of my family, especially my wife Mrs Grace Aba Hiamey, our daughters Eselali and Aseye Hiamey, my parents, Mr & Mrs Hiamey, my brothers and sisters and my in-laws. They were there when I needed them most.

DEDICATION

To my wife, Mina Aba, our lovely daughters, Eselali and Aseye, the Hiamey,
Nsiah, Akowuah, and Boison families



TABLE OF CONTENTS

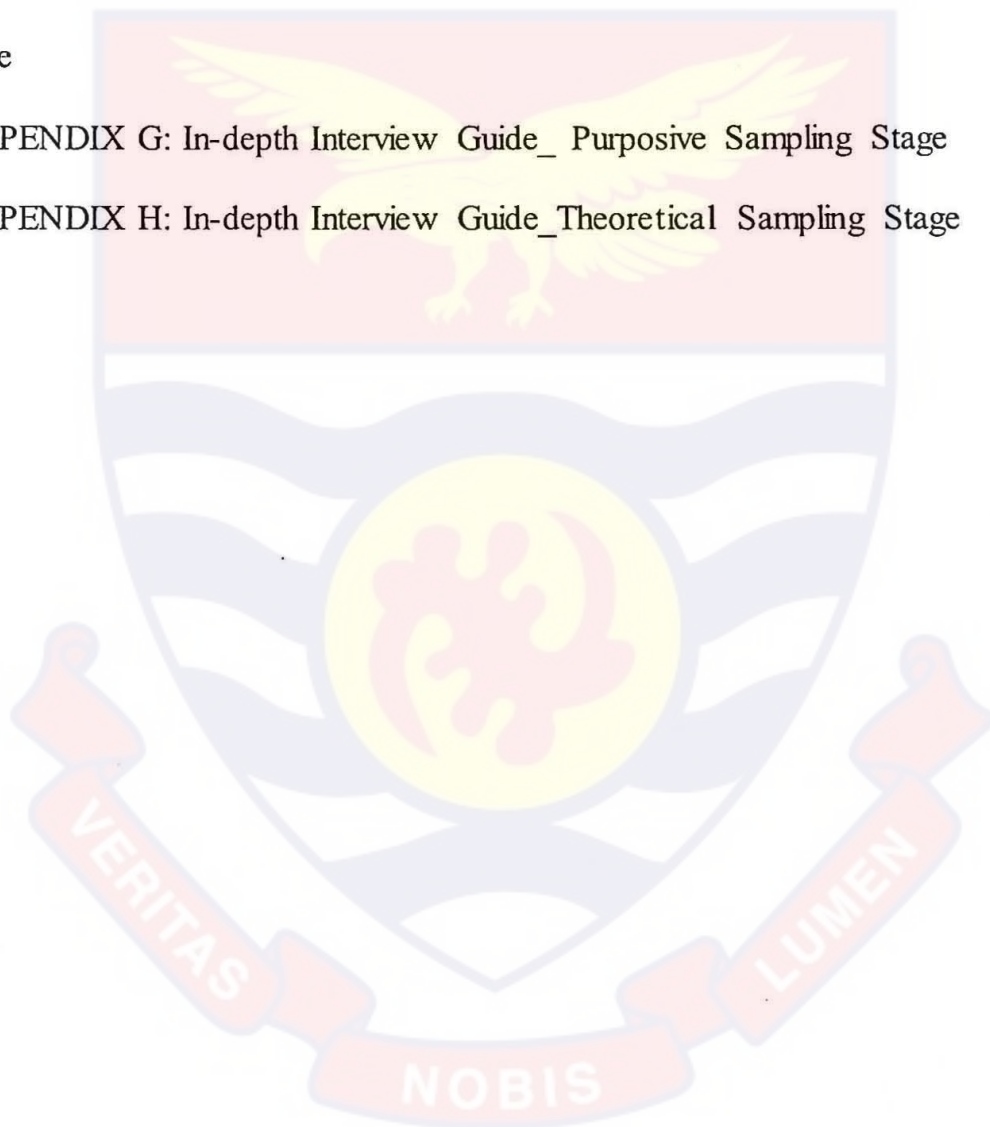
Content	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
KEY WORDS	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	v
DEDICATION	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
Background to the Study	1
The Context of the Study	4
Statement of the Problem	6
Aim of the Study	9
Research Questions	9
Significance of the Study	9
Delimitations and Scope of the Study	11
Organization of the Thesis	11
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	13
Introduction	13
Place of Literature in Grounded Theory Research	13
Local Food as a Place Identifier	15
Food Tourism	19

Tourists' Motivation for Consuming Local Food	24
Food Preferences, Choice, and Consumption	28
Chapter Summary	34
CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL ISSUES	35
Introduction	35
Experiential Paradigm	35
Deconstructing the Tourism Experience Construct	39
Tourists' Information Search Behaviour	43
Travel Motivations and Tourists' Behaviour	51
Theoretical Foundations of Grounded Theory	58
<i>Symbolic Interactionism</i>	58
<i>Social Constructionism</i>	61
Chapter Summary	64
CHAPTER FOUR: STUDY SETTING AND RESEARCH	
METHODOLOGY	65
Introduction	65
Study Setting	65
Research Paradigm	70
Research Methodology	71
Research Design	73
Theory Building in Grounded Theory	78
Target Population	80
Data and Sources of Information	81
Sampling Technique and Procedure	82
Data Collection Techniques and Procedure	84

Data Processing and Analysis	86
Research Quality and Ethical Considerations	91
Fieldwork Challenges	93
Chapter Summary	94
CHAPTER FIVE: MOTIVATION FOR CONSUMING GHANAIAN CUISINE AND INFORMATION SEARCH BEHAVIOUR OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS	
Introduction	95
International Tourists' Motivation for Consuming Ghanaian Cuisine	95
Exigencies Leading to Consumption besides Motivation	102
International Tourists' Information Search Behaviour in Relation to Ghanaian Cuisine	105
Intervening Conditions	111
Contextual Conditions	115
Strategies Adopted by International Tourists to Overcome Knowledge Deficit	120
Consequences of the Strategies Adopted by International Tourists	123
Chapter Summary	129
CHAPTER SIX: LOCAL FOOD PURCHASE EXPERIENCES OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS	
Introduction	130
Choice Dilemma	130
Mixed Service Encounter Experiences	152
Causal Conditions	153
Mediating Factors	161

<i>Keeping a Piece of the Experience</i>	206
<i>Reliving the Experience</i>	208
<i>Cultural Transformation</i>	212
Chapter Summary	214
CHAPTER NINE: GROUNDED THEORY OF LOCAL FOOD	
CONSUMPTION EXPERIENCES	215
Introduction	215
Transformative Food Consumption Experience	215
Situating the Study within Existing Literature	220
Knowledge Deficit	220
Choice Dilemma	224
Food Image Formation among International Tourists	225
Chapter Summary	227
CHAPTER TEN: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND	
IMPLICATIONS	228
Introduction	228
Summary of Thesis	228
Major Findings of the Study	229
Major Conclusions from the Study	231
Implications of the Study for Local Food Tourism Development	232
Contributions to Knowledge	240
Recommendations for Future Studies	240
Objectives of the Study	242
BIBLIOGRAPHY	243
APPENDICES	298

APPENDIX A: Profile of Interviewees	298
APPENDIX B: Memo	302
APPENDIX C: Line-by-Line Coding	303
APPENDIX D: Popular Documented Ghanaian Dishes of Southern Ghana	304
APPENDIX E: In-depth Interview Guide_Convenience Sampling Stage	306
APPENDIX F: In-depth Interview Guide_ Refined Questions after Day One	308
APPENDIX G: In-depth Interview Guide_ Purposive Sampling Stage	310
APPENDIX H: In-depth Interview Guide_Theoretical Sampling Stage	312



LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Some Main Tourists' Motivation Models/Theories	56



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Map of the Cape Coast/Elmina Area	67
2	Grounded Theory Tree of Knowledge	74
3	Coding Paradigm for Social Science Research Questions	90
4	Cultural Curiosity	105
5	Knowledge Deficit	127
6	Choice Dilemma	152
7	Mixed Service Encounter Experiences	165
8	Exotic Food Encounters	201
9	Grounded Theory of Transformative Consumption Experience with Local Food	217/218



LIST OF ACRONYMS

4Es	Educational, Escapist, Esthetical, Entertainment
DMOs	Destination Management Organizations
FDA	Food and Drug Authority
GCAA	Ghana Civil Aviation Authority
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GHA	Ghana Hotels Association
GMMB	Ghana Museums and Monuments Board
GRNA	Ghana Restaurants and Night Clubs Association
GSGDA	Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda
GTA	Ghana Tourism Authority
GTCA	Ghana Traditional Caterers Association
KNP	Kakum National Park
MDGS	Millennium Development Goals
MMDAs	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies
MNP	Mole National Park
MoTCA	Ministry of Tourism and Creative Arts
Ph.D	Philosophiae Doctor
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UNESCO	United Nations, Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The last fifty years has witnessed a growth in tourism from a non-significant industry/sector to one of the world's most powerful economic forces. Developing countries especially see it as a means to economic emancipation and development (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Torres & Momsen, 2004). It is, however, preposterous to assume that the relationship between tourism and development is straightforward where tourism leads to development. Koutra and Edwards (2012) have argued that most developing countries venturing into tourism lack the necessary macroeconomic, socio-political and economic systems important for the realisation of the benefits to be derived from the pursuit of tourism.

Again, successful tourism development has been found to depend largely on the positive interactions between tourists and their hosts and more importantly, locals and their support for tourism (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010; Hwang, Stewart, & Ko, 2012). Nevertheless, the activities of large international agencies and corporations dominate tourism development projects in developing countries. The agencies draw up tourism development plans and actively participate in the provision of facilities and services. Participation of locals or indigenes in tourism development and enjoyment of accrued benefits can be described as a token (Koutra & Edwards, 2012). The tourism-development nexus questions notwithstanding, worldwide international tourists arrivals have increased from 25 million in 1950 to about 1186 million in 2015

[United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2016]. Africa's share of the 2015 figure was 53 million visitors with Sub-Saharan Africa recording 35.4 million arrivals (UNWTO, 2016), about a percentage decrease from 2014. Ghana's tourism industry has equally seen some growth in recent years. Data sourced from the World Travel and Tourism Council (2015) show that the total contribution of tourism to Ghana's gross domestic product was about GH¢ 7, 668.4 million (6.7%) in 2014, which further points to the importance of tourism to Ghana's economy.

The growth in tourism worldwide has also coincided with a tourist market that is more conscious of quality, discerning, knowledgeable, and seeking more individualistic experiences. The demand for tourism has invariably also shifted from the traditional sea, sun, and sand resources to cultural, adventure, heritage, and ecotourism resources (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). Similarly, Sims (2009) adds that destinations are becoming competitive and it calls for the development of new products in order to distinguish one destination from the other. Successful destinations are those that are able to offer variety and new tourism products to address special interest niches (Dong, Wang, Morais, & Brooks, 2013; Rodrigues, Kastenholtz, & Rodrigues, 2010). The provision of local food products is one of the ways of diversifying tourism products and creating uniqueness (Hashimoto & Telfer, 2006; Woodland & Acott, 2007). This admonition notwithstanding, Ghana continues to promote her pristine beaches, ecological and historical heritages and aspects of the cultural heritage (festivals) and, to some extent, avenues for the business traveller with little diversification into other areas such as food and drink tourism.

Unique and authentic foods serve as cultural markers and tourists who wish to identify with other cultures consume local food and drinks on their journeys (Kivela & Crotts, 2009; Mkono, Markwell, & Wilson, 2013). Additionally, the attraction to travel to destinations in search of unique and authentic culinary taste is increasing (Smith & Costello, 2009). Bell, Adhikari, Chambers, Cherdchu, and Suwonsichon (2011) reiterate that consumers are in search of new food experiences and flavour combinations. This has resulted in more people travelling for culinary purposes. The situation presents unique opportunities for branding and marketing of those places (Mossberg, 2008). Therefore, destination management organisations are vigorously using their unique foods and drinks for promotion and marketing (Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2010; Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2013).

The views of Mossberg (2008) is further complemented by Everett and Aitchison (2008) who discussed that food and drink offerings of particular destinations have become established elements in the marketing of many other forms of hospitality and tourism. Marketing food and drink as part of the broader destination offerings is not out of place since food and drink consumption is part of the tourist experience at any destination (Chang, 2011; Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2011). One-third of tourists' expenditure is on food and drinks (Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012). This expenditure occurs even when food and drink are not the focal points of their visit.

Food and drink have a symbolic significance and therefore have connections to travel motivations (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012). Thus, food can either be the primary or secondary motivation for travel (Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009). Tourists sometimes travel to a place to have a

taste of its unique food and drink (Holloway, 2006). Thus, food and drink, which is a cultural element, then becomes the experiential thing or the product being consumed by the tourist. The act of consumption, therefore, takes centre stage in what Hirschman and Holbrook (1980) termed 'hedonic consumption' (p. 92) which is about the experience and not just the act of consumption.

Quan and Wang (2004) are of the view that tourist experience with food is either a peak or a supportive consumer experience. The peak consumption experience is when food is the main reason for travelling as in the case of culinary destinations around the world. The supportive consumer experience occurs because tourists, at any rate, consume food on their journeys. However, the supportive consumption experience could become the peak experience remembered long after the trip. Additionally, food goes beyond just providing sustenance to include a collection of social practices; therefore, it could provide a way for tourists to interact with locals (Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012). This interaction has implications for both parties as they derive the benefits associated with the interaction. The tourist will get new opportunities to engage the other senses rather than the established visual gaze (Urry, 1990). Moreover, for the host, the kind of food and drinks on offer can have major implications for the economic, cultural, and environmental sustainability of the destination (Sims, 2009).

The Context of the Study

Ghana's tourism industry has seen a steady growth since the late 1970s when years of political upheavals led to its stagnation (Akyeampong, 2007). In 2014, the direct contribution of tourism to Ghana's GDP was 1,131.6 million

dollars (2.6%) and the projected growth for 2015 was 5.6 percent (WTTC, 2015). The creation of the tourism ministry and the enactment of three tourism development plans since the creation of the ministry indicate the importance of tourism to Ghana's economy. The second 15 year National Tourism Development Plan (1996-2010) aimed at making tourism a driver of growth and development in Ghana. The Tourism Sector Medium Term Development Plan (2010-2013) aimed at improving government investments in the sector. One of the objectives of the third National Tourism Development Plan (2013-2027) as captured in the forward to the document is as follows:

There is a high expectation among stakeholders that the Plan will promote increased investments in the supply and value chain linkages, product development, infrastructure, marketing and promotion, human resource development and research, as well as information, communication and technological advancement in the tourism sector.

This study fits into the above objective. The implications of the findings could help in food tourism development in Ghana. Food tourism will be a new product to augment existing tourism products that Ghana promote.

There are five main categories of tourist attractions in Ghana. These are the warm tropical climate, beaches, ecological heritage made up of vegetation, wildlife and waterfalls. Others are Ghana's cultural heritage, comprising the numerous festivals, dances, crafts, arts, music and food and its historical heritage, which consists of monuments and sites linked to her pre- and post-colonial history. Facilities for meetings and conferences are also available

(Akyeampong, 2007). All these resources attract tourists to Ghana. The interest of this study, however, is Ghana's food and drink resources that are elements of her cultural heritage and how it can be developed into a product for the international tourist market.

Ghana's food and drink resources are numerous. It is common to find many "chop bars" (traditional restaurants), restaurants, street food vendors, and many other foodservice establishments dotted all over the country. Among the staples sold are *fufu* (pounded cassava mixed with plantain, cocoyam or yam) served with a variety of soups; *kenkey* and *banku* made from cooked maize dough served with ground pepper or any of the soups or gravy. Others include, fried yam (similar to French fries), spicy beef or chicken kebab, char-grilled chicken, guinea fowl and tilapia enjoyed with *banku* and beer, *tuo zaafi*, (a meal of corn and cassava flour), *waakye* (cooked rice and beans), and *jollof* rice (rice boiled in a spicy and tasty tomato and vegetable sauce with meat or fish or both). The drinks include local beverages such as "*pito*", "*asana*", "*bisap*", palm wine, the various beers brewed in Ghana and all the varieties of local dry gin on the market (see Appendix D for a full complement of popular documented dishes of Southern Ghana).

Statement of the Problem

Customer satisfaction is a culmination of a series of customer experiences (Meyer & Schwager, 2007). Satisfaction in itself is judgemental, based on either cognitive, affective or emotional responses that arise from an individual's experiences with a product or service (Polo Pena, Frais Jamilena, & Rodriguez Molina, 2012). The marketing, retailing, and service management

literature has, however, failed to consider customer experience as a separate construct from customer satisfaction and service quality (Verhoef, Lemon, Parasuraman, Roggeveen, Schlesinger, & Tsiros, 2009).

Similarly, although research interest in food and drink tourism continues to grow (Amuquandoh & Asafo-Adjei, 2013; Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009; Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012) most of these studies have paid little attention to the experiential aspect of food and drink consumption. Falconer (2013, p. 21) reiterates that in spite of the growing interest in food and drink as essential components of the tourist experience, attention given to the “often-problematic” emotions associated with it is not much. Equally, the perspectives of tourists in relation to their food experiences remain under-researched (Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2014; Kauppinen-Raisanen, Gummerus, & Lehtola, 2013). The consumption experience brings with it a “Pandora’s box” of emotions, which include disappointments, shame, anguish, and relief (Falconer, 2013; Kivela & Crofts, 2009) which are critical elements that are not understood and have been left under-researched.

The area of tourists’ food experiences on the African continent has largely been under-researched as well (Mkono, Markwell, & Wilson, 2013). Effective tourism experience design requires that “the focus of research should not be on the experiences of tourists as consumers but should include the tourist as a human being” (Tussyadiah, 2014, p. 559). Human beings are inculcated culturally and socially. Hence, they have a cultural and social background, which may influence how they behave. Food experience is a “process of deeper cultural and social learning and understanding of a society and its culture” (Kim & Ellis, 2015, p. 153). The process of cultural and social learning for a tourist

starts from the pre-consumption experience (searching and planning); purchase experience (choice and encounter with the environment); core consumption experience (cognitions and emotions), and remembered/nostalgia experience (reliving the experience).

Tourists' views on traditional Ghanaian food have been documented (Adongo, Anuga, & Dayour, 2015; Amenumey, Dayour, & Adongo, 2015; Amuquandoh & Asafo-Adjei, 2013). These studies and others on international tourists' satisfaction with Ghanaian cuisine focused on just one of the two areas of food tourism: business management and marketing perspective, which is mainly quantitative (Kim & Ellis, 2015). This perspective relies on supply models, which are deep-rooted in behaviouristic stimulus-response theories (Gnoth & Matteucci, 2014). A striking omission is a cultural and sociological perspective, which deals with how tourists acquire, change, and adapt knowledge and skills in order to explore their new environment. An understanding of this process could lead to an explanation of the experiences of tourists concerning unfamiliar foreign foods and the basis for predicting future behaviour.

Ghanaian local foods are not part of the familiar staples consumed by international tourists. Therefore, the consumption of such local dishes by tourists could mean a search for authentic experiences. There is thus a need for an investigation into tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine and the possibility of predicting tourists' behavioural responses. This could form the basis for future marketing approaches since emotional responses toward destinations affect destination choice (Hosany, 2012). This study, therefore, seeks to propound a theory that explains international tourists' experiences with

Ghanaian foods and how that knowledge could be used in food tourism development in Ghana.

Aim of the Study

The aim of the study was to contextualise international tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine and to develop a substantive grounded theory that explains those experiences.

Research Questions

The following focused questions were asked to address the research problem:

1. Why do international tourists eat Ghanaian cuisine while in Ghana?
2. How do international tourists get to know about Ghanaian cuisine?
3. What are the food purchase experiences of international tourists?
4. What images do the core consumption experiences convey about Ghanaian cuisine?
5. How do the consumption experiences translate into behavioural intentions concerning Ghanaian cuisine?

Significance of the Study

The concentration of most literature on food and drink tourism is on known food and drink destinations around the world such as England, Wales, South Korea and Thailand. Consequently, by proposing a model to explain the experiences of tourists with local food at a destination that is not an established

food tourism destination will advance the theoretical progress on tourists' experiences in tourism (Hosany & Witham, 2010).

From a practical point of view, Williams (2006) argues that unlike traditional marketing themes, experiential marketing aims at giving consumers in-depth, tangible experiences in order to provide them with sufficient information to make a purchase (p. 485). By looking at tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine, specific experiences (negative or positive) would be isolated and interpreted for local entrepreneurs. Therefore, local entrepreneurs providing services to tourists will stand to benefit from the work since they will have information on the food experiences that tourists seek when in Ghana. This is an important first step in designing tourism experiences (Tussyadiah, 2014).

The Ghana National Tourism Development Plan (2013-2027) also seeks for the expansion and diversification of Ghana's tourism offerings. By researching into a specific product area (food) with the aim of looking at its potential for tourism development, the core issues of product development, marketing, and promotion as identified in the document will be supported. New tourism products cannot be developed and promoted if there is no market for them.

Furthermore, understanding how consumers experience brands is critical for developing marketing strategies for goods and services (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009). This study will bring out specific sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioural responses triggered by the food offerings of Ghana. By relying on this information, the Ghana Tourism Authority and other agencies tasked with promoting Ghana as a tourism destination will have information on which positive food experiences to promote.

Additionally, the study will contribute to existing knowledge on tourist motivation and behaviour at the destination specifically in relation to their preference for the local cuisine. Most of the studies on tourists' motivation, decision-making and information search are limited to the pre-purchase phase of the travel experience (Choi, Lehto, Morrison, & Jang, 2012; Nishimura, King, & Waryszak, 2007). How decisions made at the pre-travel stage change when tourists encounter situational variables, such as new food, remains to be fully unravelled.

Delimitations and Scope of the Study

This thesis is subject to the following delimitations:

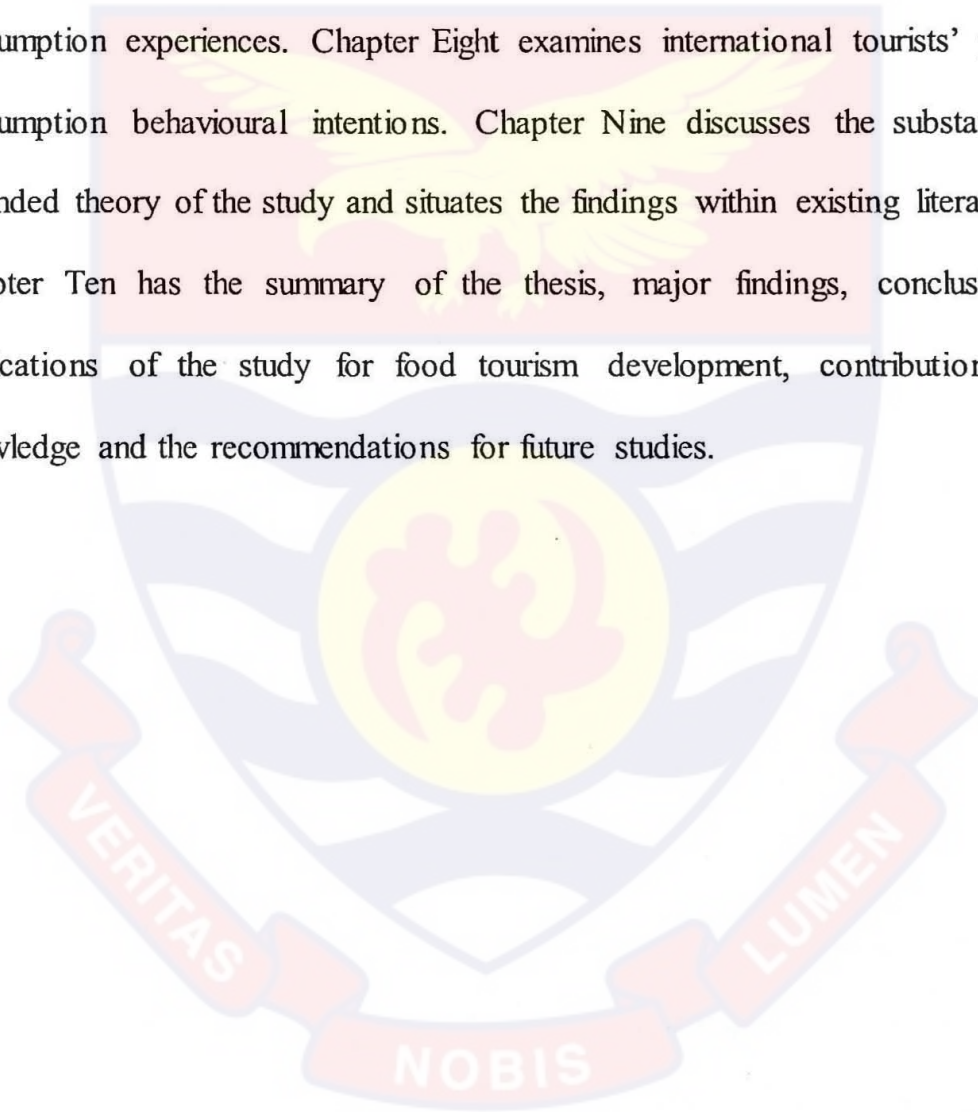
1. It is delimited to tourists who had consumed some Ghanaian cuisine while visiting destinations in Ghana;
2. The experiences are not limited to the core consumption experiences but include the information search and purchase experiences as well; and
3. It does not aim at generalising the findings. Rather it seeks to come out with a substantive grounded theory that explains tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine.

Organization of the Thesis

The remainder of the thesis is divided into nine chapters. Chapter Two has a review of related literature on the subject of food and tourism. Chapter Three discusses some conceptual and theoretical issues relating to the experiential paradigm, tourism experience construct, tourist motivation,

decision behaviour and information search. The methodology for the thesis is explained in Chapter Four.

Chapter Five examines international tourists' motivation for eating Ghanaian dishes and analyses their information seeking behaviour. Chapter Six examines international tourists' food purchase experiences. Chapter Seven analyses international tourists' perceptions of Ghanaian dishes after the core consumption experiences. Chapter Eight examines international tourists' post-consumption behavioural intentions. Chapter Nine discusses the substantive grounded theory of the study and situates the findings within existing literature. Chapter Ten has the summary of the thesis, major findings, conclusions, implications of the study for food tourism development, contributions to knowledge and the recommendations for future studies.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews the extant literature on food tourism. It, however, starts with a discussion on the place of literature in grounded theory research. This is to offer a justification for engaging in limited literature review at the beginning of the study. Subsequent discussions focus on food as a place identifier, food tourism, and tourists' motivation for consuming local food. The last heading for discussion under this chapter is food preferences, choice, and consumption.

Place of Literature in Grounded Theory Research

The issue of conducting a literature review before commencing and completing grounded theory research has been a contentious one. Dunne (2011) describes it as the chicken and egg conundrum in qualitative research. Glaser and Strauss (1967) and later Glaser (1978) the original proponents of the approach were of the view that by conducting literature review prior to conducting grounded theory could cloud the judgement of the researcher. In that, the researcher will enter the field and conduct analysis based on a preconceived theoretical lens (Charmaz, 2006). This position was later clarified by Glaser (1978, p. 72) one of the key proponents of the methodology. He wrote, "It is necessary for the grounded theorist to know many theoretical codes in order to be sensitive to rendering explicitly the subtleties of the relationships in his data" which was contrary to the earlier views of Glaser and Strauss (1967).

Strauss and Corbin (1998b) also added later that all researchers enter the field of enquiry with a background comprising professional life and access to literature in that field. There is, therefore, no possibility of entering the field *tabula rasa*. A situation where an individual is free of knowledge in given field of study.

Dunne (2011) and McGhee, Marland, and Atkinson (2007) are of the view that because students are asked to write research proposals and to demonstrate a grasp of pertinent issues that have been addressed and what needs addressing, it is not possible to have no knowledge of the subject of study. The intention behind the literature review at this stage is to give the researcher insights for the formulation of initial research questions (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; McGhee, Marland & Atkinson, 2007). As the researcher progresses through the work and as concepts and categories emerge, there is the need for theoretical sensitivity, an important concept in grounded theory. This theoretical sensitivity is only possible if the researcher has knowledge in the area of study (Charmaz, 2006; Walls, Parahoo, & Fleming, 2010).

Strauss and Corbin (1998) also note that in writing the final thesis the researcher “must incorporate relevant literature” (p. 263). This view is also shared by Dunne (2011) who notes that for a PhD thesis:

The decision to wait until after the findings have been presented to engage with extant literature might be met with confusion by examiners or reviewers who may be experts in the substantive field, but not necessarily, experts in grounded theory, thereby leaving the researcher open to criticism and significant re-

workings. Equally, weaving the introduction and discussion of theoretical concepts into the presentation of research findings may lead to excessively long chapters peppered with tangential explanations of diverse theories, and again detract from the flow and thrust of the study (pp. 120-121).

This study, therefore, takes on board all the views above by beginning with some literature review on the issues being addressed and later during the analysis, literature will be used to introduce and support some of the emerging theoretical categories and issues. The final stage of the literature review will be to situate the findings into existing body of knowledge. This is important because the researcher needs to show how the emerging substantive theory moves beyond existing boundaries of knowledge (Charmaz, 2006).

Local Food as a Place Identifier

In the current globalised world, the contested issue is whether certain categories of food, either in the raw state or processed, can be described as “local”. Tourism involves the movement of people across the globe and given the pervasiveness of the phenomenon of globalisation in every sphere of life, one expects that tourists will be out there looking for the familiar, especially food. This is not the case, though. The extant literature points to the fact that more and more people are moving from the globalised view on everything to a localised one. Schnell (2013, p. 66) points to the “local food movement” in the United States as a crusade in the opposite direction of globalisation. It is a move towards localising everything with food being at the heart of it. The global

movement for food grown in local areas by local farmers and citizens is also giving rise to the demand for locally produced food by people even when they travel (Costa & Besio, 2011) and in tourism, travellers have been choosing destinations with local food in mind (Meler & Cerovic, 2003).

The current headline status of the local food movement (McEntee, 2010; Mount, 2012) notwithstanding, Fonte (2008) observes that these movements are not new. Ikerd (2011) advances the view that the local food movement in North America has its roots in the natural food movement of the 1960s when people clamoured for organic foods instead of inorganic ones. This period coincided with Rachel Carson's (1962) book *Silent Spring* on the ill effects of pesticides on the environment. The local food movement is premised on the belief that large-scale agricultural businesses compromised the qualities of the foods they produce in search of profits. Local food, on the other hand, is of good quality, fresh and flavourful and offers people a connection to a certain place (McEntee, 2010).

The desire for local food and the local food movement, especially in the United States and Europe (Arsil, Li, & Bruwer, 2014; Schnell, 2013), suggests that local food is associated with a particular area. Thus, one can say that these movements are in particular locations with the aim of promoting and supporting local agricultural and food businesses. Franklin, Newton, and McEntee (2011) observe that the local food movement is for local economic sustainability. This observation is not different from the arguments made by Sims (2009) that developing a local food tourism industry could lead to the sustainability of tourism in communities through the protection of the livelihood of local farmers and the businesses of local entrepreneurs engaged in the culinary trade.

The term “local food” faces some definitional challenges due partly to the difficulty of defining “local”. Available literature on what constitutes local food provides varying definitions and the use of the term “local food” has neither been consistent nor clear (Eriksen, 2013). Schnell (2013) suggests that a place is deemed “local” if it offers people a sense of identity without which they feel something is missing “a sense of the local, a sense of belonging to a place, and a sense that a place is distinct from other places” (p. 57). One could also add that there is a distinctive tie between certain foods and that place. This line of argument holds that food is a cultural artefact, which links to issues such as place and identity, material and symbolism (Everett, 2008). The place where the food was grown therefore becomes a characteristic of local food. This means that local food cannot be defined without looking at the place where the food is produced (Arsil, Li, & Bruwer, 2014; Dunne, Chambers, Giombolini, & Schlegel, 2011). Futamura (2007) though contends that the term “local” is relative and not fixed to where food is grown and processed for consumption and queries whether the definition of local food should be a spatial, material, or discursive context. He notes that ‘local’ is a “social construct: unfixed and usually defined contextually rather than on an explicit scale” (p. 220).

Mount (2012) proposes that the determination of local food largely is by the actors involved and their unique priorities, concerns, capacities, goals, and values. Perceptions of local food vary between consumers and producers (Eriksen, 2013). Most consumers see food produced in the location where they live as being fresh, taste better and is of high quality. It also exhibits an element of trust, credibility and assurance to consumers as they feel a sense of knowledge about the producer or the foodstuffs (McEntee, 2010; Selfa & Qazi,

2005). What constitutes an authentic local food is also subject to debate. Mkono, Markwell, and Wilson (2013) contend that authenticity as a concept remains elusive to define. However, in food tourism, authenticity is culturally constructed. Thus, the authors argue that the cultural definition of authenticity could lead to many issues such as the locality of ingredients and the use of traditional recipes (p. 69).

From the above arguments, one can only agree with Eriksen (2013) who notes that the definition of local food is idiosyncratic and to an extent not universal (p. 49). Local food can be defined from both the demand and supply sides. From the demand side, Guerrero et al. (2009) define local food as:

A product frequently consumed or associated with specific celebrations and/or seasons, normally transmitted from one generation to another, made accurately in a specific way according to the gastronomic heritage, with little or no processing/manipulation, distinguished and known because of its sensory properties and associated with a certain local area, region or country (p. 348).

From the supply side, Nummedal and Hall (2006) are of the view that local food is any food produced within a local area or a local specialty food that has a local identity. Costa and Besio (2011) using *geogastronomia* to refer to the *placedness* of food note that food has ideological and sensual qualities. Food contributes to peoples' affective relations to places, in that; food has a sensuousness nature and particularly evocative signifiers in place-making processes. Accordingly, Longhurst, Johnson, and Ho (2009) note that the

attributes of food such as sensual qualities, tastes, smells and textures all say a lot about the people eating or preparing it, which has an emotional and affective relations with the place.

Food Tourism

Food tourism is a sub-category of cultural tourism (Updhyay & Sharma, 2014). In addition, within the existing literature on the subject, various categories have been noted; tasting tourism (Boniface, 2003), gourmet tourism (Mitchell & Hall, 2003), gastronomy tourism (Correia, Moital, Ferreira da Costa, & Peres, 2008), culinary tourism (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010; Horng & Tsai, 2012) and food tourism (Everett, 2008, 2012; McKercher, Okumus, & Okumus, 2008). Ignatov and Smith (2006) on the other hand identified four main categories of food tourism: gastronomy tourism, culinary tourism, cuisine tourism and gourmet tourism. Lucy Long (1998) coined the term culinary tourism (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010) and this has since occupied an important domain within the tourism discourse. Cuisine and gastronomy are both nouns that represent styles of food preparation and the art or science of good eating respectively. In an expanded form, it will include everything in Armelagos' (2014) definition:

[The] cuisine is a cultural system that defines the items in nature that are edible, how these items are extracted from the environment, eaten, or processed into food, the flavours used to enhance the taste of food and the rules about eating (p. 1331).

Culinary is the adjectival form of cuisine, which is the style of food preparation and the social context in which people acquire, prepare, and consume food. Culinary includes ingredients, prepared foods, beverages, food production, motivations, activities, institutional structures, and food tourism itself (Ignatov & Smith, 2006, pp. 237–238). Other authors ignore the distinctions and combine both as the same element. Kim and Ellis (2015) and Ab Karim and Chi (2010) share this view. They propose that there is no difference between food tourism, culinary tourism, and gastronomy tourism as the underlying factor is people travelling to destinations in search of unique foods. Therefore, within the available literature, one would find the interchangeable use of these terms. For example, Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010) put both together by stating that:

Gastronomic and culinary tourism can be described as tourism where an opportunity for memorable food and drink experiences contribute significantly to travel motivation and behaviour (p. 14)

Hornig and Tsai (2012) attest that culinary tourism is a new concept, which combines food and tourism (p. 796). Silkes, Cai, and Lehto (2013) however, see it as a phenomenon that has been studied extensively yet concede that it has not been fully explored. Hence, the two authors may be talking about the same thing in referring to it being a new concept and not fully explored. The time dimension to the inception of the concept of culinary tourism notwithstanding, there is still not a single acceptable definition of the concept within the tourism literature.

Silkes, Cai, and Lehto (2013) report that the definition of culinary tourism has been dominated by literature from the mainstream social science literature, however, within the tourism literature it is still within the formative

stage hence a lack of consistent or common definition. This could account for the difficulty in defining food tourism. Nonetheless, the common attribute running through available definitions is experiencing food at a destination (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010; Green & Dougherty, 2008; Hall & Mitchell, 2005; Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2010). The definition of Silkes, Cai, and Lehto (2013) which is the same as the definition given by Silkes (2012, p. 336) has been adopted for this study:

A cultural interaction between tourists and residents through the sharing of gastronomic interactions and experiences.

This definition captures the basis for culinary tourism: experiencing the culture of others. For instance, Green and Dougherty (2008) articulate that at the heart of the culinary tourism phenomenon is the unique foods and dishes from the culture of the host community. Consequently, by looking at the definition that has been adopted for this study and the primary element in culinary tourism, one can identify important elements of cultural interaction between tourists and residents and the sharing of gastronomic experiences. Food, as noted earlier, is an element of culture and a place identifier, which enhances the image of a destination, and tourists can use food as an experience of national culture (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010; Frochot, 2003). Hence, by actively looking for local food on their journeys, tourists embark upon a search that helps them to experience and accept a local culture in an interactive manner without hesitancy (Long, 2004).

Hall and Sharples (2003) used the level of interest and the number of tourists to divide food tourism into three main categories: gourmet tourism

(cuisine/gastronomy tourism), culinary tourism, and rural/urban tourism. Gourmet tourism is tourism that revolves around food and wine where the two products are the reason for travel. In this instance, tourists spend their entire trip visiting expensive restaurants and wineries to savour local specialties. Culinary tourists see food as part of the entire tourism experience. For such tourists, regional or local food, and simple dining environments that represent rural lifestyles is their focus (Beer, Ottenbacher, & Harrington, 2012). Culinary tourists recognise the importance of food in the entire travel experience and see local food as part of the cultural heritage of the destinations that they visit (Ignatov & Smith, 2006). Other authors, however, make the enjoyment of local cuisine the primary motivation for the travel and these viewpoints contradict those who see culinary tourism as complementary to the other tourism activities (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Park, Reisinger, & Kang, 2008; Roberti, 2008; Stewart, Bramble, & Ziraldo, 2008; Yuan, 2005).

Different scholars have used different approaches to categorise culinary tourists. Ignatov and Smith (2006) used travel activity and motivation to divide Canadian culinary tourists into food tourists, wine tourists and a mixture of both. Mack, Blose, and MacLaurin (2009) used social value scale to categorise culinary tourists into innovators and non-innovators. Yun, Hennessey, and MacDonald (2011) identified different categories of culinary tourists using two different approaches. The first approach involved using tourists' culinary involvement and food related activities when on vacation to segment them into four: deliberate, opportunistic, accidental, and uninterested culinary tourists. The second approach involved using tourists' attitudes toward food-related behaviour when at home and when travelling to arrive at three segments of

and prestige motivators. These motivators could also fall within the main domain of tourism motivators. Fields (2002) using four categories of tourist motivation to travel as suggested by McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie (1995) attempted an explanation of tourists' motivation for consuming local food. Under the physical motivators, the author argued that since eating involves some form of physicality, eating is for physical pleasure more so if it involves taking a trip to a farm. More importantly, he advanced the argument that since wellbeing has become an important issue in western societies, the allure of healthy food promised by destinations that have food to offer is the key physical motivator.

Cultural experiences at a destination include the desire by tourists to gain some knowledge about the destination. This knowledge search will include learning about the history of the place (Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2013). The quest for learning about other cultures can be seen as a search for authentic experiences; things that are unique to a place or a people in the context in which it occurs on a daily basis (Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2010). Therefore, in food tourism, cultural motivators are the close association of authentic local food with a place. Therefore, a key motivator to consume local foods is the cultural immersion that many travel to seek. This gives the opportunity to do something that is very different from familiar ones.

On the issue of interpersonal motivation, many people dine out because of the opportunity to meet new people. Spending time with family and friends when it comes to food consumption (Ignatov & Smith, 2006) comes within the domain of interpersonal motivation. Prestige and status always accompany the basic reasons why people go on vacation. Coming back from a vacation and

letting others know of it has always driven people to travel to new destinations. In much the same way, the experience of exotic cuisine is a novel act (Obonyo, Ayieko, & Kambona, 2012) which could become a bragging right if there is an opportunity for it. Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009) identified excitement and break away from routine as motivations for consuming local food while on vacation. Breakaway and excitement are under the interpersonal factors and prestige. Showing off can be placed under prestige. Curiosity and the search for knowledge is another motivator, where people want to experience the exotic in the midst of globalisation and sensory and tactile pleasure and experience as key motivators in tourists' engagement with local food.

Park, Reisinger, and Kang (2008) introduced the element of meeting experts. This factor links to the search for knowledge. Experts are people who are versed in a field and, therefore, will be in the position to pass on the knowledge sought by the culinary tourist. Shenoy (2005) aligned food with culinary tourists and established five motivators: purchase local, dine local, drink local, elite dining, and familiarity. These motivators show that local food and drink offerings at a destination are the primary considerations for the culinary tourist. In recent times, Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang (2012) have suggested a five-dimensional framework to aid in the understanding of tourists' motivation for consuming local foods. The five dimensions are symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension, and pleasure. To these authors, symbolism as a driving force behind eating while on vacation explains what local food signifies. To most tourists local food consumption is an opportunity to explore and learn about local culture, authentic food experiences, prestige, and status. Food consumption is an obligatory part of the tourist's journeys. Food is for

that some tourists ate local foods because of the perceived health benefits associated with such foods.

Silkes (2012) looked at motivations for attending local farmers market festivals, which could serve as the basis for culinary tourism development and found that food quality, shopping experience and facility were the main motivators. The quality of food is always an important attribute for most consumers especially when people are away from their homes. No one wants to be down with any food related infections. The shopping experience, which includes buying and eating, is also key. The facility connotes both an attribute of sanitation and cleanliness as well as the social setting in which consumption takes place. Consequently, tourists may consider how the facility looks like and anticipate what goes on both at the front and the back of the house in order to make a purchase.

Food Preferences, Choice, and Consumption

Food choice is an intricate phenomenon that has been difficult to unravel because of the multiplicity of factors that are involved. The “omnivore’s dilemma” has always been part of man’s evolution (Armelagos, 2014, p. 1331). The dilemma deals with an innate conflict that man goes through in seeking novel foods (neophilia) to meet nutritional needs and the fear of eating something that is dangerous to one’s health (neophobia). Food neophobia is the unwillingness of people to accept novel foods and neophilia is the willingness to accept novel food (Finistrella, Manco, Ferrara, Rustico, Presaghi, & Morino, 2012; Parasecoli, 2011). Food has always been associated with health, which is captured by the cliché ‘you are what you eat’. This cliché has become important

in recent years due to growing cases of diseases that are associated with unhealthy eating (Guine, Barros, Queirós, Pina, Vale, Ramoa, Folha, & Carneiro, 2013). Consequently, preclusion or protection against illness, dealing with obesity and nutritional quality of foods is now more important than how to improve the quality of food aesthetics in these western societies (Rodgers & Young, 2008).

Although tourism research into health concerns and eating behaviour still remains at its embryonic state (Chang, 2017; Hallab, Yoon, & Usyal, 2003), there are some indications that food and health are two of the main perceived risk factors in international tourism (Lepp & Gibson, 2008). This is not different from the held view that travelling in itself exposes people to a number of risks including food risks (Bentley & Page, 2008). In fact, food risks are thought to be higher abroad than at home (Larsen, Wibecke, Ogaard, & Selstad, 2007) and indeed context is one of the most important factors when it comes to the acceptance and ingesting of food (Boutrolle, Delarue, Arranz, Rogeaux, & Koster, 2007; Jaeger & Rose, 2008; King, Meiselman, Hottenstein, Work, & Cronk, 2007). Tourists from western countries have avoided local foods especially in developing countries due to the perceived hygiene and health risks associated with them (Torres & Skillicorn, 2004) as well as problems with the strangeness of such foods to them (Cohen & Avieli, 2004).

Tourists who are concerned about what they eat in terms of food content and nutrients try to avoid the intake of certain foods while on vacation (Chang, 2017). Again, past studies have also shown that health-conscious tourists have looked for restaurants that served healthy foods and used healthy cooking methods (Hallab, Yoon, & Usyal, 2003; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2002). Most of these

health-conscious tourists adopt a strategy known as “categorical thinking” attitude (Lundkvist, Fjellstrom, Sidenvall, Lumbers, & Raats, 2010, p. 617) that certain foods are harmful and would, therefore, employ an elimination strategy to isolate foods that are thought to be harmful (Sobal, Bisogni, Devine, & Jastran, 2006). There are instances, however, when even health-conscious travellers have set aside health and risk concerns just to enjoy local food offerings while on vacation (Chang, 2006).

Consumers’ nutritional knowledge affects their eating habits and consumption patterns. This is in addition to the changing contextual aspects of the decision environment or mental associations with a specific food (Wansink, 2004). Information on nutrition leading to knowledge on healthy food choices has been found to have minimal effect on food choices since food choice is mainly associated with the affective components of an individual’s association with food rather than the cognitive (Birch & Lawley, 2012). The single most important factor found to affect food like or dislike is cultural belonging. In addition, within individuals’ cultural belonging variations exist. Research on whether age, gender, and heredity affect food choice and acceptance have yielded little results (Chen, 2011). The taste or distaste is, however, a significant predictor of food choice or likes within a cross-cultural dimension. If culture is the significant predictor of food choice then, how is it possible for people to accept other peoples’ food? Familiarity with such foods will facilitate acceptance and choice. Therefore, it is easy for people who have ever visited a destination and have had a feel of its food to go back and experience it depending on where that experience lies on the affective scale of like, dislike or neutral. Constant exposure and repeated informationn on the taste rather than

the nutritional knowledge is key to reducing peoples' reluctance to travel again for food (Koivisto & Sjoden, 1996).

The choice or preference for specific foods is associated with the food experiences of people. Previous studies into this phenomenon found that the food that parents serve their children earlier in life affects their food preference as they mature (Falciglia, Pabst, Couch, & Goody, 2004; Scaglioni, Salvioni, & Galimberti, 2008). The "gatekeeper" in food decision-making within the home, which is mainly mothers, influences the parental choice of specific foods. Parents and familiar adults, peers and the praise or negative response for consuming certain types of food in addition to the unfamiliar food that an individual is exposed to earlier in life (Nicklaus, Boggio, Chabanet, & Issanchou, 2004; Skinner, Carruth, Bounds, & Ziegler, 2002) shape food choice and acceptance during infancy. The acceptance of a parent's food behaviour or not, results in food neophobia or neophilia.

Food neophobia is mainly seen as a hereditary issue (Cooke & Wardle, 2007), it is highly linked to temperament and personal factors since most of the food that people are familiar with were introduced to them early in life (Knaapila, Silventoinen, Broms, Rose, Perola, Kaprio, & Tuorila, 2010). Although this personality trait may vary over time, it is also possible for it to persist into adulthood. Therefore, Henriques, King, and Meiselman (2009) affirm that a sizeable proportion of a population may continue to express neophobic tendencies. In the context of tourism, there is evidence to suggest that personality traits, especially food related ones have affected tourists' healthy eating behaviour. Tourists with high food involvement make healthy food choices while on tours than those less involved (Marshall & Bell, 2004).

Finistrella et al. (2012) found that food neophobia is the result of pickiness in children more than in adults. Therefore, adults on tour in a different country will want to try novel foods without having any issues about what to choose, all things being equal. However, there is the element of preferences and rejection, which are more environmentally determined than neophobia, which is genetic (Cooke & Wardle, 2007). This could explain why some tourists would want to keep to what they are used to when it comes to food at a destination. Parasecoli (2011) extends this view by stating that some tourists find it difficult to accept novel food because of a lack of the necessary food-related culture and its associated knowledge of the new environment to enable them face the challenges of eating a novel food. Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang (2017) found that food neophobia explained the discrepancy in tourists' food concerns. Food concerns relate to health improvement, weight maintenance, and apprehension about harmful food ingredients.

Recent studies found that behavioural flexibility is at the heart of the adaptive response to one's changing environment. This flexibility may be the result of innovation in which the individual adopts a new behaviour or through social learning in which the individual may adopt the behaviour of others (Wright, Eberhard, Hobson, Avery, & Russello, 2010). Behaviour adaptability and social learning are important for local food consumption by tourists. Most tourists, especially cultural tourists, are more likely to adapt their behaviour to suit that of the local communities they engage. This engagement transcends into the full cultural offerings of the community including food. Once tourists accept to try novel foods of their hosts, a new function for what was once inedible is established; which is edibility. By this behaviour of adaptability and social

learning, anything within the human environment can become possible candidates for food (Parasecoli, 2011). In the area of food science, Gaudette and Pickering (2013) state that although human beings have evolutionally gravitated towards sweet-tasting foods, novel bitter-tasting foods also become acceptable after periods of repeated use.

Local food is an alternative to the conventional food that has widely been associated with food-related diseases. Moreover, although most people would want to consume local food they are sceptical about the premium price they have to pay, as they believe that local food and conventional foods are not priced the same. Price, therefore, serves as a hindrance to local food consumption. Other factors that hinder people from purchasing local foods are availability and accessibility (Penney & Prior, 2014). These may be the general barriers associated with introducing people to novel foods. Within a specific food category, there are several examples. For instance, studies looking at the barriers to seafood consumption among Europeans found that product quality, consumer attitudes towards fish, involvement with seafood, consumer choice habits, beliefs about risks and benefits to health and convenience were the main areas of concern (Olsen, Scholderer, Brunso, & Verbeke, 2007; Verbeke, Vermeir, & Brunso, 2007; Verbeke, Sioen, Pieniak, Van Camp, & De Henauw, 2005). Generally, fish consumption among European youth was low (Altintzoglou, Einarsdottir, Valsdstir, Schelvis, Skara, & Luten, 2010), which means that there may be some tourists who will naturally not be interested in the foods that are offered at a destination due to earlier predisposition, especially fish meals.

These factors point to the fact that before promoting local foods for tourists' interest it must first be affordable and it should be readily available at the point where they want it. There are several instances when people have requested for certain items on a menu and did not have them because of non-availability. Local foods sellers can look at accessibility beyond the point of bringing it to the doorstep of the consumer to include packaging of the product in a form that would be acceptable to the consumer.

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed available literature on food tourism. The discussions, however, started with the place of literature in grounded theory research. This was done in order clarify ongoing arguments on whether literature review before conducting fieldwork is acceptable in studies that employ grounded theory methodology. Others included local food as a place identifier. Under this heading, issues related to the link between local foods and specific places were discussed. The concept of food tourism was delved into as well. Additionally, tourists' motivation for consuming local foods was expounded. Finally, food preference, choice and consumption were also reviewed.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL ISSUES

Introduction

This chapter explores both conceptual and theoretical issues related to tourists' experience, tourists' motivation and decision-making across the travel experience spectrum. Topics discussed include the experiential paradigm, the tourism experience construct, tourists' information search behaviour, tourist motivation and travel decision-making and tourist experience. Others include symbolic interactionism and social constructionism, which explain how people make meanings out of the things around them.

Experiential Paradigm

Experiences affect judgement, attitudes, and other aspects of consumer behaviour (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009). According to Caru and Cova (2007) although 'experience' has become an often-used term in the world since the year 2000, few attempts at defining it exist. Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello's (2009) conceptualization of experience gives a clear indication of what to measure when one looks at the consumer experience construct. In their work on brand experience, the authors conceptualised experience as "sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments" (p. 52). This is in line with the propositions of Pine and Gilmore (1999) when they came out with the "experience economy" concept. Consumers within this economy search for affective memories,

sensations, and symbolism which come together to create lasting personal experience (Hosany & Witham, 2010).

Ek, Larsen, Hornskov, and Mansfeldt (2008) earlier attempted a definition of experience by looking at the human experience as both a noun and a verb. In the noun form, experience connotes a state where an individual participates in an activity either directly or through observation. Experience as a verb will be the lived through emotional sensations. In this case, the consumer becomes an active member of the process who lives through the event and reproduces it in his or her mind. Within the experiential paradigm, the consumer is seen to be playing a vital role in the consumption experience as he/she goes through a mental journey that can be favourable or unfavourable (Nove-Sundbo & Hagedorn-Rasmussen, 2008).

Gentile, Spiller, and Noci (2007, p. 118) define customer experience as:

The experience that originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a product, a company, or part of its organisation, which provoke a reaction. This experience is strictly personal and implies a customer's involvement at different levels (rational, emotional, sensorial, physical, and spiritual).

Meyer and Schwager (2007, p. 397) also define customer experience as:

The internal and subjective response customers have to any direct or indirect contact with a company. Direct contact generally occurs during the course of purchase, use, and service and the customer usually initiates it.

Indirect contact most often involves unplanned encounters with representatives of a company's products, service, or brands and takes the form of word-of-mouth recommendations or criticisms, advertising, news reports, reviews and so forth.

The three definitions of experience above all have one thing in common; the active involvement of some actors in the process, which in this case will be international tourists, whose active participation evokes some affective responses.

In the consumer and marketing literature, experiences are part of the need satisfaction process. The experience starts at the point where consumers seek out for products and services, continues through the shopping and receiving of the service or product, when consumption takes place and after consumption behavioural intentions (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009; Brakus, Schmitt, & Zhang, 2008). Judging from the above analogy, the verb domain of experience which includes the stages of planning and anticipating the event (before); participating in and the enactment of the event (during); and telling tales and exhibiting memories of the event (after) (Ek, Larsen, Hornskov, & Mansfeldt, 2008) is the focus of this study.

Consumption experience occurs with the consumption of a product. An important characteristic of this experience is that it is individualistic. Holbrook (2006, p. 212) sees the consumption experience as "an interactive relativistic preference experience" in which the experience is seen only from the consumer's perspective and in his/her interaction with a product. Therefore, experiences are individualistic and relativistic in at least three senses:

comparative, personal, and situational (Walter, Edvardson, & Ostrom, 2010). The above (product experience, service experience, and consumption experience) is what Verhoef, Lemon, Parasuraman, Roggeveen, Tsiros, and Schlesinger (2009, p. 32) describe as the 'total experience'. The total experience in itself is comprised of sensory, cognitive, affective, behavioural, and relationship components (Pearce, Wu, & Osmond, 2013), which must work together at all times during the journey through the destination.

Food related experiences are not limited to the core purchase/use. The experience is rather a process, which occurs in various phases; before, during, after the holiday and in different places (Bjork & Kuappinen-Raisanen, 2014; Mossberg, 2007). Product experience is a subjective internal consumption and behavioural responses toward a product. This is evoked by what the product has to offer by way of design and identity, packaging, communication and environment (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009). Because tourists are a non-generic group of people (Pearce, 2005), any consumption of local food and drink may not yield similar experiences. The emotional aspect of the consumption is highly recognised since it is argued that with experiential services satisfaction cannot be talked about if the emotional aspect of the process is ignored (Bigne, Mattila, & Andreu, 2008). Thus, to understand tourists' experiences with local food, it is important to look at their lived experiences (Lanier & Hampton, 2009; Quan & Wang, 2004). According to Kauppinen-Raisanen, Gummerus, and Lehtola (2013), this approach is important due to three reasons:

- Food-related memories affect attitudes, such as food likes and food acceptance;

- Food experiences influence current and on-going behaviour such as consumers' desire to relive an experience; and
- Contemporary consumers are characterised by the search for nostalgic experience wherein nostalgia here refers to emotionally laden food-related past experiences and memories, such as those from one's childhood.

For the purpose of this study, the experience with food is defined as the effective, emotive, sensorial, and behavioural responses resulting from tourists' search, purchase, and consumption of local foods as they become immersed in a local culture. Immersion is key in this definition because it connotes a sense of active participation of tourists in the ways of life of their host. This active participation includes the need to overcome socio-cultural barriers of the new environment in order to engage in the experience: an often-difficult task.

Deconstructing the Tourism Experience Construct

The essence of tourism is the experience (Tussyadiah, 2014) and destinations that want to remain competitive and survive in a competitive global economy must pay attention to it (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012; Maunier & Camelis, 2013). The exact components of the tourism experience have been the subject of debate (Kim & Ritchie, 2014). Earlier, Larsen (2007) put forward the proposition that a tourist's experience is an ambiguous social scientific construct consisting of the several social, cognitive, and personality processes. In light of the difficulty, destination managers are under increasing pressure to comprehend the components of the tourism experience construct for the effective positioning of their destinations (Bigne & Andreu, 2004; Gretzel,

Fesenmaier, Formica, & O'Leary, 2006). Destination managers/tourism marketers have to connect with tourists on a personal level in order to understand their experiences with the destination's products (Yu & Goulden, 2006). Experience in itself is subjective and varies with space and time (Zakrisson & Zillinger, 2012), hence the need to engage tourists at the individual level. Additionally, there is a growing demand for products that meet the specific wants and needs of tourists (Cetin & Bilgihan, 2016; Wong & Wan, 2013), requiring that individual experiences are studied.

Tourism is a combination of consumption experiences (Binkhorst & den Dekker, 2009; Nove-Sundbo & Hagedorn-Rasmussen, 2008), which is characterised by many interactions with the human and physical environments leading to satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Maunier & Camelis, 2013). One theory that has been useful in understanding consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with products is the expectancy-disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1980). This theory has however been questioned in tourism for being simplistic and missing the affective components and the role of emotions in building satisfaction (Del Bosque & San Martin, 2008; Maunier & Camelis, 2013).

Tourism consumption occurs within a cross-cultural context (Hartman, Meyer, & Scribner, 2009). This context affects what the tourist expects and what is experienced. This is because there is the tourist's own culture and the culture in which the experience occurs. Therefore, experiences are within a cultural lens, which includes culturally derived expectations for objects and behaviour prior to and during the experience (p. 261). This dimension to the tourist experience is important because according to Del Bosque and San Martin (2008) consumers, and for that matter tourists, process new consumption experiences

in terms of their own beliefs. This ties into what Volo (2009) terms the two facets of consumer experience: the phenomenological level, which deals with how fully aware the consumer is of what is happening and the cognitive level, which is the transformation and learning that occurs from the phenomenological level (Tsai, 2005).

The tourism experience concept embraces both the meta-concept (strategic value proposition) and an operational concept (orchestration of design elements). The meta-concept deals with core experiences, peripheral experiences and the storytelling experiences that tourists undertake for meaning generation. The operational concept on the other hand, consists of the entire tourism process from pre-trip to post-trip experiences (Tussyadiah, 2014, p. 559), which supports earlier assumptions by Murphy, Pritchard, and Smith (2000) that the tourism consumption experience is complex and involves several stages, which present their own moments of truths. The question, therefore, is what exactly is the tourism experience?

Recently, most studies on the experience of tourists have relied on the work of Pine and Gilmore (1999) that identified the 4Es: educational, escapist, esthetical, and entertainment (Ali, Hussain, & Ragavan, 2014; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013) as the components of the experience of tourists. These experiences can further be broken down into passive and active participation (Sheng & Chen, 2013; Pine & Gilmore, 1999) depending on whether the tourist is actively involved during the process or not. Some mainstream tourism researchers such as Aho (2001) have criticised the 4Es as not covering all the experiences sought for by tourists. The expansion of the 4Es by Chen, Petrick, and Shahvali (2016) and Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2012) have all concentrated on outcomes

and what can be observed, a view articulated by Gnoth and Matteucci (2014). These authors maintain that the tourism literature treats experiences as outcomes with the major concentration on observable behaviour, which includes motivation and satisfaction. This they see as a defect in measuring experiences. Accordingly, they are of the view that there is the need to understand first the process of experiencing in order to proceed to what experiences are. To this end, they defined experiencing as “the conflux of what is sensually perceived, how it is processed, and how it is retained in the resulting experience” (p. 4).

The tourism experience also occurs in stages: orientation, attachment, visiting, evaluation, storing, reflection, and enrichment. Larsen (2007) from a psychological point of view (though not discounting other viewpoints) noted that the tourism experience can be described using the German expressions of *Erlebnis* and *Erfahrung*. In the *Erlebnis*, what one is looking at is what an individual is involved with as at the moment of concern, while the *Erfahrung* deals with what the individual undertakes or goes through. His conclusion is that the tourist experience includes both. It starts from the planning stage, follows through actual participation and eventually remembrance of the experience afterwards (thus, there are expectations, events, and memories).

The 4Es are important since they could be the draw for the tourist to the destination (Mossberg, 2007; Ritchie & Hudson, 2009). However, they tend to shift the focus of the experience onto the destination and the tourism offerings, taking out the tourist who should be at the centre of the experience economy (Larsen, 2007; Norton & Pine II, 2009). The cognitive, affective, and conative outcomes, which are the properties of the components of the 4Es, are equally

important if one is to get a good idea of what tourists' experiences at destinations are. Tourist experiences are underpinned by intensified emotional states (Brunner-Sperdin, Peters, & Strobl, 2012; Hosany & Gilbert, 2010) that must be appreciated.

Emotional reactions to the tourism experience are fundamental determinants of post-consumption behaviours such as intention to recommend, attitude, judgements, and choice (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Kim & Fesenmaier, 2015). The emotional responses that consumers attach to a product and the environment are determined by contextual factors in which the experience occurred (Giese & Cote, 2000) and changes according to the environment (Finsterwalder & Laesser, 2013). Therefore, each context and environment has its own affective elements that remain unmeasured.

For tourism to properly engage the experiential paradigm as a basis for developing marketing strategies, there is the need to employ the experience concept in consumer and marketing research (Arnould, Price, & Zinkhan, 2002; Brakus, Schmitt, & Zhang, 2008). This calls for an examination of both the positive and negative experiences that are related to each niche, something that has this far been lacking in the tourism literature (Filep, Cao, Jiang, & DeLacy, 2013).

Tourists' Information Search Behaviour

Hospitality and tourism purchases are regarded as high-value purchases due to their intangible nature, the high-risk perception and insecurity associated with them (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008; Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). Most tourists purchase tour packages to destinations with a high-risk perception of

that decision (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Sharifpour, Walters, & Ritchie, 2014). Tourists associate risk with travel decisions because of differences in their culture and that of the host, fear and anger on the part of the host, personality of the tourist and the level of knowledge that a tourist has about a destination prior to the purchase decision (Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Therefore, in an effort to reduce the risk, uncertainty and insecurity associated with the unknown, tourists engage in a lot of pre-vacation information search (Lehto, Kim, & Morrison, 2006; Petrick, Li, & Park, 2007). The connexion between perceived risk and information search in relation to the tourism product have been studied in the tourism literature (Pan, & Fesenmaier, 2006). Adequate information about a product or destination is important in mitigating the risk that might be associated with it. Thus, tourists rely both on online and offline sources of information (Tan & Chen, 2012) for assurances about perceived travel risks. The search for information and the purchase intentions or decisions that follow are, however, influenced by how knowledgeable the tourist is concerning the destination (Dodd, Laverie, Wilcox, & Duhan, 2005; Klerck & Sweeney, 2007).

Tourism is an information-intense industry (Tan & Chen, 2012) and the products desired by tourists are difficult to observe before purchase (Senecal & Nantal, 2004). This means that the information that tourists have about a destination is very important for the destination's image (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). And within the context of travel planning and decision-making, independent non-institutionalised tourists who plan their trip on their own find readily available information on the destination very important (Schmallegger & Carson, 2008), although all other typologies of tourists (in terms of the trip

arrangement) are equally appreciative of the availability of information. That said, destination marketers, planners, and communication strategists are interested in the information seeking behaviour of tourists, especially external information search. Understanding the external information search behaviour of tourists has become very important because it helps destination marketers in coming out with tailor-made information in their communication strategies (Erawan, Krairit, & Khang, 2011).

The quality of the information put out by destination marketers is crucial to the success of the destination (Lehto, Kim, & Morrison, 2006). The quality of the information is in many ways shaped by the quality of information that destination marketers have on the information search behaviour of tourists. This invariably means that both tourists and destination marketers will gain if they become aware of what the other is searching for and what is required. Hyde (2006) share this view by proposing that an understanding of tourists' information search behaviour is consequential for any tourism service provider that aims to improve upon communication with tourists. Information search contributes significantly to travellers' behaviour and destination selection process (Carneiro & Crompton, 2010; Dey & Sarma, 2010; Tan & Chen, 2012).

The main function of travel information, as observed by Choi et al. (2012), is to support decision-making and product choice during the travel decision-making process. Additionally, Hyde (2008) avers that tourists' vacation planning and booking are to a certain extent a reflection of the breadth of pre-vacation information search that tourists have undertaken, although some novelty-seeking tourists may set aside entirely any prior information they have acquired before the trip while on vacation. The situation may not be peculiar to

novelty-seeking tourists, but to all other tourists since information search may be situational in nature and prior information about the destination may not reflect in day-to-day decisions at the destination. Information search, therefore, becomes the key to decisions concerning vacation choice and actually forms the basis for the final decision (Bronner & de Hoog, 2008). The information searched borders on issues of content and channels; that is, what to search for and where to search for it (Cai, Feng, & Breiter, 2004).

In the current information age, there are a number of information sources available to tourists on alternative destinations, cheaper travel, accommodation options, and choices in dining and retail shopping (Decrop & Snelders, 2005). However, most tourists' information search starts from internal sources (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004). This implies that tourists may seek for information that is internal (maybe because of a previous encounter with the destination or similar destination search). This is not the situation always as external sources may be consulted for entirely new information (Hyde, 2008; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2008). The need for information from the external environment could be because of the poor quality of existing internal information or inadequate internal knowledge of the product and unfamiliar decision-making situations (Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2012). Likewise, Gursoy and McCleary (2004) and Gursoy and Umbreit (2004) assert that insufficient and inadequate internal information may push tourists to look for external sources of information.

The sources of external information used by tourists can be categorised into two: destination specific external information sources and personal external information sources (family and friends, media, and travel consultants) (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004). Barber (2009) describes them as *marketing-dominated and*

non-marketing dominated. There is contrasting information, however, in the tourism literature as to which of the two sources tourists make use of most when looking for information for travel decision making. The tourism/marketing literature contends that most tourists will rely on what is stored in memory or from previous experiences if the destination is the same (Kerstetter & Cho, 2004). Previous experience may countess because previous travellers to a destination search for information on a previous destination just as first-time visitors do. This situation is expected, as Braun-LaTour, Grinley, and Lortia (2006) observed, because tourists' memories and knowledge structure of a destination is distorted by the quantum of word-of-mouth or advertising information the tourist is exposed to after the previous visit.

The sources of information used, situational variables and a particular product characteristics are not static, hence the need to look for new information from time to time. Buttressing the issues above, Bieger and Laesser (2004) found that intensity of information search varies on a continuum of pre-vacation information search where there was no decision taken, and post-vacation search where decisions have been made on the destination. In a situation where the tourist has decided on the destination, there is more reliance on informal information sources which is more trustworthy.

Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2011) examined tourist information search using tourists' travel planning typology. They found that tourist typology did affect the sources of information used. Institutionalised tourists used more formal external sources of information such as travel agencies and tourist brochures than non-institutionalised ones. Similarly, risk averse and risk prudent tourists used more formal sources of external information than those

who are not. Analogous to the above is a study by Hyde (2008) aimed at establishing the relationship between pre-vacation information search, vacation planning, and actual booking. He discovered contrasting pairings, which are important for a study that seeks to harness the information seeking behaviour of tourists for marketing purposes. According to him, there are four typologies of touring vacation: the first group is the novelty and spontaneity seeking. These people have low information search activities, low planning, and low bookings. The result is that these people do not consider information search as an important part of their trip. Decisions on particular destinations are probably by intuition and nothing else.

The second group are the high information-search group. The high information search that they engage in does result in planning and booking. The search is just to help them know what the destination has to offer. The third group is the high information search group who use the information gathered in planning but do not follow up with high bookings. This group deliberately leave some room for flexibility and hence do not book everything from the start. The final group are those who embark on high information search and use this information in high planning and high bookings. These people want the familiar and leave no avenue for uncertainty. These studies show that different tourists have different information needs and different outcomes for the information they seek.

A number of factors affect and influence tourists' information search behaviour (Gronflat, 2009). Luo, Feng, and Cai (2004) point to the fact that environmental and individual factors have some influence on consumer behaviour which includes information search. Specific to tourists' information

search, factors such as tourism motives, prior product knowledge, residency, family life cycle, involvement, the purpose of the trip, and financial constraints all influence the search behaviour (Cai, Feng, & Breiter, 2004; Carneiro & Crompton, 2010). Lehto, Kim, and Morrison (2006) found that prior experience and knowledge of a destination influenced both the content of search and the degree of search put in by a traveller, especially online information search while planning a trip. Their conclusion is that prior experience and knowledge lower the amount of time spent by tourists when searching for information.

The dynamics of the information seeking behaviour and the decisions that ensue are changing. Whereas the decision was formerly individual based, studies have shown that it is changing. Bronner and de Hoog (2008) and Jang, Lee, Lee, and Hong (2007) acknowledge that most tourists act in social groupings including families, relatives, and friends. Therefore, the decision to travel is not taken in isolation of others, as has been the thought by many academics for a long period of time (Decrop & Snelders, 2005). Particularly, the role of husbands and wives in the decision-making process has been the subject of academic and marketing studies for some time now. This shift has resulted in two approaches to studying tourists' information seeking behaviour: *individual and the social contexts* (Bronner & de Hoog, 2011).

Personal characteristics influence an individual's information search. Individual traits such as learning, motivation, and attitude all influence information seeking behaviour. Tourists' level of learning, in particular, has the greatest effect. This is evident in the strategies used in the information search. Each strategy is chosen to reflect the trade-off between cost and benefit of the particular information source (Luo, Feng, & Cai, 2004). Importantly, socio-

demographic characteristics of tourists influence their information search behaviour. Issues such as gender and marital status and how these affect information search behaviour have been studied (Okazaki & Hirose, 2009; Rankissoon & Nunkoo, 2012). Barber (2009) found that gender played an important role in information search behaviour with men less likely to look for information before making a purchase decision. Men make decisions based more on previous experience than actual knowledge of the product. Women, however, made their decisions on all available information rather than just on instincts. The debate has moved on with researchers looking at the gendered roles in the information search behaviour of tourists. Thus, gendered roles do affect how individuals make decisions and this assertion could be extended to information search behaviour. Kim, Lehto, and Morrison (2007) argue that decision-making and judgement among individuals have some elements of gender-specific traits, which may not necessarily be because one is a male or female but what roles one decides to perform.

There is the realisation that majority of the studies looking at tourist information search have focussed on decision-making before the trip; however, the decision to purchase items such as dining is made at the destination (Nishimura, King, & Waryszak, 2007). Apart from Choi et al., (2012) who looked at the multifaceted hierarchical process of travel decision-making information search to include onsite information search, most studies have only focussed on the decisions, and the information search made before the tourist leaves for the destination. Situations on the ground call for different information in what Barber (2009) termed situational experiences or factors.

On the contrary, Jeong (2014) and Andreu, Kozak, Avci, and Cifter (2005) mention that the works of Plog (1974), Dann (1977) and Pearce (1993) are the major contributors to the study of tourist motivation. Plog (1974) matched peoples' personality types to motivation. He identified two types of tourists on a continuum (although there may be some combinations of both types on the scale): allocentric (active) and psychocentric (passive). The allocentrics are people who seek novelty and non-touristy activities; hence, they are drawn to the unknown. The psychocentrics, on the other hand, seek the familiar and touristy. Their motivation is to travel to places that they are familiar with or would otherwise stick to the familiar. They do not take risks.

Dann (1977) identified two distinct reasons why people travel. These are anomie (feeling of isolation from routines of daily life to become social interactive) and ego-enhancement (self-recognition). To him, the anomie is a socially motivated reason to travel whereas the ego-enhancement has to do with personality needs of recognition among others. Although Pearce (1993) work has been criticised by tourism researchers, aspects of that work are relevant to the understanding of tourist motivation. It is argued that Pearce's (1993) study helped tourism academics to understand that tourists' motivations are dynamic and not static and that they change according to socio-demographic variables (Andreu, Kozak, Avci, & Cifter, 2005).

Most studies on tourist motivation are around the issue of push and pull factors (Meng, Tepanon, & Uysal, 2008). Lam and Hsu (2006) affirm that the underlying force of the pull and push model is to break individuals' choice of a destination into two forces. Push factors relate to the needs and wants of tourists that lead to the decision to travel. The pull factors are the drawing power of the

destination that pull people to it (Sunı & Komppula, 2012; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Therefore, motivation is the force behind an individual's actions (Nicolau & Mas, 2006). Kim and Ritchie (2012) propose that motivation is the inner psychological motives that push an individual to act when there is a state of discomfort or disequilibrium and there is the need to return to a state of comfort or equilibrium. In addition, it is the initial driving force behind behaviour (Huang & Hsu, 2009).

General factors responsible for tourist motivation to travel exist. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that the motivations for the different segments of the tourism market should be looked at separately (Jeong, 2014). An understanding of the motivation for special interest tourism such as food tourism, marine tourism, health or wellness tourism and festival tourism is required. According to Kim and Ritchie (2012), these distinctive studies are needed in order to properly segment tourists into mutually exclusive groups: a very important requirement for "developing marketing and managerial strategies" (p. 252).

In wine tourism and cycling tourism, people are motivated by social (to have friendship and interpersonal relationship), relaxation (to escape, search), intellectual (to learn, experience, and discover) and competency-mastery (compete, to achieve, challenge and master) (Brown & Getz, 2005; Ritchie, Tkaczynski, & Faulks, 2010). These motivations are at the heart of most tourism endeavours (Voigt, Brown, & Howat, 2011) and, according to Pearce and Lee (2005), are the backbone of tourist motivation. In the area of food tourism, Kim and Eves (2012) developed and tested a scale to measure tourist motivation for consuming local food. They found that cultural experience, interpersonal

relation, excitement, sensory appeal, and health concerns were the motivation for consuming local food among tourists.

In festival tourism, Meng, Tepanon, and Uysal (2008) identified four motivation factors: activities for seeing and doing, relaxation/familiarity, family/friend togetherness and novelty/romance. In volunteer tourism, Lo and Lee (2011), Ooi and Laing (2010) and Brown (2005) found motivational factors that are different from conventional tourism motivation. Contacts with local people, altruism, career development, travel, personal development are popular with volunteer tourists (McIntosh & Zahra, 2007; Soderman & Snead, 2008). Grimm and Needham (2012) used a different approach apart from the individual variables in volunteer tourism and found that pull factors such as project variety, project mission, safety and price at the destination motivated volunteers. In the context of wellness tourism, Voigt, Brown, and Howat (2011) found motivations that were unique to tourists found in that segment. Some included transcendence, physical health and appearance, restabilising self-esteem and indulgence. Rinaldi, Sanders, and Sibson (2013) also found that motivation for attendance at Australian Football Leagues by interstate sports tourists varied somewhat from the generic tourism motivations. The motivations for travelling to watch these matches were an achievement, escapism, social interaction, and drama.

Another area that is worth exploring is how cultural backgrounds influence travel motivations. Studies conducted in the field of tourism have noted that tourists from different cultural backgrounds or nationalities have different motivations to travel to the same destination (Kozak, 2002; Seddighi, Nuttall, & Theocharous, 2001). Kim and Prideaux (2006) in a study on the

motivational differences among tourists from five different countries visiting Korea found a significant difference among the five national groups surveyed. For instance, on the dimension of culture and history, Japanese tourists were the least motivated by culture and history in comparison to Americans, Chinese, and Australian who were more likely to be motivated by culture and history.

In another demonstration of motivations varying by cultural background of tourists, Li and Cai (2012) used shared values as an element of culture to look at the differences in motivation among Chinese outbound tourists. They found that value is a determinant of behaviour and those values had a direct relationship on travel behaviour. Values on the other hand also affect travel motivation. Thus, Chinese tourists will travel to places that share similar values with them and respect for nature in general (Pearce, Wu, & Osmond, 2013). From the examples given above, it is clear that tourists' culture significantly influences motivation, which adds to the debate that generic tourists' motivations do not hold for all segments of the tourism market. The models and theories captured in Table 1 although are generic provide a summary of the various models and theories that have been put forward by different authors to explain the factors that underline tourists' motivation to act in different research contexts.

Table 1: Some Main Tourists' Motivation Models/Theories

Research approach	Model or Theory	Propositions	Author(s) and year
Psychographic	Plog's psychocentric-allocentrism model	Tourists' travel patterns and preferences are determined by their personality characteristics. As a result, a personality scale may help to explain why destinations rise and fall in popularity.	Plog (1974, 1987, 2001)
Socio-psychological	Seeking and escaping	Any leisure activity consists of seeking and escaping. These two motivational forces are affected by personal and interpersonal factors.	Iso-Ahola (1980, 1982); Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987)
	Travel career theory	The travel career ladder describes travel motivation at five hierarchical levels of needs and motives. A travel career pattern emphasises the pattern of motivations and their structure rather than steps on a ladder or hierarchy.	Pearce (1993, 2011b); Pearce and Lee (2005)
Sociological	Functional theory	The reasons people undertake leisure travel is that the vacation serves (satisfies) to meet psychological functions (needs) for an individual.	Fodness (1994)

Push and pull theory

People travel because they are pushed and pulled to do so. Pull factors are the specific attractions of the destination, which induce the traveller to go there once the prior decision to travel has been made.

Dann (1977, 1981);
Crompton (1979)

Push factors are internally generated drives that cause the tourist to search for signs of objects, situations and events that contain the promise of reducing prevalent drives.

Expectancy theory of travel
motivation

There is a variety of different reasons for travel and these reasons vary widely between people. The strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectancy that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome) and on the value or attractiveness of that consequence or outcome to the actor.

Witt and Wright (1992)

Source: Adopted from Jiang, Scott, Ding, 2015, p. 89

Theoretical Foundations of Grounded Theory

A purist in grounded theory will argue that a review of theories prior to data collection will cloud the researcher's mind to emerging theories from the field. It is, however, not out place if one considers some theories that support a field of study including some theoretical assumptions of grounded theory itself. Symbolic interactionism and social constructivism are fundamental to understanding how grounded theory works. Therefore, the following theories were reviewed not necessarily as a guide upon which to build the study but to aid in the understanding of some issues that relate to grounded theory studies.

Symbolic Interactionism

Mead (1934) is credited with the symbolic interactionism theory. The concept of symbolic interactionism is the assumption that an individual's behaviour premeditates his or her interaction with society in general and particular reference groups (Leigh & Gabel, 1992). According to Kronick and Thomas (2008), the crux of the theory is "behaviour is self-directed, that symbolic meanings are central, and that people are social animals" (p. 117). Therefore, how individuals relate to objects is a result of the meanings that society or important reference groups have for those objects. In this case, how people interpret and define actions and objects emerge from the symbolic meanings assigned to them by society (Cockerham, 2005).

Again, an individual's behaviour is the result of his/her interaction with the environment (person-environment). The context within which that happens influences behaviour and affects how people define the situation (Kronick & Thomas, 2008). Therefore, although an individual's behaviour is relative to that

of the social group or society, the individual is, however, at the centre of behaviour, which is situational in context. Wagner (2007, p. 128) has this to say about theorising within symbolic interactionism:

The content of an actor's perception is central to understanding his or her behaviour. Since the content of each actor's perception is likely to be different, the focus of theorising is on understanding the unique reasons for that particular actor's thoughts and actions in that particular situation.

In the context of consumer behaviour, the observation is that consumers sometimes buy products not because of the functional attributes of the product but on what the product means to them or other acquaintances. If this assumption is extended to local food consumption, one can say that for many international tourists, the consumption of local food goes beyond just satisfying a biological or physiological need. Therefore, in order to understand the reasons behind the actions of a cultural tourist, one would have to understand how a cultural tourist perceives local culture and local food in order to understand his/her actions. Muller and Schade (2012) extend the argument by verifying that places and for that matter, products have images (symbols) that can influence the behaviour of potential target groups. The image of the product is, however, not a constant but "a variable entity that arises out of the social interaction that one has with others and the society" (p. 84).

In the area of product marketing, what this means is that the unique attributes and meaningful benefits of a product could appeal to a certain group of people. Being so, destination-marketing organisations will have to determine

the unique attributes and benefits that a product offers and position it in the hearts and minds of the target group. The concept of product positioning seeks to place a product in a certain position in the minds of prospective buyers (Ostaseviciute & Sliburyte, 2008). It is a deliberate effort by marketers to put a product in a distinctive and desirable place in the minds of prospective customers in relation to competing products (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006). Thus, harnessing and marketing the symbolic meanings of a product by applying carefully designed elements of the marketing mix (Leigh & Gabel, 1992) must be the focus of destination marketers.

Critique of Symbolic Interactionism

Like any other theory, symbolic interactionism is also beleaguered with many criticisms. One of them is that although the theory seeks to put societal reference at the heart of the peoples' interpretation and meanings they give to happenings around them, the theory does not really look at society as being at the heart of behaviour (Aksan, Kisac, Aydin, & Demirbukan, 2009). In other words, the description of society as a thing in the mind of individuals and not an embodiment of attributes and norms leaves the theory lacking a societal picture (Slattery, 2007).

The theory has also been criticised for its American lineage. The theory places emphasis on how the individual constructs the world around him/her, which portrays the freedom of the individual and a limited role of society (Udehn, 2001). It is also criticised for not taking account of human emotions and its interest in social structure is half-hearted. According to Slattery (2007), the theory is neither categorically psychological nor sociological. Another area

of concern for critics of the theory lies in the area of the meanings that individuals give to situations. According to the theory of symbolic interactionism, meanings emerge by themselves during interaction under certain conditions. However, the social context in which the interaction takes place is completely ignored (Aksan, Kisac, Aydin, & Demirbukan, 2009). Therefore, the source of the meaning is not taken into account, which again goes back to the diminished role played by society as elucidated earlier. What this means is that although it is argued that individuals construct meanings of their world based on societal constructions, it does not look at a social reality beyond what individuals create thereby eliminating the explanations given by society.

Social Constructionism

The social construction theory, according to Gergen and Gergen (2008) traces the origin of knowledge, meaning, and understanding to human relationship as opposed to constructivism, which views processes inherent in the human mind as the origin of people's constructions of the world. The work of Berger and Luckmann: *The Social Construction of Reality* (1966) is the burgeoning work in the area. Gergen and Gergen (2008, p. 5) in the social origins of knowledge state that:

.....what we take to be knowledge of the world and self finds its origins in human relationships. What we take to be true as opposed to false, objective as opposed to subjective, scientific as opposed to mythological, rational as opposed to irrational, moral as opposed to

immoral is brought into being through historically and culturally situated social processes.

An insight into the above is to say that what people actually construct of the world is because of the social processes that surround them. According to Andrews (2012), social constructionists see knowledge as being constructed and not created. Consequently, what people associate with are the processes that surround them but not what has been created. In other words, as Schwandt (2003) avers, knowledge and truth are created and not discovered; meaning, what is knowledge and truth is a result of the constructions that people make of the world around them and not the creations of their mind.

Thus, individuals in everyday life experience socially defined reality. These experiences are subjective, which connotes a relativist idea rather a realist one of how one understands the world (Berger & Luckmann, 1991). Therefore, knowledge is constructed by an individual's interaction within society. People have multiple and plural meanings of and about the same thing which can be constructed from different perspectives. In doing so, people may adopt differently constructed meanings depending on the particular contextual situations or inter-subjectivity setting (Wang, 1999). For instance, what constitutes food in one culture may be different in another. Mention can be made of the frog. We all may agree that it is an amphibian. However, the place of frog in the diet of people will surely divide opinions. All these issues of subjectivity and relativism are important in exploring peoples' experiences with food.

Acceptance of another culture's way of life including the food they eat are all issues of relativism, but what an individual actually experiences is based on the individual's explanation of the phenomenon. The researcher in

constructivist paradigm recognises the multiplicity of social realities, which are constructed by individuals separately. The researcher, therefore, brings all the individual constructions of reality into one component of the interviewees' "socially constructed meanings" of the phenomenon under study.

Critique of Social Constructionism

Most of the criticisms of social constructionism centre on the core issues of realism and relativism (Andrews, 2012). The theory is criticised for being anti-realist in that it opposes the idea that knowledge is a direct discernment of reality. In research, there is a palpable tension between realism and relativism (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). The argument put across is that researchers construct a social world rather than an independent construction of reality, which raises the question of realism and relativism. According to Andrews (2012), realism and relativism are two sides of a continuum, which can be problematic for the researcher. By adopting a realist approach, the researcher ignores the way interpretations are arrived at from the findings of a research and assumes that what is reported is the truth and a concise representation of knowledge and reality. On the other hand, if a researcher adopts a relativist approach the assumption is that nothing new can be added to knowledge and the world is made up of multiple realities with none having precedence over the other in relation to claims of truth about a social phenomenon.

Hammersley (2000) argues that neither position should be encouraged, rather, researchers should adopt a mid-view, subtle realism where there is the acceptance of independent reality. Independent reality is an acceptance that the world exists outside our perception of it. However, there is the denial of access

to it. The researcher gives a representation of it rather than a reproduction of that reality. What this means is that the researcher only gives his/her perception of what exists. This results in reflexivity, which is the acceptance of the fact that researchers directly influence the research process. Andrews (2012) is, however, of the opinion that these arguments about realism and relativism can be avoided in relation to social constructionism if only one looks at the foundation of the theory. The proponents were looking at how knowledge is constructed and understood (epistemology) rather than ontology, which is the nature of being.

Chapter Summary

This Chapter focused on conceptual and theoretical issues that are relevant to the study. The main issues addressed were the experiential paradigm, and how the tourism experience construct should be looked at and tourists' information search behaviour. Discussions under the information search behaviour focussed on the sources of information used when it comes to decision-making. Travel motivation and tourist behaviour were also discussed. Discussions under this topic were related to the motivations of tourists in the mainstream tourism field and special interest tourists. The final section shed some light on some theoretical underpinnings of grounded theory studies. These were the theories of symbolic interactionism and social constructionism.

CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY SETTING AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The chapter begins with a description of the selected sites for the study. This is followed by a discussion of the methods used for the study. These include research design, sampling technique, and procedure and data analysis. The research design throws light on grounded theory as an approach to qualitative inquiry and its suitability for the current study. Also discussed is the data for the study and their sources. Sampling technique and procedure as used in this study are also discussed. Data analysis and ethical issues are treated in the final section of the chapter.

Study Setting

Accra, Cape Coast, and Kumasi receive a significant number of tourists who visit Ghana in terms of both value and volume (Akyeampong, 2007; Boakye, 2010). The National Tourism Development Plan further buttresses these findings (2013-2027, p. xii). The Plan states that:

The structure plan for tourism within Ghana is based on the triangle of resources formed by Accra (as the principal arrival point and capital), Kumasi, and Cape Coast/Elmina/Kakum.

Per Ghana's tourism offerings, the Cape Coast/Elmina/Kakum area attracts significant numbers of tourists. This study, therefore, was carried out in Cape Coast, one of the points on the triangle of tourism resources in Ghana. Cape

Coast/Elmina was selected as the study area over other areas in Ghana because it is the leading tourist destination in terms of visitation by tourists to Ghana (Amuquandoh & Asafo-Adjei, 2013; Amuquandoh, 2011). Additionally, records at the Ghana Museums and Monuments Board (GMMB, 2011) show that the Cape Coast/Elmina Castles receive the highest number of international student tourists in Ghana. This meant that the probability of an encounter with the majority of tourists visiting Ghana at Cape Coast was high.

Using particular spots at a destination or country as a study setting rather than canvassing for respondents throughout a destination or country is not new in hospitality/tourism research. Sengel, Karagoz, Cetin, Dincer, Ertugral, and Balik (2015) for instance, contacted tourists who were in the old city of Istanbul, a popular tourist destination in Turkey instead of going through all the major tourist destinations in Turkey while studying how international tourists approached local food in Turkey. In Ghana, Amuquandoh and Asafo Adjei (2013) also adopted a similar approach when looking at the traditional food preferences of international tourists in Ghana. They administered questionnaires to tourists at the departure hall of the Kotoka International Airport, the main port of entry and departure in Ghana instead of moving from one point to the other in Ghana. This approach is suitable especially for issues relating to the entire destination and not a specific area at the destination. It also helps in reducing the incidence of double sampling, where the same tourists are contacted twice. Figure 1 below is the map of Cape Coast/Elmina Area.

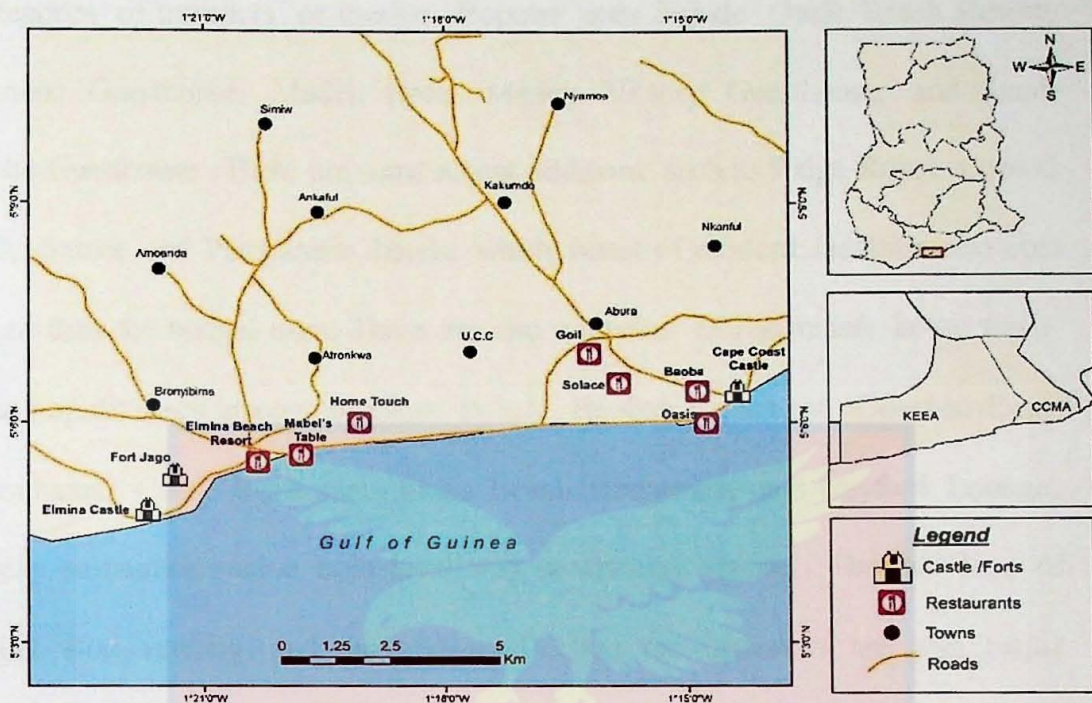


Figure 1: Map of the Cape Coast/Elmina Area

Source: Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC, 2016

Cape Coast

Cape Coast is the capital of the Central Region of Ghana. It is about 144 kilometres away from Accra, the capital city of Ghana. Cape Coast is renowned for education as it has some of the very best senior high schools in Ghana and the University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast Technical University, OLA College of Education, and the Ankaful Nurses Training College. The 2010 population and housing census revealed an economic activity base for the town that is skewed towards the services and sales sector (32.5 %) followed by craftwork and related trade (23.6 %), professionals (13.2 %). Only 6.8 percent of the people in Cape Coast were engaged in agriculture and fishery, which have been the mainstay of the indigenes of the town (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010).

Cape Coast has accommodation establishments that support all categories of travellers or tourists. Popular ones include Oasis Beach Resort, Sammo Guesthouse, Mudek Hotel, Mighty Victory Guesthouse, and Sarah Lotte Guesthouse. There are some recent additions such as Ridge Royal, Capital Hill, Samrit and Pempamsie hotels, which boast of modern facilities and cost more than the budget ones. There are also a number of restaurants in the town. The popular ones among travellers include Baobab Restaurant, Coast-to-Coast Restaurant, Castle Restaurant, Oasis Beach Restaurant, and Hayford Lounge. These restaurants serve both local and continental cuisine. The activities of street food vending and the traditional chop bar operators are also major components of the local foodservice industry.

Historically, Cape Coast was the capital of the Gold Coast (now Ghana) until 1877 when it was moved to Accra by the British colonial power. The Portuguese are credited with being the first Europeans to set foot on the shores of Cape Coast in 1555 but they did not leave any marks to demonstrate their contact with locals until the Swedes arrived and built Fort Carolusburg in 1652 (Amaquandoh & Brown, 2008). The unique resource of Cape Coast is the former slave castle designated a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) world heritage site which has made Cape Coast the hub of tourism in Ghana (Boakye, 2010). The close proximity of Cape Coast to Elmina, another destination linked to the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, means that the bulk of heritage/historical (roots) tourism travellers to Ghana converge at the Cape Coast-Elmina area. The Kakum National Park, an eco-tourist haven in Ghana is about 30 kilometres away providing tourists with a mix of attractions to include on their itinerary.

Elmina

Elmina or *Edina* as the natives call it is also in the Central Region of Ghana and about 6 kilometres west of Cape Coast. The predominant occupation of the people is fishing, although some farming activities also go on there. Elmina has a number of high-end accommodation for travellers. These include Elmina Beach Resort, Coconut Grove Resort, and Elmina Bay Resort. These hotels also have upscale restaurants that serve both local and continental dishes. Just like any other town in Ghana, Elmina also has a vibrant street food sector and the local *chop bars* to take care of the gastronomic needs of both locals and travellers alike.

The allure of Elmina to tourists is the rich historical artefacts and its past. The first encounter of any European with the coast of West Africa took place at Elmina. This was after the successful landing of Don Diego d' Azambuja and his crew in 1471. They named the place La Mina because of the mineral wealth that they found in the area. However, actual settlement and building of a trading post did not take place until 1482 due to resistance from the locals (Lawrence, 1963). The result of the trading post is the St. George's Castle now known as the Elmina Castle. It is the oldest surviving castle outside Europe (Yankholmes, 2013). The St. George's Castle is not the only thing that draws tourists to the area. Fort St Jago and the Old Dutch cemetery are all attractions. The Elmina Castle and Fort St Jago are designated UNESCO world heritage sites. These three attractions and the local fishing industry attract both tourists and academics to the area.

Research Paradigm

The study is situated within the constructivist paradigm of social science research. It operates on the assumptions that knowledge of social reality is subjectively constructed, socially and culturally variable, and ideologically conscious (Marvasti, 2004). Consequently, what people know of reality is based on their own interpretations of it and that their backgrounds influence interpretation, which may be shaped by cultural and social issues in time and moments and their worldviews. These meanings are “varied and multiple leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into few categories or ideas” (Creswell, 2008, p. 8). There is, therefore, the need to integrate this changing world and how people’s lives and experiences are constructed (Frost, 2011) in order to make any meaningful deductions of human behaviour. Since people seek after meanings of social reality after the event, it also calls for a retrospective analysis of past events if any meanings can be made out of human behaviour.

The study explored the experiences of international tourists in relation to local food at destination Ghana. Precisely, the study sought to understand their information search experiences, purchase experiences and core consumption experiences in a culture different from theirs as well as the contextual factors that shape these experiences. It implies a construction of their experiences based on what they already know in a different context, hence multiple realities. This makes the constructivist paradigm suitable for this study. The constructivist paradigm is ontologically relativist and assumes that “multiple realities exist and those realities are socio-psychological constructions forming an interconnected whole” (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, p. 11). Brian

(2008) further notes that the central purpose of a constructivist paradigm study is an understanding of a phenomenon where “the whole is greater than the sum of the parts and where the sum of the parts does not entirely capture the whole (p. 14). In effect, the entire experience of international tourists in relation to Ghanaian cuisine would have to be understood in a context that is greater than the individual experiences that occur as they journey through destination Ghana and in consuming local foods.

Research Methodology

Qualitative research allows for manipulation of the research design during the course of the research since most of the strategies and techniques used should emerge from the field (Charmaz, 2006; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2010). This, however, does not mean that qualitative researchers start their work without a research design in mind. Creswell (2008) sees research design as “the intersection of philosophy, strategies of inquiry, and specific methods (p. 5)”. It illustrates the specific procedures involved in the research process: data collection, analysis and report writing (Creswell, 2012). Hence, research designs are important in every research work as it provides the basis for assessing the reliability and validity of the data, findings, and the conclusions that are drawn.

Qualitative research was employed for this study because it provided a flexible alternative when the goal, as it was in this research, was to develop an understanding of real-world events and to generate a theory (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Additionally, in studying food experiences, an individual's

subjective views are important and central in explaining that individual's behaviour (Mahr, Kalogeras, & Odekerken-Schroder, 2013). Loewenstein, Downs, and Wisdom (2009) also postulate that taste is subjective and quality assessment is contextual at best. As such, there are many aspects of tourists' experiences with local cuisine at the destination that cannot be divided accurately into distinct variables (Brown, Stevens, Troiano, & Schneider, 2002). Therefore, a qualitative method is suitable for illuminating the complex phenomenon of international tourist's experiences with Ghanaian foods.

Experiences are subjective and a reflection of the lived-world of an individual, and therefore can be understood in the context of the lived-world of that individual (Husserl, 1936). The subjective nature of these experiences means that they can only be retrieved through reflexion (Finlay, 2011; Smith, 2007) hence, a subjective description. Through a description and interpretation of the phenomenon, the researcher reduces all the individual experiences into a collective whole by looking at the essences in those experiences within the cultural, social, and political backgrounds of the participants (Lauckner, Paterson, & Krupa, 2012). The expectation is that international tourists back at the originating countries experience food purchases, the purchase environment, taste and other attributes of the food within a socially and culturally constructed space. Hence, it is easy for them to form an opinion on what to expect.

This, however, changes when they travel to new environments, which are culturally, socially, and politically different. They would need to juxtapose their experiences in this new environment with previously constructed meanings in order to construct a new reality of their new environment. Therefore, looking for food, finding it, tasting it all become new to the tourist

and all these will connote a different experience of their lived lives as tourists in a new environment.

Research Design

The design employed to assess international tourists' experiences with Ghanaian dishes was grounded theory. The aim of grounded theory is to generate a substantive theory of the phenomenon under investigation. The theory is substantive because it is relevant to the area in which the data was collected, hence contextual and modifiable rather than a formal theory that is less specific to an area and generic in nature. The overriding reason for employing grounded theory for this study was that available works on tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine (Adongo, Anuga, & Dayour, 2015; Amenumey, Dayour, & Adongo, 2015; Amuquandoh & Asafo-Adjei, 2013) relied on quantitative methods thereby missing key insights into tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine. A critique for using positivist approaches for studying people's lived experiences is that it often distances construction of reality from human cognition, time, and place (Marvasti, 2004). The grounded theory design, as employed in this study, helped to explain the basic social problems and processes associated with the search and consumption of Ghanaian cuisine.

Grounded theory is both the research product and the analytical method of producing it (Charmaz, 2008). This approach is useful in studies that seek to understand how a complex phenomenon occurs within the context in which it occurred (Creswell, 2007) such as tourists' information search behaviour and consumption experiences in relation to Ghanaian foods. A key assumption of

grounded theory is that theory must emanate from data collected in the field and not on any *a priori* knowledge or theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Hence, one could look at grounded theory as an inductive method based on concepts generated from the field and on processes that are ongoing in the field of study (Giske & Artinian, 2007). Creswell (2012) explains the above as follows:

Because a theory is “grounded” in the data, it provides a better explanation than a theory borrowed “off the shelf,” because it fits the situation, actually works in practice, is sensitive to individuals in a setting, and may represent all of the complexities actually found in the process (p. 423).

Figure 2 is grounded theory tree of knowledge, which highlights the various views that have shaped grounded theory as a qualitative research design.

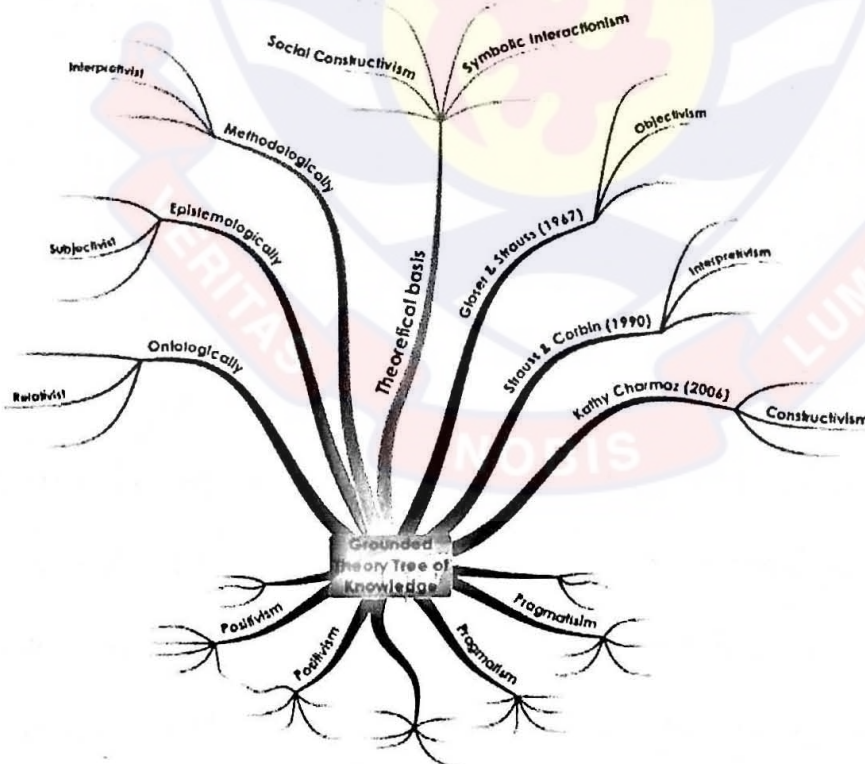


Figure 2: Grounded Theory Tree of Knowledge

Source: Gardner, Fedoruk, and McCutcheon, 2012

Consequently, grounded theory is “a set of techniques for generating new theory grounded in the field or emerging from the data” (Glaser, 2010, p 1). It equips the researcher with a set of principles and procedures for conducting and analysing qualitative data (Ng & Hase, 2008). These principles and procedures can be employed fully or partially depending on the needs of the researcher and the phenomenon under investigation (Glaser, 2010).

A number of sub-designs have emerged in grounded theory. Key among them is the systematic design. The systematic design, as the name implies, underscores the need for the researcher to follow a well-defined set of steps in order to arrive at the final theory. These steps are open coding, axial and selective coding, and the development of a logic paradigm (a diagram) of the theory generated. This design follows the exact directions given by the proponents of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (1967). Again, under the systematic approach, the researcher has no role to play in the sense that no prior knowledge or experience can be brought to bear on the theory generation process (Finlay, 2011) and for this reason, the systematic approach is seen as an objectivist paradigm (Gardner, Fedoruk, & McCutcheon, 2012).

There is also the emergent design. The emergent design is a critique of the over-reliance on rules and procedures in the systematic design. Glaser (1992) notes that theory must emerge from the data, as the aim of grounded theory is for the researcher to explain a social process and therefore the steps followed is of no consequence or should not be the focus of the research. The focus of grounded theory is to connect categories to an emerging theory and not just to describe the categories (Creswell, 2012); which means that the researcher will have to interpret the categories that are emerging in order to arrive at a

theory. By doing so, the emergent approach assumes an interpretive paradigm to data analysis and theory building (Gardner, Fedoruk, & McCutcheon, 2012) rather than a descriptive analysis. There is also the constructivist design as proposed by Charmaz (2000, 2004, & 2006).

The works of Charmaz (2000, 2004, & 2005) form the bedrock of the constructivist design in grounded theory. These works revolutionised grounded theory by proposing and implementing a constructivist design different from the objectivist and rudimental views of the founders of the methodology. The constructivist grounded theory design introduced some form of flexibility to grounded theory (Creswell, 2008). Charmaz (2006) states that “research participants’ implicit meanings, experiential views and researchers’ finished grounded theories are [their] constructions of reality” (p. 10). Thus, the theory arrived at is made up of the research participants and the researcher’s construction of reality.

Lincoln and Guba (2000; p. 166) point out that the researcher’s role in a constructivist grounded theory is that of an active “passionate participant.” Mills, Bonner, and Francis (2006) assert that this repositioning of grounded theory from a rudimentary list of steps to follow to a constructivist design makes it contemplative of the study context and the participants involved. Expanding this further, the constructivist design, although it does not seek to discount the fundamental basis of grounded theory, proposes the idea that individual situations are different but are constructed within a broader framework which is contextually positioned within a certain time, place and culture (Charmaz, 2006) and must, therefore, be looked at on that basis. By doing so, the researcher

captures and analyses the relationships that exist between participants' views and their stories.

According to Gardner, Fedoruk, and McCutcheon (2012), the constructivist design allows for researcher reflexivity in such a way that the theory that is constructed is a combination of the narratives of the research participants and the researcher's views. Thus, the researcher becomes a participant in the research process who brings his/her constructions of reality to bear on the research. This is different from the original grounded theory approach, which was more objectivist and rooted in a positivist paradigm (Frost, 2011) with no role for the researcher's views and experiences. By assuming researcher reflexivity, the researcher's interpretation and analysis of data lead to an understanding of the social phenomenon and not just an explanation of participants' narratives (Charmez, 2006). The constructivist design, which allows for the use of both the systematic and emergent designs as well as research flexibility, was used for the study. Thus, the systematic and emergent designs influenced how data was analysed and the constructivist design shaped how the substantive theory was developed. This approach is highly recommended since Strauss and Corbin (1998) warned against rigorously following a set of procedures when it comes to grounded theory.

Pluralism in qualitative research is an acceptable approach to either employing one or more methods, data sources, theories or models in the same qualitative research (Clarke, Willis, Barnes, Caddick, Cromby, McDermot & Wiltshire, 2015). Analytic pluralism holds that different forms of knowledge can be produced if different designs were used in analysing data (Frost, Holt, Shinebourne, Esin, Nolas, Mehdizadel, & Brooks-Gordon, 2011). Analytic

pluralism ensures that a deeper understanding of a phenomenon is generated leading to the avoidance of reductionism (Clarke et al., 2015; Kincheloe, 2005; Kincheloe & Berry, 2004) which the researcher aimed to avoid from the onset of the research.

The pluralistic approach to research design in this study was important because, in order to extract the experiences of tourists from the field data, there was the need to follow some steps, which of course did not obscure the meanings that participants in the study attached to their experiences. In addition, the experiences of tourists were not reduced to memos, themes and categories thereby missing much of what were actually said. This would have defeated the initial aim of grounded theory; “theory must emerge from data.” Again, the reflexivity of the researcher could not be taken out of the theory building process (Bryant & Charmz, 2007; Charmaz, 2006; Frost, 2011), hence the application of the emergent design.

Theory Building in Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is a process whereby the researcher inductively develops a theory from a data set that the theory relates to (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). That is, the theory developed at the end of grounded theory approach is based on the data that was collected to study a phenomenon that the substantive theory explains. Unlike formal theories that may be applicable across a range of situations, for example, some of the major motivation theories (hierarchy of needs, drive reduction theory and arousal theory), substantive theories generalise about the area of study (Charmaz, 2006; Glor, 2008), for instance, motivation to consume local food. It does not aim to generalise outside the

immediate field of study. The theory is substantive because it relates only to the area for which it was collected (Garrod, 2008, 2009; Goulding, 2002).

In building a theory grounded in data, the researcher moves between the generation of categories based on a unit of data (induction) and comparing those categories with other categories generated in other units of data (deduction) within the entire data set. Induction and deduction are therefore important to grounded theory (Garrod, 2009, 2008; Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Goulding, 2002; Thomas, 2006). Most fundamentalists of research paradigms often state that the grounded theory approach is only induction (Suddaby, 2006). That is not the case however as one would have to move from an inductive analysis of one unit of data and through the process of constant comparative analysis to making deductions about other units of the data set. Thus, the researcher made an inductive analysis of a unit of data, based on the outcome, and through constant comparative analysis in grounded theory, made a deduction based on what other units of data were saying about the research question. Strauss and Corbin (1998, p. 22) note that “at the heart of theorising is the interplay of making inductions (deriving concepts, their properties, and dimensions from data) and deductions (hypothesizing about the relationships between concepts, the relationships also are derived from data, but data that have been abstracted by the analyst from the raw data).”

As the researcher moves between induction and deduction, new ideas emerge. This is termed abduction. It is a process of forming an “explanatory hypothesis” (Suddaby, 2006, p. 639). It is an “imaginative leap to the [substantive] theory without having completely empirically demonstrated all the required steps” (Ezzy, 2002, p. 14). If the imaginative leap is confirmed through

induction and deduction, they become “plausible relationships proposed among concepts and sets of concepts” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 168). The central categories for the research questions were derived using this approach. They were imaginative leaps, which are traceable back to the data that the researcher dealt with. Corbin and Strauss (1998) explain the misconceptions on grounded theory being an inductive approach:

[It] stems from a misreading of *The Discovery of Grounded Theory* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967)...those authors emphasised induction because of their attack on ungrounded speculative theories. The desire was to focus readers' attention on the inestimable value of grounding theories in systematic analyses of data (p. 294).

Therefore, a grounded theorist engages in inductive, deductive, and abductive analyses to arrive at the final substantive theory; a storyline that is traceable in the data. This gives a clearer explanation of what it is to construct a grounded theory different from the often-held view that grounded theory is just an inductive approach.

Target Population

The target population for this study was international tourists visiting Ghana during the time of the study (August-December, 2015) and who had consumed a Ghanaian dish going through information search and visiting either a formal or an informal foodservice establishment in Ghana. In Boakye's (2010) estimation, tourists visiting Ghana average 14 days of stay. This means that, at

least, the researcher encountered two sets of international tourists in a month, with potential new experiences with Ghanaian dishes. The completed length of stay of the tourists sampled for the study ranged from 5 days to 11 months. The expected length of stay ranged from 7 days to 12 months, which qualified all the interviewees as tourists using the length of stay as the first criterion for selection. In terms of Ghanaian dishes consumption, it was observed during the fieldwork that length of stay did not matter much as most of the tourists ate Ghanaian dishes the first day they arrived in the country. In addition, a look at the purpose of visit and the places visited column of Appendix A (p. 298) reveals that all the mix of tourists that Ghana attracts were interviewed for this study. It is important, however, to state that since qualitative research is not about the representativeness of a population but about those within the population who had experienced a phenomenon, the mix of tourists is not important in this study except for their experiences.

Data and Sources of Information

The main source of data for the study was primary sources. These were tourists' accounts of their experiences with Ghanaian food spanning the five research questions for the study. According to Everett (2008, p. 338), "food and drink consumption provides a multisensory experience, embodied engagement and non-representable knowledge generation for tourists, hence, each tourist has his/her own account to provide."

Secondary information included a list of popular restaurants visited by tourists in the study setting. This information was obtained by reviewing social media accounts of tourists' experiences with restaurants in Ghana. The main

tourists' social media blog consulted for the study was TripAdvisor. This information was important in reducing unnecessary movement across the study setting in search of tourists who were busy going about their own businesses. The main restaurants visited for the study were Baobab Restaurant, Coast-to-Coast Restaurant, Castle Restaurant, and Oasis Restaurant all in Cape Coast. These restaurants sell both continental and Ghanaian cuisine as well. Popular Ghanaian cuisine sold at these places includes red-red, jollof rice, stir-fry, banku and tilapia. Most tourists go to these restaurants because they offer them the opportunity to have something continental and local as well. Baobab is visited for the organic and vegan meals that they serve.

Sampling Technique and Procedure

The research design adopted for the study did not lend itself to probability sampling. To this effect, a non-probability sampling technique was followed. Sampling within the grounded theory methodology involves the use of three sampling techniques: a multi-stage sampling technique that is hierarchical in nature (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). These are convenience, purposive, and theoretical sampling. The conduct of convenience sampling at the field reconnaissance stage is crucial to the entire grounded theory methodology. It enables the researcher to identify the boundaries of the work. International tourists who were easily accessible to the researcher were recruited at this stage. The experiences identified provided important concepts for the progress of the work. Nine tourists were conveniently sampled, which was made up of five volunteers, one business traveller, and three students/interns.

The next stage was purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is used in grounded theory to maximise the variation of meanings that emerged at the convenience sampling stage to determine the scope of the phenomenon or concept. At this stage of sampling, the researcher looked for an additional mix of tourists who were not captured at the convenience sampling stage. This involved looking for tourists who identified themselves as leisure tourists or holidaymakers since they were not captured at the convenience sampling stage to see if their experiences differed from earlier tourists sampled. In all sixteen tourists were interviewed comprising ten leisure tourists, four volunteers, and two students/interns.

Theoretical sampling was used after the identification of categories that were worth pursuing further (Charmaz, 2006; Clarke, 2005; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Hence, after collecting the initial data, the researcher decided on the next line of data based on the premise that it would help further clarify emerging concepts or theory. What this meant was that the next group of interviewees was selected based on emerging needs of the concepts that had been identified from the first two sampling levels. Fifteen international tourists were interviewed at this stage. This sampling was not based on tourist mix but to help clarify and expand on issues that emerged at the purposive sampling stage. Creswell (2012, p. 433) summarises succinctly how theoretical sampling works:

Theoretical sampling in grounded theory means that the researcher chooses forms of data collection that will yield text and images useful in generating a theory. This means that the sampling is intentional and focused on the generation of a theory.

Data Collection Techniques and Procedure

Conducting in-depth interview is the main technique of data collection in grounded theory (Clarke, 2005). Others include using field notebooks (memos) and observation. Borrill, Lorenz, and Abbasnejab (2012) opine that in-depth interviews are most appropriate for in-depth exploration of personal experiences. Consequently, in-depth interviews provided the best option to capture the meanings and values that tourists attached to their experience of Ghanaian cuisine. Tourists that were chanced upon at the various foodservice establishments identified as the most popular eating-places in the study setting were interviewed using an interview guide after their consent had been sought and the research problem explained to them. Sims (2009) argues that the canvassing approach of finding tourists at points where they may be relaxing gives the researcher two advantages: firstly, it allows the researcher to collect data from tourists from a wide background; secondly, by looking at tourists who are relaxing, one can ensure that they are able to talk at length.

The researcher followed the approach suggested above and was able to talk to tourists from different backgrounds at their free time. Two of the foodservice establishment have sleeping accommodation. Consequently, most of the tourists interviewed were not buying food at the time of the interview: they were relaxing. Other interviews were prearranged with the interviewees to take place at the restaurants. Another set of international tourists was interviewed when they had come in to eat. The researcher approached these tourists immediately they took their seats before their orders were taken. The sometimes unusually long waiting times experienced by diners in Ghanaian restaurants meant that the researcher had between thirty-five and forty minutes

to conduct interviews before food orders arrived. The interviews continued while these tourists enjoyed their meals.

Interviewing at the convenience stage started with a "grand tour" question of "Can you tell me about your experiences with Ghanaian cuisine starting from searching and planning through to after consumption?" This question allowed issues to emerge from what the interviewees said. Subsequent questions focused on issues that emerged from the opening question. The average time for the interviews was sixty minutes. Questioning for the purposive stage and theoretical sampling stage probed further issues that emerged from the convenience and purposive stage respectively. A typical opening question for the purposive stage was "How did you get to know about Ghanaian dishes before arriving in the country?" The average interview time for this stage was forty-five minutes. An example of an opening question for the theoretical sampling stage was "What sources of information did you consult on Ghanaian dishes before coming to the country?" An average of thirty minutes was clocked at this stage of interviewing.

Equally important to this study is the concept of saturation in a qualitative study. The concept demands that the researcher continues to interview respondents up to the point where no further insights could be generated from further data collection. What this means for the study is that a specified number of tourists shall not be given from the onset of the study but rather determined at the end of data collection when the researcher will know the exact number of participants. The concept of saturation within grounded theory, and, for that matter, qualitative inquiry, involves exploring a concept or theme until no new information can be obtained from it. The sample sizes for

the various stages of data collection were based on the saturation principle. After a certain number of cases for all the levels of sampling had been obtained, it was realised that the marginal contribution of an additional tourist to the emerging substantive theory was insignificant at best. Therefore, no further data was collected after that point. The total number of tourists interviewed for this study before saturation was forty (see Appendix A for the list). This number exceeded the recommended number of between five and twenty-five interviews for studies that explore personal experiences (Cetin & Bilgihan, 2016).

Data collection and analysis took place simultaneously for the five-month period (August to December 2015). The analysis led to the different levels of sampling and the review of the interview guides. Questions at the convenience sampling stage were unstructured and on general issues that influenced the phenomenon. Questions at the purposive sampling stage were semi-structured with room for probing specific issues that were brought up by the tourists. At the theoretical sampling stage, a much more structured set of questions were asked in order to fill gaps in the emerging theory.

Data Processing and Analysis

Qualitative research does not lend itself to the generation of quantifiable responses as in quantitative research. It was, therefore, necessary to find ways of capturing and analysing the data to ensure rigour. Data was electronically reordered and manually transcribed. To ensure the accuracy of the transcribed data, the audio recordings were replayed while going through the transcripts to ensure that the researcher missed nothing. This also enabled the researcher to become immersed in the data and ensure a fundamental understanding of the

process taking place in the data. Constant comparison and memo writing, open coding, focused coding, axial coding and selective coding, key tenets of grounded theory were followed.

Memo Writing

Memos are essential parts of the grounded theory strategy (Charmaz, 2006; Goulding, 2002). They provide a store of ideas for the researcher to work on from the first data that is collected to writing the final chapter of the thesis. Memos run side-by-side with the transcripts to unravel what is going on in the data (Birks & Mills, 2015). Charmaz (2006) advises that memos should be written early in the study. This is to enable the researcher to recall and reflect on the essence of the data (Corbin, 2009). Memo writing for this study started at the commencement of data collection and followed through to the writing of the final chapter of the thesis. A memo was written for each interview after the line-by-line coding. Then, after the focused coding, a memo was written for each of the five research questions. At the axial coding stage, memos and diagrams that sought to depict relationships that existed among the categories that were emerging were used. The memos were notes that the researcher kept, emanating from the data, analysis, thoughts on codes, emerging categories and concepts, ideas and logical and interpretive diagrams. All the memos were handwritten in a field diary (see Appendix B for an example of a memo). They were useful in the study as they provided the researcher with a guide as to which lead to follow through the purposive sampling to the theoretical sampling stage as well as the constant comparative analysis that was necessary for a grounded theory research.

Constant Comparative Analysis

The constant comparative analysis is important in grounded theory. It facilitates the identification of concepts (Goulding, 2002). The method involves comparing a unit of data against itself and other units of data as they are collected and analysed through to the conceptualization stage. In so doing, the researcher was able to identify the similarities and the differences that existed in the data set. It also enabled the researcher to move from a basic description of the data at the open coding stage to concepts and categories development at the focused and axial coding stages.

Open Coding

Glaser and Strauss (1998) laid down an approach for data analysis in grounded theory. The approach is not different from the thematic network analytic approach put forward by Groenewald (2004), Patton (2002), and Attride-Stirling (2001). The first stage is open coding. Open coding involved a line-by-line or paragraph-by-paragraph scrutiny of data and repeated comparison of incidents in the data. The incidents that emerged were put into preliminary segments of information. This resulted in the creation of labels of codes for the data. All the analyses at this stage were descriptive- a description of what was happening in the data set (see Appendix C for an example of line-by-line coding)

Focused Coding

The second major stage of grounded theory analysis is focused coding, which unlike open coding, is more selective, directed and conceptual. Focused

coding was employed to synthesise, organise, and understand the main themes that were emerging from the open coding. They were utilised in organising several descriptive segments of the data into themes. These themes, which are concepts, gave meaning and structure to the descriptive units of data from the open coding stage.

Axial Coding

Axial coding is a data analysis approach in grounded theory that seeks to refine concepts that already exist in the data from the open coding and focused coding stage. By refining the concepts, a number of categories emerge. In axial coding, a category is identified and a network of relationships is developed around it. The development of the axial category includes looking for temporal and spatial relationships in relationships of cause and effect. The phenomenon denoted by the axial category is an event, a social problem that evolved from a number of social processes. The actions of the individual and the interactions of other people revolve around the phenomenon. A coding paradigm is developed at this stage.

The coding paradigm proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1998) was useful at this point (see Figure 3). In developing the coding paradigm, the researcher is required to ask the following questions: “What is this data a study of?”, “What category does this incident indicate?”, “What is actually happening in the data?”, “What is the main concern being faced by the participants?” and “What accounts for the continual resolving of this concern?” (Glaser, 1992, p. 140). These questions are related to one of the ten coding families proposed by Glaser (1992) and adopted for this study. The coding family adopted was the coding

paradigm. This merges the “C” Family (causes, contexts, contingencies, conditions, and consequences) with the “strategy family” and the “means-goal family.”

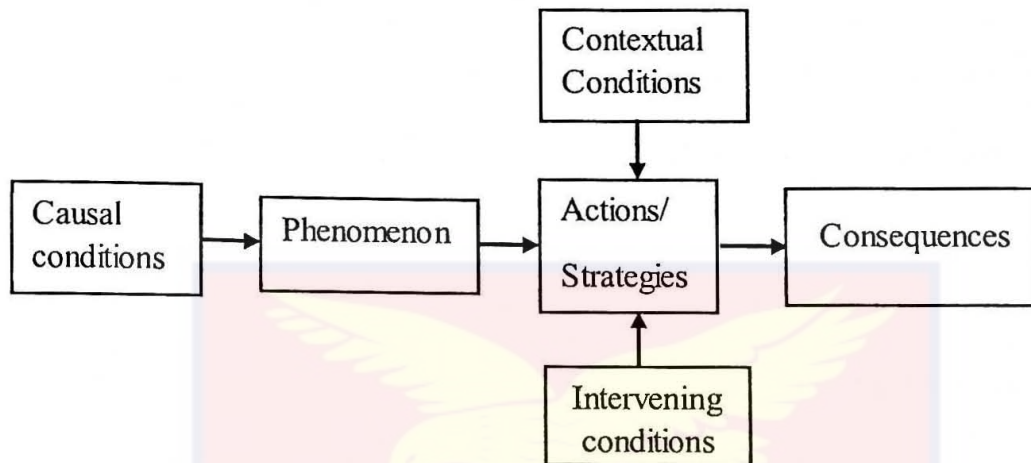


Figure 3: Coding Paradigm for Social Science Research Questions

Source: Strauss and Corbin, 1998

For example, in developing the central category *variable knowledge deficit* for tourists’ information search behaviour in relation to Ghanaian cuisine, it was realised that most of them especially first-time visitors did not have any knowledge about the food before coming to Ghana. They also did not search for any information on the food before coming. This lack of search, lack of information and no knowledge (= *causes*) translates into knowledge deficit (= *phenomenon*).

Variable knowledge deficit as a theoretical category or phenomenon has its properties and dimensions, which must be addressed. There are contextual (time, place, duration) and intervening conditions (social, political, cultural and individual factors) that also influence the causes of a knowledge deficit. These tourists also adopted certain strategies to help overcome the knowledge deficit

with Ghanaian dishes. The consequences of those strategies were the outcomes obtained.

Selective Coding

Selective coding is the stage where the researcher fits all the categories, the network and diagrams together into one core category that answers the main research question for the study; what is the nature of the local food experiences of international tourists visiting Ghana. It is the substantive theory that explains the main social problem and processes in the data. It is the story line, which links the various categories into a core category (Bohm, 2004). The main research question for this study was looking for the overall experiences of international tourists with Ghanaian cuisine. The core category for this study is *transformative consumption experience with local food*. This captures the issues of the motivation of tourists for consuming Ghanaian dishes; their knowledge deficits of the dishes before coming to Ghana and the actions that they take to overcome it. The dilemma they faced in choosing particular eating-places; the mixed service experiences; the cognitive and affective images of the food and the behavioural outcomes that emanated from the core consumption experiences.

Research Quality and Ethical Considerations

The issue of trustworthiness of qualitative inquiry has been the subject of debate over the years. Although several researchers within the qualitative research domain have attempted to provide several guidelines to help researchers in the field to ensure that their research outcomes are trustworthy,

many hold Lincoln and Guba's (1985) steps to attaining trustworthiness in high esteem (Shenton, 2004). These are credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability.

Grounded theory methodology as an approach or methodology in qualitative research also has certain assumptions that must be followed to ensure the trustworthiness of the data and the theory that will emerge from the study. Four criteria: fit, work, relevance and modifiability (Giske & Artinian, 2007) are important in studies that rely on grounded theory. The fit is the most important criterion of trustworthiness in grounded theory (Lomborg & Kirkevold, 2003). Fit requires that the categories that are generated by the researcher emerge from the data collected from the field and not any preconceived understanding by the researcher before the fieldwork. The researcher is expected to look at the data to fit and refit the categories that emerge from data until an emerging theory is obtained from the data. Work is a criterion that states that the theory generated must be able to explain what happens in the data, predict what will happen and interpret what is happening in the area studied.

Every research work must be relevant to both participants and practitioners. This is achieved when the researcher allows theoretical categories to emerge from the data. The relevance criterion, therefore, seeks to establish the basis for the research, which will lead to the unearthing of problems, and a process that will be beneficial to all stakeholders. The modifiability criterion in grounded theory means there is no closure to the theory that emerges from grounded theory. What this assumption holds is that the outcome of the research should be such that other researchers in the field can expand on the theory if

they so wish. This same idea can be seen as the replication concept in positivist research. By following the same processes on categories generation and theory building, another researcher should be able to replicate the study, come out with similar findings, and expand on the theory that has been put forward if similar contextual and participant characteristics are interviewed.

Ethical considerations have been the subject of social science research. It is expected that researchers follow certain principles, which deal with participants' confidentiality and informed consent. All the participants in this study were informed of the purpose of the study and the nature and type of data that was to be collected from them. Hence, their consent was sought. They were also assured of their confidentiality and anonymity. This was achieved by the use of pseudo names in the analysis.

Fieldwork Challenges

The major challenge faced on the field was getting tourists who were not in social groups for interviewing. Some of the tourists came to the restaurants with friends, and to westerners, eating is a social event. Therefore, to leave one's acquaintances to participate in an interview which takes longer than responding to a survey was challenging. Most of them, however, allowed the researcher to engage them while their friends waited for them. Those who could not make the time gave out their contacts and interviews were rescheduled.

Chapter Summary

This Chapter elucidated the methodological issues that influenced the study. A description of the study setting was done and the reasons for its choice were discussed. The constructivist paradigm of social science research was expounded followed by methodological issues in qualitative inquiry. Furthermore, grounded theory, which was the design adopted for the study was explained and the steps involved in its application explicated.



CHAPTER FIVE

MOTIVATION FOR CONSUMING GHANAIAN CUISINE AND INFORMATION SEARCH BEHAVIOUR OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

Introduction

The discussions in this chapter begin with the first research question of the study “Why do international tourists eat Ghanaian cuisine while in Ghana?” The category *cultural curiosity* emerged as the primary motivation because of tourists’ quest to try cuisine that was different from what they were used to. The subcategories of cultural curiosity are explained and other exigencies that influenced local food consumption are discussed as well. This is followed by the second research question of the study, which explored how international tourists get to know about Ghanaian cuisine. The category *variable knowledge deficit* emerged as a major theoretical category after axial coding. The causal conditions, intervening and contextual conditions of variable knowledge deficit as well as the strategies adopted by tourists to overcome any level of ignorance leading to certain consequences are examined.

International Tourists’ Motivation for Consuming Ghanaian Cuisine

Generally, destinations’ offerings serve as a source of motivation for people to travel to such places. Though Ghana is not a food tourism destination, some tourists could be motivated to eat Ghanaian food as a secondary experience. Food consumption as a secondary experience could become the remembered experience after the trip (Chang, 2011; Chang, Kivela, & Mak,

2011; Young, Kim, Goh, & Antun, 2011). Thus, there is a high probability that tourists visiting Ghana will consume Ghanaian food. The overall motivation for consuming Ghanaian cuisine is *cultural curiosity*. The properties of cultural curiosity include cultural immersion, knowledge or learning experience, break away from routine, and sensory discovery. Other imperatives such as availability, cost, sustenance, and tourists' accommodation arrangement moderate the consumption of Ghanaian cuisine.

Cultural Immersion

Consuming local food for the purposes of immersing one's self in the culture of a community has been one of the motivations that have driven people to travel. Although certain portions of the existing literature on motivation have partially captured cultural immersion (Kim & Eves, 2012; Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2013; Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009), they could not separate it from knowledge as a motivation. Food is part of the culture of a people and for tourists to eat those local foods within the social settings and structures of the host community could mean a desire for cultural immersion as expressed by the following responses by some tourists:

For me, the motivation is that I think it is part of the culture and part of the country and I am here to experience Ghana and to live here as everyone does. Also, I think it is important also to try the food and to try everything although you may be at the first time say.....oh my God...this looks.....what is this ...I do not know. Then it is important to try and to experience this

part of the country (Respondent 27, a 20-year-old female German volunteer).

For me the decision to live with a host family and the local food is part of living in the host family was that I want to live in the Ghanaian culture, you know. I want to know how people live here and not just staying at places like this (hotels) which are very touristic (Respondent 34, a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer).

The above excerpts bring to the fore the question of whether cultural immersion is the same as knowledge or learning experience.

Cultural immersion should be separated from knowledge or learning experience. This is because one may gain knowledge of the food that people eat in other parts of the world by trying the food without even visiting the destination or participating in food events at the destination. Even at the destination, people may eat local food devoid of the social settings and structures that would exist in the homes of locals. Contrarily, cultural immersion will involve staying with the people and actually participating in what they do and these include the food they eat, how they eat it and how the food is prepared. It may also include taking part in the entire gourmet experience whereby tourists learn how to cook local food.

As an example of the above, Respondents 27 (a 20-year-old female German volunteer) and 34 (a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer) were motivated to live like the local people and admittedly concluded that living like

the people included eating what they eat. That is gaining an authentic experience of the culture of the destination. Cultural immersion involves the direct contact and living within a culture that is different from one's culture (Barden, Shannonhouse, & Mobley, 2015; West-Olatunji, Goodman, Mehta, & Templeton, 2011). This view is captured in the response of Respondent 9:

I just want to get to know the real Africa, the real Ghana so that was the reason behind making the decision to live with a local family and to eat local food.

The real Africa or Ghana includes eating what the locals eat although it may be unfamiliar at first.

There is, however, a socio-cultural imperative to cultural immersion as a motivation for eating Ghanaian cuisine. Some groups of tourists by virtue of their accommodation arrangements and purpose of visit must eat Ghanaian cuisine. Volunteer tourists and those who make use of home stay facilities fall into this category:

The first time I came to Ghana I was here for six months with a host family so they were cooking Ghanaian food for me and that is how I was introduced to the Ghanaian food (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

For such tourists, the food they eat when they arrive at the destination is often not within their control:

I think I was served with local food and I had to try it like that. I was in Accra and they served us with local food. It was a group and so they gave it to us. It is not

as if I ordered it (Respondent 12, a 24-year-old female Canadian tourist).

Because of the perceived social pressure (subjective norm), which in this case comes from the host family, these tourists have positive intentions for undertaking certain behaviour (Bang, Odio, & Reio, 2014), which is eating local food offered them by their hosts although it may be strange at first. The socio-cultural backgrounds of the tourists also differ from that of the host community or family; therefore, there is a gradual introduction of tourists to local food. The aim is to progressively introduce them to the food of the destination and in the process help them to acquire the new taste of the destination:

A little bit. They encouraged us to try a little. They wanted us to try it but they thought it would be difficult for us to like it. Some of it is very different from what we have at home. So we tried it slowly, little and a small at time, one at a time (Respondent 3, a 22-year-old American volunteer).

Knowledge or Learning

Curiosity and search for knowledge drive international tourists to try some local food (Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2009). Unlike cultural immersion where the person would have to live within the destination and learn about the way of life of the host which includes food preparation and consumption, knowledge or learning motivation deals with eating the food to gain an idea about the sensory properties of the food. Some interviewees expressed the view that

Contrast or Break Away from Routine

Breaking away from routine lifestyles has always been an important travel motivator. People want to take a break from their routine lifestyles and in dealing with the same group of people (Adams, Synder, Crooks, & Johnson, 2015). During vacation, people also try new foods in order to break away from the monotony of eating familiar foods. Tourists may consume local foods as a way of breaking away from monotony and trying out something new (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student; Respondent 32, a 29-year-old male Swiss tourist). For these tourists, travel to the destination should be complemented by eating unfamiliar food rather than familiar ones:

I guess just because I came to Ghana for a cultural experience. I did not come to do the average things that I did back in the US. If I want to eat the cheeseburgers, I would have stayed at home (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

Consequently, tourists experiment with new tastes by savouring local foods that are different from what they are familiar with. Variety seeking in itself is a determinant of food choice (Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2012; Mustonen & Tuorila, 2010) where people try new foods and decide on which ones best suit their sensory requirements.

Another dimension to this is the attitude of people. Peoples' attitudes towards particular objects affect their intentions about those objects. For instance, Respondent 32 had a positive attitude towards local food. Eating local food while travelling is an important part of the overall tourist experience at the

destination. Inherently, for this tourist, to consume those same foreign foods will be out of place:

One of my main reasons and I have also already travelled to some countries in Asia and I also spend some of my working time in Congo-Kinshasa and the point is usually I am a little bored of all these international foods. You know what I mean. It is like burgers, pizza, in Accra there is even KFC, why should I go to KFC in Accra. You go for a holiday somewhere you want to have some country experience so you want to have some local food (Respondent 32, a 29-year-old male Swiss tourist).

Aspects of the literature on behaviour note that past behaviour is a bad predictor of future behaviour (Furnham, 2008; Robin, McEachan, Conner, Taylor, & Lawton, 2011). Nonetheless, some respondents, who from their accounts had travelled extensively (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist; Respondent 39, a 19-year-old male Belgian volunteer) and have extensive experiences of local food with mixed outcomes continue to look for local food on their journeys. This has more to do with attitude than desire.

Exigencies Leading to Consumption besides Motivation

Cost of Continental or International Cuisine

Cost as a motivator for consuming local food while on vacation has received little or no empirical validation in the extant literature. Nevertheless, cost remains an important factor in what people eat, first, in the decision to

travel to certain destinations, and second, to undertake certain activities. If one extends the concept of rationalism to this discourse, then the expectation is that tourists will act rationally by buying food that is comparatively cheaper to similar others that are on sale. Tourists have always complained about the cost of airline fares, food, and drinks at the destination (Dunne, Flanagan, & Buckley, 2011). Therefore, some tourists are content with having cheaper local food compared to the priced continental dishes being served at the destination (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female US tourist; Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female Danish volunteer). This view is expanded upon by Respondent 34 (a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer):

...However, if we would try the local food now that we are not living in a host family then another motivation could be it is much cheaper than the western food like pizza or burgers.

Local food has a comparative advantage in pricing in relation to the well-known foreign foods sold in restaurants in Ghana (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female US tourist; Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female Danish volunteer). Nevertheless, one should not lose sight of the fact that local street food costs less than local food sold in a restaurant (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student; Respondent 32, a 29-year-old male Swiss tourist).

Non-Availability of Known Options

Product availability could determine if one consumes a product instead of another. This was the case for some tourists who travelled to the countryside and did not have alternatives to the local food. For these tourists, consumption

is more of making do with what is available than an actual motivation to consume:

Here in Cape Coast (a major town in Ghana), you have continental, but if you travel to the small places in the Volta Region you do not have continental so you do not have a choice but I like to try the local food

(Respondent 7, a 24-year-old male Swiss intern).

Clearly, this tourist does not seem to have any problem trying local food. However, the decision to try local food was made less difficult due to the non-availability of alternatives in certain parts of Ghana. In the city it is easy to get a mix of both continental and local dishes. However away from the city, it becomes difficult (Respondent 8, a 24-year-old female German intern). A view articulated by Respondent 15 that corroborate the experience shared by Respondent 7:

...In a city and in a Ghanaian restaurant you have many different dishes. However, in Mpreaso it was only fufu and banku. Only one restaurant had rice (Respondent 15, a 24-year-old male Swiss tourist).

Sustenance

Food is a necessity for all humans including tourists. Tourists must eat while they are away in order to replenish their energy during their journeys (Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012). In the literature, eating for survival is treated as a motivation (Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2012). Most tourists eat local food for survival, especially where known options are unavailable. Respondent

Respondent 26 (a 26-year-old female German research student) was emphatic on why she consumed Ghanaian food:

I am hungry! Of course, there is also the motivation to try it as much as possible.

This view falls under the traditional meaning of obligation as motivation in the food tourism literature. Consuming food for the sole purpose of satisfying hunger. Figure 4 is a schematic representation of cultural curiosity and its properties and other factors that influence local food consumption.

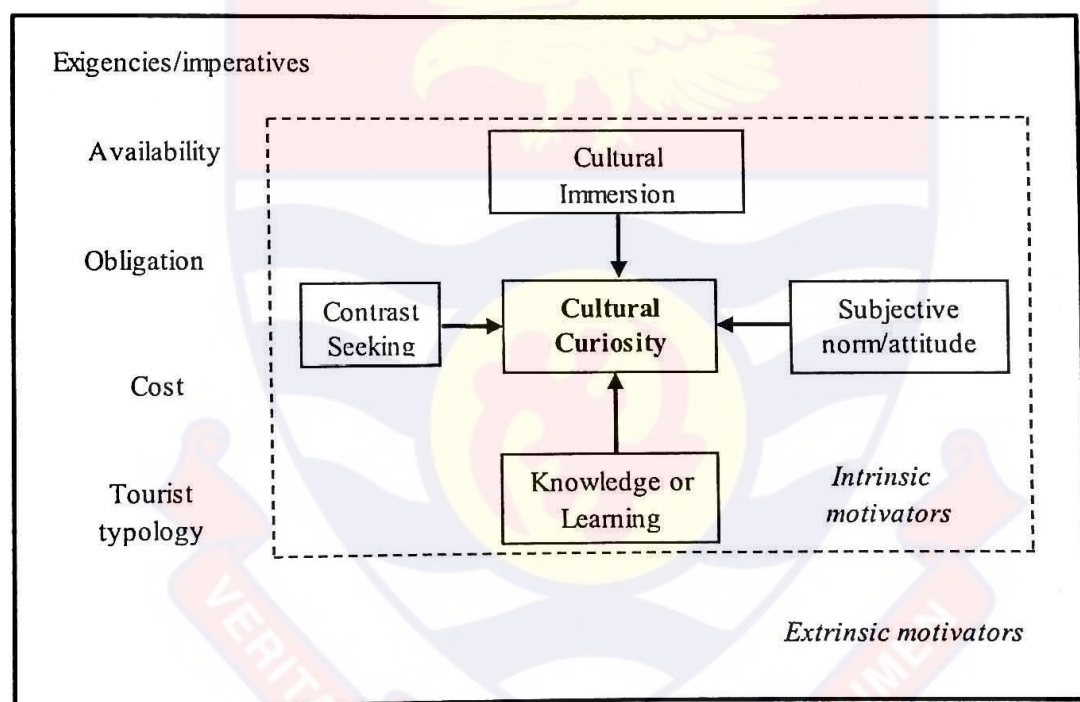


Figure 4: Cultural Curiosity

Source: Author's Construct, 2016

International Tourists' Information Search Behaviour in Relation to Ghanaian Cuisine

Variable knowledge deficit emerged as a major theoretical category on interviewees' knowledge about Ghanaian cuisine. The term variable knowledge

deficit was used to describe tourists' knowledge on Ghanaian cuisine because, first, there were some tourists who did not have any idea about Ghanaian cuisine prior to their visit, hence lacking knowledge and secondly, others also searched for information on food before coming but admitted to the inadequacy of the information. Repeat visitors fell into the category of those who were knowledgeable of what they had already consumed during their first visit.

Some of the tourists interviewed admitted to not having any information on Ghanaian food before coming to Ghana. All the information on the food offerings of Ghana were obtained at the destination:

We did not have any information. We just came. Actually, we live in Burkina Faso, so we came by bus, first stop in Tamale for a few days. Then we learnt how everything works here, food industry and other things
(Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

Another one was:

Before I came to Ghana, I did not know anything about Ghanaian food. I stayed with a host family in Kisi, they gave me the food, and I tried it (Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist).

The quotes typify two scenarios. The first respondent (Respondent 13) is a French tourist stationed in Burkina Faso, who came to Ghana with no information on the food but learnt about everything including the food by asking and finding answers to their concerns. This was deliberate and typical of their travels:

Actually, it is not that we did not find information it is more of we did not search for it. We just came directly almost without almost any information. Because we like to do it that way. So no, it is not a problem for us. We would like to try new things; we would like to ask people, like what we just did with you. Therefore, it is not a problem. It is part of the game when you travel
(Respondent 13, a 32-year-old French tourist).

The situation is typical of risk takers who take some calculated risk just to discover and experience new things. For instance, some tourists have had encounters with other African countries. They, therefore, concluded that the foods consumed in other African countries were similar, hence, there was no need searching for new information:

I have been living in Cameroun for two years, which I have learnt that many of the foods are somewhat similar so I did not think there was going to be a big change from what I have been eating (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female US tourist).

However, unlike the French tourist (Respondent 13) from Burkina Faso who did not have any expectation at all, Respondent 30 could be seen as someone who at least has an expectation of sameness of the food based on what exists in other African countries.

The second scenario refers to people who did not have any information on Ghanaian food prior to visiting but became aware through their host family.

Respondent 24's (a 24-year-old male German tourist) case is typical of some tourists, especially those who sign up for full cultural immersion programmes by staying with host families. They expect the host families to take care of their food needs, hence, the lack of active search for information on food:

Not specific, it was more like I had a book about Ghana and then I read a little bit about it. However, I thought ok when I come here I will get more detailed information [from my host] so I did not read so much
(Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

There is, therefore, an element of trust in the relationship between the guest and the host, which is essentially the foundation of hospitality operations and most importantly in the host family situation. The issue of trust is clearly expressed in the response of Respondent 2 (a 24-year-old female German volunteer) when asked if she received any information on the food given to her by her host family before eating:

I only had the information that banku is from [maize] and I do not know so I just ate. I trust the people here so....

Another property of the variable knowledge deficit is the scanty nature of the information that some tourists who searched for information on Ghanaian cuisine had prior to their visit. They had searched for information on Ghanaian cuisine prior to their visit but the information they obtained was not a true reflection of the food offerings of Ghana:

Not much. I went to Tanzania last year, I had a friend who was from Ghana, and he told me you have some things similar to the gari... that was all that I got
(Respondent 8, a 24-year-old female German intern).

I did not know any food. Just West African food, so, fufu. However, the rest, I did not know anything about them...Not that much, I only knew that fufu looks like a bowl and like flour (Respondent 16, a 22-year-old female Swiss tourist).

The two quotes taken from Respondents 8 and 16 epitomise what other tourists said about the information that they got on Ghanaian cuisine. They got information on only a few of the cuisine that is popular such as fufu, banku, and red-red, with fufu being the most mentioned due its popularity in other tourists' narratives and the travel guides that they consulted.

Ghana is not a food tourism destination. Therefore, most tourists who visit do not come in search of culinary experiences, although secondary experiences (food, buying souvenirs and attending movies) could become the main experience at some point (Quan & Wang, 2004). Consequently, those who did not search for information on the food searched for some information that was relevant to the purpose of their visit. They search for information on the history, economy and the political systems in Ghana (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer). Respondent 31's (a 21-year-old male American volunteer) response throws some light on the sort of information some tourists searched for on Ghana before coming and the reasons for doing that.

Yeah, I searched for pretty much what the customs were, I know that the culture is a lot different from where I am from in America so certain things like only using your right hand and taking your shoes off when you are entering peoples' homes. Those things do not matter in the US but I just wanted to touch up to make sure I fit in a way.

Tourists' lack of knowledge on Ghanaian cuisine before visiting Ghana is considered variable knowledge deficit due the application of the process model of information search and decision-making rather than the choice model proposed by Williams (2002). The choice model adopts a linear process of decision-making in which tourists are expected to move from one decision point to the other in an orderly manner. This view has been questioned severally in the literature (Choi, Lehto, Morrison, & Jang, 2012). Choice models are not able to capture the processes involved in tourist decision-making (Smallman & Moore, 2010). The process model on the other hand, captures the processes involved in tourists' decision-making. This means that some tourists gathered more information on Ghanaian dishes as the need arises. This standpoint is important because according to Sweeney, Soutar, and Mazzarol (2012) tourist decisions do not follow a linear model and much travel information search is not related to a specific place and time (Zins, 2007). Information search is need-based and not done all at once.

It is, however, important to note that not all the interviewees were ignorant of Ghanaian cuisine prior to coming to Ghana. Factors such as repeat visitation, consulting of family and friends who had visited in the past and

having travel guides and online information moderated what some tourists knew about Ghanaian cuisine. The ensuing discussions look at the intervening and contextual conditions of the theoretical category *variable knowledge deficit* of Ghanaian food by tourists. It further looks at the strategies that those who had little or no knowledge about the food adopted once at the destination. The strategies that tourists adopted to ameliorate the situation also led to some consequences, which are also discussed.

Intervening Conditions

Strauss and Corbin (1998) state that intervening conditions are those conditions that “mitigate or otherwise impact causal conditions of phenomena” (p. 131). The category identified is *variable knowledge deficit*. It is, however, clear that the presence of factors such as past personal experiences, knowledge of friends and family members, travel guides with some information on Ghanaian cuisine all combined to mean that some tourist were knowledgeable about Ghanaian cuisine.

Repeat visitors or those whose relatives had visited Ghana in the past and had even learnt how to cook Ghanaian food (Respondents 15 & 35) had previous encounters with Ghanaian cuisine before visiting. For example, Respondents 9, 11, and 37 were repeat visitors whose first encounter transformed them. They went back to their home countries and tried some Ghanaian cuisine there:

As for me, I was here before, so I learned to make some of the food. I made it in the US especially the jollof rice so many people know about the jollof rice because we

wrote the recipe down and took it home (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

Tourists who fall into this group did not need to search for new information on the food they tried during the previous visit. They only searched for new information if they met new things that they did not try during the previous visit:

Last year I was in Accra [internship] and we had a cafeteria...However, this year I really need to rely on information, I have two neighbours and I ask them a lot about what they eat. For example, there are some foods that I did not try last year. For example, I want to try kelewele, so they showed me where to get the kelewele. I discuss it with them. Nevertheless, I also ask people when I am on the street (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student).

Some interviewees ate Ghanaian food prepared by their relatives who had earlier visited Ghana. That was how they came to know about Ghanaian cuisine prior to their visit:

Before we came, for him it is the second time, but I just know, he told me about the fufu and the groundnut soup...I had the groundnut soup in Switzerland because his mother can cook it. She was only here [Ghana] for two weeks. She asked the people here how they did it. I savoured it and it was similar. It is not the same for

sure, but similar (Respondent 16, a 22-year-old female Swiss tourist).

This and other tourists, who have had similar experiences with Ghanaian food back home, cannot be termed as lacking knowledge. They search for similar foods at the destination just to authenticate their previous experiences, as was the case of Respondent 16.

Another group of interviewees consulted friends who either are Ghanaians or had visited Ghana in the past for information on the food eaten in Ghana. They, therefore, did not devote much effort to information search on the food:

Partially [referring to information search]. The point is that I know some Ghanaians from my workplace so I talked to them already a lot. You know how you do at lunchtime, and this I consider one of the primary sources, because if you can talk about it at lunch why must you spend the time on the internet and in books looking for what you want to know (Respondent 32, a 29-year-old male Swiss tourist).

Some interviewees (Respondent 8; Respondent 28; Respondent 29; Respondent 31) narrated similar experiences of getting to know about Ghanaian cuisine through colleagues at work or at school or even through associates of family members. For example, Respondent 31's (a 21-year-old male American volunteer) mother's colleagues briefed him on Ghanaian cuisine prior to his visit:

I did not search for it. My mum works for the World Bank. She had some Ghanaian co-workers who spoke to me about eating fufu.

Most tourists live in social groupings such as families and friends. Therefore, decisions on certain aspects of the vacation are done with input from these group members (Jang, Lee, Lee, & Hong, 2007). Consequently, consulting family members and friends for information on destinations is very much part of the information seeking behaviour of tourists. These sources are important non-marketing dominated information sources (Barber, 2009) since they are not deliberate information from destination marketing organisations.

The individual context to information seeking behaviour is nevertheless still relevant. Tourists rely on formal external information sources if they do not have enough internal information on a destination or a product (Hyde, 2008; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2008 & 2012). They use both online and offline sources of information:

Yes, I did. Because when I was going to stay for five weeks, I have to know something about what to eat. I googled (Respondent 3, a 22-year-old female American volunteer).

This was the case for all the tourists who searched for formal external information. They searched online or read relevant information from travel guides. Although those who searched admitted to the inadequacy of the information or the difficulty in making meaning from what they read (Respondent 1, a 23-year-old female German volunteer; Respondent 33, a 40-

year-old female Danish volunteer), it could be regarded as a first step to having some knowledge about Ghanaian cuisine.

Contextual Conditions

Context is very important when one is looking at any phenomenon. This is because contextual conditions differ from place to place and their impact on a given phenomenon may not be the same throughout the same destination. Tourists' knowledge deficit on Ghanaian cuisine is moderated by certain contextual factors, which are expressed in the typology of tourists identified in this study. The use of typology engenders the application of a unified evaluation criterion to a group of tourists and an equally important data for marketing efforts (Choi, Heo, & Law, 2016; Menzly & Ozbas, 2010). Three typologies of tourists were identified in this study: volunteer tourists, VFR tourists and other independent travellers who did not have any acquaintances or associates here in Ghana. These typologies of tourists have trip characteristics that provide unique contextual conditions that affect their knowledge deficit and the strategies that they adopted to overcome it.

One peculiarity of volunteer programmes is the placement within host families or volunteer homes for the volunteers to gain ample cultural experience and immersion. This provides an important contextual condition when it comes to their information search behaviour. They rely on the programme coordinators for information on everything including the food to eat (Respondent 14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer). For this group, any knowledge deficit about the food was taken care of by the briefings of the programme officers:

I did not look for information. The organisation they just explained a few of the food to me. The special food here. It was just a little. Not a lot of information. Just we have things like banku and that was all (Respondent 39, a 19-year-old male Belgian volunteer).

Our company, our leader, told us about them when we arrived. We have a cook who cooks for us and she introduced us to them as well (Respondent 14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer).

Part of Respondent 14's response leads to the important role played by host families and those in charge of taking care of the dietary needs of the volunteers. The researcher refers to them as *destination caregivers*.

Destination caregivers (homestay operators, cooks, and programme coordinators) support the volunteers with information on the food and what ingredients they use in preparation of the food (Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern). It is more of a cultural learning class in these facilities. Additionally, the work of the destination caregivers ensured that most of the information that tourists lacked on the food were provided:

Well, we stayed at a hostel in our first week in Ghana. They had the food catered and so they wanted us to experience all the different types of food so we had some different Ghanaian dish each day. So that we could try everything. We tried to. We were only there

for a week (Respondent 21, a 27-year-old female American volunteer).

My English was very bad actually, so I could not understand a lot...So, she was telling me what is from the yam, the plantain, what kind of vegetables she was using, but it was still very confusing for me (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

We worked in a hospital for one month in Akwatia...the sisters cooked for us and they made Ghanaian fufu. They explained everything, how to prepare it, which roots to use... (Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern).

These three responses show the different roles played by destination caregivers: orientation experts, language experts and culinary experts.

Those who were not able to gain sufficient information from the destination caregivers relied on other volunteers in the volunteer hostels. They are an equally good source of information that was tapped into since those volunteers had been around for some time and would in a way provide some orientation for new members of the group:

With me, it was more that I asked the other volunteers because I was with them so they told me where I could find food to eat and what to eat. Moreover, it was not different. The things that I found were not different from

what they told me (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

That was the response of a volunteer tourist on how other members of the group oriented new members. The influence of contextual conditions such as host families and volunteer hotels on variable knowledge deficit is exemplified in the above discussions.

The next contextual condition deals with tourists who visited friends and relations in Ghana. Visiting friends and relations is one of the most important segments of the tourism market (Asiedu, 2008; Rogerson, 2015). It is a form of tourism involving a visit whereby either (or both) the purpose of the trip or the type of accommodation involves visiting friends and/or relatives (Rogerson, 2013, p. 141). For such tourists, information on food at the destination is left in the hands of their hosts rather than individual searches. This assertion is amplified by the responses of two interviewees when asked about their information search on Ghanaian food prior to visitation:

No [information search] I have to admit. My friends took me to the restaurant. They told me about a very delightful and very rich fish dish and very basic though but very nice in a restaurant. They explained and then they told me ok there would be an extra dish, the fish is coming wait (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

You also eat in people's homes, so that is the other thing. So you try things in peoples' homes, so then you

understand what you like and what you do not like

(Respondent 19, a 40-year-old female Canadian tourist).

The two respondents clearly rely on their friends here for help and therefore, will have no difficulty in finding what they want. The context in which they find themselves means that the strategies adopted to overcome knowledge deficit will differ from the next group of tourists: the *independent non-institutionalised traveller (drifter)*.

The independent non-institutionalised travel segment has always been part of tourist segment. They are on their own and do not rely on any formal channels to plan their trip. They do not belong to any of the groups that have been discussed earlier. Their contextual conditions would be different and activities they undertake are shaped by serendipity. A serendipitous traveller is someone who has no idea of where he/she is going and what to expect (Huang, Norman, Hallo, Mcgehee, Mcgee, & Geotcheus, 2014). The drifters in this study rely on their instincts in relation to what to eat, or if available, consult travel guides for information on potential food at the destination:

First, I just saw it on the street. Then I have a travel guide, which I look at. There is also a little bit written about the different kinds of food you have (Respondent 7, a 24-year-old male Swiss intern).

Information in travel guides are sometimes inadequate and may be generic. Therefore, when the tourist moves out of the zones identified in the guide, as in the case of Respondent 7 who travelled into some remote areas of the country,

observation becomes the most important tool in the arsenal of the tourist.

Respondent 13 (a 32-year-old male French tourist) narrative backs this point:

The first day we arrived in Tamale, so we were eating outside, so we found, jollof, fufu, and tou zafi. We were eating on the street most of the time. We did not have any information. We just came...

This and other tourists (Respondent 1; Respondent 7; Respondent 26; Respondent 30; Respondent 33) who relied on their instincts or the ability to learn local norms and customs may well be described as risk takers. There is so much risk involved in what they do including the food they eat.

The contextual conditions discussed this far are similar to the intervening conditions in the way they affect strategies that are adopted to overcome any level of knowledge deficit. The contextual conditions would affect the ease with which one accesses information on Ghanaian cuisine. By living with a host family, other volunteers, friends and relations, a tourist is expected to have easy access to information than the *drifter* who would have to encounter other locals or the point of sale in order to inquire about what to eat.

Strategies Adopted by International Tourists to Overcome Knowledge Deficit

Strategies are how individuals handle situations or problems with intended consequences. Tourists who do not have any information on Ghanaian food prior to entering adopted strategies such as asking locals, asking those who sell the food and consulting the menu to find out if there were familiar

ingredients in order to overcome any knowledge deficit. Consulting locals for information is part of the non-marketing information seeking behaviour of tourists at the destination while menus form part of the marketing information sources that tourists can make use of:

I asked my friend who lives here what was some good Ghanaian food and she told me a few Ghanaian dishes. Nevertheless, mostly I have just been looking at the menu and seeing local dishes and choosing them
(Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist).

Well, when you go to the restaurants, you see the menu, and so it is usually international looking food and local food, so that is how I got to know what the local food is
(Respondent 19, a 40-year-old female Canadian tourist).

Others relied on the help and the information given by food sellers or restaurant attendants (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist). This is more of looking for a specific marketing information similar to what the menu will do. This information is induced and it is tailored to influence the buyer in a specific way:

We have just been asking mommies who sell the food about what was in each pot, looking at the food, and deciding which one to eat (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

Upselling is nothing new in the hospitality literature. In fact, it is encouraged. However, some tourists think the sellers or attendants are dishonest with the information since their primary motive is to induce purchase:

This is sometimes not easy. If you ask a particular question and there is the tendency to give an answer to make the probability of selling the thing higher. Sometimes it is not informative. If you would ask is it very spicy, then the vendor will notice he does not want it spicy, and I would bet he would have the tendency to say it is not very spicy, though it might be very spicy. Because otherwise he might fear to lose business (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

Some tourists prefer asking locals for information on the food rather than asking the sellers for information. This falls under the concept of honest brokerage in destination marketing. Some tourists combined a number of strategies in order to get information on what food to eat. Respondent 27 (a 20-year-old female German volunteer) initially relied on colleague volunteers for information. After some time, she started asking people at her workplace about the typical foods eaten in Ghana. Respondent 26 (a 26-year-old female German research student) used about three options when searching for information on which food to eat: consulting people at the cafeteria, asking neighbours, and asking the people who sell the food. The strategies adopted were context specific:

Mm, actually, yeah last year, because I was in Accra and we had a cafeteria I had no idea about the food they serve there. I consulted my colleagues. This year, I really need to rely on the information. I had two of my neighbours I ask them a lot about what they eat. I did not try some foods last year. Nevertheless, I also ask people when I am on the street and I see that someone offers food. For example, yesterday I actually wanted to buy bread again but I saw someone selling fried yam, I have had yam before, but I have never tried fried yam, so I thought why not talk to her (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student).

This again buttresses the process model in tourist information seeking behaviour (Choi, Lehto, Morrison, & Jang, 2012) where information is gathered for and within specific times (Sweeney, Soutar, & Mazzarol, 2012) for specific purposes. Respondent 26 clearly follows this process by using different actors for different information needs.

Consequences of the Strategies Adopted by International Tourists

Consequences are the outcomes of the strategies that tourists adopt to overcome some level of ignorance in relation to Ghanaian foods. A positive outcome will be when the strategy leads to a favourable outcome or impacts directly on the decision-making process. An unfavourable outcome will be one in which the strategy adopted does not directly influence purchase decision:

Yes, it does influence. If somebody recommends a specific restaurant or dish then you go there. You trust the person, and you trust the food. Otherwise, you go back and crash them (Respondent 38, a 35-year-old male Dutch business tourist).

The information given acts as the first line of defence especially for people who are new to a country and whose culinary backgrounds are different. Subsequently, as tourists move through the country and begin to understand how things work, they begin to form their own knowledge base, which helps in future decisions (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student). For example, in the case of Respondent 24, buying cooked food outside was much easier than buying uncooked raw produce because of experiences gained from staying with a friend (VFR):

When I went to the restaurant for the first time, I already knew about the food because I ate it at home. It was easy to buy the items than at the market (Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist).

Yeah, I think maybe the first decision it influenced me but after I tried it and when I am making a new decision, I will say ok it is nice, I am going to eat it again or I do not want to eat it again (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student).

Relying on the information provided by locals to make first decisions as painted by Respondent 26 is to be expected because one would expect that tourists whether acting rationally or irrationally, would at some point deviated from the information given to them and make their own decisions. This is especially true for the novelty seeking ones who would want to take some risks. Some tourists received information on the taste of some of the food and that helped in averting an otherwise untold consequence had the information not been given.

Yeah, particularly one of my friends does not like pepper and so we asked a lot about it and some of the food that we are not familiar with so they explained what it was. Yeah so, we received very good information (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

Additionally, Respondent 39 and Respondent 40 were instructed specifically by their volunteer organizations not to try street food due to the apparent food safety problems associated with street food in Ghana. The information given is just cautionary and as pertaining to other tourists, it may or may not influence what they ate:

They said, for example, do not buy too much food on the street because it is not healthy, and it is better to buy food from the restaurant. They also told me that in Belgium (Respondent 39, a 19-year-old male Belgian volunteer).

Yeah because they told us that, we should not eat street food when we go out. I tried some things but not everything (Respondent 40, a 20-year-old male American volunteer).

The information given to tourists in relation to what to eat does not end just at pointing out a few foods and where to find them. Some locals go to the extent of teaching tourists how to eat the food (Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female Danish volunteer). This practice (showing tourists how to eat Ghanaian food) is important given the differences in the culinary culture of the destination and originating regions of the tourists.

Yeah, it did. She told me to try fufu and banku. Moreover, I do not think I would have tried it if she did not tell me to try it. She also showed us how to eat it but I would not have known how to eat it if we just came here and ordered it. Therefore, that was important (Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist).

It is, however, important to point out that some tourists do not play by the book, in that, they are not strict adherents to any given information. Some of these tourists are curious, risk averse, and novelty seeking (Respondent 22, a 26-year-old female American volunteer). Figure 5 is a schematic representation of variable knowledge deficit on Ghanaian cuisine among international tourist.

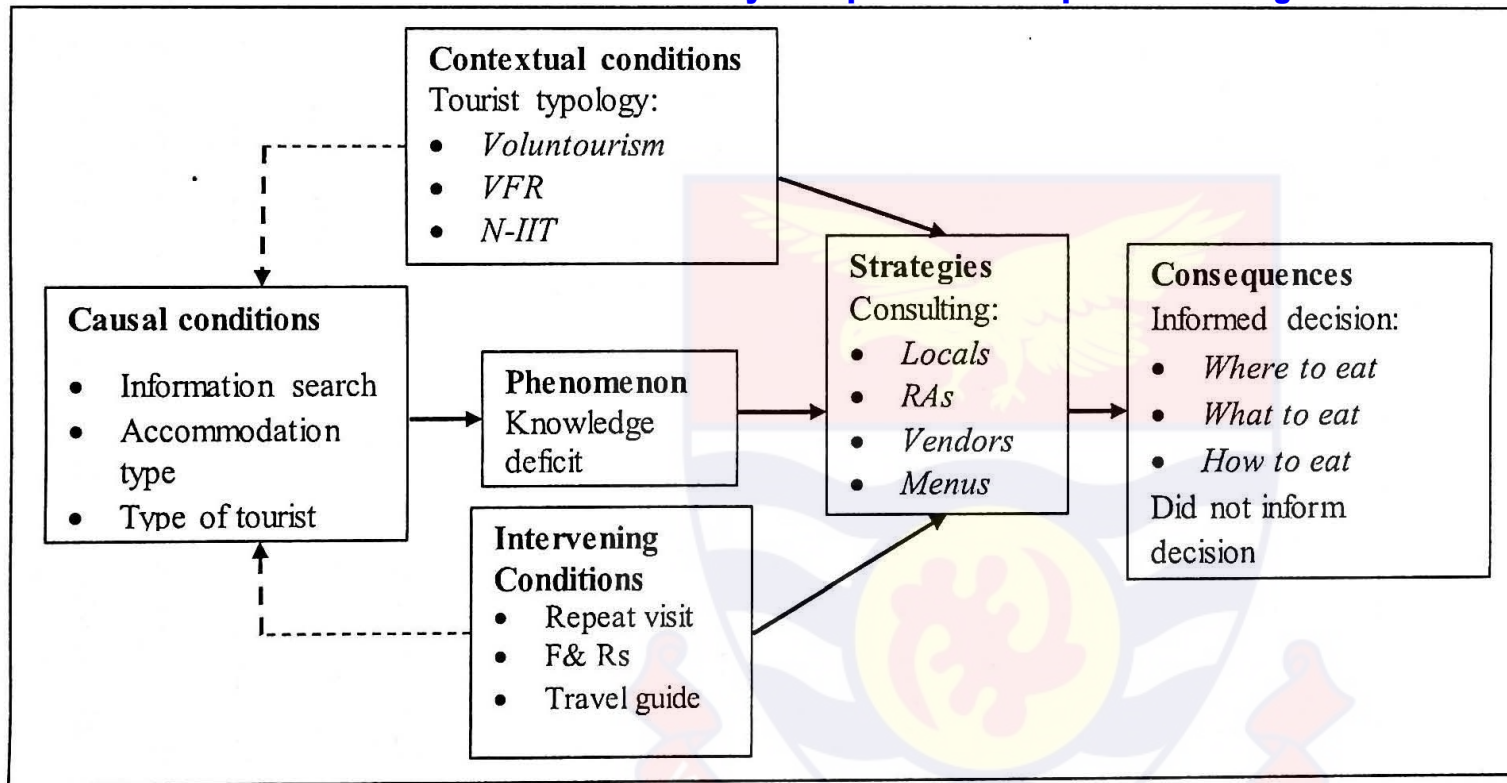


Figure 5: Knowledge Deficit

Source: Author's Construct, 2016

VFR- Visit to Friends and Relations

RAs- Restaurant Attendants

F&Rs- Friends and Relations

N-IIT- Non-Institutionalised Independent Traveller

Consequently, being asked to follow a number of precautions while eating out in Ghana could affect the experience that they sought:

You are curious to try local dishes so even if it does not sound appetising you still try it. Therefore, we tried everything and then later learnt if we do not like it
(Respondent 21, a 27-year-old female American volunteer).

The response by Respondent 1 (a 23-year-old female German volunteer) summarises the point being expressed above in relation to whether the information received from any of the sources affected one's decision to try out local food:

Not really [referring to information] no, it was more like when I go to another country I wanted to try the local dishes. So yeah, I think that was the reason why I tried it.

Information seeking behaviour of tourists in relation to Ghanaian cuisine is complex. Some tourists enter the country with no information or knowledge at all expecting to discover everything. Others too relied on experiences at the destination or elsewhere in Africa to guide them on what to expect. Consulting of locals and other volunteers was equally important as the work of destination caregivers who take steps to help tourists settle in at the destination. Therefore, some tourists may choose to be ignorant about what food to eat. This is because being ignorant and discovering things as one went through the destination is part of the experience (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

Chapter Summary

This Chapter examined at tourists' motivation for consuming Ghanaian food. Cultural curiosity emerged as the main theoretical category of motivation to consume Ghanaian cuisine. Other exigencies such as cost, availability and sustenance also drove consumption. The chapter further analysed the theoretical category that was identified in relation to tourists' information search behaviour in relation to Ghanaian food. There were some intervening conditions such as previous visit, information from friends and relations, and electronic and print media materials available to the tourist that moderated the central category (variable knowledge deficit). Some contextual conditions affected the central category too. These were captured as tourist typology using the type of accommodation used: homestay, volunteer hostels, VFRs and drifters who did not use any of these accommodation types. The intervening conditions and the contextual conditions affected the strategies that were adopted to overcome the knowledge deficit. Strategies such as consulting locals, restaurant attendants, food sellers and the menu were utilised. Finally, the consequences of those strategies were discussed.

CHAPTER SIX

LOCAL FOOD PURCHASE EXPERIENCES OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

Introduction

The third research question of the study aimed at examining local food purchase experiences of international tourists. In answering the research question, the analysis was broken down into two: choice of eating place and purchase experiences at the various foodservice establishments identified in the study. These foodservice establishments are classified as formal and informal eating places, the formal being those eating places that offer mainly international cuisine with local cuisine as the secondary offering, while the informal are the traditional Ghanaian foodservice establishments that mainly sell local cuisine. The major theoretical category emerging from the choice making process is that of a *dilemma*. The second part of the analysis looks at the point of sale experiences of the tourists. Therefore, a coding paradigm for mixed service encounter experience is analysed by looking at the causal conditions, mediating factors, the strategies adopted because of the service experiences and the consequences of those strategies.

Choice Dilemma

Dilemmas occur when people are confronted with two or more alternatives that may result in a similar conclusion (Manderscheid & Freeman, 2012). Dilemmas are essential to everyday thinking and argument and are shaped by our worldviews (Holmberg, 2010). These worldviews affect the

decisions that we make leading to some level of uncertainty. The international tourists studied faced dilemmas in terms of where to eat in the light of two contrasting eating places found in almost all the places they visited. The pros and cons associated with each foodservice establishment recur in their narratives, which will construe a choice dilemma. The write-up under this section examines the different aspects of the tourists' choice dilemma in the context of service delivery and quality issues at the foodservice establishments identified.

Service Convenience

The era of convenience-oriented customers means that most customers want to accomplish most tasks in less time with the least expense of energy (Lundberg, Ohman, & Sjodin, 2014). Service convenience, which is the time and effort that consumers expend in the purchasing and delivery process, has since become an often-used word in the customer service industry (Kaura, Prasad, & Sharma, 2015). Service convenience must, however, be understood within the context in which the consumer makes purchases and in using a service. This indeed was the caution given by Yale and Venkatesh, (1986, p. 405) who note that "convenience is many things to many people." Therefore, for this study convenience must be looked at from the perspective of the tourist. The dimensions of service convenience include decision convenience, access convenience, and transaction convenience, benefit convenience and post-benefit convenience (Berry, Seiders, & Grewal, 2002). The narrative of the tourists exhibits some of the dimensions of service convenience.

Most of the formal foodservice establishments do not serve their food on time and when tourist go out in groups, the waitresses/waiters do not exhibit good service skills. Some members of the group are served while others wait (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student; Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer). Consequently, if a tourist does not want to spend a long time in a formal restaurant, then, street food comes up as the best option:

It depends on where I go. If I go to... like in the chop bar on the street, it is very easy, you say what you want, and they put it on the plate and then you get it. It is good. But in the formal restaurant, it is not like it is very [fast], as a foreign person we have a lot of critiques because the way restaurants are supposed to be handled in Western countries is very strict and we have very strict expectations that are not met here (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian student researcher).

On the market, they are always nice. It is cheap and quick. Normally it is quick. In the restaurant, it takes very long. In addition, the restaurant too, depending on where you go, it can be very expensive (Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist)

Respondent 24 introduces another pertinent issue; cost, which could create a dilemma when it comes to the purchase decision. This is indicative of the fact

that there is no single criterion involved in the dilemma. A multiplicity of factors could determine where one eats. Kokkinou and Cranage (2015) observe that the general perception about service is that it is time-consuming and customers tend to choose the alternative with the least waiting time. Wait times are part of the service delivery process (Zhao, Hou, & Gillbert, 2014). Consequently, given the suitability of other factors in the dilemma (convenience, cost, food safety and sanitation and communication barriers), tourists will choose the informal eating places over the formal ones if the waiting time is the primary consideration. It is important, however, to have the two options: A place where one can relax and wait for the food or a place where one can get fast food (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

Convenience is very important in the purchase and consumption decision of many (Birch, Lawley, & Hamblin, 2012; Brunso, Verbeke, Olsen, & Jeppesen, 2009). The convenience and the ease with which people get their food on the street make it better than what one would get from the well-established restaurants (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer). If more tourists see the informal eating place as convenient, then, it could be an important element in the marketing of local cuisine. The wait time at the informal foodservice establishments is less to the extent that one tourist even compared it to fast food:

I was surprised by how fast the service went. You order fufu and between 3-5 minutes, you have it. It is more of a fast food (Respondent 14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer).

It is very common for people to talk about purchase convenience without looking at the service environment. In fact, the service environment creates the convenience and it is the first encounter the guest has with service (McGuire, Kimes, Lynn, Pullman, & Lloyd, 2010). Setups in the informal foodservice establishments are basic (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist) with the underlying philosophy being transactional (just the provision of food). The tourist who uses the services of the street food vendors does not expect much:

Where I buy food, mm, the service, yeah...I think I have different experiences, when you buy food from the street; there is not much service because you just buy it. However, I think generally you do not get in touch so much with the people. For example, where I live in Abura, the people who sell the food they do not talk. It is friendly but just transactional (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German volunteer).

In recent times, the debate on service has moved from just what the service firm has to offer to the guest to include the customer processes that are involved in service delivery (Walter, Edvardson, & Ostrom, 2010). Food preparation in most restaurants in Ghana precludes the customer from what actually goes on. However, some of the informal foodservice establishments especially those by the roadside and the *chop bar* customers can see what is in the pots of operators and decide on what should be added (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist), a phenomenon that has been dubbed *point and kill*. This process,

whether it is intentional or unintentional, allows the customer to participate in the service delivery process. For tourists who are interested in engaging in the service delivery process, street food provided a platform for that:

In the first place, it is completely different from what we are used to. Because you cook on the street and I can see the kitchen mum prepare my food and it is unlike in Europe (Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern).

This situation will be for those who prepare their food by the roadside. However, not all street food vendors prepare their food by the street. They prepare it at home and set up their stalls by the roadside. Therefore, tourists will not be able to see how the food was prepared:

Normally, when you buy it on the street, you do not see how they prepare it. Just the kind of rice and you do not see how they prepare, but actually, I am really looking out for how they prepare the food (Respondent 10, a 24-year-old female German tourist).

Another important element that affects the level of service in foodservice establishments is the provision of crockery and cutlery. One would not expect to find the elaborate set-up with service utensils and crockery at the street food level. Therefore, if one is looking for a place to get all these service utensils, then, it is important that the person goes to the restaurants:

There is no fork, nothing; you eat with your hands. Ok and this is very basic also, they, do not provide side plates for you to put parts that you do not want. Most of

the people were just putting the parts they do not want anywhere on the table. This is another difficulty if you eat outside (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

Seeing another customer eat and immediately put the waste on the table or the floor is an unsanitary etiquette that most tourists could not tolerate. Clearly, if Respondent 6 wants a place where crockery and cutlery are provided then it is not the roadside food. It should be noted, however, that some roadside food vendors do provide side plates.

Communication

Tourists in this study found communication between themselves and wait staff at the informal foodservice establishments to be very difficult (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer; Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist). This resulted in a dilemma:

If you speak the local language, it is very easy. However, some of the vendors do not understand the English language or I do not understand them, so it is very difficult (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

Respondents 6 and Respondent 29 described the situation as difficult while Respondent 30 described it as challenging. Constantly having difficult or challenging situations before getting food from the informal foodservice establishments leave tourists with just one option, which are the formal foodservice establishments where the wait staff is expected to speak at least

English. In order to overcome the problem of communication, some tourists went to these informal foodservice establishments with an assistant (Respondent 6), probably a local who can speak the language of the tourist and the service provider:

At one place...by the side of the road, our friend went over to the women and told her what we wanted. At the restaurant, it is very easy; we just looked at the menu and pointed out what we wanted but on the side of the road, [it is not]. It is important to have someone here to help us with the communication (Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist).

Having local as assistants does not always sit well with some tourists. They are independent thinkers and make their own decisions even if they are not conversant with their new environment. They do not want to be babysat by locals (Respondent 22, a 26-year-old female American).

Atmosphere

A foodservice establishment's atmosphere comprises the décor, noise level, temperature, cleanliness, odour, lighting, colour, and music (Hensley & Sulex, 2007; Sulex & Hensley, 2004). The environment at the informal foodservice establishments is a basic setup. It is an authentic experience for tourists who like to be in an environment where the actors act in a natural way. These vending points may have some shortcomings but tourists who wanted to experience something new and unfamiliar to them found the informal foodservice establishments ideal:

The [grilled] tilapia place I like it. I like this very much. On a certain level very basic. It is not very artificial so I like the environment. Ok, sometimes it was a little bit crowded and noisy. Ok, we were not on the street but we were closer to the street (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

With the street food, I really like it. It is something that we can discover; we do not have that in Western countries. So, just telling you that we can experience it here. Then in the restaurants, it varies from one restaurant to another. However, I know something we foreigners complain a lot about is music very loud very often. In addition, going to eat something for Westerners very often means getting together with friends to have good conversations and with the music very often we cannot talk and we are frustrated (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

Some of the formal foodservice establishments tend to overdo some things. For example, the pitch of music played in the restaurants. Music has both positive and negative effects on purchase, length of stay, and revisit intention (Wilson, 2003). Consequently, those who think the music is too loud for their evening relaxation look for alternatives within the same formal foodservice establishment or look at the informal with a basic setup (Respondent 26, a 26-

year-old female German research student). Although the informal foodservice establishments operate in a modest environment, not all tourist found it appropriate. Because of its basic setup, there were times when patrons who wanted to sit and enjoy a meal could not do it:

Sometimes we have difficulty in finding places where we can sit. Most of the time, because we are on vacation, of course, we like to find a place where we can sit and eat and sometimes it was a little difficult to find.....We were in Tamale for instance for three days and sometimes, we were trying to find a place. Ok here they sell food, but we cannot sit, ok continue. We had bikes so we were riding a lot to find this kind of places
(Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

For the vacationer who wants a place to relax and plan the next move, some of the informal foodservice establishments cannot be an option. Because of the heat and the humidity in Ghana, tourists looked for shade or covered places to protect them from the direct rays of the sun and rainfall (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist). That notwithstanding, it should be noted that there are exceptions to the challenges that have been enumerated above. *It depends on where one goes* (Respondent 8, a 24-year-old female German intern).

The disorderliness associated with some informal foodservice establishments, especially the street vendors where one has to catch the eye of the seller in order to be served, put off some tourists. Queuing is not common to only developing countries. The phenomenon occurs all over the world. What

is a culture shock for some tourists is the haggling and jostling that must take place before one is served. Customers sometimes yell out the quantity or the amount of food they want to buy. This makes the vending environment all difficult and confusing for some tourists (Respondent 11, a 25-year-old female German tourist). This happens especially with street food vendors:

In Kumasi, when we went to watch a football match and we wanted to eat. You walk in and it was a like a buffet and there was no line, and everyone in there was just screaming, oo rice, oo that (Respondent 22, a 26-year-old female American volunteer).

Meal experience is affected by the behaviour of others in the eating environment. Eating at the informal foodservice establishments that offer mainly local dishes was daunting for some tourists. It required mastering the act of eating with the hands in addition to a foreign food that they were not used to (Respondent 18, a 24-year-old female German intern; Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist; Respondent 25, a 24-year-old English tourist). The presence and actions of some locals who saw tourists eat local dishes sometimes had a negative effect on the experiences of tourists. In informal foodservice establishments where locals form the bulk of their customer base, tourists found it difficult to eat under the prying eyes of the locals on them. This may seem awkward to tourists, however, it is more of a surprise to locals since they do not expect tourists to be engaged in local food consumption or seeing the tourist do that for the first time:

The people sometimes they laughed at us when we ordered fufu, and banku because they thought we could

not eat in the right way ... and the first time I was there with a friend and the woman brought us the food and the bowl to wash your hands and my friend started to eat with his left hand [laughs]... In addition, there was a lot of laughteraround us. That happened a lot of... many times, the people started laughing, and then when we started eating and they saw that we knew how to do it, I think they were a little bit impressed [laughs]
(Respondent 1, a 23-year-old female German volunteer).

This scenario is also possible in the formal foodservice establishments. Yet, most often, in those setups, people normally mind their business, although some patrons may be interested in how tourists will manage the eating process, especially using their hands to eat and swallowing fufu or banku without chewing it. For Respondent 1 and other tourists (Respondent 8, a 24-year-old female German intern; Respondent 14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer) this created an intimidating environment for them. It is important to note from Respondent 1's narrative that being made fun of is not a one-off event. It is a frequent occurrence. For those who cannot stand staring and passing of comments, the informal foodservice establishments were not the place of choice for eating local food although it was cost effective.

Value for Money

Value maximisation is the primary focus of customers, assuming they behave rationally (Mai & Ness, 1999). By this, they are expected to weigh the

informal foodservice establishments (Respondent 1, a 23-year-old female German volunteer). They saw it as a purely profit aggravated price:

I will rather have problems with the upper scale restaurants than the intermediate or lower restaurants. Because in some places in the restaurants, I do not see the benefit. Why does red-red cost eight cedis more than it costs me in an average restaurant? It is the same beans. It is the same plantain. Obviously or I think, the cook does not earn more, the waiter does not earn more, it is more profit for the restaurant (Respondent 32, a 29-year-old male Swiss tourist).

On the other hand, buying food from the street also presents its own challenges that some tourists who were not used to them found uninviting. Street food prices are not fixed. There is always a range of prices to quote from. The quantity one gets depends on what the person deems enough, unlike food sold in the restaurant where prices are fixed. Therefore, for some tourists this created some level of uncertainty when buying food outside the formal eating-places:

...it was always a little bit complicated or confusing when I did not know what it is. Because, everybody is saying one cedi this, one cedi that and if you do not know what it is, how much is one cedi, how much is two cedi, it is not easy to handle it (Respondent 11, a 25-year-old female German tourist).

Presentation

Food presentation is part of the process of making the food appealing to the guest. Some restaurants go to extreme levels to get their plate presentation right while others do not care. It depends on the category of foodservice establishment and the client that it attracts. Patrons in a way pay for these services and would want to have their food presented in a way befitting the amount of money paid for the entire food. For those interested in appealing presentation, the more formal restaurant was an option. This is because informal eating places do not put premium on presentation:

I am not too much attached to that so I do not care and my friends neither. I have not heard them complain about it. Nonetheless, some people who will like to have a good presentation of the food obviously they will not be happy in the chop bars. However, I think if you care about those kind of things, you should not go to chop bars. It is not their main priority. They are into food that has to be fast ready and good to go. That is the way it is (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

The nature of most Ghanaian cuisine makes it highly impossible to make any garnishes on them. For instance *fufu*, *tuo zafi*, and *omo tuo*, are best eaten with the soup around them. It will be difficult to garnish these. It takes a good chef with good presentation skills to do that. Banku and pepper and the rice dishes are garnished and presented nicely on the plate; however, the same cannot be said for most other dishes. The typical Ghanaian informal foodservice

establishments, unlike the formal foodservice establishments, have no plate presentation at all. There are no herbs or garnishes on the plates and the customer just gets a simple and bare plate that is not nice looking (Respondent 1, a 23-year-old female German volunteer). In addition, most of these informal eating places only find the easy way out (wrapping in plastic bags). Wrapping of food in plastic bags has caught up with many Ghanaians. It is, however, not a good way of presenting food:

Well when we buy in the street, you can see it directly what it is... I think the presentation is not good. I mean when you buy on the street it just comes in the plastic bags. That is not very much presentation. However, when you go to the restaurants, the presentation is good
(Respondent 10, a 24-year-old female German tourist).

The formal foodservice establishments also have some presentation problems, though. They do not pay attention to presentation. They put the food on the plate in any manner without due recourse to where the protein, starch, and minerals should all be:

I think they can improve...you cannot say generally. Some restaurants do nice presentations. Some they just do it anyway. They do not mind (Respondent 7, a 24-year-old male Swiss intern).

The conclusion drawn on presentation is that both the formal and informal foodservice establishments have challenges with presentation and customers have mixed experiences with that. There is, however, something unique about the Ghanaian way of presenting fish. Most of the fish served in restaurants in

Western countries are fillet and it is uncommon for customers to see a whole fish especially when they eat outside. A whole fish on the plate is strange to some of them (Respondent 14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer; Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern; Respondent 21, a 27-year-old female American volunteer) , it presents and at best, a culture shock. For some tourists who are used to fillet fish, seeing a whole fish on their meals is something difficult for them to take. Some even went to the extent of asking locals accompanying them to take the head off before they could eat the fish:

We were two friends and we got tilapia. When it arrived, it had a head and a tail, which I do not really like, and neither do my other friends. Therefore, we all just said we do not like the head and the tail. Seeing the head of what you are about to eat is not very nice you know. Therefore, our other friend cut the head and the tail off our fishes and then gave it to us so we can eat it. Then I ate and it was very good. It had many bones in it but it so very good (Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist).

Food Safety and Sanitation

The outbreak of foodborne illness in the past decade coupled with the extensive media coverage on the issue has led to a heightened level of food safety awareness among consumers (Chen, 2011; Kumar, 2014). Since consumers are in a way hampered as to which food is safe or not, they rely mostly on trust (Respondent 2). They trust that the suppliers or providers of food

will make the food safe as much as possible (de Jonge, Van Trip, Van der Lans, Renes, & Frewer, 2008).

The foodservice establishments that tourists eat from on their journeys here in Ghana throw up some dilemmas when it comes to food safety and sanitation. Food safety and sanitation at the informal foodservice level is sometimes problematic. Food is sold close to open drains; some food is left uncovered exposing it to flies in the process (Respondent 2, a 24-year-old female German volunteer) while cooking is done in unhygienic circumstances. Some of the vendors do not observe basic food safety regulations such as covering of hair while selling (Respondent 34, a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer) and others too may be harbouring communicable diseases that are unknown to the consumer (Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern).

Additionally, cooked food, when left in the open or in sieves for long periods, abuse critical time-temperature regulations (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist; Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer). Since most of these tourists are used to eating food that has been properly preserved and held after cooking, they easily become sick after eating foods that have been exposed to direct sunlight, dust and flies and other pathogens not visible to the human eye (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist). The formal foodservice establishments have their own challenges with food safety. However, what is of most concern to the international tourists is the informal foodservice establishments. Food safety deals with trust, which is linked to emotions (worry, concerns, and fears) of the consumer (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). The informal foodservice establishments must rather earn the trust of these tourists rather than expect it. Therefore, since

most of the tourists interviewed believe that critical food holding temperatures have been abused at the informal foodservice establishment, they will find it difficult to accept street food as wholesome:

If it is a real place then, of course, they can do all the sanitary things that you hope to meet. Nevertheless, I think if you buy from the street or the chop bars or the market then I think the food is exposed to a lot of sun and a lot of dust and the bad air and insects. I think you can expect it because the people too cannot change the air or something. It should be expected if you buy from the street (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

For food safety, it depends on where one buys from. The restaurants are cleaner and more controlled, and on the street people are less conscious of that on the side of the road (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

The packaging of ready-to-eat food in plastic bags requires proper food handling knowledge. This can be very difficult at the street level. Some of the vendors also touch the food directly. For tourists who are used to proper food handling regulations, buying food from the informal foodservice establishments is always a challenge:

I think it is good. It is better than one may expect. What I think is the bad thing is many of the things come in the

plastic bags and you drink water directly from the bags.

In addition, people touch it, so this probably is the bad side. Additionally, the vendors will give you the orange directly from their hands. I have not become sick from it. However, it can be a concern for westerners

(Respondent 36, a 21-year-old male Polish tourist).

Wrapping of food especially the hot ones in plastic bags is a source of concern for most tourists. In recent times, there have been many concerns about food safety in relation to the wrapping of hot food in plastics. The plastics release some chemicals in the process of heating, which has dire consequences on the health of those who consume such foods (Respondent 3, a 22-year-old female American volunteer; Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist). Some tourists have even expressed strong emotions about the use of plastics and the grave consequences it has on the environment (Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist). This is to be expected, given the level of environmental consciousness among many Europeans and North Americans. For these tourists, it is not only an issue of direct negative health implications of using the plastic for wrapping the food but the added consequences of environmental pollution from the improper disposal of the polythene bags.

Sanitation is one of the biggest challenges facing the informal foodservice establishments. The food sellers do not properly clean their environment and for some tourists, it is a major area of concern (Respondent 1, a 23-year-old female German volunteer; Respondent 12, a 24-year-old female Canadian tourist). Most of the informal eating places do not observe strict hygienic practices. For people who are concerned about their health, this poses

many dilemmas. The formal eating-places also have their own sanitation problems. Some do not have restrooms and those that have them have difficulty keeping it hygienic throughout the day. Basic things such as soap are not found in those places. Meanwhile, soap and water are provided when tourists want to eat. This is something that some tourists find difficult to understand (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student). This makes it difficult for some tourists to go out even:

The bathrooms, many times they are not clean, they smell, and so some of those things people will not like it. In addition, hand washing, you have to wash your hands a lot. Because of that, many people do not even want to go to town because there is even no place to go to the bathroom. In addition, it is not clean. If you go somewhere then it would not be clean. That is maybe one of the biggest problems (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist)

Variety

Having variety in the food being offered at the destination is important to what is experienced. After all, variety is said to be the spice of life. All the foodservice establishments have some variety in the food they sell. The formal foodservice establishments have a number of dishes that tourists can pick from (Respondent 34, a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer). Some even provide both continental and local cuisine. This makes it possible for tourists to switch from having something exotic to something familiar or vice versa.

One thing about the menu is people like it if you have things like burgers and pizza like this place because if they are here and they are eating local food, and then they would want something that that is familiar so they will pay plenty of money to have something familiar
(Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

The informal foodservice establishments could have variety in what they sell but they normally do not provide a one-stop shop of dishes for tourists to choose from (Respondent 15, a 24-year-old male Swiss tourist; Respondent 16, a 22-year-old female Swiss tourist). They provide only a limited menu for tourists to choose from. For the tourist who is only interested in local cuisine, the modern *chop bars*, and the street food could be the ideal place. However, if a tourist tries something that he or she does not like, then the opportunity to try something that he or she is familiar with is lost unless he or she moves to another foodservice establishment.

The issues identified above present themselves as dilemmas that most international tourists will have to overcome in order to decide on which foodservice establishments in Ghana to visit. Both the formal and informal foodservice establishments have unique situations that may attract or dissuade international tourists from patronising their services. Figure 6 represents the choice dilemma that international tourists go through concerning where to purchase local food.

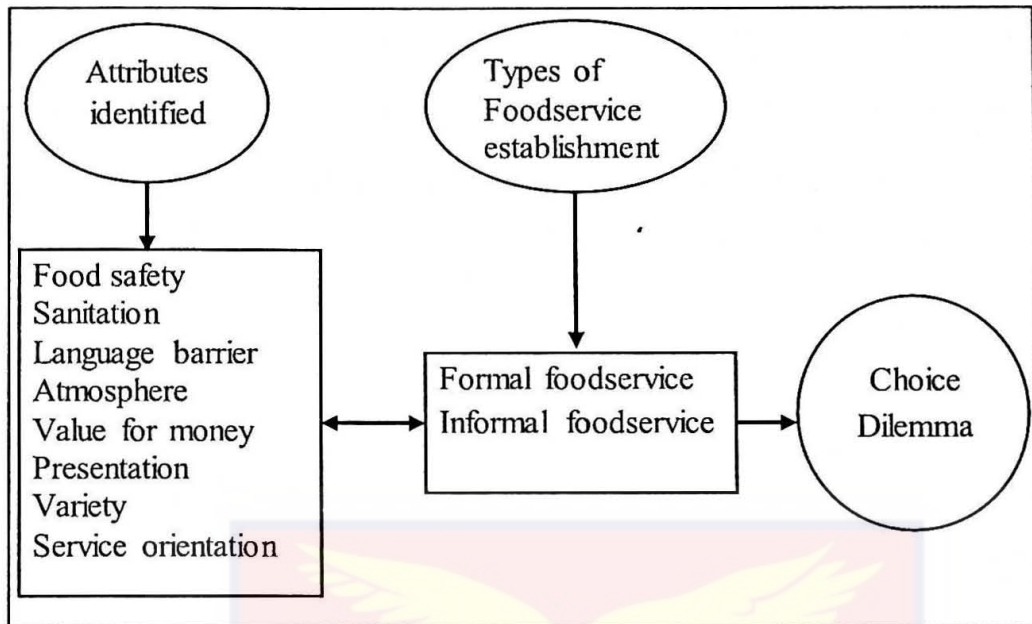


Figure 6: Choice Dilemma

Source: Author's Construct, 2016

Mixed Service Encounter Experiences

Customers' expectations of service quality are shaped by a number of factors including previous visitation, word-of-mouth accounts by previous visitors and specific information put out by the service provider. However, in the context of the scanty information that these tourists have on Ghanaian cuisine and to a large extent service delivery in Ghanaian foodservice establishments, some tourists faced dilemmas as to where to eat. In the absence of specific information regarding the quality of service at those foodservice establishments, most tourists had little or no expectations. Any expectations were based on what the tourist had experienced back at home or at similar destinations across the world. The formal and the informal foodservice establishments in Ghana have different attributes of quality of service that tourists become aware of after patronising the services of these two places. The level of quality of service that they received resulted in mixed service encounter

experiences. This mixed service experience is discussed looking at the causal conditions, mediating factors, the strategies that tourists adopted because of the causal conditions and what the consequences of those strategies were.

Causal Conditions

Menu

Menus are important tools in the successful running of a restaurant. It tells both existing and potential customers what the restaurateur has on offer. According to McCall and Lynn (2008), it is a piece of advertising and marketing communication tool for both the restaurant and the customer. For the customer, the menu drives up expectations. Expectations account for about 11 percent of the variation in food consumption (Gray, Gustin, Jensen, & Smith, 2015). The study revealed contrasting experiences for tourists in relation to the menu in restaurants. It is important to put the issue of the menu in the proper context. Those who buy food from the street food vendors and the local *chop bars* (informal foodservice establishments) consulted the sellers to get an understanding of the menu (Respondent 10; Respondent 11; Respondent 23; Respondent 26). This phenomenon is not peculiar to tourists. In fact, people always seek for information on unfamiliar things. The difficulty for the tourist is that this word-of-mouth menu from the vendors is difficult to comprehend since most of them, to start with, cannot speak any of the Ghanaian languages while most food vendors do not speak English. The formal foodservice establishments, on the other hand, provide paper menus for tourists to glance through.

In the light of this expectation, some international tourists asked for menus at restaurants, but it took a long time for the menu to arrive (Respondent 20, a 26-year-old female Japanese volunteer). It becomes equally frustrating when the prices on the menu change on a daily basis. These price changes are not effected on the menu given to the customer. Therefore, some tourists were astounded when different prices were quoted for the same item they ordered the previous day:

Moreover, this prices on menus. They are not menus at all. Therefore, for foreigners, it is very confusing and we usually never get what we ordered. Here [referring to a specific restaurant], we do because there are menus and we can point and say what we want. Nevertheless, like yesterday, we went to a restaurant, they ordered chicken, and rice but usually, it comes with noodles so they thought it will come with noodles again but it did not, and it cost completely different from the day before. Different prices than before (Respondent 22, a 26-year-old female American volunteer).

The non-availability of foods listed on the menu equally frustrated some tourists. Some restaurants had over twenty items on their menu; however, there were instances when only one or two were on sale (Respondent 8, a 24-year-old female German intern). In addition to the non-availability of menu items, some of the menus given to tourists were not informative. These tourists were not able to make any meaning out of it. They were only able to make meaningful

deductions if they had prior knowledge or experience (Respondent 11, a 25-year-old female German tourist).

Some tourists, on the contrary, had very good experiences on the issue of menu availability and information. Menus were provided on time and the information on them was adequate for decision-making at the restaurants (Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist). Some other tourists were of the view that adding pictures would help them in their decision-making. This view explains the rationale behind the views of those who said that the menu was less informative:

...they come with the menu. I think it is good. The menu is informative. The name of the dish, explanations, and what you are going to eat. I like it. Sometimes, maybe, there should be small pictures of what you are going to eat. Because sometimes it can be hard to imagine the food without the pictures. If there were pictures, it could have been much easier. In addition, if you do not read English then you can see the pictures. We do it in Denmark (Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female Danish volunteer).

Wait Staff

The importance of the human element in service provision cannot be over emphasised. Human beings play an integral role in the customer-employee-service provider relationship. Empathy, responsiveness, and ability to upsell are but a few qualities that wait staff must have. Patrons of restaurants

expect wait staff to exhibit these skills. Wait staff in some restaurants exhibited some of these qualities leading to some tourists paying glowing tributes to them for assistance they had received even when they themselves knew they were asking too much of the wait staff (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist; Respondent 28, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer):

I mean service is good. It is the service, which people do when you ask them to, and they do not give you an attitude. Sometimes in the US if you ask people to give you a napkin, something as basic as that and people give you an attitude (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer).

The same cannot be said for all the wait staff that tourists encountered on their journeys. Some of the wait staff became annoyed when they were asked for an explanation on what they were selling (Respondent 10, a 24-year-old female German tourist). Tourists had also experienced other problems such as lack of attention from waiters or bad attitude towards serving. Some wait staff just put the food down on the table and leave without saying anything to the customer (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist). Equally worrying was the upselling skills of the wait staff. They were unable to upsell to tourists. They bring the menu without going the extra mile to educate tourists on the combinations of food to buy (Respondent 34, a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer). The problem with some of them was that they lacked knowledge of what they were selling and even become angry when asked to explain what was on the menu (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist):

Waiters and waitresses here, they could make more money. I tell them what I want and that is it. They need to influence me to buy but I have to call them. Most of the time I have to tell them what I want. They need to do a little bit better (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student).

The attitude of wait staff could be worrying if one looks at the experience of Respondent 39. There were times that communication barriers led to taking wrong orders. When such misunderstandings do occur it is important for the wait staff to take steps to recover the service that had failed. However, the structure of some of these restaurants is such that most of the wait staff are not empowered to rectify problems that they created. Some are even made to pay for the cost of such service recoveries. Due to this, the tendency for some wait staff to be dishonest is high:

I asked for spaghetti bolognese and my friend asked for the same thing. So she was supposed to bring to me two spaghetts but she brought one napoleon and one bolognese but I did not see the difference. Apparently, the napoleon was for another client so she gave the spaghetti bolognese to the other client and he did not want it because he wanted napoleon. Therefore, she came to me 'oh you have to pay for the bolognese that I have given to the other customer'. This was strange. She was asking me to pay for it and I gave her ten cedis.

I paid for half, she paid for the other half (Respondent

39, a 19-year-old male Belgian volunteer).

Lack of knowledge is not only about what they sell but also about skills in serving (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist; Respondent 38, a 35-year-old male Dutch business tourist). Table service skills are lacking. Some waiters do not know the proper order of courses for a meal. For tourists who have experienced service at a certain level this was a challenge especially when it was happening at places called restaurants in Ghana:

....But here I have already seen like sometimes people bringing you the dessert first or the starter arriving at the same time as the main meal, so you do not know what is starting because if you start with the starter then your main meal would be cold by the time you get to it. Therefore, I do not think the service here is to my expectation. I would not say the service is bad because everyone has their own opinions but it does not fit into the expectation of foreigners (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

Service delivery in restaurants varies due to the human element involved in the process. Therefore, different waiters in the same restaurant may offer different levels of service even if both have been trained in customer service. Some tourists encountered this scenario where different wait staff in the same restaurant exhibited different service knowledge (Respondent 38). This is an indication that service delivery is not the same across all the restaurants.

Customer Service

Service firms exist because of their customers. In a very competitive hospitality industry, service firms see customers as assets that must be managed (Dawes, 2009) and every effort is taken to ensure that not only are customers attracted but also retained. Many of the foodservice establishments especially the informal ones, do not follow this principle. Tourists who went to the formal foodservice establishments expected assistance on what to order, but never got it:

It is somewhat hard to know how to order. I am never sure of who to talk to or where to place my food order. I am not sure of what I am ordering (Respondent 22, a 26-year-old female American volunteer).

This is indicative of the lack of attention to customer service (Respondent 37). Tourists sometimes sit for thirty minutes before their orders are taken and it takes another one hour or more before the food was served (Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist; Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist). It is important to note that the yardstick for comparison was always on what they had been exposed to back home. However, these international tourists wanted to be treated well and would not mind comparing a particular service to what they had received elsewhere:

The atmosphere is great in all restaurants but I think the difference to our country is the service. Because in our country they come and ask for what you like. It is ok but it is different. Different mentality. Because in our country it will never happen that, you will go to the

reception and ask if you could pay there. In our country, nobody will do that. However, here it is normal
(Respondent 15, a 24-year-old male Swiss tourist).

Another issue worth discussing is the right of the customer. Customers are not always right but a customer-centred business would want customers to feel empowered when dealing with them. This has its own downsides especially when customers take advantage of any slight service failure opportunity. Nevertheless, it is equally worrying if customers feel that their rights have been trampled on. Sometimes wait staff took the wrong orders and tourists had no right to return them (Respondent 7, a 24-year-old male Swiss intern; Respondent 39, a 19 year-old male Belgian volunteer). This has forced some customers to question the existence of service employees' power within some of the restaurants they had visited:

To me, everything is different, because it seems like in the USA the customer is like very important, and here it is ok, but it is different. Because it seems like everyone is equal. Like the customer is equal to the server and so sometimes they take, their time and we wait a long time. In addition, if you got something, which was not what you thought, and you did not like it, you cannot return it. If they write down the wrong order and they brought it to you in the USA you can send it back and they will bring you what you ordered. However, here you just take whatever food they bring...

(Respondent 3, a 22-year-old female American volunteer

However, some restaurants provided quality services. Some tourists were surprised by the care they received in some restaurants in situations where they knew that they were asking for more than they had paid for:

I think it is very good. Even if you are eating your yam and you ask for extra sauce, people will give you extra sauce and not charge you extra. So yeah, I think the quality has been good. People want you to leave full and happy (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

Mediating Factors

Customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a service provider is closely linked to memories of similar service encounters elsewhere (Douglas & Connor, 2003). This has a way of modifying the attitude or behaviour of the customer in subsequent situations. Therefore, tourists will compare the service levels here in Ghana to what they are used to. Although one cannot deny the fact that service quality and service delivery in Ghana remains a challenge, it is only fair if one looks at the complaints within the context of the different levels of development of the foodservice industry of Ghana and that of Western European and North American countries. The two places have a much more developed industry than Ghana. For example, Respondent 3 and Respondent 7 had earlier complained about wait staff having their way all the time instead of the “customer is right” maxim, which pertained in some western countries.

Another example could be cited with food presentation. Presentation, especially how food is packaged, is a big challenge for tourists. For Respondent 13, which is probably the case for many tourists, packaging of food in takeaway boxes is the same back home. It could have become a source of concern had the tourist not experienced it back at home:

The presentation is nice, even compared to France, for instance, it is quite the same for instance if you take it to your place. We put in small boxes as you do here. It is quite the same presentation; they put the rice here and the vegetables on the side and chicken on it. In addition, this is just close. We do quite the same things. It is no better in France than here in Ghana
(Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

A similar example could be cited for value for money from the narratives of Respondent 6 and Respondent 31 who compared their expenditure in Ghana to what they spent in US dollar or Euro back home. It is far cheaper in Ghana using the same amount than back home. These tourists, therefore, would not have any complaints about the cost of local cuisine in the restaurants although some thought otherwise and complained about it:

It has been a great value. I think everything has been an amazing value. Especially since I normally use US dollars, so if I buy a meal for GH¢ 38, it is ten dollars in America, which is very affordable for a meal. Moreover, for GH¢ 38, the only way you pay that much

is when you go out to eat in a restaurant. Therefore, everything is very affordable. One of my favourite things about being here for six weeks is that I can spend my money wisely and actually budget a lot easier because of the exchange rate (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer).

Repeat visitors have prior information on what to expect. Many of the trouble areas about service quality in both the formal and informal foodservice establishments do not worry them much. They have become accustomed to it and have low expectations. However, a first-time visitor like Respondent 32 was of the view that judging services in Ghana by what he is used to, would be wrong given that he does not even know what Ghanaians expect from service providers. This may seem negative but it is equally good if people do not complain unreasonably about service quality issues.

Strategies Adopted by International Tourists to Overcome Varying Service Experiences

Low expectations and cognitive dissonance are some of the strategies adopted by tourists to overcome some of the negative experiences. Those tourists who bought food from street food vendors did not expect much from the food vendors (Respondent 3; Respondent 14). Having low expectations help. Others too used cognitive dissonance to overcome whatever service problems they faced. For example, Respondent 3 was cited earlier as receiving a wrong order. In order not to be seen as being grumbly, the tourist thinks the

resources of the street food vendor is limited and would, therefore, take the order as it came. Nevertheless, it is a deep-seated psychological normalisation process that the tourist is using to overcome the pain of not being served what was ordered:

Nevertheless, we understand, yeah, especially if it is on the street they may not have enough resources to make the food again (Respondent 3, a 22-year-old female American volunteer).

Respondent 29 (a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer) refuses to blame the street food vendors for the bad air that comes out of the gutters, which suggest a sense of acceptance of the obvious rather than trying to find fault with the situation.

Some have even adopted drastic measures in order to forestall future occurrences. They have stopped visiting places that have service problems (Respondent 12, a 24-year-old female Canadian tourist; Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist) altogether. Other tourists inspect washrooms to determine if it was safe to eat from a place. They do not just go and sit to be served. Certain background checks were done including checking the restrooms:

The restaurants, I have been to the toilets. Well as I was saying, I look to whether it is a clean place. Usually, the places that do not look clean they do not have clean washrooms as well. By just looking at the washrooms, I could see whether it is a clean restaurant or not. When I was studying, I also worked in the restaurants. I was

a waiter in many restaurants (Respondent 38, a 35-year-old male Dutch business tourist).

Consequences of the Strategies Adopted by International Tourists

The consequence of all the mixed service experiences and the strategies that were adopted by tourist led to two outcomes. One was to avoid certain places for the unsanitary conditions and poor service (Respondent 12, a 24-year-old female Canadian tourist; Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist; Respondent 38, a 35-year-old male Dutch business tourist). Some too chose to have low expectations and continued to visit the informal foodservice establishments, the challenges notwithstanding (Respondent 14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer). Figure 7 represents the mixed-service encounters that tourists experienced at the destination.

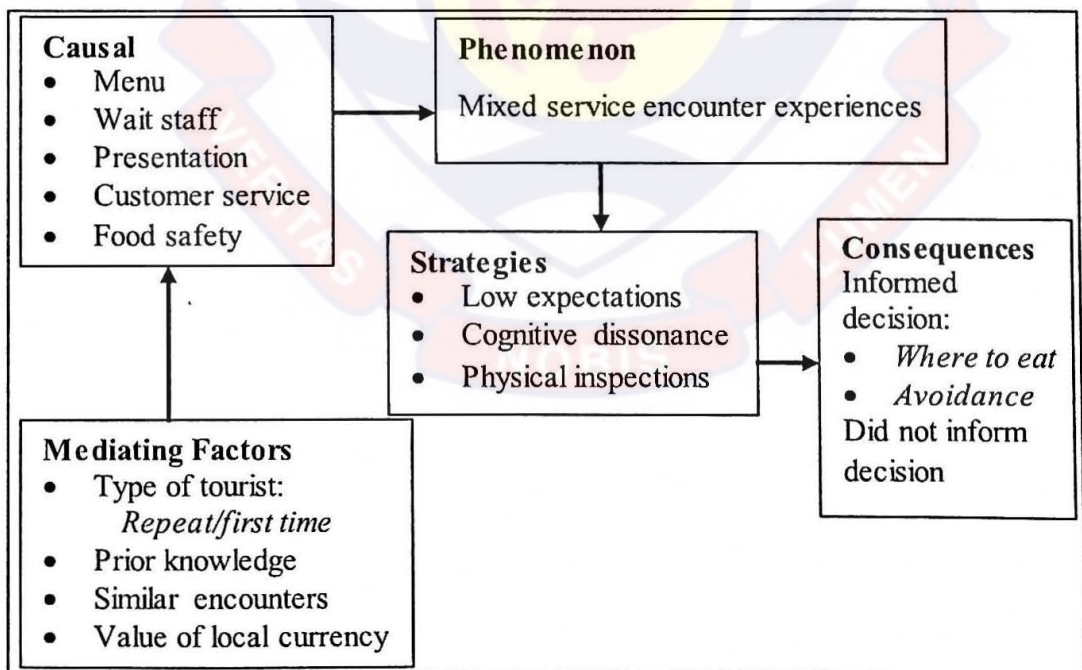


Figure 7: Mixed Service Encounter Experiences

Source: Author's Construct, 2016

Chapter Summary

This Chapter analysed tourists' purchase experiences at the two types of foodservice establishments. From the analyses, it emerged that the major theoretical category affecting tourist decision-making in relation to where to eat was a choice dilemma. The dilemma was looked at and the factors that informed such a conclusion were discussed. Issues that led to choice dilemma included customer service, variety, food safety, sanitation, atmosphere, communication, presentation and value for money. The next major heading treated in this chapter was the mixed service encounter experience.

The mixed service experience theme emanated from the various service encounter problems that tourists faced, irrespective of where they finally chose to eat. This theoretical category was examined using a coding paradigm that identified the causal conditions (menu, wait staff, and customer service), the mediating factors (type of tourist [repeat or first time], previous service encounters (home or abroad) and the value of one's home currency against the Ghanaian cedi. The strategies adopted by some of the tourists were discussed as well. These included having low expectations, cognitive dissonance, avoidance, and physical examination. The consequences of the strategies adopted were also discussed.

CHAPTER SEVEN

INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' PERCEPTION OF GHANAIAN CUISINE

Introduction

This chapter analyses international tourists' perception of Ghanaian cuisine. The perceptions are discussed under five broad headings: Appearance, flavour, taste, texture, and variety. The perceptions determine whether tourists will like or dislike Ghanaian cuisine. It also explores a number of mediating factors that influence like or dislike for Ghanaian cuisine.

Sensory Characteristics of Ghanaian Cuisine

The acceptability of dishes generally depends on the appearance, flavour (taste), texture, auditory characteristics (crunchy, soft, hard), and how satiable the food is (Chung, Smith, Degner, & McClements, 2016; Costell, Tarrega, & Bayarri, 2010; Foster, Grigor, Cheong, Yoo, Bronlund, & Morgenstern, 2011b). Consequently, tourists' acceptance of Ghanaian dishes depends largely on the knowledge that they gained about the sensory attributes of the dishes after their consumption experiences.

Perception of Appearance

The visual appearance of a dish is how it looks in the sight of tourists. Different tourists interpret these images differently. The visual properties of the food have the power to generate a desire for consumption or completely inhibit any desire that people have (Chen, 2007). The colour of the Ghanaian dishes

encountered by tourists was one area that was difficult to describe. Many tourists could not pinpoint what exactly the dominant colours were. Those who could recall said the soups were always brown or dark red in colour, white, and yellow for the rice meals:

The colours are the same like a dark red colour and then the white and yellow from the rice. I think there are not that many colours (Respondent 27, a 20-year-old female German volunteer).

The soups are always brown. That is the dominant colour that I see all the time (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German postgraduate research student).

Colour identification could be difficult especially for some of the dishes. For example, if *fufu*, *banku*, and *omo tuo* are completely covered with soup as it is usually done in Ghana, all that the consumer sees is the colour of the sauce and not the accompaniment. This is a view shared by a tourist:

Often, everything is just put together in one. Therefore, you do not see which colours they are. However, I do not know but it is not a factor that I think is so important or something. Because I am just buying food in a simple place and I do not expect them to make an artwork out my food (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

Contrary to the views above in relation to the appearance of the dishes, a tourist was of the view that the dishes had different colours that stood out:

I think the colours, the red tomatoes sauce, the green vegetables and you have the white yam. You know a good plate of dishes has variety in them and there is a lot of colour variety in Ghanaian dishes (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female tourist from the USA).

Foodservice establishments that have nice plate presentations will definitely have certain colours standing out. In line with earlier discussions on presentation and choice of eating place, the expectation is that the formal foodservice establishments will have nice plate presentation compared to the informal foodservice establishments

The colour of the dishes may be a major point where tourists differed in opinion; nonetheless, there was an agreement when it came to the oily nature of the dishes. One image of Ghanaian dishes in relation to appearance that stood out among tourists was its oiliness. Most of the dishes were fried in oil including the sauces and vegetables, which may account for the oily nature of the dishes:

So some of the food here I have to only eat just a little bit of it like the vegetables that are cooked in oil I try to eat only a little bit (Respondent 3, a 22-year-old female American volunteer).

Sometimes I do not like so much if it is too oily. Because some of the sauces they do very oily if they fry the things

(Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

If there was one thing that brought most Ghanaian dishes together, then it was the oil:

Oily, if I have to define one thing that usually brings together many of the traditional dishes, [then it is the] high percentage of palm oil (Respondent 19, a 40-year-old female Canadian tourist).

This is noteworthy given that another tourist who was dining out with a friend tried to find out the dominant ingredient in the dishes. They could not find anything except to settle on the oily nature of the dishes:

Actually, I talked about the oil with my friend yesterday. We were trying to guess what was in our meal, you know trying to see which ingredients they used, and then we gave up, but funnily, we said, we know that there is a lot of oil at least. Then I remembered I said that probably one of the reasons that I like the dishes so much here is because of the oil (Respondent 9, a 22-year old female Belgian research student).

However, as it is in most cases, the dominant oily nature of the dishes does not cut across all restaurants. Some restaurants do not use a lot of oil since they promote alternative healthy eating habits. Some tourists came across these restaurants and admitted that they were very conservative with the oil:

*I think in restaurants like ****, one of the things that are good about it is they sell organic food. For westerners, organic food is something that comes to us as good. Moreover, they do not use a tonne of oil. They do not use a lot of oil like what the locals use* (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male volunteer from the USA).

This tourist is talking about organic dishes but the oily nature of Ghanaian dishes found its way into the narrative. Another thing with oil is that it sometimes gets in the way of the taste of the dishes. It becomes difficult to distinguish the taste of the oil from the taste of the food as a component on its own:

I think in general I do not like when I get stew and there is a lot of oil on top of it. In addition, usually that is a thing for many Americans, like when there is a lot of red oil on it; it does not taste any better. You know it does not add any flavour. It gets in the way of the good taste of the regular sauce (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female tourist from the USA).

Perception of Flavour

The dominant image of the taste of the dishes was its spicy (peppery) nature. The spicy nature of the food makes it exotic to the tourists since most of them are not used to spicy food:

You eat a lot of pepper in Ghana. The first day we were quite surprised about it. Now it is ok. It is a bit spicy for us. However, it is just because in France we do not eat pepper (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

Then normally the hot tolerance, if you are here for longer you can eat more pepper. Yet, in the beginning, your tolerance is quite low, so if you are eating you say ouch, it is too hot and you cannot finish. (Respondent 12, a 24-year-old female Canadian tourist).

Therefore, to consume peppery food while visiting Ghana in itself is a discovery. The dishes are spicy even for the avowed traveller:

Your dishes [light soup, red-red, grilled guinea fowl] are very spicy. Thailand also has spicy dishes but I think they use chilli, but your dishes, I think you use pepper. Those are very spicy...I do not like it when it is too spicy (Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female volunteer from Denmark).

The result of the peppery nature of the dishes was that sometimes some of the tourists were a little bit cautious with the local dishes. However, after some time they got used to the spicy dishes:

When you go to the restaurant, you have some Ghanaian food, and you are aware that sometimes it is spicy and you tell them, listen, not too spicy, then it is

ok. Nevertheless, you have to keep that in mind always. That makes some foreigners and tourists a little bit hesitant to Ghanaian food. Because they are always having this spicy experience (Respondent 32, a 29-year-old male Swiss tourist).

The pepper is awful when you have never eaten pepper at the beginning. My first month in Ghana was awful because of that. I had very much difficulty to eat. Now I love it and actually when I go to eat at a more touristic place, I sometimes ask them to add more pepper than they usually do. Because they adapt to the taste of the tourists and I want more, I want something more Ghanaian. ... However, it is true that the first time I came to Ghana that was hard for me at the beginning now I really love it but that was hard (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

Most of the formal foodservice establishments that are patronised by tourists reduce the quantity of pepper in their dishes upon request by tourists as recounted by respondent 32 and 9. This is good since perceived behavioural control is an important factor that influences people's attitude and behaviour (Ajzen, 1991 & 2011). If people think they can influence the outcome of a behaviour, they tend to engage in it.

It is, however, important to state that cooks and chefs should not completely remove the spiciness (peppery) from Ghanaian dishes just because

a section of inbound tourists to Ghana are not used to pepper. This is because the spiciness of the dishes has become an important attribute of the food, hence its image. The image is important for marketing purposes. Respondent 15 supports this view to the extent that Ghana should be seen as a spicy dishes destination:

I like spicy dishes and I think Ghana is the right place to eat spicy dishes. Because you eat many spices. I like the spices in the groundnut soup and the different types of dishes (Respondent 15, 24-year-old male Swiss tourist).

This observation may not be the same for all tourists. Some do not find the food to be spicy and would want to have more pepper in them:

The vegetable stew. I like it how it is a little bit spicier. I really enjoy spicy food. Most foods are not spicy (red-red, jollof rice, and fried rice) they can make it a bit spicier. I think there is pepper in that but it is not that spicy, it does not burn (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer).

Perception of Taste

Another image of taste that tourists have associated with Ghanaian dishes is either the sour or bitter taste. The sour taste is from the fermented corn or cassava dough that is used in cooking at both the formal and informal foodservice establishments. Some foreigners may not be used to sour taste:

Banku and kenkey it tastes a little bit bitter or sour so that is a taste we are really not used to in the West and I never got over it for some reasons (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

The quote above brings into focus what people normally say about the dishes. Most often, Ghanaians and some tourists alike say Ghanaian dishes especially *banku*, *fufu*, *konkontey* and *kenkey* are delicious or palatable. They do not refer to those accompaniments. It is more of the taste of the sauce rather than the accompaniment:

Konkontey does not taste like anything. It is more of the sauce that I taste. I wish there could be some salt or pepper in that (Respondent 27, a 20-year-old German volunteer).

The sauce provides the taste. As Respondent 26 (A 26-year-old female postgraduate research student from Germany) puts it:

I think if you eat banku without any sauce, it is a bit sour, but if you did with some sauce then it is ok.

Those that do not have any taste are bland. For example, *fufu*, and *konkontey* taste bland:

Fufu itself is somewhat bland but the light soup is good.

I like the spicy and little oily soup (Respondent 21, a 27-year-old female volunteer from the USA).

Some tourists have even suggested that pepper and salt should be added to fufu to give it some taste:

The fufu is bland. There is no salt. There is no pepper.

It is a pity because most of the dishes have pepper in it

but the fufu, no. Fufu should be prepared with

something in it (Respondent 15, a 24-year-old male

Swiss tourist).

In contrast to the sour and bland taste, some Ghanaian dishes taste sweet due to the ingredients that are used in preparing them. For example, some yam and potato varieties are sweet as in ripe plantain. Consequently, if a tourist takes red-red and plantain, it is only natural for the tourist to describe it as having a sweet taste:

The taste of the red-red was quite sweet. I found it to be

quite sweet because of the plantain and the beans. It

was nice but somewhat spicy and where we had it, the

person who made it put a lot of chilli in it. The plantain

made it quite sweet. It was like ripe banana.

Nevertheless, it was nice (Respondent 25, a 24-year-old

male English tourist).

However, not all tourists held the view that Ghanaian dishes had a spicy, sweet, sour, or bland taste. Just as in the colour of the dishes, some tourists found it difficult to establish the dominant taste of the dishes. This is because the nature of most of the one-pot dishes prepared in Ghana is such that one sometimes finds it difficult establishing which ingredients contributed to which taste in the

food. The result is that some tourists had difficulties in establishing a taste for particular dishes:

I think many of the dishes have the same taste. It is as if they use the same kind of spices. So I think once you get too much of that taste then it is hard to find a dish without that taste (Respondent 27, a 20-year-old female German volunteer).

It is difficult to say this is the taste. If I use it as a single and dominant taste, there is something in it, it is too much that I do not like. If it is mixed, in this case, the sausage or the sauce of the fish itself, then I taste it as a component out of two or out of three. However, if I taste it as a single issue or single taste I do not like it, it is something that is too strong for me or too dominant for me (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

Perception of Texture

Texture refers to how the dish feels in the mouth or palm. Most Ghanaian dishes are soft. They are not crunchy:

Nothing very crunchy, very hard or whatever, everything is made very soft. Even the bread, you know, the bread in Europe they have a crust around it. However, in Ghana, the whole bread is very soft. That

was very striking to me. The consistency (Respondent 9, a 22-year old female research student from Belgium).

Those that are hard and crunchy are the fried yams:

The fried yam I really like how it is crunchy outside and I like the spicy sauce that they serve with it (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old American volunteer).

Others consider the fried yam to be dry:

I tried the yams. The yam I did not like it that much. It was a bit dry. Maybe it was due to the way it was served (Respondent 38, a 35-year-old Dutch business tourist).

This texture is consistent with what we know of fried or roasted yam. They are hard outside but sometimes soft inside. Therefore, on the one hand, one tourist thinks it is crunchy on the other hand, another thinks it is hard, an indication of the differences in how people construct meanings from the same experience. Another texture that is rare to some tourists is that of *banku* and *fufu*. The consistency of these two accompaniments is unlike things they have ever tasted:

The consistency of banku it is rare from what we are used to in Europe. It is something that you have to get used to (Respondent 28, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

Fufu is pasty and elastic (Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern), a texture most people will not like unless they are used to it or grew up with it (Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female Danish volunteer). The description of fufu by a tourist below sums up what most tourists think about fufu:

accompaniments are taken with. The sauces also lack variety (pepper soup, groundnut soup, palm fruit soup, vegetable soup, and okro soup). It, therefore, becomes easy for tourists to conclude that the dishes lack variety compared to those in their countries of origin:

They stick to the specific types of dishes. It is either rice, fufu, banku or konkontey. I think one thing is like banku but with more corn and then it is the sauce. Therefore, it is the same style of dishes or it is rice. Hence, it like it is not so varied. Maybe Ghanaians are more used to using the same ingredients, but for example, they forget that they can use more vegetables. Also the style of preparing things. They either boil it or fry it. In Europe, we often do something in between. Then it could have another taste (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

An important point raised in the quote above and supported by other tourists is the influence of the cooking method employed on the product outcome. Most of the cooking in Ghana is by either boiling or frying. By varying the methods of cooking such as using the oven (baking or roasting) one might get a different taste (Respondent 27, a 20-year-old female German volunteer).

Additionally, the nature of most Ghanaian dishes makes it difficult to combine a number of them:

I think because in Denmark we are used to combining dishes so we have potatoes and we could have lasagne together. It is not common to combining things here in

The problem with variety could be down to creativity as noted by one tourist. There are a number of ingredients on the market that could be combined to create new dishes. Yet, the concentration has been on the few known ones:

It is like there is no creativity. You know, you have all ingredients that are fresh and are bountiful but you make the exact same meal (Respondent 22, a 26-year-old female American volunteer).

Creativity is important in the preparation of dishes. The question is would there be an indigenous dish after adding all the creative touches that these tourists are suggesting? Another problem with variety is that most of the foodservice establishments concentrate on customers who the author would consider as the regular tourists. These people are not on any special diet and for that matter are not selective. Other customer groups such as vegetarians are not provided for. This makes it difficult for vegetarians to find dishes while in Ghana:

*For a vegetarian it will be very hard, you will always have to eat some snacks on the street and even if... for example, yesterday we had a lot of spring rolls because they sold them everywhere, even in those you have the meat or the meat pies which are very nice but even in those you have little meat. Therefore, as a vegetarian you would be ***** (Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern).

The problem with variety could be down to creativity as noted by one tourist. There are a number of ingredients on the market that could be combined to create new dishes. Yet, the concentration has been on the few known ones:

It is like there is no creativity. You know, you have all ingredients that are fresh and are bountiful but you make the exact same meal (Respondent 22, a 26-year-old female American volunteer).

Creativity is important in the preparation of dishes. The question is would there be an indigenous dish after adding all the creative touches that these tourists are suggesting? Another problem with variety is that most of the foodservice establishments concentrate on customers who the author would consider as the regular tourists. These people are not on any special diet and for that matter are not selective. Other customer groups such as vegetarians are not provided for. This makes it difficult for vegetarians to find dishes while in Ghana:

*For a vegetarian it will be very hard, you will always have to eat some snacks on the street and even if... for example, yesterday we had a lot of spring rolls because they sold them everywhere, even in those you have the meat or the meat pies which are very nice but even in those you have little meat. Therefore, as a vegetarian you would be ***** (Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern).

Mediating Factors

The sensory characteristics of the food may lead to its acceptance or disapproval, which will connote a like or dislike for the food. However, some mediating factors may still influence one's like or dislike for Ghanaian local cuisine. These factors are discussed subsequently.

Price

The overriding conclusion is that local Ghanaian dishes are cheaper compared to continental dishes. Nevertheless, this again depends on where the tourist eats. Ghanaian dishes sold at the formal foodservice establishments are more expensive than Ghanaian dishes sold at the informal ones (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German student researcher; Respondent 32, a 29-year-old Swiss tourist). This manifests itself in both the price paid and the portion size:

It is a big portion. Because most of the time we were taking the five cedis size, so the small size. It is enough. We never tried six or seven cedis maybe one day we will try just to see how it is. Therefore, the portions are good. The only places that the portion is small are the tourists' places. The first day we slept in a guesthouse in Tamale for a night. We ate there as well and the dishes were good but very small. Very expensive, a place for tourist to go so maybe it is normal. However, if we take street food, everything it is nice. Actually, we prefer dishes on the street a lot (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

Healthy Image

Healthy image of a given dish is mostly based on perceptions. This is because consumers at the point of consumption have no basis for determining whether a dish is healthy or not. All judgements on the how healthy a food is based on the appearance. For example, this is how a tourist described *tuo zafi* and the green soup:

The tuo zafi I mean it does not look nice and the soup just looks like diarrhoea. I mean it does not have a nice look. Sometimes you just have to try things that do not look nice (Respondent 35, a 22-year old female Dutch volunteer).

This tourist is judging the food just based on the appearance. It is the same principle that is applied to the other dishes that are sold on the Ghanaian market. Generally, most tourists perceive some West African dishes to be healthy. This is what a tourist who searched for information on the dishes found out:

I read that Ghanaian dishes and other West African country dishes are very healthy because there is a lot of protein from the fish and the beans. Therefore, I think it is quite healthy. Nevertheless, the oil is too much (Respondent 27, a 21-year-old female German volunteer).

The beans in Ghanaian dishes are a good source of nutrition (Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist). However, as these tourists sit down to eat they begin to notice a high concentration of oil in most of the dishes, which then becomes a source of anxiety for most of them. This goes to buttress the earlier

point that judgement on how healthy a meal is first based on its appearance before other attributes of the food are questioned.

Again, the proportion of the carbohydrate to protein and minerals (vegetables) is problematic (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist; Respondent 36, a 21-year-old male Polish tourist). As one tourist puts it:

If I have to describe the dishes here, I would say it is a lot more carbohydrate (Respondent 7, a 24-year-old male Swiss intern).

Although some respondents acknowledged the presence of a source of protein in the dishes that could make it healthy, on the balance of things, the heavy carbohydrate presence brings the healthiness of the dishes into question:

Most of the dishes here have more carbohydrate than protein and minerals and vegetables (Respondent 16, a 22-year-old female Swiss tourist).

The properties of the dishes such as the carbohydrate to protein to mineral ratio were used to determine how healthy a dish is from other dishes. This is essentially looking for the quantity of starch, protein source, and mineral source on the plate. Others may include the dishes' production methods and the perceived wholesomeness of the ingredients used.

Another issue that tourists have raised with Ghanaian cuisine is the smaller quantities of fruits served. Ghana is endowed with lovely vegetables and fruits, but they do not always find their way onto the plates at restaurants (Respondent 27, a 20-year-old female German volunteer) or in the quantity that some tourists would expect. This problem is not peculiar to informal

foodservice establishments but the formal ones as well. Most of the restaurants concentrate on the main dishes leaving out fruits and vegetables:

Sometimes, you do not get as much fruit and vegetables in the restaurants like what you see on the streets. At restaurants, they do not give you as much fruits and vegetables. Usually, it is about the main dishes and nothing about fruits and vegetables (Respondent 40, a 20-year-old male volunteer from the USA).

Some meals served in the restaurant come with salads as accompaniments. However, the proportion has always been the problem. The salads are just a small fraction of the entire meal:

You have many fresh fruits and a lot of fresh produce in Ghana. Yet, you do not use them. One example is when you look at the breakfast in most of the hotels that I stayed in. What do you get? You get five different types of eggs from which to choose. How many different types of fruits and vegetables? I usually like all the vegetables, you have the pineapples, and you have mangoes and yoghurts. I know European people eat many vegetables (Respondent 38, a 35-year-old male Dutch business traveller).

High carbohydrate content and low protein. Sometimes, vegetables are missing...You use vegetables but they are always missing with stuff so you

It is definitely carbohydrate heavy. In addition, I have not been really eating any vegetables because Americans are not supposed to drink the water here. So often times the vegetables or fruits are washed with the local water so we cannot eat it (Respondent 23, a 28-year-old female American tourist).

Another issue that is influencing what tourists eat when in Ghana is the oily perception that they have of our foods. Most Europeans and North Americans are concerned about what they eat now more than before (Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian student researcher). They are concerned about their health and having so many fried dishes in Ghana is a source of concern for them (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer; Respondent 38, a 35-year-old male Dutch business traveller). Consequently, the oily image of the dishes has its corresponding health-related image. The fatty nature of most dishes is linked to a number of coronary diseases. People are now mindful of the amount of oil or fat that they take in. Therefore, some tourists expressed concerns about the health implications of such oily dishes:

It is so healthy. One thing you people do though is you cook with a lot of oil. I will say that is not necessarily good for you (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer).

A 40-year-old female Danish volunteer even questioned the rising number of diabetes cases in Ghana if we indeed cook with oil and not butter:

I can also see at some places that when I buy dishes there is a lot of oil. I do not know if you use shea butter when you cook. Because in Denmark, we use butter. However, oil is healthier than butter. Because it has less fat than butter. Yet, you also have many people with diabetes. I do not know why if you are using oil that should be happening.

Butter has been linked to diabetes because of the saturated fat that it contains. A recent study by the University of North Carolina Medical School (2011) found a link between high-fat diet (saturated fat) and type two diabetes. People who consume high saturated fat diets have an overactive immune system that leaves their bodies vulnerable to inflammatory chemicals. Oil is sometimes fattening and therefore could be linked to weight gain and its attendant health problems:

I think it is healthy. The only thing is you use a lot of oil and sometimes the oil is fattening. Most people are concerned but I would not mind it (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

The view of another tourist on the healthiness of Ghanaian dishes could give a definitive clue as to what tourists think of Ghanaian dishes if the quantity of oil is not reduced:

I started with fried rice and it was just very greasy. And at home, we tend to eat dishes that are healthy, so we were worried that there were no healthy dishes but then we discovered other things, yeah.....like groundnut

soup and light soup and jollof rice which is also not greasy (Respondent 3, a 22-year-old female American volunteer).

The food was classified as unhealthy due to its greasy nature until groundnut soup and other things were discovered. Therefore, if more and more tourists continue to find oily and greasy food in Ghanaian restaurants, they would begin to avoid it especially in the age of healthy eating. The question though is at what point do certain dishes become unhealthy? Does the mere presence of oil make it unhealthy? This is more of people's construction of what a healthy diet is, although all over the world people are questioning the value of fatty oils in cooking. It is, however, intriguing to note that some tourists were not bothered about the quantity of oil in the dishes:

You know that is very different for different people. Some people are very concerned about the amount of oil they are eating. Some people are not. I am not so much. It is true that in Belgium I use very, very few oil. Not much, yeah, I do not know, I am not living in Ghana; it is only for holidays so I do not care
(Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

Sometimes tourists set aside certain principles when they are on vacation. There is, therefore, the likelihood that tourists who probably are mindful of their health while back home might live unhealthy lifestyles for a few weeks while on vacation:

No, [not worried about the oily dishes] because I am only going to stay here for only five weeks, so it does not matter. When I go back, I can eat as I am used to. Therefore, when I am here I just eat it. It does not matter (Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female Danish volunteer).

Although, some tourists may not be bothered others would want to take in oily foods in moderation, knowing very well the consequence of eating oil in an unregulated manner:

I think it is healthy. Some of the dishes are a little bit fatty so they have much energy, many calories but I think it is not a problem as long as you do not eat a lot (Respondent 32, a 29-year-old Swiss tourist).

The environment in which the dishes are sold also raises health-related concerns and therefore, the image of the dishes. As has been discussed in Chapter six of this study, the unsanitary conditions under which some of the informal foodservice establishment operators ply their trade raises a number of health-related questions about the dishes. Some locals have even warned tourists not to eat food from the informal foodservice establishments for fear of contracting certain diseases (Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer; Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer). Therefore, the unhealthy image of the local dishes sold at some informal foodservice establishments is not a concocted story on the part of the tourists; some locals

do share similar views. The concerns raised over the safety of some dishes have implications for the image of Ghanaian dishes:

Maybe sometimes the environment has an effect on the health. If the sun is baking on the dishes. Otherwise, I think it is more or less healthier (Respondent 28, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

It is even difficult for people to eat meat products that have not been preserved properly. Exposing meat to all the elements without proper holding temperature carries with it high food safety risks. For people who come from countries that pay attention to food safety and hygiene, it is difficult for them to eat a product that they would normally eat back home:

In Kumasi, we visited the central market and then we saw how you buy your meat and the fish and this is a little bit strange. After when you go to the restaurant and you order something and you know where the seller bought it from it comes back to your mind....it is a little bit, I mean you cook it and it is hot boiled and it is ok but I do not know but...[hesitant to consume]
(Respondent 17, a 24-year-old male German intern).

I would not eat raw meat. Because in the central market, where they sold them was fine. Then on the corridors, where the sun was shining like onto the meat that was rather.... because we have to have those regulations that we have to cure the meat. But I think,

like where we eat you can normally see how they boil it or fry it or cook it or whatever, so that has not stopped us so far, it has maybe reduced the amount that we eat
(Respondent 18, a 24-year-old female German intern).

A 61-year-old German business tourist is even of the view that traditional German tourists will not consume the meats that are sold at the street corners:

*The fish and the egg, I like it very much and the bread.
If you would bring a normal German person near to the meat they sell on the street, it will be very difficult for them.*

This is all due to the perceived food safety breaches that they thought the dishes have been subjected to. This in the nutshell creates a negative health-related image of the dishes, which will influence the liking or dislike for the food.

Cultural Background

Taste is always something that you are used to. It is a habit. It is not a natural thing. There is no bad taste; you are just not used to it (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

The quote from Respondent 6 provides a platform for the discussion of the role played by cultural values/ethnicity on people's acceptance of other people's food. Food liking and dislike which translates into food choice are rooted in a number of factors including, but not limited to, psychological, sociological and cultural factors (Januszewska, Pieniak, & Verbeke, 2011; Milosevic, Zezelj, Gorton, & Barjolle, 2012; Pula, Parks, & Ross, 2014). Consequently, depending

on peoples' construction of good taste, good flavour, good texture, and the other sensory attributes of the dishes, one may find different degrees of liking and dislike for the same product. The ingredients used to prepare the dishes in Ghana may not necessarily be different from what the tourists know about. However, the cooking methods used could result in a different taste that the tourist is not familiar with (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist). They have not tasted such flavours or flavour combinations prior to visiting Ghana:

That is just because there is nothing to compare it to what we eat. Like a whole life, we have not had any choice to taste something like that. Because of that, our taste buds do not think it is the right taste. Therefore, when I taste it and it tastes sourer I think it because I miss cheese (Respondent 21, a 27-year-old female American volunteer).

Context is very important when it comes to the acceptance of dishes (Boutrolle, Delarue, Arranz, Rogeaux, & Koster, 2007; Jaeger & Rose, 2008). Sometimes, the same product is disliked because of how it has been prepared at the destination. For example, fish is an important source of protein across the globe. Different cultures, however, have different ways of cooking fish. In Ghana, fish is processed for cooking either as fresh, salted, smoked, or even fried fish. Most of the tourists who come to Ghana are used to freshly cured fish in their diets. The dislike for fish by some tourists was due to the way it has been preserved and processed in Ghana (Respondent 10, a 24-year-old female German tourist; Respondent 21, a 27-year-old female American volunteer). These tourists eat

fresh fish back at home. However, they have some difficulty in eating Ghanaian dishes with fish, just because of how it has been cooked:

One thing that I will never try when I am here is the dried fish. It intimidates me. I just do not like it. In the US when you eat fish, it is fresh fish. It is on an ice pack. It is cured...as if it is raw. It is so different, the way that we eat fish. I feel like I will get sick. It might be delicious. You never know (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male volunteer from America).

Some other tourists found fresh fish in Ghana but were worried about how it had been cured. The fish has been left in the sun and the sellers do not put any ice on it (Respondent 18, a 24-year-old female German intern; Respondent 39, a 19-year-old male Belgian intern). The situation creates food safety risks that the tourists are not ready to take. They avoid the fish whether it is fresh or smoked. For instance, the underlining dislike for fish by Respondent 31 was borne out of the fear of becoming sick due to the method of processing. This is not strange since most tourists do not eat some foreign dishes because of the fear of becoming sick (Torres & Skillicorn, 2004).

Another problem is the bones in the fish. They pose a threat to people who are not used to eating fish in that state. Consequently, some tourists generally like fish back home but disliked Ghanaian dishes with fish due to the bones:

I do not like if there is too much fish in the dishes. I like fish but there are too many bones and things in it. I do

not like fish with all the bones in it (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer).

Eating whole fish might be a concern for some Europeans and North Americans (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist). Although that could be case, Respondent 37 does not have any concerns about whole fish and has been eating it.

Some tourists, on the other hand, do not like fish at all. This had nothing to do with how the fish is preserved or processed in Ghana. They do not like fish back home and they would therefore not like it while in Ghana (Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist; Respondent 40, a 20-year-old male American tourist). The same can be said for beans. Most tourists like *red-red* and plantain. It is one of the important dishes on the minds of tourists encountered in this study. Nevertheless, there were some tourists who did not like it. This has nothing to do with *red-red* as a dish in Ghana. They do not like beans back home:

I do not like rice and bean very much because I do not like beans. Normally, I eat everything. Nevertheless, I do not like the taste of the beans. (Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist).

I do not like beans and stuff, so when you have red-red, I only eat the plantain, but the beans stew I do not like it that much. It is just because I do not like beans that much. So that is also when I am at home I do not like

beans that much (Respondent 34, a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer).

The scenario is more of an attitude towards the two products that has been formed for some time ago.

Attitude is a major predictor of behaviour in addition to other factors such as subjective norms and perceived behavioural control in Azjen's (1991) theory of planned behaviour (Hasking & Schofield, 2014; McEachan, Conner, Taylor, & Lawton, 2011). Peoples' favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards products affect acceptance and consumption. The two concepts of food neophilia and neophobia are very important when discussing the like and dislike for food. As has been observed in relation to the fish, some tourists are scared of eating fish processed in Ghana. Hence, they have not had fish meals while in Ghana. These tourists can be termed as neophobic to fishes sold in Ghana. However, all those interviewed in this study have tried one Ghanaian dish or another and have developed a liking or dislike for them based on the sensory attributes of the dishes. They can be termed, therefore, as neophiliac. They were not scared of trying the dishes. Most of them have discovered things that they have never had out of curiosity:

I like goat meat kebab. I never had it before I came here. When I was at Kokrobite they sold goat kebabs. That is why I spent so much money when I was at Kokrobite. That is all I ate (Respondent 31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer).

A 21-year-old Polish tourist narrates a similar story about rice and beans. These are dishes that he did not eat back home but had come to like because of being in Ghana.

Some tourists also stick to familiar things. This does not mean that they do not look for new dishes on their journeys. They do. However, food products at the destination that are close to what they are used to become readily acceptable than novel ones. Yams sold in Ghana are similar to the potatoes elsewhere (Respondent 33, a 40-year-old female Danish volunteer). Peanuts or groundnuts are also available in many parts of the world. It is, therefore, easy for tourists to identify with them at the destination:

I like fried yam because it looks like potato chips, so I do like that. The plantain I like the sweetness of the taste. I like the peanut soup. I think the things I like are familiar to me. The taste is familiar to me. That is why I like it (Respondent 34, a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer).

Values/Worldviews

The fear of contracting a disease while in a foreign land may not be the primary reason why people may not eat foreign food while away from home. Some of the issues deal with the values or worldviews held by individuals. For example, a tourist confessed to eating insects in another country, an indication that this tourist was not risk averse to some extent. However, concerns about the meat of a particular animal while in Ghana would prevent him from eating some dishes:

I was at the beach and I saw people washing an animal in the bucket. It was in the fire before and I saw a tail. It looks very close to a dog. For example, whatever the taste would be, if I would know this were a dog, I will have enormous difficulty in eating it. I would not say I would not eat it, I am too curious to say that. Nevertheless, it would be very difficult for me to eat. For example, when I was in Mexico, I ate insects and it was very nice (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old German business tourist).

The perceived difficulty in eating that meat is because it is called a dog. In many western societies where people keep pets as pets and not just another animal to be kept for consumption, dogs are important pets. Consequently, seeing a dog that has been prepared for consumption could be difficult to consume for this tourist.

For some other tourists, the dislike for an item used in particular sauces or soups at the destination is more of a worldview than food safety and sanitation issues associated with the product in question. Bushmeat or game is a delicacy for many Ghanaians, but for this tourist, eating bush meat while in Ghana would not be appropriate considering views on the environment and issues relating to poaching:

I am always open to new experiences. I maybe a little bit hesitant to bush meat. For us Europeans, we often relate that to environmental factors like illegal hunting and things like that. However, the general domestic

animals, beef, pork, chicken, seafood, this is not an issue but bush meat is the special case (Respondent 32, a 29-year-old Swiss tourist).

The discussions on international tourists' perceptions of Ghanaian cuisine offer some useful insights into ways of improving Ghanaian cuisine for the international tourist market. The images of the food judging from the sensory characteristics could be either an attraction or an impediment. For instance, the oily image could connote something bad for health conscious travellers. Nonetheless, Ghanaian restaurateurs can use coconut oil in their meals. Coconut oil is promoted as a healthy option.

Again, the spicy image is an important aspect of the food that makes it unique. However, as advocated by some tourists, there should be the opportunity for them adjust the quantity that is put into their meals. Most European and North American restaurants and to some extent upscale Ghanaian restaurants have salt and pepper shakers on their tables for those who would want to adjust the taste of their meals. It can also be deduced that like or dislike for a cuisine may not just be attributed to the sensory characteristics of the food. There are important factors beyond these factors that affect food like and dislike such cultural background, worldviews, and healthy image of the food. Figure 8 is a schematic representation of tourists' perceptions of Ghanaian cuisine and the ensuing image formation.

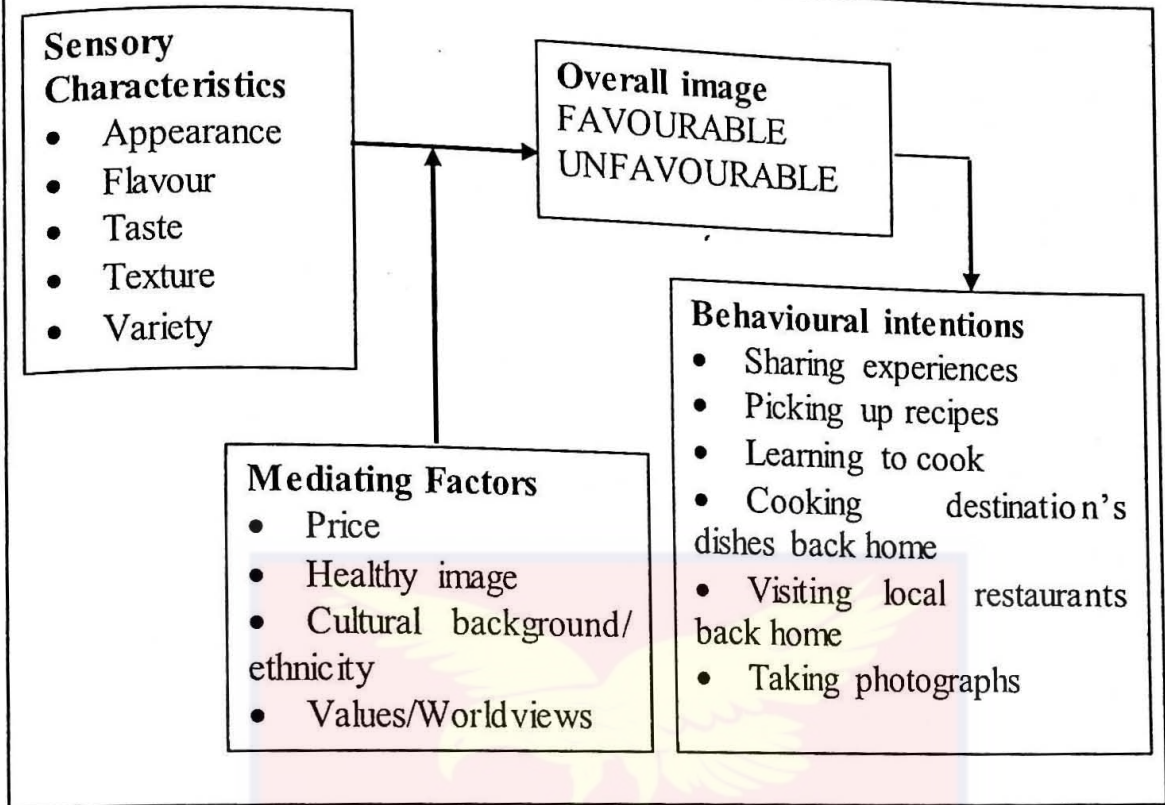


Figure 8: Exotic Food Encounters

Source: Author's Construct, 2016

Chapter Summary

This chapter examined international tourists' perception of Ghanaian dishes after their core consumption experiences. Tourists' perceptions of Ghanaian cuisine were shaped by four main sensory characteristics; appearances, flavour, taste and texture. These and a fifth perception (availability of options) were discussed. A number of factors such as price, healthy image, cultural background and values/world views that mediated whether a tourist will consume Ghanaian cuisine or not were also discussed. Overall, international tourists' perceptions of Ghanaian cuisine is mixed with a number of mediating factors influencing the like or dislike of the cuisine.

CHAPTER EIGHT

INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' POST-CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS TOWARDS GHANAIAAN CUISINE

Introduction

This chapter examines international tourists' post-consumption behavioural intentions towards Ghanaian cuisine. After consuming Ghanaian local cuisine, tourists have a number of intentions that could influence their attitude towards Ghanaian cuisine in the future and what they intend doing with the experiences that they have gained. Some of the behavioural intentions covered in this chapter include retelling the experience, keeping a piece of the experience, reliving the experience and cultural transformation is a result of the overall experience.

Behavioural Intentions

Industry experts and academics are equally interested in the post-purchase or consumption intentions of consumers. This is manifested in the numerous studies looking at customer satisfaction and revisit intentions (Huàng, Mao, Wang, & Zhang, 2015; Jung, Ineson, Kim, & Yap, 2015; Kim & Lee, 2015; Marinkovic, Senic, Ivkov, Dimitroski, & Bjelic, 2014). There are different behavioural outcomes from inbound tourists' consumption experiences in relation to Ghanaian dishes. These outcomes are categorised as retelling the experience, keeping a piece of the experience, reliving the

experience, and cultural transformation. It is important to state that some tourists will combine one or more of these behavioural intentions.

Retelling the Experience

Word-of-mouth recommendation is one of the post-consumption behaviours of consumers. Most businesses are interested in what their former and current patrons say about them. Word of mouth has implications for the business and this can be either positive or negative (Angelova & Zekiri, 2011; Ladhari, Brun, & Morales, 2008). In fact, some of the tourists interviewed stated getting information on Ghanaian dishes from friends and relations who either had consumed the dishes and left or are still in Ghana.

It is, therefore, equally important that current tourists are asked about their experiences and what they will do when they are out of the country. Tourists do not forget their experiences when they leave. They share their experiences whether they are good or bad:

I do not think people forget about it. Most of the people

I know when they came back they really had good

memories of the food. We were talking about it. Either

it is an awful experience or it is for some good ones.

They tried preparing the food for their friends to see it

(Respondent 9, a 22-year-old female Belgian research student).

Those who decided to talk about it described the dishes as being delicious and amazing (Respondent 2, a 24-year-old female German volunteer; Respondent

14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer) and some even went on to make specific recommendations to friends:

We have been here for five days. It is short. We have only tried food in the street so most of the time it is always fufu, banku, jollof, fried rice. We do not know of the other things we have not tried. Nevertheless, we can recommend fufu especially, I think because we really like it and palaver sauce and yam and for the beer, the stone beer is one of our favourites for now (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

The respondent had spent only five days in Ghana but had discovered some favourite Ghanaian dishes and a beer. Tourists, therefore, do not need a longer stay period to become attached to Ghanaian dishes and to even go on to make recommendations to their friends.

Although most of the tourists missed the dishes back home (Respondent 34, a 21-year-old female Dutch volunteer; Respondent 35, a 22-year-old female Dutch volunteer), they still had fond memories of Ghanaian dishes. This translates into favourable word-of-mouth messages that they will be telling their friends and relations concerning Ghanaian dishes:

I will tell them that I really like the dishes. The dishes were often a little too spicy but I still liked it. I will tell them it is different like nothing you know in Germany (Respondent 1, a 23-year-old German volunteer).

I think yam balls are very good. I will tell people. That is a nice story to tell people. People eat the same things, just that they are prepared in different ways. Here [Ghana] it is great (Respondent 30, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

The statements by Respondent 1 and Respondent 30 only portray the good side of Ghanaian dishes. However, closely looking at the remark by Respondent 12 below, one gets an idea about what people usually say about the dishes when they leave Ghana. It is tied to the image that they have of the dishes:

I will tell them that the dishes are nice, the dishes are spicy, and in Ghana, there are many carbohydrates, like a starch with a big fufu, banku, kenkey. That is how Ghanaian dishes are. There is a big starch and then some small stew or soup and then small protein. Most Ghanaian dishes do not have that much protein, they do not have that many fruits and vegetables it is more of the starch (Respondent 12, a 24-year-old female Canadian tourist).

The stories they tell their friends and relations are made up of the good, the bad, and the ugly experience with the dishes while on vacation.

Some may not tell others about their experiences, however, the memories live with them forever:

The jollof rice and the fufu even three years after I had gone back if I wake up in the night my mouth will water because I want fufu. It is not the same for everyone. I

was here for some time during my first visit. That could explain it. The memories, all the friends I had, the market, the dishes, the ocean (Respondent 37, a 25-year-old female American tourist).

For some tourists, returning to Ghana gives them the opportunity to relive those memories again:

I think before I came back again I really wanted to have this vegetarian fufu [referring to the soup] again but the place is closed down and I will want to have banku and tilapia again (Respondent 26, a 26-year-old female German research student).

Keeping a Piece of the Experience

Buying of souvenirs or mementoes is as old as the tourism trade itself. Tourists buy souvenirs to help them take a piece of the memory of their travels back home. One of the ways through which tourists keep a piece of their experiences with Ghanaian cuisine is to take photographs, buy a Ghanaian dishes postcard or to take recipes. Others went to the extent of buying some local spices, which they intended to use in cooking when they got back home:

I just bought a postcard with all different Ghanaian dishes on it so I can show them. There is fufu, banku, kenkey red-red everything on the postcard so I can show them (Respondent 1, a 23-year-old female German volunteer).

She just bought it today, a recipe book. We only took a small look at it, there are different soups, stews, and beans stew. We love to cook different menus from all over the world. This is funny because when we were in Mpreaso we bought a small grill and cooked sometimes for ourselves and the people from Ghana came to try it

(Respondent 15, a 24-year-old male Swiss tourist).

Taking recipes is one of the ways that tourists like to keep a piece of their local food experiences (Respondent 3, a 22-year-old female German volunteer; Respondent 11, a 25-year-old German tourist). Although some of them will want to keep the recipes as mementoes:

I think I will write down some of the recipes and take them back as a souvenir just for myself and take home

(Respondent 29, a 21-year-old female Danish volunteer).

Some tourists, however, looked beyond just keeping mementoes to actual food preparation with those recipes when they got back home:

I have also learned how to prepare groundnut soup and would like to prepare it back home when I go. I have the recipe for the groundnut soup (Respondent 14, a 24-year-old male German volunteer).

Taking of recipes is just one part of the ways of keeping a piece of the experiences. Some tourists wanted to take foodstuff such as yam, and *moringa* back home:

I would take the Moringa back home; I have never seen it before. This is a good product to export to Europe. There is no big market, but it could sell. This has the potential to becoming an interesting product. I am quite sure. Many people have more money than they can spend. Therefore, they are looking for interesting things they can spend on, and also food, interesting food (Respondent 6, a 61-year-old male German business tourist).

Respondent 6's intention is to take the product home for personal use. He, however, saw a potential market for the product. This is because of the exotic nature of the product and the fact that some people are looking for products that are different from what they are used to. This is an important drive behind food tourism. Other tourists will take neither recipes nor foodstuff or spices back home. They intend taking photographs away with them. This act has been one of the oldest of ways by which tourists have been keeping a piece of their experiences at destinations: "I will try to take some photographs of the food the next days as well" (Respondent 13, a 32-year-old male French tourist).

Reliving the Experience

The responses by respondents under this heading indeed confirms what Respondent 9 said about tourists not forgetting about their experiences after they had left the shores of Ghana. These tourists virtually take that to the next level by engaging in acts that put them in a very special place when it comes to Ghanaian dishes. These tourists cook using the recipes that they took with them:

I want to go to the market tomorrow to buy some herbs like pepper. I think you can buy these things here, a friend told me to go, he did it.....he is from Sweden. He went back a few weeks ago. He just went to the market and asked them what he should take home and they gave some nice things. He tried them and he said it was successful. I think I will do the same. Someone told me that I could buy like instant fufu so that I can cook it at home. However, I not sure I would want to do that. I think it is not the same. I will just take the memory with me. I do not think that it is the same to eat it in my kitchen at home. It will feel weird to go home and prepare them in my kitchen and then sit down at the table and then eat it with my hands there. It will be as if ok we are playing Ghanaian restaurant now. I do not know. Maybe I should do it not for myself but for my friends and family (Respondent 1, a 23-year-old female German intern).

I am definitely going to cook some of the food that I had here for my family. I will go back to the volunteer house and ask for the recipe for red-red, recipe for jollof rice and recipe for boiled yam and vegetable rice. I will remember those things because we very much eat those things on a daily basis. Very good memories of the

hard-boiled eggs and pepper and fan ice (Respondent

31, a 21-year-old male American volunteer).

Respondent 1's response has a number of issues that are later confirmed by some other tourists. The foodstuff, spices, and recipes that tourists take with them when leaving Ghana are not souvenirs. They cook them. Therefore, when people leave with some produce or ingredients chances are that they will prepare the dishes. Another concern of Respondent 1 is how to get it right when cooking Ghanaian dishes back home. That is a problem that some tourists faced when trying to cook Ghanaian dishes back at the countries of origin. Those who prepared the dishes back home did not get the same consistency as the local ones they encountered while in Ghana. This is how a repeat visitor recounted the whole experience with cooking Ghanaian dishes back home:

I had some volunteer friends here in Ghana that were also from Belgium and we set up some few meetings when we went back to try to make some fufu for ourselves. It did not work out very well. Nevertheless, we tried. We were trying to get back to that part of our trip in Belgium. It was very much pleasant, so the fufu did not work out but then we tried making some fried yam and pepper and that was successful. That was good
(Respondent 9, a 22-year-old Belgian researcher).

I always tell them that I like it. They cannot imagine what it is because they do not even know the ingredients

in Germany. I went to Ghanaian shop in Germany with some of my friends, and we bought the instant fufu. However, it was not nice. Nevertheless, they still liked it because we prepared the soup like in Ghana
(Respondent 24, a 24-year-old male German tourist).

Others too want to combine taking their friends out to try Ghanaian cuisine in the countries of origin with actual preparation of some of the dishes:

I learnt there is a Ghanaian restaurant in Berlin. Therefore, when I go back, I will take my friends there for them to try some Ghanaian dishes. I have also learned how to prepare groundnut soup. I will prepare it when I go back home (Respondent 11, a 25-year-old German tourist).

The above excerpts on tourists cooking Ghanaian dishes back home should not sound strange. As part of the cultural immersion programmes associated with homestays and host families, tourists take lessons on how to cook Ghanaian local dishes (part of the role of the destination caregivers). Many of them take the opportunity to learn how to cook, which would enable them to cook the dishes when they get back home:

I learnt how to cook red-red, so I could cook it for my family so that is nice, and Bambara beans were one of my favourite dishes but I did not learn how to cook it
(Respondent 10, a 24-year-old female German tourist).

I will try to make and show my friends. From my host programme, my host mother taught me. Now I do not have the material for akple and the grinding bowl

(Respondent 20, a 26-year-old female Japanese volunteer).

It is noteworthy to state that some international tourists, while still in Ghana, have cooked for themselves to the extent of being creative with some of the ingredients they found on the Ghanaian market:

We made groundnut soup. Yeah, we made it and we put in more vegetables, potatoes, and green beans. We changed it a little bit (Respondent 4, a 22-year-old female American volunteer).

This tourist and her friends had earlier stated that the food lacked in variety and Ghanaians could be more creative with the ingredients that they have. It is not surprising to note that together with her friends they have become creative with the groundnut soup.

Cultural Transformation

Some tourists have actually had a cultural transformation by visiting Ghana and eating some Ghanaian dishes while here. The transformation is in the way they use spices when cooking back home (Respondent 9):

As indicated earlier, I am still cooking with many spices now and that is definitely something I got from Ghana.

That is for sure.

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
In addition, others have incorporated Ghanaian dishes into their menu back home (Respondent 37). It may not be something that they do often, yet, it gives an idea about the behavioural intentions, and outcomes that ensue after tourists encounter Ghanaian cuisine:

I have Ghanaian recipes and I have cooked red-red and palaver sauce and groundnut soup back at home. It is not something that I do very often. Nonetheless, it is something that I love to make occasionally (Respondent 19, a 40-year-old Canadian tourist).

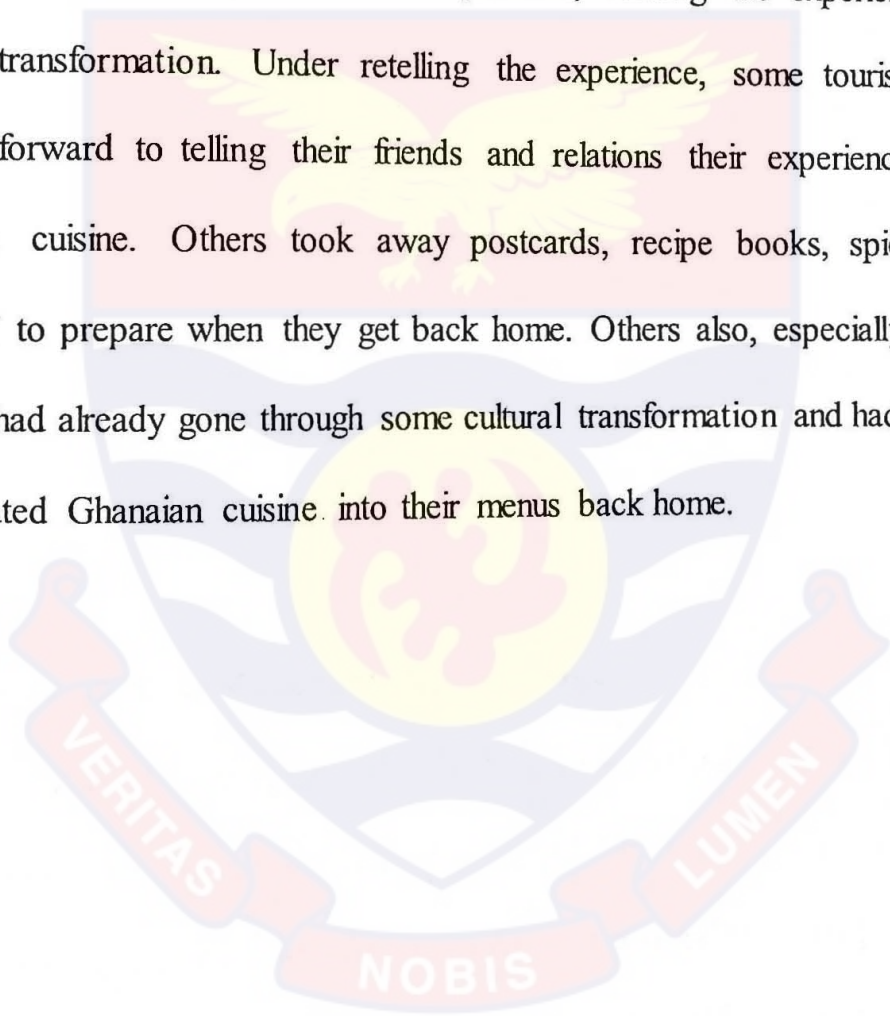
By occasionally incorporating Ghanaian cuisine into their meals back home, word-of-mouth marketing avenues are created for putting Ghanaian dishes on the tourist map. Respondent 37(a 25-year-old female American tourist) had earlier intimated that many of her friends are now aware of Ghanaian cuisine (jollof rice) because she has been preparing it back home. Word-of-mouth non-commercial advertising involves sharing of experiences of product or service with those who may be interested in experiencing it (Arndt, 1967; Mohammad, Jalilvand, Salimipour, & Elyasi, 2017). Because of its non-commercial nature, it is more trustworthy and credible than commercial advertising (Sivadas & Jindal, 2017).

After all, tourism especially cultural tourism is about authentic experiences in the era of globalisation of food. As people become familiar with Ghanaian dishes, chances are that in the future they would want to try it at the source. A case to illustrate this point is from Respondent 16 who was visiting Ghana for the first time with the boyfriend, a repeat visitor. Her boyfriend's mother had visited Ghana for just two weeks, had learnt how to prepare

© **University of Cape Coast** <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
groundnut soup, and has since been preparing it back home in Switzerland. She wanted to try groundnut soup here in Ghana because she already knew about it.

Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed the behavioural intentions that ensued from local food consumption. These intentions were grouped under retelling the experience, keeping a piece of the experience, reliving the experience and cultural transformation. Under retelling the experience, some tourists were looking forward to telling their friends and relations their experiences with Ghanaian cuisine. Others took away postcards, recipe books, spices, and foodstuff to prepare when they get back home. Others also, especially repeat visitors, had already gone through some cultural transformation and had already incorporated Ghanaian cuisine into their menus back home.



CHAPTER NINE

GROUNDING THEORY OF LOCAL FOOD CONSUMPTION EXPERIENCES

Introduction

The first part of this chapter explains the substantive grounded theory that has been developed from the data. The various components of the theory and the linkages that exist between them are explained. The second part of the chapter situates the study within existing literature. The aim of this post-fieldwork literature review is to situate the current study into existing body of knowledge after analysis of the data. This literature review is significantly different from the initial literature review at the onset of the study as this is focused and deals with issues emanating from the fieldwork.

Transformative Food Consumption Experience

The preceding chapters addressed the research questions of the study. By following the tenets of grounded theory methodology involving the inductive analysis of individual tourist's experiences throughout the consumption process (motivation, information search, purchase experience, and core consumption), concepts were developed. These concepts through a constant comparative approach (deductive analysis) with other tourists' narratives were developed into subcategories. Through the process of abduction, some main categories were identified among the various subcategories. These processes were followed until saturation and the emergence of the *transformative consumption experience of local food* as the

substantive grounded theory explaining international tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine. © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>

The use of the coding paradigm for the selective coding stage (explanatory framework) meant that there was a flow or relational path among the various elements of the theory. The "causal conditions" are factors that directly influenced the major theoretical categories in the consumption process outcomes. The constructs in the consumption process outcomes are in a descending order, indicating that they happened one after the other. The consumption process outcomes led to the behavioural intentions. However, to arrive at the behavioural intentions, a number of moderating/mediating factors influenced the consumption process outcomes. These factors mitigated the influence of the causal conditions on the major theoretical categories under the consumption process outcomes. Additionally, during the consumption process tourists faced a number of challenges, hence the adoption of a number of strategies to overcome them. At the post-consumption experience stage is the transformative local food consumption experience, which deals with the knowledge that the tourist acquires from going through the entire foodservice industry of the destination and learning and doing things that he or she is not accustomed to. The theory is discussed in relation to the theoretical categories that emerged at the axial coding stage. At the selective coding stage, these theoretical categories were grouped further leading to the emergent of the core category "transformative consumption experience of local food." Figure 9 presents the substantive grounded theory of tourists' experiences with Ghanaian local cuisine.

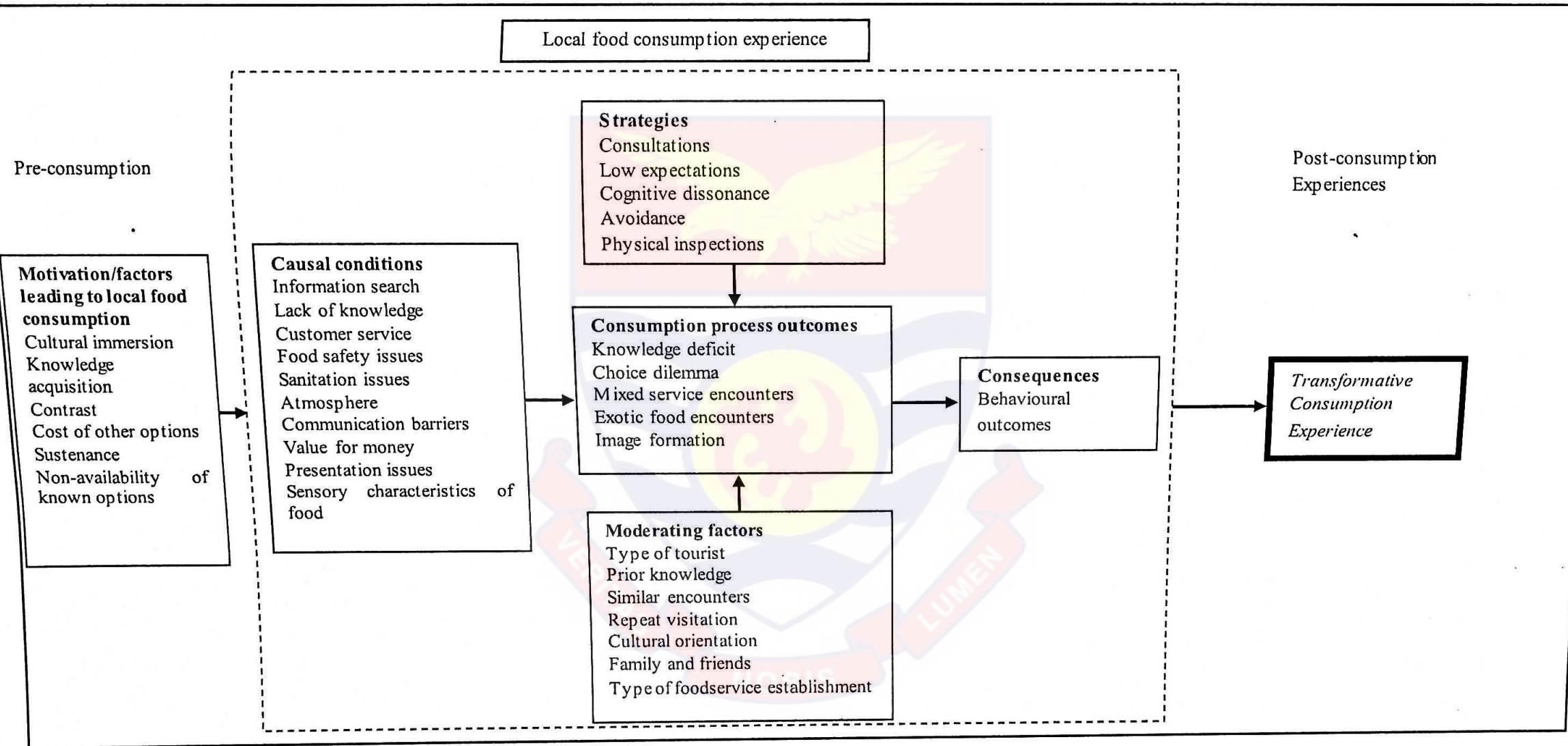


Figure 9: Grounded Theory of Transformative Consumption Experience with Local Food

Source: Author's Construct, 2016

The core category explains the central phenomenon under investigation “international tourists’ experiences with Ghanaian cuisine.” The grounded theory of ‘transformative consumption experience of local food’ is an explanatory framework that explains the processes that international tourists go through at the destination in order to consume local cuisine and the behavioural intentions that ensue after the consumption processes. The theory explains that the behavioural intentions of first-time tourists and the actions undertaken by repeat visitors after their first visit constitute some level of transformational learning by the tourists during and after consumption. The transformational learning occurs throughout the major theoretical categories at the axial coding stage. These codes are:

- Cultural curiosity
- Knowledge deficit
- Choice dilemma
- Mixed service encounter experiences
- Exotic food encounters

At the pre-consumption stage, which dealt with tourists’ motivation for consuming Ghanaian cuisine, it was noted that all the intrinsic motivation could be organised under one theoretical category “cultural curiosity.” Cultural curiosity drives the desire of tourists to learn more about other cultures through the food they eat. Hence, there is a yearning to learn about the food. However,

because the motivation to travel in the first place was not the local food at the destination not much was read about the food. There was some knowledge deficit. This is the second theoretical category in relation to information search. The knowledge deficit is in relation to both the food and how the entire foodservice industry works. Therefore, some tourists have to learn about the food and the foodservice industry at the destination.

The destination's foodservice industry also provides an avenue for learning again. Ghana has two contrasting foodservice establishments (similar to other developing countries): the formal and the informal. Tourists faced dilemmas as to which one to choose since they offer contrasting meal experiences. This led to the third theoretical category, choice dilemma. The formal ones as the name suggest provide services similar to what pertains in the countries of origin of the tourists. The informal ones are, however, different from what they know and have been experiencing. Experiences at the two places were mixed, with tourists experiencing services that were different from what they are used to. This was the fourth theoretical category. Once again, there is some transformational learning going on.

The core consumption stage also leads to discovering and learning about local foods. Most of the foods at the destination are different from what tourists are used to. The food is exotic, which means that tourists will have to adapt and adjust to the new flavours and taste. This leads to the final theoretical category, exotic food encounters. They also have to master the cultural practices associated with eating at the destination. These may include eating with the hands and swallowing whole without chewing through the food since most of the dishes have to be eaten in that way. This lead to the overall image formation

of the food. The outcome of the image formation is the behavioural intentions that ensued. These behavioural intentions have several elements of transformative learning leading to the post-consumption experience of “transformational consumption experience.”

Situating the Study within Existing Literature

In tandem with studies that employ grounded theory, either as an analytic tool or research design in qualitative studies, this part of the study aims at situating the major findings of the work within existing literature. The theoretical categories (knowledge deficit, choice dilemma, service experiences, and image formation) that led to the substantive grounded theory of *transformative consumption experience with local food* are discussed subsequently.

Knowledge Deficit

The concept of ignorance has received less attention in the literature than knowledge (Townley, 2011). McGoey (2012) notes that most studies have addressed ignorance as the opposite of knowledge, which should not be the case since, according to the author, the two go hand-in-hand. In other words, one moves from being ignorant to being knowledgeable about something. At any point in time, an individual may exhibit traits of any of the two. According to Anwaruddin (2015, p. 742) the word “‘ignorance’ connotes a deficiency of information. An ignorant individual is believed to have an incomplete or distorted understanding of a given phenomenon.” Consequently, it could be said that a person is ignorant of a phenomenon if that person does not have a

complete understanding of the phenomenon. This could be related to either the person having little or no information on the phenomenon.

Most of the tourists interviewed for this study did not search for any information on Ghanaian cuisine; neither did they have any prior knowledge of the food before coming to Ghana. Ignorance occurs within a certain context (Bailey, 2007). There is a social, cultural, and political context to ignorance. The social and cultural context is closely linked with the context of this study. The social and cultural backgrounds of these tourists are different from that of Ghanaians. Consequently, they most likely will not have any information about the culture and the social norms of Ghana. This should be distinguished from the cultural and social structures in societies that preclude people at the bottom of the hierarchy from knowing what happens at the top. Although there may be some social and cultural barriers to what tourists could know about Ghana, this only occurs at the destination where tourists are not permitted to enter certain places held sacred or protected under national security. On the information super highway, tourists have access to all manner of information on Ghana, as far as it is made available. Again, these tourists are not from countries with heavy political handedness, where certain types of information such as the food eaten elsewhere across the globe are not accessible to the populace. They live in the free world and have access to all manner of information including that on Ghana. Therefore, one would assume that there are no barriers to what the tourist can know about Ghana prior to their journeys.

Alcoff's (2007) three types of epistemologies of ignorance take this point further. The first is related to how the physical or geographical location of the knower and his/her experience shape what the person knows. Geographical

location of the tourists is important in this discourse of ignorance. The tourists targeted for the study are inbound tourists from around the globe. Some of them come from as far as Japan and Canada. The closest are those from England, although some have lived in Burkina Faso. Subsequently, their ignorance of Ghanaian food stems from how far they are from Ghana and the 'wilful ignorance' tendencies exhibited by some. In the concept of distance decay on travel (McKercher & Lew 2003; McKercher, Okumus, & Okumus, 2008), people tend to focus on issues that are nearer to them than distant ones. Hence, although the internet has partly eliminated the issue of time and space, Ghana is further away from the countries that surround the countries of origin of these tourists for them to be keen on its food. Experience is equally important. Experience affects what one knows, geographical location notwithstanding.

The second type of ignorance relates to specific aspects of a group's identity. In the tourism literature, different types of tourists could be identified. Although one may be inclined to question the basis for some of the groupings, one can identify the business tourist, ecotourists, leisure tourists (who in some definitions are the traditional tourists), the cultural tourists, which could be expanded to include the food tourists. Ghana as a destination is not on the food tourism map of the world; therefore, most tourists who visit Ghana do not come in search of culinary experiences, although the secondary experience as noted by Quan and Wang (2004) could become the peak experience at some point. These tourists search for other information on Ghana before coming but information on Ghanaian cuisine does not feature prominently on their information search needs. Some searched for information on the history, economy and the political systems in Ghana. They, therefore, will have little or

no information on the food offerings at the destination. This is significant given that most of the decisions made by tourists on accommodation, shopping and dining are made at the destination and not pre-trip (Woodside, 2008).

The final epistemology of ignorance is structural, which deals with systems established to ensure that people have access to information or not. For a destination that wants to attract as many tourists as possible, one would assume that efforts would be made to put out enough information on Ghanaian cuisine. That is not the case, since most of the tourists interviewed had complained about the inadequacy of the information they obtained on Ghanaian food. Treating tourists' lack of information on Ghanaian food before they travel to Ghana as knowledge deficit and for that matter, ignorance, is just an application of the process model of information search and decision-making and not the choice model proposed by Williams (2002).

The choice model adopts a linear process of decision-making in which tourists are expected to move from one decision point to the other. This view has been questioned severally in the literature (Choi, Lehto, Morrison, & Jang, 2012). Choice models are not able to capture the processes involved in tourists' decision-making (Smallman & Moore, 2010). Adopting the process model would assume that some tourists are ignorant up to a certain period when they would be able to gather enough information as the need be. This point of view is important because according to Sweeney, Soutar, and Mazzarol (2012) tourists' decisions do not follow a linear model and much travel information use is not related to specific places and times (Zins, 2007). Information search is need-based and not done all at once.

Ignorance does not connote negativity, as portrayed in the extant literature (McGoey, 2012). Ignorance is an important tool that could be harnessed, especially in the marketing of products. The reason being that it could give marketers the opportunity to influence consumers purchasing habits especially where they are getting to know of a product for the first time. Destination marketers, planners, and communication strategists are interested in the external information search behaviour of tourists as well as how that information can be tailor-made to influence purchase decisions (Erawan, Krairit, & Khang, 2011). For instance, in the scenario of ignorance exhibited by some tourists concerning Ghanaian food prior to their visit, destination marketers could provide carefully tailored information to draw their attention to what Ghana has to offer in terms of her food. McGoey (2012) shares the view by noting that seldom have people looked at the positive uses of ignorance.

Choice Dilemma

Dilemmas occur when people are faced with two or more alternatives that may result in similar conclusions (Manderscheid & Freeman, 2012). Dilemmas are essential to everyday thinking and argument and are shaped by people's worldviews (Holmberg, 2010). These worldviews affect the decisions that people make leading to some level of uncertainty. Dilemma has been studied in security (Alexseev, 2011; Lyons, 2008; Molder, 2011; Tang, 2009), education (Jung, Barnett, Gross, & McCormick, 2011; Jung, McCormick, & Gross, 2012), nursing (Ferrie, 2006) and research (Holmberg, 2010; Parker, 2008) to mention a few. The focus of these studies is choice, choosing among alternatives.

Choice making involves intentional and purposeful strategies that social actors must employ to overcome certain challenges (Lin, 2014). These challenges could be an unhealthy vending environment or questionable food safety practices. The tourists studied faced a dilemma in terms of where to eat in the light of two contrasting eating-places found in almost all the places they visited. The pros and cons associated with each eating-place recur in their narratives, which construed a choice dilemma.

Food Image Formation among International Tourists

Local food and tourism share an important relationship that is reflected in the increasing number of people who travel to certain destinations in search of unique culinary experiences (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010). These culinary journeys are embarked upon based on the image that these tourists have of the destination. Available tourism literature suggests a link between tourists' image of a destination and behaviour (Yilmaz, Yilmaz, Icigen, Ekin, & Utku, 2009). Image is defined as "the impressions that a person or persons hold of a place" (Baloglu, Henthorne, & Sahin, 2014, p. 1058). The relationship is manifested in attitudes, preferences, quality perception and consumption intention (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Prayag, 2009; Shin, 2009). Ultimately, if there is a positive image of a product, the likelihood of consumption is high compared to a negative image (Seo, Yun, & Kim, 2017).

Tourists' image formation of a destination's food is through their experiences with local food while on their journeys at the destination (Pestek & Cinjarevic, 2014). The image is shaped by the cognitive evaluations of the inherent attributes of the product and the affective appraisals that relate to the

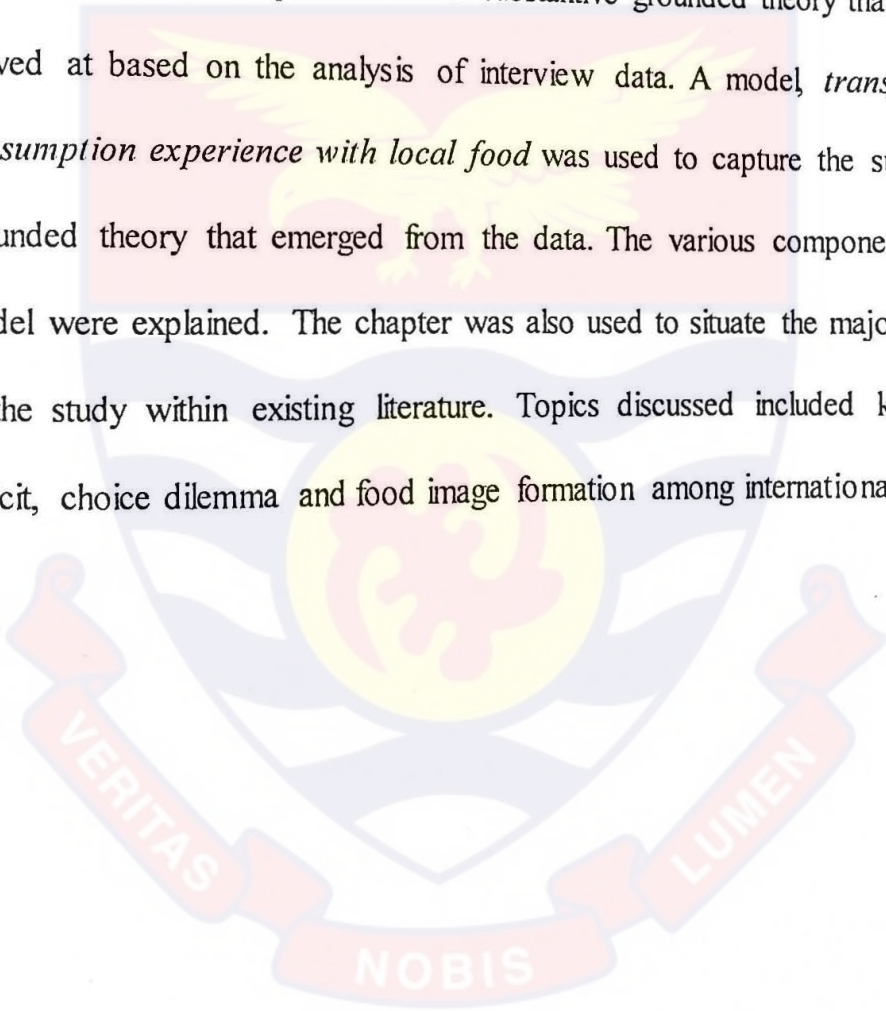
© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
emotional responses towards the object (Zhang, Fu, Chai, & Lu, 2014). Tourists' knowledge of a product through their experiences affects the emotional responses to the product. This in turn affects their attitude towards the product (Pestek & Cinjaravic, 2014), which in this case is Ghanaian cuisine. Image formation is multidimensional and includes both cognitive and affective attributes of the product (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006; Seo, Yun, & Kim, 2017). The two must be measured to give a clear idea of the image of the product held by consumers. This is because, within the broader tourism literature, research findings suggest that cognitive image influences the affective image of a destination (Lin, Morais, Kerstetter, & Hou, 2007; Luque-Martinez, Barrio-Garcia, Ibanez-Zapata, & Rodriguez-Molina, 2007). Therefore, a number of attributes have been used to measure tourists' image of local foods. Prominent cognitive attributes such as nutritional balance, wholesomeness, price, taste, smell, freshness, texture and variety have been used to study tourists' image of local food (Chi, Chua, Othman, & Ab Karim, 2013; Choi & Lee, 2010; Jang, Ha, & Silkes, 2009; Min, 2010; Pestek & Cinjarevic, 2014; Seo & Ryu, 2009; Seo, Yun, & Kin, 2017).

Jang, Ha, and Silkes (2009) categorised these attributes into appearance (fresh, looks pleasing, clean, attractive, neat); health-related characteristics (digestible, healthy, nutritiously balanced, light); uniqueness (aromatic, unique, spicy, and exotic) and other (quality and price). The affective image of the food deals with the internal reactions of consumers after they have consumed the product (Solomon, 2007). The affective image has been measured in relation to local food using four semantic differential scales. These include discontent-content; unfulfilling-fulfilling; unpleasant-pleasant; gloomy-exciting, like and

dislike (Pestek & Cinjarevic, 2014; Seo, Yun, & Kim, 2017). Tourists may either exhibit a liking or dislike for the food at the destination. There is always a view. There is no neutral view when it comes to the affective image of a product or destination.

Chapter Summary

This chapter expatiated on the substantive grounded theory that has been arrived at based on the analysis of interview data. A model, *transformative consumption experience with local food* was used to capture the substantive grounded theory that emerged from the data. The various components of the model were explained. The chapter was also used to situate the major findings of the study within existing literature. Topics discussed included knowledge deficit, choice dilemma and food image formation among international tourists.



SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

This chapter recaps the thesis by highlighting the various chapters of the study. Following that is a summary of the major findings of the study and the conclusions drawn from the findings. The final sections of the chapter discuss the implications of the study for food tourism development in Ghana, the contribution of the work to knowledge as well as recommendations for further studies.

Summary of Thesis

A number of knowledge gaps that were identified in the main tourism literature on food tourism across the world informed this thesis. These gaps included inadequate research into the experiential aspects of food tourism, a dearth of knowledge on the perspectives of tourists on their experiences with local food, tourists' food experiences across the world remained under-researched and lack of a substantive theory to explain tourists' experiences with local food. The research questions asked to address these gaps included:

1. What are international tourists' motivations for eating Ghanaian cuisine?
2. How do international tourists get to know about Ghanaian cuisine?
3. What are the purchase experiences of international tourists?
4. What images did tourists get from Ghanaian cuisine because of their consumption experiences?

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
5. How did the consumption experiences translate into behavioural intentions concerning Ghanaian cuisine?

The purpose of the thesis was to contextualise international tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine. A grounded theory design in qualitative research was employed for the study. A hierarchical multi-stage sampling technique involving convenience, purpose, and theoretical sampling were used. Emergent design was also employed. This involved the concurrent collection and analysis of interview data and looking for new leads to follow. The process was followed until the point of saturation, an important concept in qualitative studies. This resulted in the final sample size of forty interviewees. These tourists were interviewed between the months of August and December 2015 using an in-depth interview guide. Constant comparative analysis, memo writing, open coding, focused coding, axial coding, and selective coding were the data analysis techniques that were employed for the study. Following the tenets of grounded theory research, a coding paradigm was used at the axial coding stage and the selective coding stage.

Major Findings of the Study

The major findings of this study are summarised as follows:

Tourists' consumption of Ghanaian cuisine while visiting Ghana were explainable by both motivations and exigencies. The motivation fell under three broad categories namely, cultural immersion, knowledge or learning and break from contrast. In addition, exigencies such as the cost of continental or international cuisine, non-availability of known options, and sustenance influenced international tourists' consumption of Ghanaian local food.

Additionally, most international tourists lacked knowledge on Ghanaian food before arriving in the country. At the destination, tourists mainly relied on locals and restaurant menus for information on the food. Those who searched for information before coming to Ghana used both print and electronic media such as travel guides and the internet. Friends and family members were other sources of information consulted before coming to Ghana.

It also emerged from the data that tourists' information search on Ghanaian cuisine was also affected by some intervening and contextual factors. Most volunteer tourists did not search for information on the cuisine as the host families and coordinators of the programme provided the information on the food. Visitors to friends and families here in Ghana also did not search for information. Again, non-institutionalised independent travellers who can best be described as risk takers, did not search for information.

The study again revealed that factors such as wait time, communication, and atmosphere, value for money, presentation, food safety, and sanitation and variety or meal options affected where tourists ate. These varied according to where the tourists ate from since the destination has two contrasting foodservice establishments. Other factors such as service orientation of foodservice establishments and service convenience together with the other factors affected the purchase experience of tourists.

On the subject of the image of Ghanaian cuisine, it was discovered that the appearance, flavour, taste, texture and variety of Ghanaian cuisine influenced international tourists' like or dislike for the food. It was, however, found that the liking or dislike for Ghanaian cuisine were not entirely due to the food but some mediating factors. Factors such as price, healthy image, cultural

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
background, and values or worldviews affected the dislike or like for the Ghanaian cuisine.

The study revealed that retelling the experiences (word-of-mouth), keeping a piece of the experience, reliving the experience and cultural transformation were the four behavioural intentions that ensued after local food consumption.

Major Conclusions from the Study

The following conclusion can be drawn from the study. Two forces, motivations, and exigencies influenced consumption of Ghanaian cuisine by international tourists. The motivations were mainly cultural curiosity where international tourists sought for food experiences different from that of their home countries. The other force was things that came naturally as people travel such as sustenance. They had no control over and were forced to consume Ghanaian cuisine.

It can be concluded that most first-time tourists to Ghana do not have knowledge of Ghanaian cuisine. However, those who had knowledge do not have adequate information on the food. As a result, consultation of locals is one major source of information for international tourists while in Ghana.

International tourists face dilemmas on where to buy local food from since the destination presents two contrasting forms of foodservice establishments. Generally, service encounter experiences at the foodservice establishments (formal and informal) are mixed due to inconsistent service delivery.

The study concludes that international tourists' image of Ghanaian cuisine is that it is spicy and oily. Overall, international tourists like Ghanaian cuisine. That notwithstanding, fish and meat processing in Ghana and food safety and sanitation in general affect what tourists consume and where they consume it. Additionally, Ghanaian cuisine lacks in variety and it is mostly carbohydrate heavy.

Finally, the behavioural intentions exhibited by international tourists in relation to Ghanaian cuisine results in a transformative consumption experience where the consumption affects how they see Ghanaian cuisine both during their stay and after they had left the country.

Implications of the Study for Local Food Tourism Development

Tourism product development is a broad topic area that cannot be covered in just a few pages. Besides, the aim of this heading as an addendum to the topic for this thesis was to draw on the implications of the findings for food tourism development. That notwithstanding, this study aims at looking at ways of developing local food as a principal product to attract tourists to the destination, Ghana. The implications are discussed under the following headings: packaging the food service industry and food safety, product development, marketing, and food composition and nutritional content.

Implications for Packaging the Foodservice Industry and Food Safety

Motivation is an important factor in tourism as there is the recognition that it drives actual behaviour and actions at both the origin and destination (Kim & Ritchie, 2012). The overall motivation for consuming Ghanaian local

food is cultural curiosity. The tourists who consumed Ghanaian cuisine sought contrast from their routine lifestyles as well as for a full cultural immersion on their journeys. Available literature in the field of food tourism also concludes that there is a strong market of tourists who continue to seek authentic food of other cultures. Consequently, the push towards local food consumption should be seen as a tourism market segment that can be tapped into by Ghana.

If that were the case, then, there is the need to look at first of all how the entire local food industry can be packaged to make it more appealing. The principal objective is to develop a local food tourism infrastructure ready to tap into the motivations of tourists. The formal food service establishments are well packaged in terms of infrastructure and adherence to food safety regulations to support the industry. However, there are some challenges that were noted in the study. For instance, the local food sold at these places cost more than what the informal food service establishments charge for similar meals. Again, some of these formal foodservice establishments do not promote local food the same way they promote continental dishes since the market they target is different altogether.

The informal foodservice establishments are the alternatives to the formal foodservice establishments and the main sources of local food in Ghana. However, some of them lack the facilities needed. Most of the structures under which these traditional caterers and the street food vendors ply their trade are not hygienic as enumerated by most of the tourists. The facilities need to be improved upon and regulated. Many tourists are afraid of the food sold in Ghana, especially street food and to some extent those sold at the *chop bars*. This is because the conditions in which the food sellers ply their trade are

impoverished and not modernised. These conditions raise several issues of food safety and sanitation which calls for a concerted effort aimed at repackaging and repositioning informal foodservice establishments.

The Food and Drugs Authority (FDA), the Water and Food Hygiene Unit of the Environmental Health Department in all Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs) should educate street food vendors on food safety and sanitation and vigorously enforce all by-laws and regulations on food safety and sanitation across the country. For instance, the street food market in Thailand is a major tourist attraction and steps have been taken to promote and protect this 200-year-old industry. Food safety and sanitation laws are enforced (Mertens, 2009). Ghana can follow this example by regulating the street food sector to ensure that best food safety and sanitation practices are followed.

Implications for Product Development

The next important point is the product creation process. Product creation starts from the previous point where the necessary structures and facilities must be created and regulated (packaging). The other half is creating food experiences for tourists while they are in Ghana. This task can be accomplished by looking at tourists journey maps at a destination. The customer journey is “the sequence of events – whether designed or not—that customers go through to learn about, purchase and interact with a company’s offerings – including commodities, goods, services or experiences” (Norton & Pine, 2013, p. 12). Each step in the process offers the opportunity for transformative consumption experience in relation to Ghanaian cuisine.

The starting point for food experience design is to look at tourists' experiences as they go from learning about the food to ultimate consumption. Granted that street food and eating around street corners and *chop bars* are things most Europeans and North Americans can experience, then, it is important to design consumption experiences around them. An example could be that at the point of consumption tourists are provided with information on each dish. This should be followed with how to go about selecting and paying for the dish and the final stage could be how the selected dish is prepared and served. This process is expected to bring the tourist into the product creation process and to generate the necessary hands-on experience. To implement this successfully will require the effort of both the Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA), Ghana Restaurants and Nightclubs Association (GRNA), and the Ghana Traditional Caterers Association (GTCA). They are to educate their members on the need to "walk" international tourists through their operations. The exercise will require the reorganising of the structure of their operations to take on board extra burden of educating the tourist from purchasing to consumption.

Implications for Marketing of Ghanaian Cuisine

Local food tourism marketing is an important strategic exercise that should be undertaken by Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) if the "right kind" of food tourism is to be developed (Cox & Wray, 2011). This process should start from how tourists get information on Ghanaian cuisine. Most of the tourists had little or no information or knowledge about Ghanaian cuisine prior to coming to the country. Those who searched for information talked about the inadequacy of the information. A look at the main website of

the GTA (www.ghana.travel) confirms this fact. Information on Ghanaian cuisine is scanty at best. The closest that one comes to have an insight into the food offerings of Ghana on the website is a picture of grilled tilapia (at the time of putting this final write-up together, 17:18 PM, May 10, 2017) and a little write-up describing some dishes. There is no link dedicated to promoting the food offerings of Ghana. However, across the world, tourism destinations that dominate also dominate in the quality of the information that they put on their websites compared to their competitors (Woodside, Mir, & Duque, 2011). The GTA needs to pursue rigorously food tourism by providing information that aims to do that. This will persuade tourists to see Ghana as a destination for food tourism, where the option of unique food experiences is part of the motivation to travel thereby affecting behaviour at the destination (Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2010).

The information on food on the GTA's website is more of food in tourism, which deals with eating as part of the journey of tourists (Kim, Yuan, Goh, & Autun, 2009). As a country, Ghana needs to link local food tourism to the other tourism products that it has on offer by consciously positioning Ghanaian local foods as a product. This will create a unique view of the local food offerings at the destination which could lead to tourist motivations (Horng, & Tsai, 2012; Hjalager, 2002) for visiting Ghana.

In addition, the GTA, Ministry of Tourism and Creative Arts (MoTCA) working in partnership with the Ghana Civil Aviation Authority (GCAA) should include information about local cuisine on the disembarking forms as a way of advertisement. This should be extended to giant billboards en route from the airport, indicating the various local cuisines across Ghana. This would serve

as an important awareness creation platform for tourists as they embark upon their travels throughout Ghana. Equally important is the advertisement on social media such as Facebook and on YouTube and travel intermediaries in the countries of origin to create awareness of Ghanaian cuisine before tourists arrive in the country. In this case, tourists will not have to wait to get to Ghana before they get to know about her cuisine.

Internally, it is important therefore for the GTA, GRNA, and the GTCA to make local cuisine available at all tourist centres in Ghana. There should be the vigorous promotion of Ghanaian cuisine, especially in the formal restaurants and hotels. If tourists do not have familiar options available they will consume Ghanaian cuisine since sustenance and cultural curiosity were some of the primary drivers of local food consumption by international tourists in Ghana.

Additionally, for there to be a successful marketing information provision and promotion, there is the need to develop a brand for Ghana's cuisine. Survival in the competitive tourism destination market hinges upon the ability of Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) to offer uniquely differentiated products and services that engender memorable experiences (Tussyadiah, 2014). This calls for the identification and promotion of a unique brand. A brand is a "consistent group of characters, images, or emotions that consumers recall or experience when they think of a specific symbol, product, service, organisation or location" (Simeon, 2006, p. 464).

Ghana's cuisine and for that matter, any product can be promoted successfully if it is differentiated from the competition (Oliveira & Panyik, 2015) and positioned accordingly (Kemp, Williams, & Bordelon, 2011). Branding concepts that incorporate the experiences of tourists is an acceptable

approach in the tourism literature (Lim, Chung, & Weaver, 2012). Tourists' image of Ghanaian cuisine is that it is spicy, healthy, oily, sour, sweet, and cheap. These attributes make the food unique, which calls for the development of a unique selling proposition for the food around these attributes. The uniqueness of what is offered becomes the alluring point to start the branding process. There is, however, the need to look at ways of marrying this uniqueness with what can really appeal to most tourists and not just a few of them. The spiciness and the oiliness of Ghanaian cuisine would connote a negative image for most tourists. Therefore, steps should be taken to develop menus that enhance and promote the uniqueness of the ingredients that are used in preparation of the meals rather than over usage of some of them such as the pepper and the oil.

Implications for Food Composition and Nutritional Content

Earlier research into value proposition focused on the supplier as the sole creator of value (good-dominant logic). This is changing now especially with service-dominant logic in value proposition studies. The service-dominant logic takes into consideration all the stakeholders in a service firm's business when creating value and proposing value. Customers are co-creators of service and have value propositions, which are the things that they consider valuable to them (Frow & Payne, 2011). This is important, given that DMOs no longer control the content, context, and what is projected about the destination. Tourists now control what DMOs can project about the destination (Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2013). They have become important co-creators of the destination brand or image (Oliveira & Panyik, 2015). Subsequently, what they

say and share about the destination is very important in any destination branding strategy (Green, 2007).

Another dominant image of the Ghanaian cuisine in terms of food nutritional balance (proportion of carbohydrate to protein and minerals) is that of being carbohydrate heavy. What tourists miss most in Ghana are vegetables. They want to have more vegetables in the meals than there is now. Therefore, in addition to the unique selling proposition, Ghanaian caterers need to ensure also that what tourists value most (vegetables) is added to all the meals in Ghana. As it is now, the vegetable content in the meals is very low. Ghana, however, is endowed with many vegetables, which must be incorporated into our local dishes as noted by some tourists. Nevertheless, before vegetables become visible and dominant in Ghanaian cuisine, it is important for the sensitization of food sellers on the safe handling of vegetables and food in general in order to assure tourists of the safety of the vegetables. This is because besides lamenting about the non-availability of vegetables in some Ghanaian cuisine, most of them also expressed fears about the safety of the vegetables sold in Ghana.

Finally, although the attributes (spicy and healthy) of food can become unique selling propositions, nonetheless, it is important also to note that the value proposition of tourists who come to Ghana is important. This calls for the development of menus that are uniquely Ghanaian but take into consideration the concerns of the tourist markets that the GTa would intend to target and attract. The GTA and GTCA should sensitise their members on the ways of improving indigenous Ghanaian cuisine in order to make it more appealing to international tourists. Ghanaian caterers should be educated on how to use

pepper and especially oil in order to make the food more appealing to tourists. They should also find innovative ways of improving on the variety of dishes being offered for sale. As it stands now the local cuisine is dominated by a few dishes such as *fufu*, *banku*, *tou zafi*, *jollof rice*, *waakye* and *red-red*. Several ingredients especially vegetables could be added to create variety of cuisines that are indigenous to Ghana.

Contributions to Knowledge

The study has provided an idea of what tourists go through in relation to local food consumption starting from motivation, information search, purchase, consumption and post-consumption behavioural intentions. This has provided a basis for understanding the needs of tourists in relation to their food when visiting Ghana.

On the contribution to knowledge, this study has come out with a substantive theory to explain international tourists' experiences with local cuisine. Most tourists go through a process of cultural transformation when they encounter food of other cultures. The process of transformation starts from motivation, information search, purchase experience, consumption through to behavioural intentions. Hitherto, there has been little attempt at explaining this process using a theory. This study has therefore bridged the theoretical gap by proposing a grounded theory that fills the gap.

Recommendations for Future Studies

The study has provided an explanation of the experiences of international tourists in relation to Ghanaian cuisine. However, as with all

studies, some limitations were observed, which open up avenues for future research. The study did not concentrate on any specific segment of tourists. Future studies could focus on specific segments such as volunteer tourists, tourists who use homestay accommodation and those who do not fall into any of these two categories, to see if there could be differences in their experiences.

Additionally, the study did not explore the supply side of issues, which deal with the vendors and restaurant operators to see if they understood the food needs and experiences sought for by international tourists. A study could be conducted to explore the supply side to identify views from the food vendors.

Furthermore, there is the need to examine street food governance in Ghana. The street food industry provides a viable option for engaging international tourists with indigenous Ghanaian cuisine since these food vendors sell most of the indigenous dishes. However, a critical observation and the accounts of tourists on the insanitary conditions under which the vendors ply their trade and the unhygienic manner some of them go about the trade are indicative of the fact that there is little regulation and monitoring of the industry. A research examining the views of the various stakeholders on street food business governance will go a long way to creating a street food business that cater for the gastronomic needs of tourists.

Finally, the substantive theory that has been developed through grounded theory has to be tested in order to develop it into a formal theory that explains international tourists' experiences with local cuisine, especially at destinations that are not known for food tourism. This should involve using a quantitative methodology for quantification and generalisation since the method used for this study does not aim at generalizing the results.

Objectives of the Study

The following research objectives are included at the final stage of this thesis as a requirement of the School of Graduate Studies, University of Cape Coast.

The overall objective of the study is to assess international tourists' experiences with Ghanaian cuisine. The specific objectives are to:

1. examine international tourists' motivation for consuming Ghanaian cuisine;
2. analyse the information seeking behaviour of international tourists in relation to Ghanaian cuisine;
3. examine the food purchase experiences of international tourists visiting Ghana;
4. analyse international tourists' local food consumption experiences; and
5. examine the post-consumption behavioural intentions of international tourists in relation to Ghanaian cuisine.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Ab Karim, S., & Chi, C. G.-Q. (2010). Culinary tourism as a destination attraction: An empirical examination of destinations' food image. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 19(6), 531-555.
- Adams, K., Snyder, J., Crooks, V., & Johnston, R. (2015). Tourism discourse and medical tourists' motivations to travel. *Tourism Review*, 70(2), 85-96.
- Adongo, C. A., Anuga, S. W., & Dayour, F. (2015). Will they tell others to taste? International tourists' experiences of Ghanaian cuisine. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 15, 57-64.
- Aho, S. K. (2001). Towards a general theory of touristic experiences: Modelling experience process in tourism. *Tourism Review*, 56(3/4), 33-37.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behaviour. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- Ajzen, I. (2011). The theory of planned behaviour: Reactions and reflections. *Psychology and Health*, 26(9), 1113-1127.
- Aksan, N., Kisac, B., Aydin, M., & Demirbuden, S. (2009). Symbolic interaction theory. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 1, 902-904.
- Akyeampong, O. A. (2007). *Tourism in Ghana: The accommodation sub-sector*. Accra: Janel.
- Alcoff, L. M. (2007). Epistemologies of ignorance: Three types. In S. Sullivan & N. Tuana (Eds.), *Race and epistemologies of ignorance* (pp. 39-57). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

- Alexseev, M. A. (2011). Societal security, the security dilemma, and extreme anti-migrant hostility in Russia. *Journal of Peace Research*, 48(4), 509-523.
- Ali, F., Hussain, K., & Ragavan, N. A. (2014). Memorable customer experience: Examining the effects of customers experience on memories and loyalty in Malaysian resort hotels. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 144, 273-279.
- Altintzoglou, T., Einarsdottir, G., Valsdottir, T., Schelvis, R., Skara, T., & Luten, J. (2010). A voice-of-consumer approach in the development of new seafood product concepts. *Journal of Aquatic Food Product Technology*, 19(2), 130-145.
- Amaquandoh, E., & Brown, D. (2008). A content analysis of sentiments and experiences of visitors to a cultural heritage site: The Elmina Slave Castle in Ghana. *The Consortium Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 12(2), 77-85.
- Amenumey, E. K., Dayour, F., & Adongo, C. A. (2015). Why they consume indigenous food and beverage in Ghana: The international tourist perspective. *Journal of Arts and Social Science*, 3(1), 171-197.
- Amoako-Kwakye, F. Y. (2010). *Foods and food-related practices of cultural groups in Southern Ghana*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- Amuquandoh, F. E. (2011). International tourists' concerns about traditional food in Ghana. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 18, 1-9.
- Amuquandoh, F. E., & Asafo-Adjei, R. (2013). Traditional food preferences of tourists in Ghana. *British Food Journal*, 115(7), 987-1002.

- Andreu, L., Kozak, M., Avci, N., & Cifter, N. (2005). Market segmentation by motivations to travel. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 19(1), 1-14.
- Andrews, T. (2012). What is social constructionism? *The Grounded Theory Review*, 11(1), 39-46.
- Angelova, B., & Zekiri, Y. (2011). Measuring customer satisfaction with service quality using American customer satisfaction model (ACSI Model). *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 1(3) ISSN: 2222-6990. Retrieved March 21, 2016, from <http://www.hrmars.com/admin/pics/381.pdf>.
- Anwaruddin, S. A. (2015). Pedagogy of Ignorance. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 47(7), 734-746.
- Armelagos, G. J. (2014). Brain evolution, the determinates of food choice, and the omnivore's dilemma. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 54(10), 1330-1341.
- Arndt, J. (1967). *Word of mouth advertising: A review of the literature*. New York: Advertising Research Foundation.
- Arnould, E., Price, L. & Zinkhan, G. (2002). *Consumers*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Arsil, P., Li, E., & Bruwer, J. (2014). Perspectives on consumer perceptions of local foods: A view from Indonesia. *Journal of International Food and Agribusiness Marketing*, 26(2), 107-124.
- Asiedu, A. B. (2008). Participants' characteristics and economic benefits of visiting friends and relatives' (VFR) tourism: An international survey of

the literature with implications for Ghana. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10, 609-621.

Attride-Stirling, J. (2001). Thematic networks: An analytic tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 1(3), 385-405.

Bailey, A. (2007). Strategic ignorance. In S. Sullivan & N. Tuana (Eds.), *Race and epistemologies of ignorance* (pp. 77-94). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Baloglu, S., Henthorne, T. L., & Sahin, S. (2014). Destination image and brand personality of Jamaica: A model of tourist behaviour. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 31(8), 1057-1070.

Bang, H., Odio, M. A., & Reio, T. (2014). The moderating role of brand reputation and moral obligation. *Journal of Management Development*, 33(4), 282-298.

Barber, N. (2009). Wine consumers information search: Gender differences and implications for the hospitality industry. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 9, 250-269.

Barden, S. M., Shannonhouse, L., & Mobley, K. (2015). International cultural immersion: Assessing the influence of a group intervention on intercultural sensitivity for counsellor trainees. *The Journal for Specialists in Group Work*, 4(1), 117-141.

Beer, C. L., Ottenbacher, M. C., & Harrington, R. J. (2012). Food tourism implementation in the Black Forest destination. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 10(2), 106-128.

Bell, B., Adhikari, K., Chambers IV, E., Cherdchu, P., & Suwonsichon, T. (2011). Ethnic food awareness and perceptions of consumers in

Thailand and the United States. *Nutrition and Food Science*, 41(4), 268-277.

Bentley, T. A., & Page, S. J. (2008). A decade of injury monitoring in the New Zealand adventure tourism sector: A summary risk analysis. *Tourism Management* 29, 857-869.

Berger, P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1966). *The social construction of reality. A treatise in the sociology of knowledge*. New York: Anchor Books.

Berger, P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1991). *The social construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology of knowledge*. London: Penguin Books.

Berry, L. L., Seiders, K., & Grewal, D. (2002). Understanding service convenience. *Journal of Marketing*, 66(3), 1-17.

Bieger, J. R., & Laesser, C. (2004). Information sources for travel decisions: Towards a source process model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(4), 234-248.

Bigne, F. E., Mattila, A. S., & Andreu, L. (2008). The impact of experiential consumption cognitions and emotions on behavioural intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22(4), 303-315.

Bigne, J. E., & Andreu, L. (2004). Emotions in segmentation: An empirical study. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 682-696.

Binkhorst, E., & den Dekker, T. (2009). Towards the co-creation of tourism experience? *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 18(2/3), 311-327.

Birch, D., & Lawley, M. (2012). Buying seafood: Understanding barriers to purchase across consumption segments. *Food Quality and Preference*, 26(1), 12-21.

- Birch, D., Lawley, M., & Hamblin, D. (2012). Drivers and barriers to seafood consumption in Australia. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29(1), 64-73.
- Birks, M., & Mills, J. (2015). *Grounded theory: A practical guide* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bjork, P., & Kauppinen-Raisanen, H. (2011). The impact of perceived risk on information search: A study of Finnish tourists. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 11(3), 306-323.
- Bjork, P., & Kauppinen-Raisanen, H. (2014). Culinary-gastronomic tourism: A search for local food experiences. *Nutrition and Food Science*, 44(4), 294-309.
- Boakye, K. A. (2010). Studying tourists' suitability as crime targets. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(3), 727-743.
- Bohm, A. (2004). Theoretical coding: Text analysis in grounded theory. In U. Flick, E. Kardorff & I. Steinke (Eds.), *A companion to qualitative research* (pp. 270-275). London: Sage.
- Bondzi-Simpson, A. (2015). *Augmenting the variety of Ghanaian dishes on the hotel menu: An enquiry of attitudes and intentions* (Unpublished doctoral thesis, Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 2015). University of Cape Coast, Ghana.
- Boniface, P. (2003). *Tasting tourism: Travelling for food and drink*. Aldershot, UK: Ashgate.

- Borrill, J., Lorenz, E., & Abbasnejab, A. (2012). Using qualitative methods to explore non-disclosure: The example of self-injury. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 11(4), 384-398.
- Boutrolle, I., Delarue, J., Arranz, D., Rogeaux, M., & Koster, E. P. (2007). Central location test vs. home use test: Contrasting results depending on product type. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18, 490-499.
- Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand experience: What is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 73, 52-68.
- Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zhang, S. (2008). Experiential attributes and consumer judgments. In B. H. Schmitt & D. Rogers (Eds.), *Handbook on brand and experience management* (pp. 174-187). Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar.
- Braun-LaTour, K. A., Grinley, M. J., & Loftus, E. F. (2006). Tourist memory distortion. *Journal of Travel Research*, 44(4), 360-367.
- Brian, S. (2008). *A grounded theory study of nursing students' experiences in the off-campus clinical setting*. (Doctoral thesis). Retrieve January 14, 2015, from QUT Digital Repository: <http://eprints.qut.edu.au/>.
- Bronner, A. E., & de Hoog, R. (2008). Agreement and disagreement in family vacation decision-making. *Tourism Management*, 29(5), 967-979.
- Bronner, F., & de Hoog, R. (2011). A new perspective on tourist information search: Discussion in couples as the context. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 5(2), 128-143.
- Brown, G., & Getz, D. (2005). Linking wine preferences to the choice of wine tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43, 266-276.

- Brown, S. (2005). Travelling with a purpose: Understanding the motives and benefits of volunteer vacationers. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8(6), 479-496.
- Brown, S. C., Stevens, R. S., Troiano, P. F., & Schneider, M. K. (2002). Exploring complex phenomena: Grounded theory in student affairs research. *Journal of College Student Development*, 43(2), 173-183.
- Brunner-Sperdin, A., Peters, M., & Strobl, A. (2012). It is all about the emotional state: Managing tourists' experiences. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 3, 3-30.
- Brunso, K., Verbeke, W., Olsen, S. O., & Jeppesen, L. F. (2009). Motives, barriers, and quality evaluation in fish consumption situations: Exploring and comparing heavy and light users in Spain and Belgium. *British Food Journal*, 111, 699-716.
- Bryant, A., & Charmaz, K. (Eds., 2007). *The Sage handbook of grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cai, L. A., Feng, R., & Breiter, D. (2004). Tourist purchase decision involvement and information preferences. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(2), 138-148.
- Carneiro, M. J., & Crompton, J. L. (2010). The influence of involvement, familiarity, and constraints on the search for information about destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49 (4), 451-470.
- Carson, R. (1962). *Silent spring*. London: Penguin.
- Caru, A. & Cova, B. (2007). Consumer immersion in an experiential context. In A. Caru & B. Cova (Eds.), *Consuming experience* (pp. 34-47). London: Routledge.

- Cetin, G., & Bilgihan, A. (2016). Components of cultural tourists' experiences in destinations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(2), 137-154.
- Chan, J. K. L., & Baum, T. (2007). Determination of satisfiers and dissatisfiers using Herzberg's motivator and hygiene factor theory: An exploratory study. *Tourism Culture and Communication*, 7(2), 117-131.
- Chang, J. (2006). Segmenting tourists to aboriginal cultural festivals: An example in the Rukai tribal area, Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, 27, 1224-1234.
- Chang, R. C. Y. (2017). The influence of attitudes towards healthy eating on food consumption when travelling. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(4), 369-390.
- Chang, R. C. Y., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. H. N. (2010). Food preferences of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(4), 989-1011.
- Chang, R. C. Y., Kivela, J., Mak, A. H. N. (2011). Attributes that influence the evaluation of travel dining experience: When East meets West. *Tourism Management*, 32, 307-316.
- Chang, S. Y. (2011). The influence of novelty-seeking and risk-perception behaviour on holiday decisions and food preferences. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 12, 305-329.
- Chao, Y.-L. (2012). Predicting people's environmental behaviour: Theory of planned behaviour and model of responsible environmental behaviour. *Environmental Education Research*, 18(4), 437-461.
- Charmaz, K. (2000). Grounded theory: Objectivist and constructivist methods. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 509-535). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Charmaz, K. (2004). Premises, principles, and practices in qualitative research: Revisiting the foundations. *Qualitative Health Research*, 14, 976-993.
- Charmaz, K. (2005). Grounded theory in the 21st Century. Applications for advancing social justice studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 507-535). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Chatzisarantis, N. D., Hagger, M. S., & Brickell, T. (2008). Using the construct of perceived autonomy support to understand social influence within the theory of planned behaviour. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 9, 27-44.
- Chatzisarantis, N. D., Hagger, M.S., & Smith, D. (2007). Influences of perceived autonomy support on physical activity within the theory of planned behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 37, 934-954.
- Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. C. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioural intentions? *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1115-1122.
- Chen, C. M., Chen, S. H., & Lee, H. T. (2010). Assessing destination image through combining tourist cognitive perceptions with destination resources. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 11(1), 59-75.
- Chen, C.-C., Petrick, J. F., & Shahvali, M. (2016). Tourism experiences as a stress reliever: Examining the effects of tourism recovery experiences on life satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(2), 150-160.

- Chen, J. (2007). Surface texture of foods: Perception and characterization. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 47(6), 583-598.
- Chen, M.-F. (2011). The gender gap in food choice motives as determinants of consumers' attitudes toward GM foods in Taiwan. *British Food Journal*, 113(6), 697-709.
- Chi, C., Chua, B. L., Othman, M., & Ab Karim, S. (2013). Investigating the structural relationships between food image, food satisfaction, culinary quality, and behavioural intentions: The case of Malaysia. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 14(2), 99-120.
- Choi, J., & Lee, J. (2010). The perception and attitude of food experts in New York City towards Korean foods: Assessed by in-depth interviews of 'foodies'. *Journal of the Korean Society of Dietary Culture*, 25(2), 126-133.
- Choi, M. J., Heo, C. Y., & Law, R. (2016). Developing a typology of Chinese shopping tourists: An application of the Schwartz model of universal human values. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 33(2), 141-161.
- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Destination image representation on the web: Content analysis of Macau travel related websites. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 118-129.
- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., Morrison, A. M., & Jang, S.-C. (2012). Structure of travel planning processes and information use patterns. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(1), 26-40.

Chung, C., Smith, G., Degner, B., & McClements, D. J. (2016). Reduced fat food emulsions: Physicochemical, sensory, and biological aspects. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 56(4), 650-685.

Clarke, A. E. (2005). *Situational analysis: Grounded theory after the postmodern turn*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Clarke, N. J., Willis, M. E. H., Barnes, J. S., Caddick, N., Cromby, J., McDermott, H., & Gareth Wiltshire, G. (2015). Analytical pluralism in qualitative research: A meta-study. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 12(2), 182-201.

Cockerham, W. (2005). *Sociology of mental disorder* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 755-788.

Cooke, L. J., & Wardle, J. (2007). Genetic and environmental influences on children's food neophobia. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 86, 428-433.

Corbin, J. (2009). Taking an analytic journey. In J. M. Morse, P. N. Stern, J. Corbin, B. Bowers, K. Charmaz & A. E. Clarke (Eds.), *Developing grounded theory: The second generation* (pp. 35-54). Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative analysis* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Correia, A., Moital, M., Ferreira, C., & Peres, R. (2008). The determinants of gastronomic tourists' satisfaction: A second-order factor analysis. *Journal of Food Service*, 19, 164-176.

- Costa, L., & Besio, K. (2011). Eating Hawai'i: Local foods and place-making in Hawai'i regional cuisine. *Social and Cultural Geography*, 12(8), 839-854.
- Costell, E., Tarrega, A., & Bayarri, S. (2010). Food acceptance: The role of consumer perception and attitudes. *Chemosensory Perception*, 3, 42-50.
- Cox, C., & Wray, M. (2011). Best practice marketing for regional tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 28(5), 524-540.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research, planning conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among the five traditions* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408-424.
- Dann, G. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement, and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4(4), 184-194.
- Dann, G. (1981). Tourist motivation: An appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(2), 187-219.
- Dawes, J. (2009). The effect of service price increases on customer retention: The moderating role of customer tenure and relationship breadth. *Journal of Service Research*, 11(3), 232-245.
- De Jonge, J., Van Trip, J. C. M., Van der Lans, I. A., Renes, R. J., & Frewer, L. J. (2008). How trust in institutions and organisations build general

consumer confidence in the safety of food: A decomposition of effects. *Appetite*, 5, 311-317.

Decrop, A., & Snelders, D. (2005). A grounded typology of vacation decision-making. *Tourism Management*, 26, 121-32.

Del Bosque, I. R., & San Martin, H. (2008). Tourist satisfaction. A cognitive-affective model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 551-573.

Dey, B., & Sarma, M. K. (2010). Information source usage among motive-based segments of travellers to newly emerging tourist destinations. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 341-344.

Dodd, T. H., Laverie, D. A., Wilcox, J. F., & Duhan, D. F. (2005). Differential effects of experience, subjective knowledge, and objective knowledge on sources of information used in consumer wine purchasing. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 29, 3-18.

Dong, E., Wang, Y., Morais, D., & Brooks, D. (2013). Segmenting the rural tourism market: The case of Potter County, Pennsylvania, USA. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 19(2), 181-193.

Douglas, L., & Connor, R. (2003). Attitudes to service quality: The expectation gap. *Nutrition and Food Science*, 33(4), 165-172.

Dunne, C. (2011). The place of the literature review in grounded theory research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 14 (2), 111-124.

Dunne, D., Flanagan, S., & Buckley, J. (2011). Towards a decision making model for city break travel. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 5(2), 158-172.

Dunne, J. B., Chambers, K. J., Giombolini, K. J., & Schlegel, S. A. (2011). What does 'local' mean in the grocery store? Multiplicity in food retailers'

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
perspective on sourcing and marketing local foods. *Renewable
Agriculture and Food Systems*, 26(1), 46-59.

- Eisenhardt, K. M., & Graebner, M. E. (2007). Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(1), 25-32.
- Ek, R., Larsen, J., Hornskov, S. B., & Mansfeldt, O. K. (2008). A dynamic framework of tourist experiences: Space-time and performances in the experience economy. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 8(2), 122-140.
- Ekinci, Y., & Hosany, S. (2006). Destination personality: An application of brand personality to tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45, 127-139.
- Erawan, T., Krairit, D., & Khang, D. B. (2011). Tourists' external information search behaviour model: The case of Thailand. *Journal of Modelling in Management*, 6(3), 297-316.
- Eriksen, S. N. (2013). Defining local food: Constructing a new taxonomy: Three domains of proximity. *Acta Agriculturae Scandinavica, Section B — Soil and Plant Science*, 63(1), 47-55.
- Everett, S. (2008). Beyond the visual gaze? The pursuit of an embodied experience through food tourism. *Tourist Studies*, 8, 337-358.
- Everett, S. (2012). Production places or consumption spaces? The place-making agency of food tourism in Ireland and Scotland. *Tourism Geographies*, 14(4), 535-554.

- Everett, S., & Aitchison, C. (2008). The role of food tourism in sustaining regional identity: A case study of Cornwall, South West England. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(2), 150-167.
- Ezzy, D. (2002). *Qualitative analysis: Practice and innovation*. Crows Nest, Australia: Allen & Unwin.
- Falciglia, G., Pabst, S., Couch, S., & Goody, C. (2004). Impact of parental food choices on child food neophobia. *Children's Health Care*, 33(3), 217-225.
- Falconer, E. (2013). Transformations of the backpacking food tourist: Emotions and conflicts. *Tourist Studies*, 13(1), 21-35.
- Farquhar, J. D., & Rowley, J. (2009). Convenience: A service perspective. *Marketing Theory*, 9(4), 425-438.
- Ferrie, S. (2006). A quick guide to ethical theory in healthcare: Solving ethical dilemmas in nutrition support situations. *Nutrition in Clinical Practice*, 21, 113-117.
- Fields, K. (2002). Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: motivational factors. In A. Hjalager & G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and gastronomy* (pp. 37-50). London: Routledge.
- Filep, S., Cao, D., Jiang, M., & DeLacy, T. (2013). Savouring tourist experiences after a holiday. *Leisure/Loisir*, 37(3), 191-203.
- Finistrella, V., Manco, M., Ferrara, A., Rustico, C., Presaghi, F., & Morino, G. (2012). Cross-sectional exploration of maternal reports of food neophobia and pickiness in pre-schooler-mother dyads. *Journal of the American College of Nutrition*, 31(3), 152-159.

Finlay, L. (2011). *Phenomenology for therapists: Researching the lived world*. Sussex, UK: Wiley.

Finsterwalder, J., & Laesser, C. (2013). Segmenting outbound tourists based on their activities: Toward experiential consumption spheres in tourism services? *Tourism Review*, 68(3), 21-43.

Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 555-581.

Fonte, M. (2008). Knowledge, food, and place: A way of producing, a way of knowing. *Sociol Ruralis*, 48, 200-222.

Foster, K. D., Grigor, J. M. V., Cheong, J. N., Yoo, M. J. Y., Bronlund, J. E., & Morgenstern, M. P. (2011b). The Role of Oral Processing in Dynamic Sensory Perception. *Journal of Food Science*, 76(2), 49-61.

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2010). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (8th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Franklin, A., Newton, J., & McEntee, J. (2011). Moving beyond the alternative: Sustainable communities, rural resilience, and the mainstreaming of local food. *Local Environment*, 16(8), 771-788.

Frochot, I. (2003). An analysis of regional positioning and its associated food images in French tourism regional brochures. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 14(3), 77-96.

Frost, N. (2011). *Qualitative research methods in psychology: Combining core approaches*. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill/Open University Press.

Frost, N., Holt, A., Shinebourne, P., Esin, Ç., Nolas, S.-M., Mehdizadeh, L., & Brooks-Gordon, B. (2011). Collective findings, individual

- interpretations: An illustration of a pluralistic approach to qualitative data analysis. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 8(1), 93-113.
- Frow, P., & Payne, A. (2011). A stakeholder perspective of the value proposition concept. *European Journal of Marketing*, 45(1/2), 223-240.
- Fuchs, G., & Reichel, A. (2011). An exploratory inquiry into destination risk perceptions and risk reduction strategies of first-time versus repeat visitors to a highly volatile destination. *Tourism Management*, 32, 266-276.
- Furnham, A. (2008). *Fifty psychology ideas you really need to know*. London: Quercus.
- Futamura, T. (2007). Made in Kentucky: The meaning of "local" food products in Kentucky's farmers' markets. *The Japanese Journal of American Studies*, 18(18), 209-227.
- Gardner, A., Fedoruk, M., & McCutcheon, H. (2012). Discovering constructivist grounded theory's fit and relevance to researching contemporary mental health nursing practice. *Australian Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 30(2), 66-74.
- Garrod, B. (2008). Exploring place perception a photo-based analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 381-401.
- Garrod, B. (2009). Understanding the relationship between tourism destination imagery and tourist photography. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(3), 346-358.
- Gaudette, N. J., & Pickering, G. J. (2013). Modifying bitterness in functional food systems. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 53(5), 464-481.

- Gentile, C., Spiller, N., & Noci, G. (2007). How to sustain the customer experience: An overview of experience components that co-create value with the customer. *European Management Journal*, 25 (5), 395-410.
- Gergen, K. J., & Gergen, M. M. (2008). Social construction and psychological inquiry. In J. A. Holstein & J. Gubrium (Eds.), *Handbook of constructionist research* (pp. 171-188). New York: Guilford Press.
- Ghana Museums and Monuments Board. (2011). *Statistical record sheet for Cape Coast and Elmina castles*. Ghana Museums and Monuments Board, Cape Coast.
- Ghana Statistical Services (2010). *The 2010 national population and housing census report*. Ghana Statistical Service, Accra.
- Ghana Tourism Authority (1996). *National tourism development plan, 1996-2010*. Archive.
- Ghana Tourism Authority (2010). *The tourism sector medium term development plan, 2010-2013*. Archive.
- Ghana Tourism Authority (2013). *National tourism development plan, 2013-2027*. Archive.
- Giese, J., & Cote, J. (2000) Defining consumer satisfaction. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 1, 1-24.
- Giske, T., & Artinian, B. (2007). A personal experience of working with classical grounded theory: From beginner to experienced grounded theorist. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 6(4), 67-80.
- Glaser, B. G. (1978). *Advances in the methodology of grounded theory: Theoretical sensitivity*. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.

- Glaser, B. G. (1992). *Basics of grounded theory analyses: Emergence versus forcing*. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. G. (2010). The future of grounded theory. *The Grounded Theory Review: An International Journal*, 9(2), 1-14.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New York: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Glor, E. (2008). Toward the development of a substantive theory of public sector organisational innovation. *The Innovation Journal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal*, 13(3), 1-28.
- Gnoth, J., & Matteucci, X. (2014). A phenomenological view of the behavioural tourism research literature. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8 (1), 3-21.
- Goulding, C. (2002). *Grounded theory: A practical guide for management, business, and market researchers*. London: Sage.
- Gray, V., Libby, G., Jensen, L., & Smith, K. (2015). Validating the made-from-scratch versus traditional style approach for improving the nutritional quality of heart start menus. *Infant, Child, and Adolescent Nutrition Evidence-Based*, 7(6), 355-366.
- Green, C. (2007). *Sales and marketing in a web 2.0 world*. Jacksonville, Florida: HSAMI Foundation.
- Green, G. P., & Dougherty, M. L. (2008). Localising linkages for food and tourism: culinary tourism as a community development strategy. *Community Development*, 39(3), 148-158.

- Gretzel, U., Peschmanier, D. R., Formica, S., & O'Leary, J. T. (2006). Searching for the future: Challenges faced by destination marketing organisations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45, 116-126.
- Grimm, K. E., & Needham, M. D. (2012). Moving beyond the "T" in motivation: Attributes and perceptions of conservation volunteer tourists. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(4), 488-501.
- Groenewald, T. (2004). A phenomenological research design illustrated. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 3(1), 42-55.
- Gronflaten, O. (2009). Predicting travellers' choice of information sources and information channels. *Journal of Travel Research*, 48(2), 230-244.
- Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Communication and Technology*, 29(2), 75-91.
- Guerrero, L., Guardia, M. D., Xicola, J., Verbeke, W., Vanhonacker, F., Zakowska-Biemans, S., ..., Hersleth, M. (2009). Consumer-driven definition of traditional food products and innovation in traditional foods. A qualitative cross-cultural study. *Appetite*, 52, 345-354.
- Guine, R. P., Barros, A., Queirós, A., Pina, A., Vale, A., Ramoa, H., Folha, J., & Carneiro, R. (2013). Development of a solid vinaigrette and product testing. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 11(3), 259-274.
- Gursoy, D., & McCleary, K. (2004). An integrative model of tourists' information search behaviour. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(2), 353-373.
- Gursoy, D., & Umbreit, W. T. (2004). Tourist information search behaviour: A cross-cultural comparison of European Union member states. *Hospitality Management*, 23(1), 55-70.

alternative tourism: The case of Sunshine Coast, Australia. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49 (3), 381-394.

Hall, C. M., & Mitchell, R. (2005). Gastronomic tourism: Comparing food and wine tourism experiences. In M. Novelli (Ed.), *Niche tourism: Contemporary issues, trends and cases* (pp. 73-88). Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Hall, C. M., & Sharples, E. (Eds.). (2008). *Food and wine festivals and events around the world: Development, management and markets*. Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Hall, M. C., & Sharples, L. (2003). The consumption of experience or the experience of consumption. An introduction to the tourism of taste. In M. Hall, L. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis & B. Cambourne (Eds.), *Food tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 1-24). Amsterdam: Butterworth Heinemann.

Hallab, Z. A. A., Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2003). Segmentation based on the healthy-living attitude: A market's travel behaviour. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 10(3/4), 185-198.

Hammersley, M. (2000). *Taking sides in social research: Essays on partisanship and bias*. London: Routledge.

Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (2007). *Ethnography: Principles in practice* (3rd ed.). Madison Avenue, NY: Routledge.

Harrington, R. J., & Ottenbacher, M. C. (2010). Culinary tourism: A case study of the gastronomic capital. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*,

- K. D., Meyer, T., & Scribner, L. L. (2009). Retail and service encounters: The inter-cultural tourist experience. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 18(2-3), 197-215.
- Hashimoto, A., & Telfer, D. J. (2006). Selling Canadian culinary tourism: Branding the global and the regional product. *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, 8(1), 31-55.
- Hasking, P., & Schofield, L. (2014). Examining alcohol consumption with the theory of planned behaviour: Do health and alcohol knowledge play a role? *Psychology, Health and Medicine*, 20(7), 838-845.
- Henriques, A. S., King, S. C., & Meiselman, H. L. (2009). Consumer segmentation based on food neophobia and its application to product development. *Food Quality and Preference*, 20, 83-91.
- Hensley, R. L., & Sulek, J. (2007). Customer satisfaction with waits in multi-stage services. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 17(2), 152-173.
- Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1980). Hedonic consumption: Emerging concepts, methods, and proposition. *Journal of Marketing*, 46(3), 92-101.
- Hjalager, A. (2002). Repairing innovation defectiveness in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 23, 465-474.
- Hjalager, A.-M., & Richards, G. (2002). *Tourism and gastronomy*. London: Routledge.

Holloway, C. J. (2006). *The business of tourism*. England: Pearson Education Limited.

Holmberg, T. (2010). Tail tales: How researchers handle transgenic dilemmas. *New Genetics and Society*, 29(1), 37-54.

Horng, J.-S., & Tsai, C.-T. (2012). Culinary tourism strategic development: An Asia-Pacific perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(1), 40-55.

Hosany, S. (2012). Appraisal of determinants of tourist emotional responses. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(3), 303-314.

Hosany, S., & Gilbert, D. (2010). Measuring tourists' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49, 513-526.

Hosany, S., & Witham, M. (2010). Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49, 351-364.

Hsu, C. H. C., & Huang, S. (2012). An extension of the theory of planned behaviour model for tourists. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 36(3), 390-417.

Hsu, T.-K., Tsai, Y.-F., & Wu, H.-H. (2009). The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: A case study of Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, 30(2), 288-297.

- Huang, H., Mao, L. L., Wang, J., & Zhang, J. J. (2015). Assessing the relationships between image congruence, tourist satisfaction, and intention to revisit in marathon tourism: The Shanghai International Marathon. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 16(4), 46-66.
- Huang, S., & Hsu, C. H. (2009). Effects of travel motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on revisit intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, 48(1), 29-44.
- Huang, W-J., Norman, W. C., Hallo, J. C., Mcgehee, N. G., Mcgee, J., & Goetcheus, C. L. (2014). Serendipity and independent travel. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 39(2), 169-183.
- Husserl E. (1936/1970). *The crisis of European sciences and transcendental phenomenology*. Evanston, IL: North Western University Press.
- Hwang, D., Stewart, W. P., & Ko, D.-W. (2012). Community behaviour and sustainable rural tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(3), 328-341.
- Hyde, K. F. (2006). Contemporary information search strategies of destination-naive international vacationers. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 21 (2/3), 63-76.
- Hyde, K. F. (2008). Information processing and touring planning theory. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(3), 712-731.
- Ignatov, E., & Smith, S. (2006). Segmenting Canadian culinary tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9(3), 235-255.
- Ikerd, J. E. (2011). Local food: Revolution and reality. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Information*, 12(1), 49-57.

- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(2), 256-262.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1980). *The social psychology of leisure and recreation*. Dubuque, IA: W. C. Brown Co. Publishers.
- Jackson, M., White, G., & Schmierer, C. (2000). Predicting tourism destination choices: Psychographic parameters versus psychological motivations. In M. Ewen (Ed.), *Peak performance in tourism and hospitality research* (pp. 57-63). Bundoora, Melbourne: School of Tourism and Hospitality, La Trobe University.
- Jaeger, S. R., & Rose, J. M. (2008). Stated choice experimentation, contextual influences, and food choice: A case study. *Food Quality and Preference*, 19, 539-564.
- Jang, H., Lee, S., Lee, S.-W., Hong, S.-K. (2007). Expanding the individual choice-sets model to couples' honeymoon destination selection process. *Tourism Management*, 28, 1299-1314.
- Jang, S., Ha, A., & Silkes, C. A. (2009). Perceived attributes of Asian foods: From the perspective of the American customers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 63-70.
- Januszewska, R., Pieniak, Z., & Verbeke, W. (2011). Food choice questionnaire revisited in four countries: Does it still measure the same? *Appetite*, 57(1), 94-98.
- Jeong, C. (2014). Marine tourist motivations comparing push and pull factors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, 15(3), 294-309.

- Jiang, S., Scott, N., & Ding, P. (2015). Using means-end chain theory to explore travel motivation: An examination of Chinese outbound tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 21(1), 87-100.
- Jung, J. Y., Barnett, K., Gross, M. U. M., & McCormick, J. (2011). Levels of intellectual giftedness, culture, and the forced-choice dilemma. *Roeper Review*, 33(3), 182-197.
- Jung, J. Y., McCormick, J., & Gross, M. U. M. (2012). The forced choice dilemma: A model incorporating idiocentric/allocentric cultural orientation. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 56(1), 15-24.
- Jung, T., Ineson, E. M., Kim, M., & Yap, M. (2015). Influence of festival attribute qualities on Slow Food tourists' experience, satisfaction level and revisit intention: The case of the Mold Slow Food festival. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 21(3), 1-12.
- Kauppinen-Raisanen, H., Gummerus, J., & Lehtola, L. (2013). Remembered eating experiences described by place, food, scape, and time. *British Food Journal*, 115(5), 666-685.
- Kaura, V., Prasad, D., & Sharma, S. (2015). Service quality, service convenience, price and fairness, customer loyalty, and the mediating role of customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 33(4), 404-422.
- Kemp, E., Williams, K. H., & Bordelon, B. M. (2012). The impact of marketing on internal stakeholders in destination branding: The case of a musical city. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18(2), 121-133.
- Kerstetter, D., & Cho, M.-H. (2004). Prior knowledge, credibility and information search. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31, 961-985.

- Kim, Y. G., & Eves A. (2012). Construction and validation of a scale to measure tourist motivation to consume local food. *Tourism Management*, 33 (6), 1458-1467.
- Kim, J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2015). Measuring emotions in real time: Implications for tourism experience design. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54 (4), 419-429.
- Kim, Y.-H., Kim, M., Goh, K. B., & Antun, M. J. (2011). The role of money: The impact on food tourists' satisfaction and intention to revisit food events. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 9(2), 85-98.
- Kim, D.-Y., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Gender differences in online travel information search: Implications for marketing communications on the internet. *Tourism Management*, 28, 423-433.
- Kim, J.-H., & Ritchie, B. J. R (2014). Cross-cultural validation of a memorable tourism experience scale (MTES). *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(3), 323-335.
- Kim, J.-H., & Ritchie, B. W. (2012). Motivation-based typology: An empirical study of golf tourists. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 36(2), 251-280.
- Kim, J.-H., Ritchie, B., & McCormick, B. (2012). Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(1), 12- 25.
- Kim, S. S., & Prideaux, B. (2006). An investigation of the relationship between South Korean domestic public opinion, tourism development in North Korea and a role for tourism in promoting peace on the Korean Peninsula. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 124-137.

- Kim, S., & Ellis, A. (2015). Noodle production and consumption: From agriculture to food tourism in Japan. *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, 17(1), 151-167.
- Kim, Y. G., & Eves, A. (2012). Construction and validation of a scale to measure tourist motivation to consume local food. *Tourism Management*, 33, 1458-1467.
- Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), 423-431.
- Kim, Y. G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2013). Empirical verification of a conceptual model of local food consumption at a tourist destination. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33(1), 484-489.
- Kim, Y. H., Goh, B. K., & Yuan, J. (2010). A development of a multi-dimensional scale for measuring the motivation factors of food tourists at a food event: What does motivate people to travel? *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, 11(1), 56-71.
- Kim, Y. H., Kim, M., Goh, B. K., & Antun, J. M. (2009). A comparison between first-timers and repeaters at a food event. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 7(4), 239-249.
- Kim, Y. H., Yuan, J., Goh, B. K., & Antun, J. M. (2009). A web marketing on food tourism: A content analysis of websites in West Texas. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 7(1), 52-64.
- Kim, H.-B., & Lee, S. (2015). Impacts of city personality and image on revisit intention. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 1(1), 50-69.

- Kincheloe, J. L. (2005). On to the next level: Continuing the conceptualization of the bricolage. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 11(3), 323-350.
- Kincheloe, J. L., & Berry, K. S. (2004). *Rigour and complexity in educational research: Conceptualising the bricolage*. Maidenhead, UK: McGraw-Hill Education/ Open University Press.
- King, S. C., Meiselman, H. L., Hottenstein, A. W., Work, T. M., & Cronk, V. (2007). The effects of contextual variables on food acceptability: A confirmatory study. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18, 58-65.
- Kivela, J., & Crofts, J. (2009). Understanding travellers' experiences of gastronomy through etymology and narration. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 33(2), 161-192.
- Klerck, D., & Sweeney, J.C. (2007). The effect of knowledge types on consumer-perceived risk and adoption of genetically modified foods. *Psychology and Marketing*, 24, 171-193.
- Knaapila, A., Silventoinen, K., Broms, U., Rose, R. J., Perola, M., Kaprio, J., & Tuorila, H. (2010). Food neophobia in young adults. Genetic architecture and relation to personality, BMI, and pleasantness and use frequency of foods. *Appetite*, 54, 631-683.
- Koivisto, U. K., & Sjoden, P.O. (1996). Reasons for rejection of food items in Swedish families with children aged 2-17. *Appetite*, 26, 89-103.
- Kokkinou, A., & Cranage, D. A. (2015). Why wait? Impact of waiting lines on self-service technology use. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(6), 1181-1197.
- Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2006). *Principles of marketing* (11th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice-Hall.

- Koutra, C., & Edwards, J. (2012). Capacity building through socially responsible tourism development: A Ghanaian case study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(6), 779-792.
- Kozak, M. (2002). Destination benchmarking. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 497-519.
- Kronick, R., & Thomas, D. R. (2008). Prisoner citizen: Carl Upchurch, labelling theory, and symbolic interactionism. *Journal of Progressive Human Services*, 19(2), 112-124.
- Kumar, S. (2014). Indian consumer attitudes toward food safety: An exploratory study. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, 20(3), 229-243.
- Ladhari, R., Brun, I., & Morales, M. (2008). Determinants of dining satisfaction and post-dining behavioural intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27, 563-573.
- Lam, T., & Hsu, H. C. (2006). Predicting behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 589-599.
- Lanier Jr., C. D., & Hampton, R. D. (2009). Experiential marketing: Understanding the logic of memorable customer experiences. In A. Lindgreen, J. Vanhamme, & M. B. Beverland (Eds.), *Memorable customer experiences: A Research anthology* (pp. 9-24). Surrey, UK: Gower Publishing Company
- Laros, F. J. M., & Steenkamp, J. E. M. (2005). Emotions in consumer behaviour: A hierarchical approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 58, 1437-1445.
- Larsen, S. (2007). The psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 7(1), 7-18.

- Larsen, S., Wibecke, B., Ogaard, T., & Selstad, L. (2007). Subjective food-risks judgments in tourists. *Tourism Management*, 28, 1555-1559.
- Lauckner, H., Paterson, M., & Krupa, T. (2012). Using constructivist case study methodology to understand community development processes: Proposed methodological questions to guide the research process. *The Qualitative Report*, 17(25), 1-22.
- Lawrence, A. W. (1963). *Trade castles and forts of West Africa*. London: Jonathan.
- Lee, S., & Yen, C.-L. (2015). Volunteer tourists' motivation change and intended participation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(4), 359-377.
- Lehto, X. Y., Kim, D.-Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2006). The effect of prior destination experience on online information search behaviour. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 6(2), 160-178.
- Leigh, J. H., & Gabel, T. G. (1992). Symbolic interactionism: Its effects on consumer behaviour and implications for marketing strategy. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 6(3), 5-16.
- Lepp, A., & Gibson, H. (2008). Sensation seeking and tourism: Tourist role, perception of risk and destination choice. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 740-750.
- Li, M., & Cai, L. A. (2012). The effects of personal values on travel motivation and behavioural intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(4), 473-487.
- Lim, Y., Chung, Y., & Weaver, P. A. (2012). The impact of social media on destination branding: Consumer-generated videos versus destination

marketer-generated videos. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18(3), 197-206.

Lin, C., Morais, D. B., Kerstetter, D., & Hou, J. (2007). Examining the role of cognitive and affective image in predicting choice across natural, developed, and theme-park destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), 183-194.

Lin, Y.-S. (2014). The rise and fall of the reds: The reiterated dilemma-solving process and the life course of social movements. *Social Movement Studies*, 14(3), 291-310.

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed, pp. 166-191). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Litvin, S. W., Goldsmith, R. E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 29, 458-468.

Lo, A. S., & Lee, C. Y. (2011). Motivations and perceived value of volunteer tourists from Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, 32, 326-334.

Loewenstein, G., Downs, J., & Wisdom, J. (2009). Strategies for promoting healthier food choices. *American Economic Review*, 99(2), 159-164.

Lomborg, K., & Kirkevold, M. (2003). Truth and validity in grounded theory: A reconsidered realist interpretation of the criteria: fit, work, relevance, and modifiability. *Nursing Philosophy*, 4, 189-200.

- Long, L. (1998). Culinary tourism: A folkloristic perspective on eating and otherness. *Southern Folklore*, 55(3), 181-204.
- Long, L. (2004). *Culinary tourism*. Lexington, KY: University Press of Kentucky.
- Longhurst, R., Johnston, L., & Ho, E. (2009). A visceral approach: Cooking 'at home' with migrant women in Hamilton, New Zealand. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 34, 333-345.
- Lundberg, H., Ohman, P., & Sjodin, U. (2014). Transaction convenience in the payment stage: The retailers' perspective. *Managing Service Quality*, 24(5), 434-454.
- Lundkvist, P., Fjellstrom, C., Sidenvall, B., Lumbers, M., & Raats, M. (2010). Management of healthy eating in everyday life among senior Europeans. *Appetite*, 55(3), 616-622.
- Luo, M., Feng, R., & Cai, L.A. (2004). Information search behaviour and tourist characteristics: The internet vis-a-vis other information sources. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 17(2/3), 15-25.
- Luque-Martinez, T., Barrio-Garcia, S., Ibanez-Zapata, J. A., & Rodriguez-Molina, M. A. (2007). Modelling a city's image: The case of Granada. *Cities*, 24(5), 335-352.
- Lyons, C. (2008). Defending turf: Racial demographics and hate crime against Blacks and Whites. *Social Forces*, 87(1), 357-385.
- Mack, R., Blose, J., & MacLaurin, T. (2009). Segmenting the culinary tourist market: An American and Australian comparison. In *Proceedings of the 2009 Oxford Business and Economics Conference programme*. June 24-26, 2009. St. Hugh's College, Oxford, England: Oxford University.

- Mahr, D., Kalogeras, N., & Odekerken-Schroder, G. (2013). A service science approach for improving healthy food experiences. *Journal of Service Management*, 24(4), 435-471.
- Mai, L.-W., & Ness, M. R. (1999). Canonical correlation analysis of customer satisfaction and future purchase of mail-order speciality food. *British Food Journal*, 101(11), 857-870.
- Mak, A. H. N., Lumbers, M., Eves, A., & Chang, R. C. Y. (2017). The effects of food-related personality traits on tourist food consumption motivations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 1-20.
- Mak, A. H. N., Lumbers, M., & Eves, A. (2012). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1), 171-192.
- Mak, A. H. N., Lumbers, M., Eves, A., & Chang, K. C. (2012). Factors influencing tourist food consumption. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31, 928-936.
- Manderscheid, S. V., & Freeman, P. D. (2012). Managing polarity, paradox, and dilemma during leader transition. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 36(9), 856-872.
- Mannell, R. C., & Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1987). Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(3), 314-331.
- Manu, S. (2006). *Ghanaian cookbook. Favourite recipes from Ghana*. Accra: Adaex Educational Publications Ltd.
- Marinkovic, V., Senic, V., Ivkov, D., Dimitrovski, D., & Bjelic, M. (2014). The antecedents of satisfaction and revisit intentions for full-service restaurants. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 32(3), 311-327.

- Marshall, D., & Bell, R. (2004). Relating the food involvement scale to demographic variables, food choice, and other constructs. *Food Quality and Preference*, 15, 871-879.
- Marte, L. (2007). Foodmaps: Tracing boundaries of "home" through food relations. *Food and Foodways*, 15(3/4), 261-289.
- Marvasti, A. B. (2004). *Qualitative research in sociology*. London: Sage.
- Maunier, C., & Camelis, C. (2013). Toward an identification of elements contributing to satisfaction with the tourism experience. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 19, 19-39.
- Maykut, P., & Morehouse, R. (1994). *Beginning qualitative research: A philosophic and practical guide*. Bristol, PA: The Falmer Press.
- McCall, M., & Lynn, A. (2008). The effects of restaurant menu item descriptions on perceptions of quality, price, and purchase intention. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 11, 439-445.
- McEachan, R. R. C., Conner, M., Taylor, N., & Lawton, R. J. (2011). Prospective prediction of health-related behaviours with the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analysis. *Health Psychology Review*, 5, 97-144.
- McEntee, J. (2010). Contemporary and traditional localism: A conceptualisation of rural local food. *Local Environment*, 15(9/10), 785-803.
- McGhee, G., Marland, G. R., & Atkinson, J. (2007). Grounded theory research: Literature reviewing and reflexivity. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 60(3), 334-342.

- McGoey, L. (2012). Strategic unknowns: towards a sociology of ignorance. *Economy and Society*, 41(1), 1-16.
- McGuire, K. A., Kimes, S. E., Lynn, M., Pullman, M. E., & Lloyd, R. C. (2010). A framework for evaluating the customer wait experience. *Journal of Service Management*, 21(3), 269-290.
- McIntosh, A. J., & Zahra, A. (2007). A cultural encounter through volunteer tourism: Towards the ideals of sustainable tourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(5), 541-557.
- McIntosh, R.W., Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1995). *Tourism principles, practices, philosophies* (7th ed.). New York: Wiley.
- McIvor, R. (2005). *The outsourcing process: Strategies for evaluation and management*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- McKercher, B., & Lew, A. A. (2003). Distance decay and the impact of effective tourism exclusion zones of international travel flows. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(2), 159-165.
- McKercher, B., Okumus, F., & Okumus, B. (2008). Food tourism as a viable market segment: It's all how you cook the numbers! *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 25(2), 137-148.
- Mead, G. H. (1934). *Mind, self, and society*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Meler, M., & Cerovic, Z. (2003). Food marketing in the function of tourist product development. *British Food Journal*, 105(3), 175-192.
- Meng, F., Tepanon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2008). Measuring tourist satisfaction by attribute and motivation: The case of a nature-based resort. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(1), 41-56.

- Menzly, L., & Ozbas, O. (2010). Market segmentation and cross-predictability of returns. *The Journal of Finance*, 65, 1555-1580.
- Mertens, B. (2009). *Food vendors: A Thai tradition with a twist of innovation*. Retrieved March 30, 2016, from http://www.nytimes.com/2009/05/27/arts/27ihtfoodshow.html?_r=0.
- Meyer, C., & Schwager, A. (2007). Understanding customer experience. *Harvard Business Review*, 85(1), 116-28.
- Mills, J., Bonner, A., & Francis, K. (2006). The development of constructivist grounded theory. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1), 1-10.
- Milosevic, J., Zeliz, I., Gorton, M., & Barjolle, D. (2012). Understanding the motives for food choice in Western Balkan Countries. *Appetite*, 58(1), 205-214.
- Min, K. (2010). Recognition and preference of university students on Korean foods in Australia. *Korean Journal of Culinary Research*, 16(5), 92-102.
- Mitchell, R., & Hall, C. M. (2003). Consuming tourists: Food tourism consumer behaviour. In C. M. Hall, L. Sharples, R. Mitchell, & N. Macionis (Eds.), *Food tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 60-80). Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mkono, M., Markwell, K., & Wilson, E. (2013). Applying Quan and Wang's structural model of the tourist experience: A Zimbabwean netnography of food tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 5, 68-74.
- Mohammad, R., Jalilvand, S., Salimpour, M., & Elyasi, M. M. (2017). Factors influencing word of mouth behaviour in the restaurant industry. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 35(1), 81-110.

- Molder, H. (2011). The cooperative security dilemma in the Baltic Sea Region. *Journal of Baltic Studies*, 42(2), 143-168.
- Mossberg, L. (2007). A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 7(1), 59-74.
- Mossberg, L. (2008). Extraordinary experiences through storytelling. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 8(3), 195-210.
- Mount, P. (2012). Growing local food: scale and local food systems governance. *Agriculture and Human Values*, 29, 107-121.
- Muller, A., & Schade, M. (2012). Symbols and place identity. A semiotic approach to internal place branding: Case study of Bremen (Germany). *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 5(1), 81-92.
- Murphy, P., Pritchard, M. P., & Smith, B. (2000). The destination product and its impact on traveller perceptions. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 43-52.
- Mustonen, S., & Tuorila, H. (2010). Sensory education decreases food neophobia score and encourages trying unfamiliar foods in 8-12-year-old children. *Food Quality and Preference*, 21, 353-360.
- Ng, K., & Hase, S. (2008). Grounded suggestions for doing a grounded theory business research. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 6(2), 183-198.
- Nicklaus, S., Boggio, V., Chabanet, C., & Issanchou, S. (2004). A prospective study of food preferences in childhood. *Food Quality and Preference*, 15, 805-818.
- Nicolau, J. L., & Mas, F. J. (2006). The influence of distance and prices on the choice of tourist destinations: The moderating role of motivations. *Tourism Management*, 27, 982-996.

- Nishimura, S., King, B., & Waryszak, R. (2007). The use of travel guidebooks by packaged and non-packaged Japanese travellers: A comparative study. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 13(4), 291-310.
- Norton, D. W., & Pine II, J. B. (2009). Unique experiences: Disruptive innovations offer customers more "time well spent." *Strategy and Leadership*, 37(6), 4-9.
- Norton, D. W., & Pine II, J. B. (2013). Using the customer journey to road test and refine the business model. *Strategy and Leadership*, 41(2), 12-17.
- Nove-Sundbo, J., & Hagedorn-Rasmussen, P. (2008). The backstaging of experience production. In J. Sundbo & P. Darmer (Eds.), *Creating experiences in the experience economy* (pp. 149-161). Cheltenham: Elgar.
- Nummedal, M., & Hall, M. (2006). Local food and tourism: An investigation of the New Zealand South Island's bed and breakfast section's use and perception of local food. *Tourism Review International*, 9, 365-378.
- Obonyo, G. O., Ayieko, M. A., & Kambona, O.O. (2012). An importance-performance analysis of food service attributes in gastro-tourism development in Western Tourist Circuit, Kenya. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 12(4), 188-200.
- Okazaki, S., & Hirose, M. (2009). Does gender affect media choice in travel information search? On the use of mobile internet. *Tourism Management*, 30, 794-804.
- Oliveira, E., & Panyik, E. (2015). Content, context, and co-creation: Digital challenges in destination branding with references to Portugal as a tourist destination. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 21(1), 53-74.

- Oliver, R. (1980). A cognitive model of antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 17, 460-469.
- Olsen, S. O., Scholderer, J., Brunso, K., & Verbeke, W. (2007). Exploring the relationship between convenience and fish consumption: A cross-cultural study. *Appetite*, 49, 84-91.
- Ooi, N., & Laing, J. H. (2010). Backpacker tourism: Sustainable and purposeful? Investigating the overlap between backpacker tourism and volunteer tourism motivations. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(2), 191-206.
- Ostaseviciute, R., & Sliburyte, L. (2008). Theoretical aspects of product positioning in the market. *Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*, 1, 97-103.
- Ottenbacher, M. C., & Harrington, R. J. (2013). A case study of a culinary tourism campaign in Germany: Implications for strategy making and successful implementation. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 37(1), 3-28.
- Pan, B., & Fesenmaier, D. (2006). Vacation planning process. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(3), 809-832.
- Parasecoli, F. (2011). Savouring semiotics: Food in intercultural communication. *Social Semiotics*, 21(5), 645-663.
- Park, K.-S., Reisinger, Y., & Kang, H.-J. (2008). Visitors' motivation for attending the south beach wine and food festival, Miami Beach, Florida. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 25(2), 161-181.

- Parker, J. (2008). Dilemma-of-dilemmas: The position of conscience in research. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 4(1), 42-57.
- Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). London: Sage
- Pearce, P. (1993). Fundamentals of tourist motivation. In D. G. Pearce & R. W. Butler (Eds.), *Tourism research: Critiques and challenges* (pp. 113-134). New York: Routledge.
- Pearce, P. (2011b). Travel motivation, benefits, and constraints to destinations. In Y. Wang & A. Pizam (Eds.), *Destination marketing and management: Theories and applications* (pp. 39-52). Cambridge, MA: CAB International.
- Pearce, P. L. (2005). *Tourist behaviour: Themes and conceptual schemes*. Clevedon, England: Channel View.
- Pearce, P., & Lee U. I. (2005). Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(3), 226-237.
- Pearce, P., Wu, M.-Y., & Osmond, A. (2013). Puzzles in understanding Chinese tourist behaviour: Towards a triple-c gaze. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 38(2), 145-157.
- Penney, U., & Prior, C. (2014). Exploring the urban consumer's perception of local food. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 42(7), 580-594.
- Pestek, A., & Cinjarevic, M. (2014). Tourist perceived image of local cuisine: The case of Bosnian food culture. *British Food Journal*, 116(11), 1821-1838.

- Petrick, J. F., Li, X., & Park, S. Y. (2007). Cruise passengers' decision-making processes. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 23(1), 1-14.
- Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is theatre and every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 16(1), 55-58.
- Plog, S. C. (1987). Understanding psychographics in tourism research. In J. Richie & C. Goeldner (Eds.), *Travel, tourism, and hospitality research* (pp. 203-213). New York: Wiley.
- Plog, S. C. (2001). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity: An update of a Cornell quarterly classic. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42(3), 13-24.
- Polo Pena, A. I., Fraix Jamilena, D. M., & Rodriguez Molina, M. A. (2012). The perceived value of the rural tourism stay and its effect on rural tourist behaviour. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(8), 1045-1065.
- Prayag, G. (2009). Tourists' evaluations of destination image, satisfaction, and future behavioural intentions: The case of Mauritius. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 26(8), 836-853.
- Prebensen, N., Skallerud, K., & Chen, J. S. (2010). Tourist motivation with sun and sand destinations: Satisfaction and the WOM-effect. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 27(8), 858-873.
- Pula, K., Parks, C. D., & Ross, C. F. (2014). Regulatory focus and food choice motives. Prevention orientation associated with mood, convenience, and familiarity. *Appetite*, 78, 15-22.

Quadri-Felitti, D., & Fiore, A. M. (2013). Destination loyalty: Effects of wine tourists' experiences, memories, and satisfaction on intentions. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 13(1), 47-62.

Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 25, 297-305.

Ramkissoon, H., & Nunkoo, R. (2008). Information search behaviour of European tourists visiting Mauritius. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, 56, 7-21.

Ramkissoon, H., & Nunkoo, R. (2012). More than just biological sex differences: Examining the structural relationship between gender identity and information search behaviour. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 36(2), 191-215.

Reisinger, M., & Mavondo, F. (2005) Travel anxiety and intentions to travel internationally: Implications of travel risk perception. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43, 212-225.

Rinaldi, G., Sanders, D., & Sibson, R. (2013). The motivations and experiences of Australian Football League interstate sports tourists. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 16(1), 39-54.

Ritchie, B. W., Tkaczynski, A., & Faulks, P. (2010). Understanding the motivation and travel behaviour of cycle tourists' using involvement profiles. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 27, 409-425.

Ritchie, B., & Hudson, S. (2009). Understanding and meeting the challenges of consumer/ tourist experience research. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11, 111-126.

- Roberti, R. (2008). Have food? Will travel. *Travel Agent*, 333(3), 50-54.
- Robin, R., McEachan, C., Conner, M., Taylor, N. J., & Lawton, R. J. (2011). Prospective prediction of health-related behaviours with the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analysis. *Health Psychology Review*, 5(2), 97-144.
- Rodgers, S., & Young, N. W. G. (2008). The potential role of latest technological developments including industrial gastronomy in functional meal design. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 6, 170-187.
- Rodrigues, A., Kastenholz, E., & Rodrigues, A. (2010). Hiking as a wellness activity: An exploratory study of hiking tourists in Portugal. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 16(4), 331-343.
- Rogerson, C. M. (2013). Tourism and local development in South Africa: Challenging local governments. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance*, 19, 9-23.
- Rogerson, C. M. (2015). Revisiting VFR tourism in South Africa. *South African Geographical Journal*, 97(2), 139-157.
- Scaglioni, S., Salvioni, M., & Galimberti, C (2008). Influence of parental attitudes in the development of child eating behaviour. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 99(1), 22-25.
- Schmallegger, D., & Carson, D. (2008). Changing approaches to information exchange. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 14(2), 99-110.
- Schnell, S. M. (2013). Deliberate identities: Becoming local in America in a global age. *Journal of Cultural Geography*, 30(1), 55-89.

- Schwandt, T. A. (2003). Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretativism, hermeneutics and social constructionism. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (pp. 292-331). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Seddighi, H. R., Nuttall, M. W., & Theocharous, A. L. (2001). Does cultural background of tourists influence the destination choice? An empirical study with special reference to political instability. *Tourism Management*, 22, 181-191.
- Selfa, T., & Qazi, J. (2005). Place, taste, or face-to-face? Understanding producer-consumer networks in 'local' food systems in Washington State. *Agriculture and Human Values*, 22, 451-464.
- Selstad, L. (2007). The social anthropology of the tourist experience. Exploring the "middle role." *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 7(1), 19-33.
- Senecal, S., & Nantal, A. (2004). The influence of online product recommendations on consumers' online choices. *Journal of Retailing*, 80, 159-169.
- Sengel, T., Karagoz, A., Cetin, G., Dincer, F. I., Ertugral, S. M., & Balk, M. (2015). Tourists approach to local food. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 195, 429-437.
- Seo, S., & Ryu, K. (2009). Chinese customers' perception of Korean foods and satisfaction and revisit intentions to Korean cuisine restaurants: A focus on visiting experience and frequency of visits. *Journal of the Korean Society of Dietary Culture*, 24(2), 126-136.

- Seo, S., Yun, N., & Kim, O. Y. (2017). Destination food image and intention to eat destination foods: A view from Korea. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(2), 135-156.
- Sharifpour, M., Walters, G., & Ritchie, B. W. (2014). Investigating the role of prior knowledge in tourist decision-making: A structural equation model of risk perceptions and information search. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(3) 307-322.
- Sheng, C.-W., & Chen, M.-C. (2013). Tourist experience expectations: Questionnaire development and text narrative analysis. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*, 7(1), 93-104
- Shenoy, S. S. (2005). *Food tourism and the culinary tourist* (Unpublished doctoral thesis, Graduate School of Clemson University, 2005). Clemson, South Carolina: Clemson University.
- Shenton, A. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22, 63-75.
- Shin, B. (2009). The effect of cognition at Korean foods on image, attitude, globalisation, and purchasing intention. *Journal of Foodservice Management*, 12(4), 129-149.
- Silkes C. A., Cai, L. A, & Lehto, X. Y. (2013). Marketing to the culinary tourist. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 30(4), 335-349.
- Silkes, C. A. (2012). Farmers' markets: A case for culinary tourism. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 10(4), 326-336.
- Simeon, R. (2006). A conceptual model-linking brand building strategies and Japanese popular culture. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 24(5), 463-476.

- Sims, R. (2009). Food, place, and authenticity: Local food and the sustainable tourism experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 321-336.
- Sivadas, E., & Jindal, R. P. (2017). Alternative measures of satisfaction and word of mouth. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 31(2), 119-130.
- Skinner, J. D., Carruth, B. R., Bounds, W., & Ziegler, P. J. (2002). Children's food preferences: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 102, 1638-1647.
- Slattery, P. (2007). Curriculum development in the post-modern era. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 38(2), 383.
- Smallman, C., & Moore, K. (2010). Process studies of tourists' decision-making. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(2), 397-422.
- Smith, J. A. (2007). Hermeneutics, human sciences, and health: Linking theory and practice. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Wellbeing*, 2, 3-11.
- Smith, S. L., & Costello, C. (2009). Culinary tourism: Satisfaction with a culinary event utilising importance-performance grid analysis. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 15(2), 99-110.
- Smith, S. L., & Xiao, H. (2008). Culinary tourism supply chains: A preliminary examination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46, 289-299.
- Sobal, J., Bisogni, C. A., Devine, C. M., & Jastran, M. (2006). A conceptual model of the food choice process over the life course. In R. Shepherd & M. Raats (Eds.), *The psychology of food choice* (pp. 1-18). Oxfordshire, England: CAB International.
- Soderman, N., & Snead, S. L. (2008). Opening the gap: The motivation of gap year travellers to volunteer in Latin America. In K. D. Lyons & S.

- Wearing (Eds.), *Journeys of discovery in volunteer tourism* (pp. 101-117). Wallingford, England: CAB International.
- Solomon, M. R. (2007). *Consumer behaviour. Buying, having and being*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Stewart, J. W., Bramble, L., & Ziraldo, D. (2008). Key challenges in wine and culinary tourism with practical recommendations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(3), 302-312.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998b). Grounded theory methodology. An overview. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (pp. 158-183). London: Sage.
- Suddaby, R. (2006). From the editors: What grounded theory is not. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(4), 633-642.
- Sulek, J. M., & Hensley, R. L. (2004). The relative importance of food, atmosphere, and fairness of wait: The case of a full-service restaurant. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 45(3), 235-247.
- Suni, J., & Komppula, R. (2012). SF-Filmvillage as a movie tourism destination: A case study of movie tourist push motivations. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 29(5), 460-471.
- Sweeney, J. C., Soutar, G. N., & Mazzarol, T. (2012). Word of mouth: Measuring the power of individual messages. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(1), 237-257.

- Tan, W.-K., & Chen, T.-H. (2012). The usage of online tourist information sources in tourist information search: An exploratory study. *The Service Industries Journal*, 32(3), 451-476.
- Tang, S. (2009). The security dilemma: A conceptual analysis. *Security Studies*, 18(3), 587-623.
- Telfer, D., & Sharpley, R. (2008). *Tourism and development in the developing world*. New York: Routledge.
- Thomas, D. R. (2006). A general inductive approach for analysing qualitative evaluation data. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27(2), 237-246.
- Torres, R., & Momsen, J. H. (2004). Challenges and potential for linking tourism and agriculture to achieve pro-poor tourism objectives. *Progress in Development Studies*, 4(4), 294-319.
- Torres, R., & Skillicorn, P. (2004). Montezuma's revenge: How sanitation concerns may injure Mexico's tourist industry. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 45(2), 132-144.
- Townley, C. (2011). *A defence of ignorance: Its value for knowers and roles in feminist and social epistemologies*. Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.
- Tsai, S. (2005). Integrated marketing as management of holistic consumer experience. *Business Horizons*, 48, 431-441.
- Tussyadiah, P. (2014). Toward a theoretical foundation for experience design in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(5), 543-564.
- Udehn, L. (2001). *Methodological individualism: Background, history and meaning*. London, UK: Routledge.
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (2016). *Tourism highlights* (2016 ed.). Retrieved May 4, 2017, from <http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/>

pdf/10.18111/9789284418145.

University of North Carolina School of Medicine. (2011, April 26). *Link between high-fat diet and type 2 diabetes clarified*. Science Daily. Retrieved February 10, 2016, from <http://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2011/04/>

Updhyay, Y., & Sharma, D. (2014). Culinary preferences of foreign tourists in India. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 20(1), 29-39.

Urry, J. (1990). *The tourist gaze: Leisure and travel in contemporary society*. London: Sage.

Verbeke, W., Sioen, I., Pieniak, Z., Van Camp, J., & De Henauw, S. (2005). Consumer perception versus scientific evidence about health benefits and safety risks from fish consumption. *Public Health Nutrition*, 8, 422-429.

Verbeke, W., Vermeir, I., & Brunso, K. (2007). Consumer evaluation of fish quality as basis for fish market segmentation. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18(4), 651-661.

Verhoef, P.C., Lemon, K. N., Parasuraman, A., Roggeveen, A., Tsiros, M., & Schlesinger, L.A. (2009). Customer experience creation: Determinants, dynamics and management strategies. *Journal of Retailing*, 85, 31-41.

Voigt, C., Brown, G., & Howat, G. (2011). Wellness tourists: In search of transformation. *Tourism Review*, 66(1/ 2), 16-30.

Volo, S. (2009). Conceptualising experience: A tourist based approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 18(2/3), 111-126.

- Wagner, T. (2007). Shopping motivation revised: A means-end chain analytical perspective. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 35(7), 569-582.
- Walls, P., Parahoo, K., & Fleming, P. (2010). The role and place of knowledge and literature in grounded theory. *Nurse Researcher*, 17, 8-17.
- Walter, U., Edvardson, B., & Ostrom, A. (2010). Drivers of customers' service experiences: A study in the restaurant industry. *Managing Service Quality*, 20(3), 235-258.
- Wang, N. (1999). Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26, 349-370.
- Wansink, B. (2004). Environmental factors that increase the food intake and consumption volume of unknowing consumers. *Annual Reviews of Nutrition*, 24, 455-479.
- West-Olatunji, C. A., Goodman, R. D., Mehta, S., & Templeton, L. (2011). Creating cultural competence: An outreach immersion experience in Southern Africa. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 33, 335-346.
- Williams, A. (2002). *Understanding the hospitality consumer*. Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Williams, A. (2006). Tourism and hospitality marketing: Fantasy, feeling, and fun. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(6), 482-495.
- Wilson, S. (2003). The effect of music on perceived atmosphere and purchase intentions in a restaurant. *Psychology of Music*, 31(1), 93-112.

- Witt, C. A., & Wright, P. L. (1992). Tourist motivation: Life after Maslow. In B. Thomas & P. S. Johnson (Eds.), *Choice and demand in tourism* (pp. 33-55). London: Mansell.
- Wong, I. A., & Wan, Y. K. P. (2013). A systematic approach to scale development in tourist shopping satisfaction linking destination attributes and shopping experience. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(1), 29-41.
- Woodland, M., & Acott, T. (2007). Sustainability and local tourism branding in England's South Downs. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15, 715-734.
- Woodside, A. G. (2008). Using the forced metaphor elicitation technique (FMET) to meet animal companions within self. *Journal of Business Research*, 61, 480-487.
- Woodside, A. G., Mir, R., & Duque, V. M. (2011). Tourism's destination dominance and marketing website usefulness. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(4), 552-564.
- World Travel and Tourism Council (2015). *Travel and tourism economic impact: Ghana 2015*. Retrieved March 23, 2016, from <http://www.wttc.org/research/economic-research/economic-impact-analysis/country-reports/#undefined>.
- Wright, T. F., Eberhard, J. R., Hobson, E. A., Avery, M. L., & Russello, M. A. (2010). Behavioural flexibility and species invasions: The adaptive flexibility hypothesis. *Ethology Ecology and Evolution*, 22(4), 393-404.
- Yale, L., & Venkatesh, A. (1986). Toward the construct of convenience in consumer research. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 13, 403-408.

- Yankholmes, A. K. B. (2013). *Developing Ghana's Slave Route Project for cultural tourism: Planning and marketing implications* (Unpublished doctoral thesis, School of Hotel and Tourism Management, 2013). The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.
- Yeoman, I., & McMahon-Beatie, U. (2011). Destination brand challenges: The future challenge. In Y. Wang & A. Pizam (Eds.), *Destination marketing and management, theories and applications* (pp. 169-182). Oxfordshire, England: CAB International.
- Yilmaz, Y., Yilmaz, Y., İcigen, T. E., Ekin, Y., & Utku, B. D. (2009). Destination image: A comparative study on pre and post trip image variations. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 18(5), 461-479.
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 45-56.
- Young, H. K., Kim, M., Goh, B. K., & Antun, J. M. (2011). The role of money: The impact on food tourists' satisfaction and intention to revisit food events. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 9, 85-98.
- Yu, L., & Goulden, M. (2006). A comparative analysis of international tourists' satisfaction in Mongolia. *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1331-1342.
- Yuan, J. J. (2005). An analysis of wine festival attendees' motivations: A synergy of wine, travel and special events? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11(1), 41-58.

- Yuksel, A., & Yuksel, F. (2002). Market segmentation based on tourists' dining preferences. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 26(4), 315-331.
- Yun, D., Hennessey, S. M., & MacDonald, R. (2011). Understanding culinary tourists: Segmentations based on past culinary experiences and attitudes toward food-related behaviour. In *international CHRIE conference-refereed track*, Denver, Colorado, USA, 27-30 July 2011. Retrieved January 14, 2014, from http://scholarworks.umass.edu/refereed/ICHRIE_2011/Friday/15.
- Zakrisson, I., & Zillinger, M. (2012). Emotions in motion: Tourist experiences in time and space. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 15(6), 520-523.
- Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L.A., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 40(1), 213-223.
- Zhao, X., Hou, J., & Gilbert, K. (2014). Measuring the variance of customer waiting time in service operations. *Management Decision*, 52(2), 296-312.
- Zins, A. H. (2007). Exploring travel information search behaviour beyond common frontiers. *Information Technology and Tourism*, 9(3/4), 149-164.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Profile of Interviewees

Pseudonym	Sex	Age	Education	Country of origin	Purpose of visit	Places visited	Length of stay	Travel party	ADE on food in cedis
Respondent 1	F	23	College	Germany	Volunteering	Mole, Busia, Bosumtwi	6 months	1	4/7
Respondent 2	F	24	College	Germany	Volunteering	Accra, Cape Coast, Kissi	2 weeks	1	5
Respondent 3	F	22	College	USA	Volunteering	Accra, Kumasi, Cape Coast, Elmina	2 weeks	3	7
Respondent 4	F	22	College	USA	Volunteering	Accra, Kumasi, Cape Coast, Elmina	2 weeks	3	7
Respondent 5	F	23	College	USA	Volunteering	Accra, Kumasi, Cape Coast, Elmina	2 weeks	3	7
Respondent 6	M	61	Postgraduate	Germany	Business	Accra, Cape Coast, Elmina	10 days	1	25
Respondent 7	M	24	College	Switzerland	Internship	Ada Fo, Ho, TaM, Mole, Busia	8 weeks	1	25
Respondent 8	F	24	College	Germany	Internship	Ada Fo, Ho, TaM, Mole, Busia	8 weeks	1	25/30

Respondent 9	F	22	College	Belgium	Researcher	Cultural Centre, Busia, Elmina	2 months	1	15
Respondent 10	F	24	College	Germany	Holidaying	Accra, Kumasi, Cape Coast, Elmina	2 months	2	15
Respondent 11	F	25	College	Germany	Holidaying	Accra, Kumasi, Cape Coast, Elmina	2 months	2	15
Respondent 12	F	24	College	Canada	Holidaying	Accra, Cape Coast, Tamale, Kumasi	2 months	1	15
Respondent 13	M	32	College	France	Holidaying	Tamale, Bosomtwi, Cape Coast, Hohoe	5 days	2	8
Respondent 14	M	24	College	Germany	Volunteering	Koforidua, Lake Bosomtwi, Cape Three Points,	8 weeks	1	11
Respondent 15	M	24	High school	Switzerland	Holidaying	Mpraeso, Kumasi, Cape Coast, Busia, Accra, Ada,	2 weeks	2	15
Respondent 16	F	22	High school	Switzerland	Holidaying	Mpraeso, Kumasi, Cape Coast, Busia, Ada, Elmina	2 weeks	2	15
Respondent 17	M	24	College	Germany	Internship	Acra, Cape Coast, Akwatia, Nkwakwa, Winneba, Hohoe	6 weeks	2	15

Respondent 18	F	24	College	Germany	Internship	Acra, Cape Coast, Akwatia, Begoro, Ho, Nkwakwa,	6 weeks	2	15
Respondent 19	F	40	College	Canada	Holidaying	Accra, Kumasi, Elmina,	2 weeks	1	25
Respondent 20	F	26	College	Japan	Volunteering	Abor, Accra, Cape Coast	11 months	7	10
Respondent 21	F	27	College	USA	Volunteering	Koforidua, Accra, Kumasi, Odumase Krobo,	10 months	3	5-15
Respondent 22	F	26	College	USA	Volunteering	Koforidua, Accra, Kumasi, Odumase Krobo,	10 months	3	5-15
Respondent 23	F	28	College	USA	Holidaying	Accra-Kokrobite, Cape Coast	7 days	1	30
Respondent 24	M	24	High school	Germany	Holidaying	Accra, Kumasi, Cape Coast	7 weeks	1	15
Respondent 25	M	24	High school	England	Holidaying	Kumasi, Bolgatanga, Mole, Bosomtwi, Kakum Kintampo, Manhyia, Paga.	7 weeks	2	30
Respondent 26	F	26	Post graduate	Germany	Research student	Cape Coast	2 ½ months	1	12-15
Respondent 27	F	20	College	Germany	Volunteering	Cape Coast, Elmina, Busua	6 months	1	15

Respondent 28	F	21	College	Denmark	Volunteering	Cape Coast, Elmina, Busua, Accra	6 months	2	15
Respondent 29	F	21	College	Demark	Volunteering	Cape Coast, Elmina, Busua, Accra	6 months	2	15
Respondent 30	F	25	College	USA	Holidaying	Tamale, Mole, Wa	2 weeks	3	30
Respondent 31	M	21	College	USA	Volunteering	Osu, Kokrobite, Cape Coast	6 weeks	7	40
Respondent 32	M	29	Postgraduate	Switzerland	Holidaying	Busua, Butre, KNP	2 weeks	2	30
Respondent 33	F	40	College	Denmark	Volunteering	Nzulezu, KNP, MNP	4 weeks	1	30
Respondent 34	F	21	College	Netherlands	Volunteering	Tamale, Techiman, Kumasi	7 weeks	2	35
Respondent 35	F	22	College	Netherlands	Volunteering	Tamale, Techiman, Kumasi	7 weeks	2	35
Respondent 36	M	21	College	Poland	Holidaying	Frankadua, Cape Coast	15 days	1	35
Respondent 37	F	25	College	USA	Holidaying	Anomabo, Elmina	12 days	2	25
Respondent 38	M	35	Post graduate	Netherlands	Business	Accra, Cape Coast	7 days	1	40
Respondent 39	M	19	College	Belgium	Volunteer	Afadjato, Wli, Boti	2 months	1	25
Respondent 40	M	20	College	USA	Volunteer	Ada, Wli, Afadjato	10 weeks	2	25

Source: Fieldwork, 2016

F= Female, M=Male, ADE= Average Daily Expenditure

Appendix B

Memo

Memo

Focused coding

Information seeking behaviour
(09-11-2015)

Most of the tourists interviewed did not look for information on food while coming to Ghana. They admitted to having no knowledge about the food. Moreover, where they even searched, the information was inadequate or tourists lack the motivation to search thoroughly. Motivation for information search will depend on the purpose for which it is was being sought. Those who searched for information were those who needed the information for further processing. The cost (time) of information search could also be a factor. A few of them relied on their organic knowledge and therefore did not search for any information. A few others also relied on secondary sources (external sources). A startling observation is the reliance on locals (local information banks) for information on the food. Why would they rely on them? Do they see them as honest brokers? Or they just want to confirm what they already know? Or it is just another way of shoring up the information that they already have which is scanty or paltry at best. For those who searched, the information they obtained could lack explanatory power and may be they wanted to shore it up.

Most of them could be risk takers who would want to accept just things as they happened. Another important addition to the lack of or inadequacy of information search is the role played by local caregivers-host families. These tourists or volunteers rely on them for almost everything. What could be accounting for this? Is it a question of trust? Or just an issue of loss of control and ceding of will? Or just a captive market scenario where they do not have any choice?

Another observation worth pursuing is the role of that information as they step out. For most, it is unlikely to influence what they ate outside but for others it played an important role.

Appendix C

Line-by-Line Coding

Question	Interview statement	Line-by-line coding
<i>How did you come to know about the food you have been eating so far?</i>	It depends. The first day we arrived in Tamale, so we were eating outside, so we found, Jollof, <i>fufu</i> , and <i>tou zafi</i> . We were eating on the street most of the time. Then yesterday night we were near the lake Bosomtwi, so we were in a small guesthouse but with nothing around to eat so, we were forced to eat in the guesthouse. So we ate grilled chicken with potato chips and palaver sauce with yam.	Chancing upon food on arrival Providing examples of what was eaten at this location Showing preference for street food Changing location Revealing unavailability of other options at new location Providing examples of what was eaten at new location
<i>Did you have any prior information on the food before you came?</i>	We did not have any information. We just came. Actually, we live in Burkina Faso, so we came by bus first stop in Tamale for a few days. Then we learnt how everything works here, food industry and other things. Tonight I do not know maybe we will try to have something outside, we can see people having small boxes, so we are hoping to find something outside because we are afraid of the prices here.	Lacking prior information on the food before coming Describing mode of transport to the destination Describing on the go information and knowledge acquisition Contemplating on where to find next meal Observing what others are eating Expressing sensitivity to price at current location (a touristic place)

Source: Fieldwork, 2016

Appendix D

Popular Documented Ghanaian Dishes of Southern Ghana

Grouping	Main ingredients
Porridges	
<i>Kooko</i>	Fermented corn
<i>Eburowsam kooko</i>	Roasted corn meal
<i>Mpampa/Kokli</i>	Unseived whole meal corn dough
<i>Mpotroba</i>	Lumpy corn dough
<i>Rice porridge</i>	rice
<i>Tapioca porridge</i>	Cassava starch
Stews	
<i>Garden eggs stew</i>	Garden eggs, meat, crab, smoked fish, tomatoes, onions, pepper, salted fish, red oil
<i>Fante fante/forowe</i>	Fresh fish, tomatoes, onions pepper, red oil
<i>Palava sauce/abom</i>	Kontombre, aketsiwa, meat, crab, smoked fish, pepper, tomatoes, onions, red oil
<i>Okra stew</i>	Okra, assorted meat, smoked fish, crab, snail, tomatoes, onions, pepper, red oil
<i>Beans stew</i>	Tomatoes, onions, pepper, red oil, beans
Soups	
<i>Light soup (Nkrakra)</i>	Assorted meat, smoked fish crab, tomatoes, onions, pepper
<i>Palm nut soup (Abe Nkwan)</i>	Palm fruits, assorted meat, smoked fish, crab, tomatoes, onions, pepper
<i>Groundnut soup</i>	Ground nuts, assorted meat, smoked fish, crab, tomatoes, onions, pepper
<i>Kontombre soup (abunabun)</i>	Kontombre, game, snail, smoked fish, onions, pepper
<i>Okro soup</i>	Okra, snails, crab, fish, onions, tomatoes, pepper and or red oil
<i>Fresh fish soup (apofo annto)</i>	Fresh fish, tomatoes, onions, pepper
Accompaniments	
<i>Etsew</i>	Corn dough
<i>Banku</i>	Corn and cassava dough
<i>Yam</i>	yam
<i>Ripped plantain</i>	Ripped plantain
<i>Ampese</i>	Apem (Unripen plantain), cocoyam, yam
<i>Fufu</i>	Cassava, yam, cocoyam, plantain
<i>Rice</i>	rice
One pot dishes	
<i>Aprapransa</i>	Roasted corn flour, beans, smoked herrings, tomatoes, onions, pepper, red oil
<i>Impiho/mpotompoto</i>	Cocoyam, smoked fish, tomatoes, red oil

Snacks and desserts	
<i>Nkate cake</i>	Groundnut, sugar
<i>Atadwe milk</i>	Tiger nut, rice, sugar
<i>Bofrot</i>	Flour, sugar, oil
<i>Bankye krakro</i>	Cassava, oil
<i>Ofam</i>	Ripe plantain, groundnut

Adapted from Bondzi-Simpson (2015), Amoako-Kwakey (2010) & Manu (2006)



Appendix E

University of Cape Coast

Faculty of Social Sciences-CHLS

Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management

In-depth Interview Guide _Convenience Sampling

Introduction to interviewee

I am a PhD candidate doing a grounded theory research into tourist experiences with Ghanaian cuisine. I will be grateful if you could tell me all your experiences with Ghanaian cuisines as objective as much as possible.

Thank you.

Personal data

Country of origin	
Reasons for visit	
Length of stay	
Places visited	
Expenditure on food	
Date of birth	
Travel party	

Grand Tours Questions

Can you tell me about your experiences with Ghanaian cuisine starting from searching and planning through to after consumption? [Break it down after by asking the following questions for clarification]

- 1 The pre-consumption experience [which involves the search, planning, daydreaming about and foreseeing or imagining the experience];

- 2 The purchasing experience [which involves choosing the item, payment and packaging, as well as the encounter with the service and the environment];
- 3 The core consumption experience [which involves sensation, satiety, satisfaction or dissatisfaction, irritation or flow and transformation]: and
- 4 The remembered consumption experience and the nostalgia experience, with photos being used to re-live past experiences through narratives or arguments with friends about the past, all of which tends to culminate in a classification of memories.

*Encourage interviewees to speak by stating, "Please can you go on", "please is that all" interject where necessary and probe.

* As much as possible allow interviewees to speak their minds. You only moderate.

*[Probe for the 4Es and others and the elements under them-emotions, cognitions, behavioural]

Appendix F

University of Cape Coast
Faculty of Social Sciences-CHLS
Department Of Hospitality and Tourism Management
In-depth Interview Guide_ Refined Question after Day One

Introduction to interviewee

I am a PhD candidate doing a grounded theory research into tourist experiences with Ghanaian cuisine. I will be grateful if you could tell me all your experiences with Ghanaian cuisines as objective as much as possible.

Thank you.

Personal data

Country of origin	
Reasons for visit	
Length of stay	
Places visited	
Expenditure on food	
Date of birth	
Travel party	

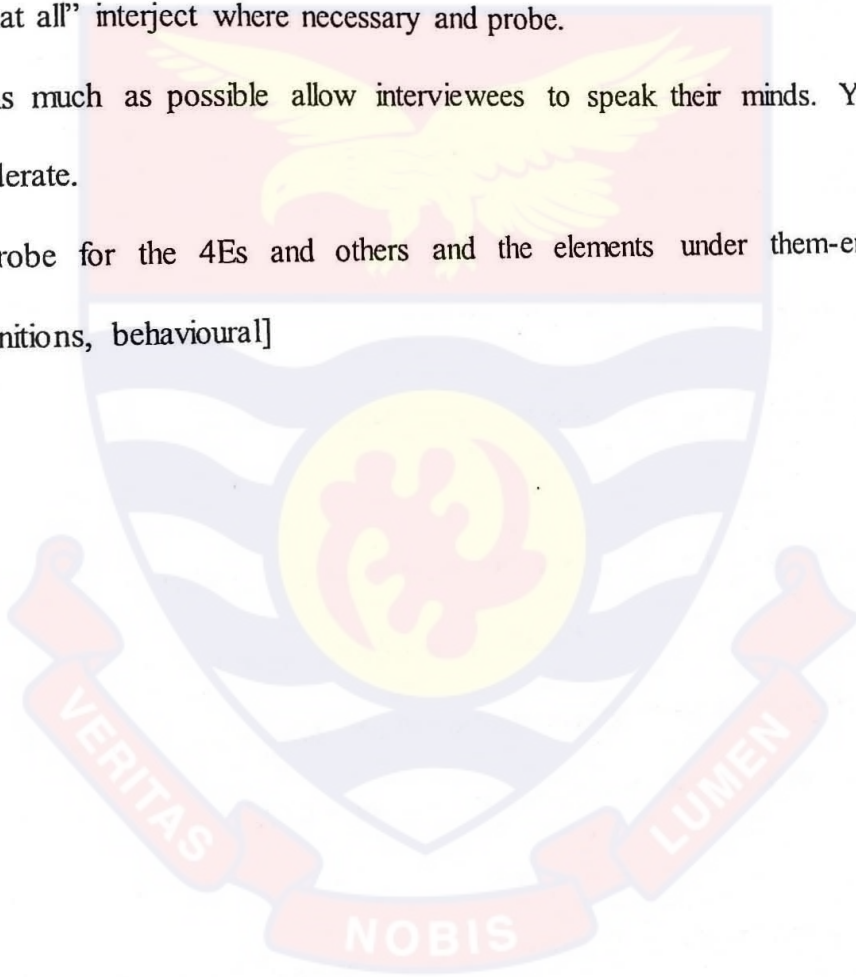
1. How did you get to know about Ghanaian local dishes? What messages did the information convey about the food and drinks? Did it influence your desire to try the food?
2. How will you describe your purchase experience including item selection [for first time visit] the environment [atmosphere, ambience, sanitation etc], service, presentation and appearance of food?

3. How will you describe your core consumption experiences in relation to attributes of the food [taste, texture, temperature, quality, quantity] etc
4. What are some of the memories that you will take with you?/ do you have anything to remember your experiences with?

*Encourage interviewees to speak by stating, "Please can you go on", "please is that all" interject where necessary and probe.

* As much as possible allow interviewees to speak their minds. You only moderate.

*[Probe for the 4Es and others and the elements under them-emotions, cognitions, behavioural]



Appendix G

University of Cape Coast

Faculty of Social Sciences-CHLS

Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management

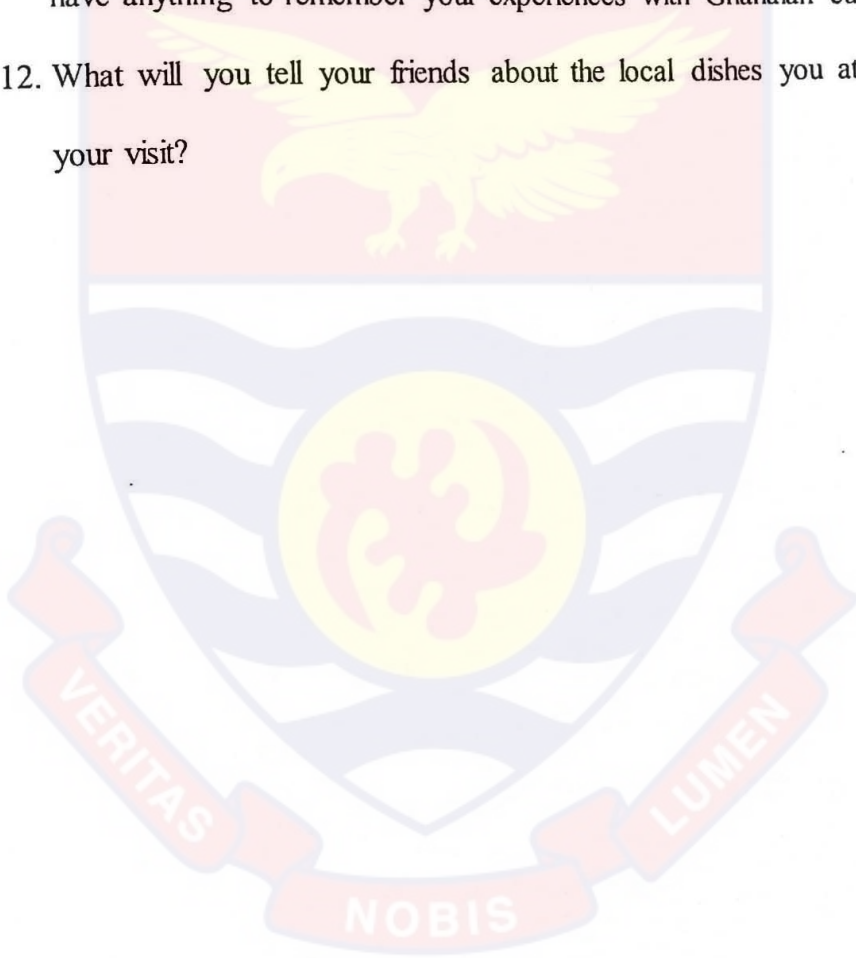
In-depth Interview Guide_ Purposive Sampling Stage

Personal data

Country of origin	
Reasons for visit	
Length of stay	
Places visited	
Expenditure on food	
Date of birth	
Travel party	

1. How did you get to know about Ghanaian local dishes before arriving in the country?
2. What kind of information were you looking for/what kind of information were you given about Ghanaian cuisine?
3. What messages did the information convey about the food and drinks?
4. How did the information you receive/get influence your desire to try the food?
5. How did you feel being a foreign visitor in a local restaurant and trying to buy local cuisine?
6. How did the locals in the restaurant treat or see you?
7. How did you go about selecting one item over the other?
8. Please describe how you felt about the vending environment and the service.

9. How will you describe your core consumption experiences in relation to the attributes of the food [taste, flavour, texture, temperature, quality, quantity] etc.
10. What do you like about the food you ate and what don't you like about them and others you did not eat?
11. What are some of the memories that you will take with you? / do you have anything to remember your experiences with Ghanaian cuisine?
12. What will you tell your friends about the local dishes you ate during your visit?



Appendix H

University of Cape Coast

Faculty of Social Sciences-CHLS

Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management

In-depth Interview Guide _ Theoretical Sampling Stage

Personal data

Country of origin	
Reasons for visit	
Length of stay	
Places visited	
Expenditure on food	
Date of birth	
Travel party	

1. Information search experience

- What sources of information did you consult with regard to Ghanaian cuisine before coming?
- How will you describe the source and the information got (informative, uninformative/ adequate, inadequate)
- Did you consult any local for information on the food when you came in? (locals/cultural care givers)
- What are you reasons for consulting them?
- How did the information you receive from them influence your purchase decision?
- What other information did you look for on Ghana?

2. Motivation for eating Ghanaian cuisine

- a. Please can we talk about the motivation behind your preference for Ghanaian local cuisine while here in Ghana?
3. Please can you describe your purchase experience? Your actual encounter with the vending environment.
 - a. Attitude of services, wait time, aesthetics, sanitation, information supply
 - b. Service quality
 - c. Value for money
4. Please can we talk about your consumption itself? The food that you have tried so far what do you like or dislike about them in terms of;
 - a. Flavour (taste and smell)
 - b. Odour
 - c. Texture (how it feels in your mouth)
 - d. Tactile (how it feels in your hands)
 - e. Appearance, colour, size, shape
5. Health properties of the food
 - a. Food quality
 - b. Food safety
 - c. Healthy options
6. How do you intend to relive your experiences with the food you have tried so far?